

**ADVANCES IN
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Videoscene as a possibility of scenic time resignification and expansion

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ABSTRACT

This work aims to discuss the notion of narrativity in dance from three pieces in which videoscenes were used as a resource for resignifying time perception in the scene. In each of them, the usage of video has a distinct function: in one of them, it represents memories of the main character; In another, it portrays the character's pregnancy; In the third, it has two distinct functions: at times it functions as a flashback and, at other times, to represent the hallucination of the character in a feverish state. From these experiences, the developed proposal is that the projection of a videoscene over the live-action scene helped, in these pieces, the design of dramaturgic dance scripts that favored the fusion of scene with life, bringing the story closer to a "real" chronology – which is called, in this work, of "time resignifying the scene", as an expansion of the scenic time.

Keywords: Videoscene; scenic time; dramaturgy in dance; videodance; art and life

In this work I discuss the notion of narrativity in dance based on three shows developed under my artistic direction, at University of Campinas, Brazil, in which videoscenes¹ were used as a means to resignify the scenic time. In the first one, titled "Se você se perdesse de si"², the function of the videoscene is to reminisce childhood moments of the main character, who develops Alzheimer's disease in the story told throughout the dance piece. In the show, chronologically, the story begins with the main character in her middle ages and her two adult children. The video, projected at the end of the show and simultaneously to the last live scene, refers to an earlier time (memories of the character with Alzheimer's disease, in a moment when she and her daughter were in a circus). In the dance piece "Lamento"³, the dancer found herself pregnant in the initial phase of the creation process, so we decided to create the dance piece as an expression of motherhood, making a video of the character in two distinct stages (at the beginning and at the end of pregnancy). The live show features the baby's participation in the scene, already 9 months old, together with simultaneous projections of images of the pregnant ballerina over the scene. In the third show, "Carcará"⁴, the video has two distinct dramaturgical functions: sometimes telling a flashback (facts that happened before the moment the show portrays) and, at other times, showing the hallucination of the character in a feverish state.

¹ I choose to use the term "videoscene" and not "videotape", because the work is exactly about a specific way of using the video as a component of dramaturgic dance script, composing together with what is happening in the live spectacle. The term "video-cena" is not currently used in Portuguese, as I explain forward, so is a kind of neologism crafted for this work.

² This title could be translated as "If you lost yourself from your self".

³ "Lamento" can be translated as "Lament". It is a kind of melancholic song that expresses grief also present in capoeira.

⁴ "Carcará" is a south american bird of prey.

From these experiences, I realized that in all of these works, the projection of a videoscene over the live scene helped in the conception of the dramaturgic scripts, favoring the fusion of the scene with life and approaching the story of a "real" chronology - what I call, in this article, resignification, or expansion of scenic time. In a previous work (Andraus, forthcoming), I discussed the notion of expanded time in the first of these works, "Se você se perdesse de si", analyzing the performance of the second dancer, who simultaneously performs two roles in the scene: the main character's eldest daughter and a younger version of the main character; "Bringing to the spectacle inversions of chronology aligned with the proposal to portray the loss of memory that, in addition to being gradual, is nonlinear" (ANDRAUS, forthcoming). For that, I created a metaphor for the idea of "doubling time", inspired by an anime series called "Avatar: the legend of Aang" (2003-2008). I noticed, after I wrote that passage, that in the other artistic works that I was supervising and directing, the videoscenes also carried out specific narrative functions, not limited to the role of visual environment (PRESTON-DUNLOP, 1987) or an a priori stimulus for creation: Projection of the video is part of underlying key concepts in all these spectacles. In addition, the video has in all of these works the role of expanding the time of the scene in order to have a broader "narrated time", so to speak. To conceptualize time, the section 1 of this paper starts from philosophical precepts about the perception of the passage of time in interlocution with notions of dramaturgy.

I realised that it was also important to problematise the very use of the term videodance, subject of section 2, since this presupposes independence in relation to the face-to-face show and, in the case of the three works under analysis, they do not have this characteristic of independent art work – despite only making sense when projected onto the scene. In addition, in the three works, the video brings hybridity between dance and other artistic languages: in "Lamento", with the theatrical dance Odissi; in "Se você se perdesse de si", with circus language; in "Carcará", with the theatrical language. I choose, therefore, the use of the term videoscene, which I intend to conceptualize here.

Finally, I elaborate a discussion, in section 3, based on the concepts raised and motivated by the possibility of using video as a resource to expand the time of the scene, that seeks to contribute with the current notions of narrativity in dance.

SENSES OF TIME AND NOTIONS OF DRAMATURGY

The proposal of writing about the resignification of time requires, at first, a look at the concept of the passage of time, a theme studied in different fields of research, ranging from physics to philosophy and history. Souza (2016) elucidates:

[...] time is not only something that exists outside of the human being and in which he is immersed, the human being has constructed it and made it in different ways.

Such construction has acquired distinct meanings in diverse contexts and in differentiated societies. Time, therefore, is an essentially ambiguous construction when seen in historical terms, being necessary, in this case, to differentiate itself from temporality. Time is what passes - present, past and future -, while temporality is the social construction of time; historically changeable and a socially specific construction (SOUZA, 2016, p. 8, my translation).

According to the cited author, temporalities have different rhythms, being able to have continuous or discontinuous duration and different dimensions in the field of social, cultural, political or economic life. The author conceptualizes different types: individual time, that would be referring to the daily life; historical time, which would be the period of time in which individual times interact with each other; universal time, which is measured in the same way

on the whole planet; local temporalities, defined from different cultures; natural time, which is measured from the calendar and, at the same time, endowed with specificity (SOUZA, 2016). He conceptualizes historical time as follows:

Historical time can also be defined as the basic structure of the past, from which historical sense develops. This sense, however, is a linguistic representation expressed, for example, from periodization without, however, that historical time ceasing to be part of the internal structure of the past reality (SOUZA, 2016, p. 9, my translation).

It is from this specific understanding that I propose to think about the resignification of time in this work, understanding the crucial role of memory as a resource that the dancer has to portray the past on the scene. Ferracini and Feitosa (2017), when discussing the concept of presence in philosophy and the performing arts, consider:

The human being [...] does not live in the now, but in history. History is the relationship mediated by language over time. That is why Heidegger has repeated so many times that it is not we who speak the language, but it is it which speaks us [Die Sprache spricht], that is, we can neither enunciate nor experience the here and now, for when we try, it has already changed, so great is the fluidity of the world's becoming (FERRACINI, FEITOSA, 2017, pp. 109-110, my translation).

Here, although the dramaturgy in the field of dance is discussed - for the specificity of the spectacles under analysis - this discussion is made in the light of the concept of dramaturgy originating in the theatrical field. Pavis (2001) conceptualizes dramaturgy as

[...] the technique (or poetics) of dramatic art, which seeks to establish the principles of construction of the work, whether inductively from concrete examples, or deductively from a system of abstract principles. This notion presupposes a set of specifically theatrical rules whose knowledge is indispensable for writing a piece and analysing it correctly (PAVIS 2001, p. 113, my translation).

From this conceptualization, and from the fact that dramaturgy is also a field of research from Literature, Silva conceptualizes dramaturgy in relation to historical experience and refers to the character of non-ephemeral written record that dramaturgy brings to the play, making it possible to relate art and society:

Drama, which is also a literary style, is an element of relationship with the world and presents us with individuals capable of elaborating their own historical experience. Drama has a significant place in the field of the Arts of the Scene because we understand that this language [is] also a non-ephemeral written record that contributes to the understanding of various factors of human life, whether art or society (SILVA, 2013, p. 70, my translation).

Based on the understanding of dramaturgy as an element that makes possible to think about the historicity of facts, this work is imbued with a broader and interdisciplinary theoretical body, moving between dance, theatre and performance. I understand dramaturgy as a way to play with the narrative structure in dance, creating distinct proposals of resignification of time regarding narrativity.

In dance, more specifically, there are conceptualizations of dramaturgy more closely related to the body itself and the chaining of bodily actions, as Katz points out:

Jean-Marc Adolphe says that in the first SKITe, held in Paris in 1992, Corrado Bertoni, who was working with Caterina Sagna at the time, suggested a substitution game for dramaturgy: "dramasurgy" (to prioritize the emergence of the action), "dramapurgy"

(to emphasize the purging or purification of action), and he himself proposed another, "drama-urgy" (highlighting the urgency of action).

As you can see, the word changes, but its focus remains. What counts is the action that the body accomplishes, that is, what counts is what is happening in it. In the case of dance, this action refers directly to the steps and gestures and the way they are shown (KATZ, 2010, p. 163, my translation).

The author continues:

In the second SKITe, which took place in Lisbon two years later, Adolphe coordinated an atelier on dramaturgy, from the establishment of an agreement that a possible dance dramaturgy would be linked to the movement. The aim was to think about the existence of a dramaturgy of the movement that was the result of more or less visible forces, and whose tensions would shape the pertinence of this movement. That would be the dramaturgy. Meaning that the dance movement that a body makes would be the guarantee of dance dramaturgy (KATZ, 2010, p. 163, my translation).

Katz further clarifies, in the same article, that the hypothesis that illuminates the text is that dramaturgy in dance must recognize its own genealogy and go back to the "consolidation of dance as an autonomous art" (p. 164), that invites to think the dramaturgy in the dance from the praxis of dancers, specifically, in this field. According to the author, "When one understands that this autonomy has been conditioned to the meeting, hitherto inexistent, between expression (pantomime) and technique (dance steps), it is clear that it is the need to communicate that guides the menu of autonomy" (KATZ, 2010, 64, my translation).

The author reports Noverre as the first choreographer to use dramatic narratives in his compositions, clarifying that he does so within the Aristotelian understanding of interpretation (making it clear that already in court ballets there was concern with dramatic action and, therefore, the inauguration of the characteristics that would define the ballet of action can not be attributed to Noverre).

The court ballet had been a step in this direction, when integrating the elements already present in the intermezzos and masquerades, created in the celebrations and dances of the Italian and French Renaissance. Thus, in relation to the court ballet, it is possible to identify, in the 17th century, the use of a structured plot (which gives it a dramatic unity) and the imitation of nature in the sense that the ballet of action would use. The difference lies in the fact that this plot is still linked to the song sung and the recitatives that would be eliminated in the ballet of action, later. The court ballet gathered dance, recitatives, and chants in a dramatic plot and using allegories (KATZ, 2010, p.165, my translation).

The author explains that allegories are despised by Noverre, citing a passage in which he criticizes the "dancing the Winds with a bellows in hand, with windmills on the head, with feather dresses, to characterize the lightness" (NOVERRE, apud MONTEIRO, 1998, p.44). What drives me in the present work, however, is the idea that it is possible to abandon the obsolete mannerisms and allegories of classical dance without abandoning its basic structuring of spectacles, that is, the fable, or storytelling.

From a postmodern perspective, when dance finally breaks with the traditions of classical ballet and also with the traditions of modern dances, the concept of research for the construction of choreographic vocabulary becomes predominant, and to this day it cannot be said, as I understand it, that there is no "contemporary dance", in the singular. Bales (2008)

makes an important distinction by arguing that modernism in dance only came into the postmodern period, since the forerunners of modern dance also eventually created their own techniques, founding companies in which the dancer had to master very specific codes to be able to dance the spectacles (the company of Graham would be an iconic example, according to the author). Quoting Thomas Kuhn and the notion of paradigmatic shift, Bales locates in the Judson period a real moment of disruption from pre-established norms.

What we have today in dance, then, is a notion of "redefinition" dramaturgy, guided by the investigation of the dancer's own movement and body as a foundational element for creation. In spite of the merit of these investigations, for this specific work they do not support the concept proposed here, since the three spectacles analysed rest on the border between dance and theatre, and not exactly from the perspective of the so-called "theatrical dance" or numerous investigations derived from the genealogy of Laban; but rather rests on a proposal for a reaction to the contemporary moment in which we live in dance, in which many dancers and choreographers seem to be afraid of the dance show structured dramatically from the point of classical theatre, that is, from the point of view of storytelling).

Lehmann (2013) published a review of post-dramatic theatre entitled "Post-dramatic Theatre, twelve years later", in which he considers the twelve years of the use of the term post-dramatic theatre at the end of the article. The following passage stands out:

Another tendency [...] may perhaps dispel some prejudices about the role and importance of the word. The language of the body is not everything. Now a new importance of text, word, and narrative can be observed, which had been replaced in the early 1980s and 1990s by visual explorations, even though the verbal dimension has never really disappeared. There are now a large number of theatrical works based on epic texts and novels. Principals often prefer epic texts, narration, or even commentaries or theoretical texts, rather than dramatic texts. The theatre has developed countless ways of telling stories without falling into the tradition of realistic dramatic representation and closed fiction. Sometimes the reference to film narrative comes into play. Directors like Robert Lepage make elaborate use of cinematic style, video, film, epic narration, collage and other technological devices. [...] It is interesting to note that Angela Schalenec of the New Berlin School of Filmmakers also works with theater - the so-called Berlin School focuses on the narration style that is consciously dedramatized and emphasizes patient observation of everyday activities. It can be argued that this type of tendency in the cinema and post-dramatic theatre is interrelated in a way that has yet to be theoretically explored (Lehman, 2013, p. 869, my translations).

The present work, when seeking a dialogue with theatrical dramaturgy within dance, but not limited to the references on dramaturgy in dance, seeks a different form of interdisciplinarity between dance and theatre: it seeks to place dramaturgy as a question in these new times when the technology opens possibilities in the field of experimentation, especially in the case of the relations between video and scene. For this, I continue on to the next topic, where I establish premises from which the works under analysis are developed, especially in what concerns the relations of the video with the scene.

VIDEODANCE OR VIDEOSCENE?

Videodance is an artistic language characterized as hybrid because it is not only about dance (for example, a videotape with dance), nor just about video - like what we see in the cinema, where even when there is dance, it does not coincide with the whole of the work and its aesthetic conception. It is hybridity itself that defines videodance. According to Souza:

At the beginning of this century we witnessed the popularisation (and even a certain fashion) of videodance in Brazil. This language, which emerged from the relations between cinema and dance in the twentieth century, is not new in the country. Ana Livia Cordeiro developed works that explored the relationship between dance and video in the 1970s, but only now we see more attention to this language (already popular in European countries and in the United States) by artists, researchers and Brazilian institutions. However, we find a limited number of publications on this subject in the country, which can lead to impoverishment of its possibilities of investigation and understanding (2008, p.1, my translation).

Nine years after the publication of the aforementioned article, it is observed that the number of publications on videodance specifically increased significantly, although the term videoscene, in Brazilian Portuguese, is predominantly associated with more limited works in the areas of visual arts and cinema - sometimes in collaboration with actors -, than as a subject matter of the performing artists.

In a bibliographical survey carried out for writing this article, using as a search source the Google Scholar tool and the terms "videodança" and "videocena" (in Brazilian Portuguese), there are several publications on videodance, among them the master's dissertation "Dança, Cine-dança, video-dance, cyber-dance: dance, technology and communication", by Cristiane do Rocio Wosniak (2006); the work "Choreographing videodance: Contemplation 2 as a laboratory of creation", by Schulze (2012), presented in the annals of the II National Congress of Researchers in Dance (Anda); the article "Creation in dance through digital tools" (Schulze, 2011), the dissertation "Studies and experiments in videodance: a collaborative work between the visual and corporal artist", Borges (2014); among others, denoting that this is a trend in the field of dance, especially in the case of research on the articulation between dance and technology. It is observed that there is an already extensive bibliography on videodance, about which the present study does not focus because its focus is on a conception of dramaturgy related to narrativity (and not to movement), and to the videoscene as a compositional element of spectacles (and not just independent videodance).

The term videoscene, in these surveys, brought results more specifically circumscribed to the visual arts, or even to the cinema. Discussions specifically about the use of videoscenes projected over the scene as part of the dramaturgical composition in dance were not found. This leads me to propose and develop two concepts for this work: the videoscene, understood as an artistic work in video of interdisciplinary character between dance, theatre and circus (in addition to the language of the video); and the idea of metaphorically expanding the time of the scene from dramatic constructions that start from the projection of videos on the live scene, articulating these projections to the actions carried out in a systematic way.

The interest in elaborating a written reflection emerged, as explained previously, from the practice of directing dance pieces, first with undergraduate dance students and, later, with postgraduate students. In "Se você se perdesse de si", the choice to create the video reflected something more than the desire to experience the hybridization between video and scene: the show under construction called for the possibility of interposing past time to present time narrated in (and by) the spectacle. In the following shows, this need has again emerged, with videos exerting distinct narrative functions.

"Se você se perdesse de si" is a dance piece about Alzheimer's disease. Three characters interact in this show: the mother, carrier of the disease, a son and a daughter. The show works with other hybrid aspects in addition to the relationships of the video with the scene: the

musician that authored the soundtrack also acted as an interpreter-dancer and produces part musical score of the scene live, on stage. In the videotape, which is the oldest memory of the character, uses a fusion of the languages of dance and circus. The spectacle, alone, would not be able to represent both times - past and present - without using as a resource some speech that would explain the previous context. The projection of the video on the scene (Figure 1) makes possible to tell the two times through the dramaturgy constructed as dance, in the live scene.

In the final scene, the mother (played by Andreia Andrade), already in an advanced stage of the disease, is sitting in a chair, in the live scene, seeing her daughter playing on a swing. The other dancer (daughter, played by Milena Pereira) is both, as her younger self, on a circus trapeze in the video projected, and live on the scene, older and caring for her mother, who almost no longer moves by herself.



Figure 1. Screenshot of "Se você se perdesse de si"⁵. The lighting and projected video colours together make up the desired aesthetics. In the photo: Andreia Andrade and Milena Pereira. Filming and edition: Leonardo Lin. Soundtrack and musical of the dance piece: Gustavo Pimentel. Musical track of the video: Eduardo Scaramuzza. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Department of Performing Arts, University of Campinas, 2015.

In the dance piece "Lamento" (Figures 2-6), the video also comes as part of the scene with images of the beginning and end of pregnancy, related to the myth of Iemanjá, an Afro-Brazilian deity also to the mermaid myth. The two videos, both the beginning of pregnancy and the end, were made in the city of Ilhabela, state of São Paulo, with a blue hanging fabric.

⁵ Available on: <https://youtu.be/oP2XL2Xqzc0>



Figure 2. Screenshot of "Lamento". In this scene, the ballerina (Clara Heider) is pregnant for almost nine months. Filming and editing: Leonardo Lin. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Ilhabela, 2015.

From the two first videos (during pregnancy), another one was edited that came to compose, along with the live scene, the dance piece "Lamento"⁶. The videos were transmitted as if through a window, telling the trajectory of pregnancy while, at the scene, the mother dances (first on her own and finally with the baby).



Figure 3. Screenshot of the dance piece "Lamento". In this scene, the dancer (Clara Heider) dances with her daughter. Musician on stage: Iago Tojal. Filming and edition: Leonardo Lin. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Department of Performing Arts, University of Campinas, 2016.

The transition between the video projected in the first scene and the live show takes place through a jump that the mermaid performs, jumping from a rock and swimming in the ocean

⁶ Available on: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wzfNNYNM_us&t=1167s)

towards the horizon (Figure 4), enchanting and inviting the viewer to the bottom of the sea (Figure 5). The hanging fabric curls around her legs, suggesting the image of the mermaid. The image came to be a hook between the scenes in the composition of the dramaturgic script of the spectacle. After the enchantment, the image of the video contrasts with the image that is beginning to happen in the live scene, of a mermaid attached to the earth, in black clothes, more fish than human. The spectacle discusses the reality of motherhood, in her most fleshly aspect, in contrast to the mythical character of the great mother (as Iemanjá, or Iara⁷) who welcomes everyone to the world.



Figure 4. Screenshot of "Lamento". Dancer: Clara Heider. Filming and edition: Leonardo Lin. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Ilhabela, 2015.



Figure 5. Screenshot of "Lamento". Dancer: Clara Heider. Filming and edition: Leonardo Lin. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Ilhabela, 2015.

⁷ Iara is another Brazilian myth, related to indigenous culture (this word is from Tupi vocabulary).



Figure 6. Screenshot of "Lamento". Dancer: Clara Heider. Filming and edition: Leonardo Lin. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Ilhabela, 2015.

Again, the full dramaturgy would not be complete only by means of the live scene, making it interesting to hybridize the video and the scene to the intended poetic vision.

The third dance piece, "Carcará" (2017) as the most recent and still not available in the internet, uses the video in a third way, differently from the previous ones. The show was inspired by a tale called Sarapalha, part of a book called Sagarana, written by Guimarães Rosa⁸. In the story, two cousins (Argemiro and Ribeiro) are dying of malaria⁹ and, in the course of the story, it turns out that Argemiro had a secret love for Luísa, Ribeiro's wife. Luisa had run away with a farmer, having escaped from sickness and death.

The actor-dancer interprets alone the three characters: the man (who is a mixture of Ribeiro and Argemiro, both with fever and delirious), the woman (Luiza) and the mosquito (final scene). The video, in this case, was designed so that the actor-dancer developed the character Luiza, whose "body state" (gesture and movement idiosyncrasies) had previously been developed in practice creation laboratories. The scenes related to the past (story about Luiza escaping by train) were edited in sepia (Figure 6), and scenes related to the present (Ribeiro-Argemiro hallucinations, which occur during the live scene) were edited in colour (Figure 7). Throughout the show, we introduce - with increasing intensity - a blurred effect in these images, due to the hallucination of the character increasing throughout the story.

⁸ João Guimarães Rosa (1908-1967) was a Brazilian writer, diplomat, novelist, short story writer and physician, considered one of the greatest Brazilian writers of all time.

⁹ Malaria is an infectious disease transmitted by mosquitoes, common in tropical countries. The most common symptoms are fever, fatigue, vomiting and headaches. In severe cases it can cause jaundice, seizures, coma and death.



Figure 7. Screenshot of the show "Carcará". Sepia representing the past, when Luiza ran away on a train. Dancer-actor: Vinicius Selingardi Pianca. Filming and edition: Maurício Ribeiro. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Train Station of Jaguaríuna, 2017.



Figure 8. Screenshot of the video projected over the show "Carcará", representing present time: hallucination of Argemiro and Ribeiro. Dancer-actor: Vinicius Selingardi Pianca. Filming and edition: Maurício Ribeiro. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Train Station of Jaguaríuna, 2017.

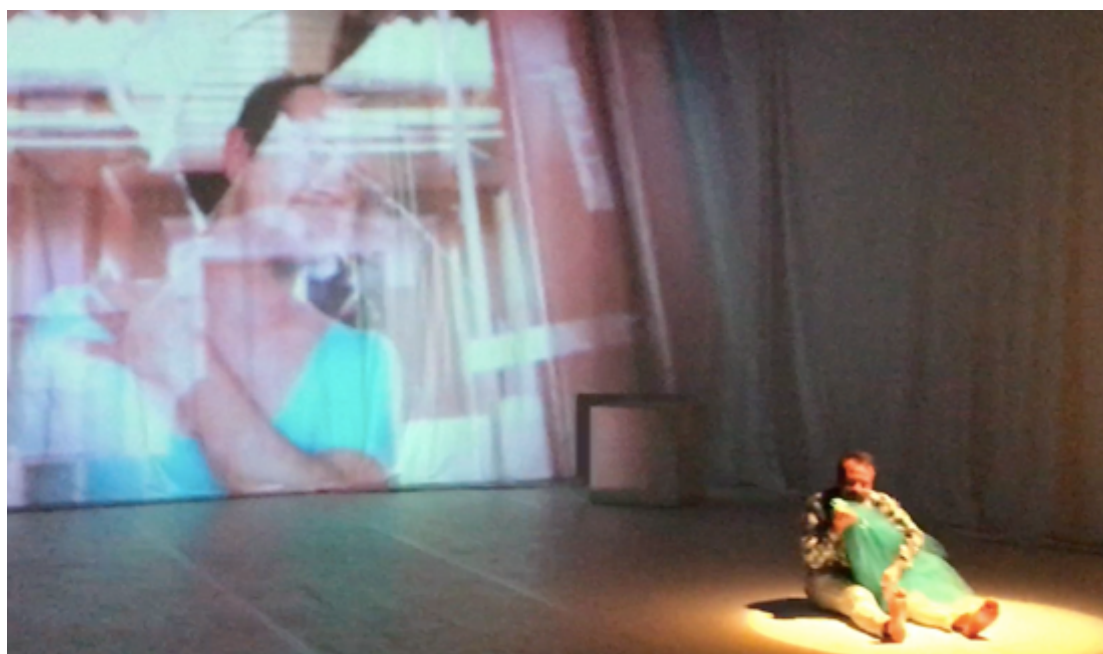


Figure 9. Screenshot of videographic record of the live spectacle "Carcará". Present time: Ribeiro-Argemiro embraces Luiza's skirt, and what his hallucination appears on the screen. The costumes are theatrical properties present in both the scene and the video, as a self-reference link between the two. Dancer-actor: Vinicius Selingardi Pianca. Filming and edition: Maurício Ribeiro. Directed by: Mariana Baruco M. Andraus. Department of Performing Arts, University of Campinas, 2017.

DISCUSSION

The experience of directing these dance pieces brought interest in conceptualizing the praxis common to all of them – although not exactly the same in each one of them – to use the video as a resource to compose the dramaturgy of these works. In a recent event promoted by the Performing Arts Department of University of Campinas, it was in discussion the reason behind the use of the word dramaturgy in dance, when what the great majority of dancers seek is a non-dramaturgy. Drama, after all, in the theatre, has its original classical meaning anchored in the idea of fable, of storytelling – from which the term originates, by the etymological origin of the term “drama”.

In the history of dance, spectacles that make history are frequent in the classic and romantic ballets; after the advent of modern dance, and especially in the postmodern period (1960s-1970s and onwards), the concept of dramaturgy in dance increasingly falls far short of the idea of action, and the research of movement itself takes precedence over storytelling.

In a certain way, the language of dance – because it does not always count on the expression of the spoken word – sometimes runs into limits when it comes to telling a story. The spectacles under analysis on this paper are examples in which it might not be so simple to close the narratives if the video did not enter as a resource for navigating through time, expanding it, metaphorically, or resignifying it (literally). The video makes possible to deal with past times and future times; makes possible to deal with alternate, nowhere times (hallucinations) and memories; entails in itself many possibilities of composition together with the scene. Whether at the beginning, during or at the end of the show, the signs are built into it to signify, when in conjunction with the scene. The video also makes possible to bring other locations into the stage – places that, without this feature, could at most be represented, such as an old moving train, the sea or a circus.

From a technical point of view, the video has also the potential to compose with lighting. In the three shows, in designing and testing the lighting, we realized that certain shades did not need to be emphasized in the illumination map because the video itself would project those shades on the scene, or we would deliberately overlap shades – for example, in “Carcará”, when using red lighting on the blue skirt, we looked for a tonality closer to the purple and that contrasted with the turquoise blue of the video, valued at other times. The interpreter sometimes composed with his own shadow over the projected video. For example, at the premiere, the actor-dancer used the smoke of a cigarette (lit on the scene) over the shadow of the smoke in the projected scene, which was enlarged, drawing the attention of the spectator to this game of overlapping light, shadow and smoke. As the three works are based on structured improvisation, playing like this is fully possible.

FINAL REMARKS

The article proposed to discuss the notion of narrativity in dance from three dance pieces in which videoscenes were used as a resource for resignifying the passage of time of the full spectacle. Due to the limits of a written article like this one, the three shows were not fully described. The shows were commented with emphasis especially on the aspects that justify the importance of the video in the scene for the conceptual composition of the work.

I tried to demonstrate that the projection of video on the scene can help in the design of dramaturgic scripts for dance that favoured the fusion of the recorded scene with life, approaching the story of a “real” chronology, making possible to bring to the scene other places and other times referred in the narrated story (in the examples cited, past and future tenses), thus making possible to conceptualize the metaphorical notion of expanding the time of the scene.

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Life after formal employment: A comparative study of female 'garments and textiles' and 'all other' factory workers in Sri Lanka

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ABSTRACT

This paper compares the post-employment social, political and economic profiles of women previously employed in Sri Lanka's formal manufacturing sector. We surveyed 1031 female respondents, consisting of 775 former garment and textile (G&T) and 256 'all other' ('other') former factory workers. Results showed that women who had worked in G&T factories were significantly more likely to have reported bringing back 'useful' skills and knowledge upon their return home. However, those previously employed in 'other' factories were 1.49 times more likely to report feeling greater acceptance from communities; as well as slightly higher rates of political participation. Regardless of such differences, a significant proportion across both groups shared a sense of self-confidence – even having set up their own businesses or now owning properties since leaving formal employment. Thus, contrary to the negative portrayal of factory work in Sri Lanka and the purported 'plight' of its largely female labor force, our research has found that most women – regardless of prior workplace – had retained and built upon their socio-economic capital across many important aspects of their lives.

Key words: Empowerment, export processing zones, post-employment profile, Sri Lanka, textile and garment industry, women in manufacturing

INTRODUCTION

In order to grow their economies, the Governments of most developing countries adopted approaches typified by 'export-driven industrialisation'. The continued expansion of special Export Processing Zones (EPZs) has occurred over several decades; and by 2006, a total of 3500 EPZs had been established in 130 countries (Milberg and Amengual 2008). Such EPZs are 'statutorily created', used to attract foreign investment; and in exchange, investors receive government-granted fiscal incentives, with access to a cheap and reliable labor force – usually young women (Waters 2013). Consequently, there has been a significant increase in young female employees entering export-oriented manufacturing industries across the developing world. This is despite sustained international concerns about the lack of "decent work" created in the zones for these women; with Sri Lanka's EPZs listed among them (Aggarwal 2005;

Hancock et al. 2015; Milberg and Amengual 2008; Macchiavello et al. 2015; Miles 2016; Waters 2013, 481).

Several longstanding issues that continue to confront female factory workers in Sri Lanka have been well documented. Aside from being exposed to poor working conditions, historically, female factory workers have been disrespected and subjected to derogatory comments, public humiliation, lack of recognition and poor political status (Abeywardene et al. 1994; Athukorala and Jayasuriya 2004; Hancock, et al. 2015). As such, the bulk of discussions on female factory workers in Sri Lanka portray women not as autonomous 'agents of change', but rather as the 'flaccid pawns' of capitalism, with the perceived 'place of women' theoretically grounded in 'neoliberalist' and 'gendered thoughts' (Hancock et al. 2014; Perera-Desilva, 2015).

Our previous study entitled, '*Gender, status and empowerment*', investigated the experiences of women employed in factory work, focusing specifically on female Sri Lankan EPZ workers (Hancock et al. 2014). Contrary to common perception, most respondents reported feeling 'empowered'; revealing that in spite of facing societal and work related negative forces, they saw themselves as active 'agents of change' – with deliberate strategies to empower themselves and their families. However, this was conducted while EPZ workers were still engaged in formal employment (Hancock et al. 2014). As such, although continuing to address the rather poor conditions in which female manufacturing industry workers are employed is indeed warranted, we argue that there is also a need to discuss the goals and lived experiences of Sri Lankan women after they leave formal employment; thereby filling a clear gap in existing knowledge.

Consequently, the current study was conducted with female former factory workers in their respective villages, subsequent to returning home from formal employment. However, it should be noted that while many of our participants had been employed in EPZs across Sri Lanka, around 30% did not work in these zones. Therefore our focus is not solely on the experiences of former EPZs workers and surveys were conducted with Sri Lankan women who had previously worked in garment and textile (G&T) factories as well as 'all other' ('other') factory types, generally – ranging from tea and food production, to toy and rubber manufacturing.

As discussed below, the majority of females employed in EPZs and formal manufacturing (in general), work in G&T factories, with this trend reflected in our sample. Despite the differences in sub-sample sizes, we found that a proportionately similar number of respondents in both cohorts reported bringing back 'useful' skills or knowledge. Overall, the sample showed highly positive post-employment experiences across several other indicators that we believe, have not been adequately captured by previous researchers. Ultimately, such encouraging findings were deemed significant given the often negative portrayal of factory workers and thus, this data forms the theoretical and conceptual basis for this paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Export-oriented manufacturing is the mainstay of Sri Lanka's economy. This is particularly attributable to the government incentives to attract investors to the sector; including duty free imports of raw materials and exemption from national foreign exchange controls (see Arunatilake 2012; Agalewatte 2004; Milberg and Amengual 2008). According to Engman and Farole (2012), since 1977, factories in Sri Lanka have sought to create jobs and boost growth in exports and foreign exchange earnings. Manufacturing in Sri Lanka consists mainly of garment and textile (G&T) factories and although other sectors of manufacturing are also represented

nationally, the G&T industry earns the country much more in terms of foreign exchange (Athukorala and Jayasuriya 2004; Hancock et al. 2015).

Despite this, Sri Lanka's G&T factories have long been the center of negative reporting in the media and literature; presented as sites of 'poor' and 'unfair' working conditions. According to Arunatilake (2012), in order to better meet the vicissitudes of the global economy, investors are driven by profit, cost fixing and reduction. Consequently, individual factories operate on output-based systems, where their financial liquidity is invariably dependent on the demand for their goods in the global market. Accordingly, this economic rationalist approach has led to unfair labor relations, as well as the establishment of long working hours and low wages – particularly for G&T factory workers (Fernandez and Sotelo 2013; Sivananthiran 2008).

Since its emergence, Sri Lanka's manufacturing sector has targeted women for employment and has subsequently increased overall female labor force participation rates in the country (Hewamanne 2011). It has been established that 85% of the workforce in the G&T industry are female, many of whom appear unmarried and (or) between 16 and 19 years of age; commonly moving from the rural areas of Sri Lanka to seek economic betterment (Karunaratne and Abayasekara 2013; Perera-Desilva, 2015; Sivananthiran 2008). Gendered explanations dominate debate surrounding the purported socio-economic benefits these (young) female factory workers actually gain from formal employment, balanced against the potentially poor working conditions they experience and (or) dearth in welfare many are exposed to (Macchiavello et al. 2015; Miles 2016).

It was established in 2011 that female workers earn an average monthly salary of approximately 59.5 United States Dollars (USD) and if they worked overtime, received 179.7 USD (Hancock et al. 2011; Hancock, Moore and Middleton 2011). However, G&T industry employees traditionally work 12 hours or more, with shifts only consisting of a 30-minute break and 15-minute tea recess. Moreover, whilst many women are required to work night shifts and overtime they do not necessarily receive the commensurate penalty rates (Perera-Desilva 2015). Regardless of whether income is (considered) low or high, fair or inequitable, the money earned is commonly used to pay for on-going living and family expenses, rather than investing for their future. This suggests that any fiscal benefits from such paid work may be unsustainable upon leaving formal employment.

In addition to garment work enhancing these women's personal or familial wellbeing at the individual level (albeit, possibly only in the short-term), historical data indicates that garment exports have comprised 53% of Sri Lanka's total export earnings and 5.3% of its Gross Domestic Product (Agalewatte, 2004; Ambagahawatta, 2002; Boyenge, 2007). This is indicative of (young) Sri Lankan women's significant contribution to national economic development, not just their own (families') empowerment. Despite the positive impact these women have had on Sri Lanka's global standing and their apparently high representation in the nation's manufacturing sector, rather than solely an indication of 'progress' towards gender equality, several scholars attribute the persistent poor working conditions evident in the industry, to what they perceive as the clear over-representation and exploitation of female workers in such sectors of formal employment (Hancock et al. 2015; Karunaratne and Abayasekara 2013).

In fact, Perera-Desilva (2015) considers the participation of women in Sri Lankan social, political and cultural arenas as tokenism and 'representation visibility', which she argues is not equal to 'real' power. For the most part, this is because Sri Lanka remains a male-dominant society; with men expected to keep 'watchful eyes' over their 'domestic setting-oriented' sisters and wives. Although Perera-Desilva (2015) also argues that there have been some

improvements – with Sri Lanka having elected the modern world's first female Prime Minister and other important women in positions of power – it gives the erroneous impression that the country's women have broken all the barriers of patriarchy.

Such tokenism is also true of Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry, where the increased representation of female workers has not necessarily translated into good working conditions; nor has it allowed these women to universally exercise power, voice, agency or even their basic rights (Hancock et al. 2015; Perera-Desilva 2015). Female factory workers generally endure sexual harassment, violence and public ridicule for 'stepping out' into society for economic purposes – an action still considered unconventional in Sri Lanka (Perera-Desilva, 2015). They are often mocked and addressed with such sexist and derogatory names as 'garment kaalla' (garment piece), 'Juki kella' (juki girl) or 'Kalape kella' (Zone Girl) (Hancock et al. 2015; Perera-Desilva 2015). G&T workers are disproportionately exposed to societal prejudice in Sri Lanka. There is "a greater likelihood of being subjected to negativity if working in textile and garment factories... textile and garment workers experience poor social status and are often degraded by members of their community because of their work" (Hancock et al. 2015, 69; Hancock et al. 2011; Hancock, Moore and Middleton 2011).

Female factory workers are exposed to further gender-based discrimination, including issues related to health and wellbeing. Some workers are subjected to 'on-the-spot', randomized pregnancy tests. Common in developing nations is that if found to be pregnant, women can either be refused work or have their employment terminated (Ferus-Comelo, 2009). Indeed, Rajalaskshmi (1999) argued that the fear of being found pregnant leads some women to undertake unsafe abortions. Furthermore, female workers are potentially exposed to toxic chemicals and generally poor work environments, but do not necessarily seek medical assistance because of the associated cost of treatment and the fear of losing their job while absent (Hancock et al. 2011; Hancock, Moore and Middleton, 2011; Sivananthiran 2008). Female workers may also receive pay cuts or are dismissed when found by their employers to be tardy, frequent users of the lavatory, 'chatty', refuse more requests for overtime and are 'unable' to meet productivity targets (Cortés 2014; Sivananthiran 2008).

Samarasinghe and Ismail (2000) documented the psychological distress experienced by 1000 female workers employed in the G&T industry. Seeking to provide insights into the potential stressful conditions and psychological manifestations experienced by women, the authors found that living away from home, putrid living conditions, disruption to work and being the 'main' provider of family income, precipitated various psychological reactions among the women. They revealed that high levels of pressure exacerbated individuals' somatic and also depression levels, with some reporting intentions to commit suicide or use illegal substances (Samarasinghe and Ismail 2000). Despite the necessity of accessing/providing professional and individuated health support services having been made apparent almost two decades ago, more recent research has found that the 'need' to seek help continues to remain largely ignored by individuals with poor coping strategies; with services also not widely provided by employers. Arguably, this dearth in access/the provision of services reflects greater national trends, which are complicated by a socio-cultural disdain attached to seeking counseling in Sri Lanka (Chathurika 2015; Perera-Desilva 2015).

Far from "meek and docile", historically, 'working women' have long attempted to take collective action globally (Ferus-Comelo, 2009, 95). However, the existing literature suggests that any union-related activity among female factory workers to address the myriad of issues outlined above has been largely unachievable. Although some employee councils exist across Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry, they do not operate as traditional unionized bodies and

function under the patronage of individual employers (Hancock et al. 2015). Several scholars have argued that manufacturing sector employers in developing nations discourage such industrial employees' collective organizing with pay cuts and demotions (Boyenge 2007; Busser 2005; Ferus-Comelo. 2009; Ranaraja 2013). Others have attributed the lack of – or ineffective functioning of – official unions to the 'gendered expectation' that women (particularly from developing nations) will invariably endure any form of work without complaint; with the young age of most female factory workers (often aged 16 – 19) potentially increasing their submissiveness to employers and to their being more likely to be resigned to operating within poor working and living conditions (Cortés 2014; Hareth 2015; Ferus-Comelo, 2009; Perera-Desilva 2015). Moreover this is potentially compounded by a lack of awareness about potential (health) risks or a dearth in access to alternative – better – employment options (Ferus-Comelo, 2009).

Furthermore, it is clear that related policy reforms have not been universal across Sri Lanka and on-going efforts to improve poor working conditions at the governmental level have not been without challenges (Hancock et al. 2015; Sivananthiran 2008). Encouragingly, some factories do reward hard work and 'look after' their workers (Hancock et al. 2014). Of note is that over the years, Sri Lanka has made efforts to improve working conditions and the rights of female workers in its manufacturing sector, as per International Labor Organization (ILO) laws (Hancock et al. 2015). Together with the 'so-called' standardization of workforce guidelines and evaluation tools, the Sri Lankan government's efforts have led to an overall decline in discriminatory workplace practices.

Despite this, some Sri Lankan 'neo-liberal thinkers' do not subscribe to their government's intervention and regulation in formal manufacturing areas. It has been documented that employers across developing nations require females to operate in conditions that frequently – and blatantly – contradict their rights as workers (Ferus-Comelo 2009). Indeed, sections of the Sri Lankan manufacturing industry continually fail to accept long-standing ILO guidelines that prevent women from working night shifts, forcing them to work long (er) hours; apparently rationalized by their fiscal need for continuous work in order to meet international demands (Hancock et al. 2015). Discouragingly, as a result of such entrenched socio-economic interests and 'neo-liberal agendas', the Sri Lankan government has had limited influence on the 'equitable' operation of EPZs, which were – arguably – developed in order to benefit employers and (foreign) investment over individual workers' wellbeing (Waters 2013).

The discussions above, present the 'typical' poor working conditions that female factory workers are exposed to in the developing world. However, it is important to state there are indications that despite being exposed to potentially negative conditions in the short-term, the longer-term outcomes of females are still largely positive. Traditionally, most women in developing countries like Sri Lanka only work in the manufacturing industry for a couple of years before returning to their villages – with this trend seeming to continue into recent times (Ferus-Comelo 2009; Perera-Desilva, 2015). Our prior research has found that the income earned while temporarily employed in Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry has allowed some individuals among this cohort to set up their own small businesses buy properties and start families (Hancock et al. 2011). Indeed, we have previously argued that women's on-going acceptance of non-permanent and low-paid positions, together with the survival of harsh working conditions in the EPZs, appears based on a strategy to improve their (family's) socio-economic standing and ensure future security (Hancock *et al.* 2015).

Although the lived-experiences and intentions of Sri Lanka's female factory workers during their time in formal employment have been well-documented, our suppositions about their

post-employment outcomes and continued empowerment remain largely anecdotal. At this time there appears to be no definitive study researching the post-formal employment achievements and well-being of female, former factory workers in Sri Lanka. Consequently, the subject of what happens to these 'working women' when they return to their respective homes (communities) after leaving seemingly 'harmful' working environments is what this paper now seeks to explore and address

METHOD

This investigation into former factory workers was not a direct follow-up study *per se*, but rather the 'spiritual successor' to our prior research exploring the plans and achievements of female, EPZ workers (see Hancock et al. 2011). We again sought to adequately capture the 'lived experiences' of over 2000 'working women' *vis-a-vis* methodological triangulation – combining quantitative, qualitative and observational data to ensure our findings were valid and reliable. However, it should be noted that at the time of analyzing results for this paper, data collection (surveys, in-depth interviews and focus groups) and analysis was still on-going; and so, the discussion section below is based on extensive quantitative analyses that reflect half of the final survey sample. For a full description of the aims, sampling frames, methods, as well as findings from our complete study, please refer to the final research report and policy paper (Hancock, Adusei-Asante and Georgiou 2017a; 2017b).

The aim of our study was to investigate the extent a cross-section of women had built upon the foundations of financial and social capital accrued during their (relatively) short times in Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry. Of specific interest was to determine if the type of factory work previously undertaken by these individuals, had any long-term influences on their post-employment choices, achievements and experiences. We also sought to explore the impact that the familial and community contexts they returned to may have had on their continued empowerment – or indeed, feelings of disempowerment – as former factory workers.

Edith Cowan University's (ECU's) Ethics Committee granted approval for this research in late 2012. After receiving extensive training, several female Sri Lankan Research Assistants (RAs) administered surveys in Sri Lanka between 2013 and 2015. The RAs were fluent in English and Sinhalese, but also received guidance from the Principal Investigator, The Centre for Women's Research, Sri Lanka (CENWOR) Research Director and Project Manager in matters relating to ethical conduct and research methods. Maximum efforts were made to avoid interference with prospective survey participants' work or family duties. Participants were informed about the research goals and assured of anonymity and confidentiality.

Respondents completed a 34-item, 10-page questionnaire which was translated to Sinhalese and back to English using the process of *Back Translation*. We employed a cross-sectional survey design that combined mostly closed questions with several open-ended items; each data-set formed part of subsequent quantitative and (or) qualitative inquiry. Specifically, the survey instrument sought data on the prior-employment and post-employment profiles of women who had previously worked in Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry. The questionnaire requested data on the respondents' former economic engagement; the type of factory worked in; their length of service and their prior role. Subsequent sections elicited demographic data; age, marital status, and (highest) educational level. This paper focuses on information collated about our samples' current economic activity and ownership status; exploring a range of personal and social experiences related to what these women had achieved after leaving formal employment, particularly in terms of their socio-economic and political activities.

Eligibility for survey participation was restricted to women who had been employed in the formal manufacturing sector in the three years prior to data collection. We aimed to recruit a theoretically representative range of ‘working women’ that reflected both the urban and rural communities of Sri Lanka. As such, we selected former manufacturing industry (factory) workers using quasi-random and non-random methods. Individuals were mainly recruited *via* a mix of purposive¹; theoretical²; convenience³; snow-balling⁴; and self-selection⁵ sampling.

With the help of Sri Lankan field researchers, key stakeholders and (or) service providers, respondents were largely identified through snowballing techniques; whereby local community members, representatives and experts acted as ‘gate-keepers’, systematically directed us to prospective participants. However, we were somewhat limited by time (financial constraints) and whether members of this largely ‘hidden population’ from targeted locales could be identified (by RAs or informants) – with location choices compounded by the number of prospective respondents that agreed to take part in the study from each region. At the time of analysis for this paper, the total sample comprised 1031 women from several rural and urban regions across the nation (see Table 1).

Table 1
Number of participants by location (N = 1,031)

Location	Classification	Number of Women	Percentage of Total Sample
Ambilipitya	Rural	164	15.9%
Colombo	Rural	176	17.1%
Galle	Rural	129	12.5%
Gampaha	Urban	179	17.4%
Kaluthara	Urban	99	9.6%
Kandy	Rural	100	9.7%
Kurunegala	Urban	90	8.7%
Monaragala	Rural	8	0.8%
Rathnapura	Urban	86	8.3%

Our sample comprised a majority of female, former garment and textile (G&T) (n = 775), with the rest comprised of ‘all other’ (‘other’) factory workers (n = 256). Survey data was quantitatively analyzed using SPSS Statistics 20.0 (the Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Through complex comparative analyses, we investigated potential differences and similarities between these two groups in terms of their demographics (see Table 2 below) and outcomes post-work. Of particular salience was the extent their prior-work experiences might be related

¹ Purposive Sampling – Approaching women that may be unidentifiable through more random or formal means (such as the census), with many female, former factory workers actually part of a ‘hidden population’ (See Georgiou, 2015; Tranter, 2010)

² Theoretical Sampling – Specifically targeting women, family members or key informants considered ‘experts’ because of their direct personal/professional experience of ‘working women’ and their (post) factory work/life (see Georgiou, 2015; Walliman, 2004)

³ Convenience Sampling – Additional eligible respondents approached directly who had not previously been aware of our study; possibly identified by RAs and (or) during community consultation (see Georgiou, 2015; Tranter, 2010; Walliman, 2004).

⁴ Snowball Sampling – Contacting local gatekeepers for access to prospective respondents and information about the study, spread informally *via* word-of-mouth among participants or community members (see Georgiou, 2015; Tranter, 2010; Walliman, 2004)

⁵ Self-Selection Sampling – Those eligible respondents that may have approached us or the RAs/elected to take part in our study after having heard about it (see Georgiou, 2015; Tranter, 2010)

to these cohorts' decisions to leave former factory work; their treatment in society given their prior employment (as well as acceptance from family members or in their community); individuals' levels of socio-economic or political engagement; and other personal achievements upon returning home.

Using N-Vivo, as part of our larger study, a thematic analysis of survey, in-depth interview and focus group responses was undertaken simultaneously – with the techniques and avenues of inquiry identified, discussed in greater detail throughout our final report (see Hancock et al., 2017b). Although this qualitative data was generalized and did not directly compare G&T and 'other' workers *per se*, a few points of salience from our greater study have been included to add further context to our quantitative results below. However, given the sheer amount of statistical information presented here, it was deemed beyond the scope of this paper to include a comprehensive discussion of all (sub) themes identified in our project. Moreover the large scale nature of our present sample enabled us to make evidence-based claims based on these statistics, with the rich amount of information collated pertaining to respondents' lived-experiences also largely supported by existing literary sources – with the perceptions outlined below, thereby considered transferable to the larger Sri Lankan population of female(former) factory workers.

Table 2
Demographics among Former Garment and Textile (G&T) and 'All Other' ('Other') Factory Workers

Variable	G&T (n = 775)	'Other' (n = 426)
Ethnicity*		
Singhalese	97.4%	99.2%
Tamil	1.3%	--
Miscellaneous	0.3%	--
Mean age	38.23 (SD = 10.34)	45.16 (SD = 12.39)
Distribution of age		
20 – 29	20.8%	10.6%
30 – 39	40.8%	24.3%
40 – 49	22.4%	29.0%
50 – 59	12.5%	21.6%
60+	3.5%	14.5%
Marital status*		
Married	87.9%	83.7%
Widowed	1.8%	7.4%
Separated /Divorced	0.8%	1.6%
Defacto	0.1%	–
Unmarried	8.8%	7.0%
Children? (yes)*	79.9%	85.5%
Education*		
Tertiary	0.5%	2.0%
A-levels	16.4%	8.6%
O-levels	42.2%	31.6%
Incomplete	39.1%	57.0%

Length worked		
0 – 4	37.1%	32.5%
5 – 9	44.2%	36.5%
10 – 14	11.9%	16.9%
15 – 19	4.6%	5.9%
20+	2.2%	8.2%
Mean (years)	6.54 (<i>SD</i> =4.15)	8.26 (<i>SD</i> = 6.51)
Skill level*		
Basic	18.6%	69.5%
Mid	60.8%	19.5%
Higher	0.9%	2.3%
Supervisory	17.9%	7.0%
Managerial	0.6%	0.4%

Notes. *Does not equate to 100% due to missing responses

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Reasons for Leaving Prior-Formal Employment

Table 3 shows the reasons why our cohort of female, former garment and textile (G&T) and ‘all other’ (‘other’) factory workers left formal employment. A high rate of respondents reported leaving the manufacturing industry because of competing family commitments, which is potentially indicative of the high number of women who were married and (or) had children at the time of the survey (see Table 2). Regardless, the data indicates that our cross-section valued family commitments over their continued labor force participation; a finding that resonates with Sri Lankan women’s general conformity to the country’s gendered social norms (Cortes 2014; Perera-Desilva 2015).

The historical place of women in Sri Lanka has been as the ‘keepers of culture’ in their families and communities, rather than respected for their economic contributions (Lynch, 2007; Thennakoon & Rajapakse, 2007). Therefore it may not have been possible – or indeed desirable – for these women to completely remove themselves from such ‘gendered roles’; as evidenced by them entering into traditional marriages, choosing to have children or undertaking care-giving duties. Qualitative findings from the larger study continually showed how individuals attempted to balance their new roles as ‘working women’ with those responsibilities associated with domestic/community life (see Hancock, Adusei-Asante and Georgiou 2017a; 2017b). Indeed they were often expected to continue earning, with former factory workers using their accrued wealth (income/savings), skills and social capital within these ‘gender normative’ frameworks, effectively reframing their identities and the more ‘traditional’ situations in which they lived or worked. This thereby led to their personal sense of empowerment and them increasing the autonomy of choice experienced by others, often resuming family life as the ‘breadwinners’ or ‘decision-makers’ in families or communities; and acting as role models for other women in their home villages, who may have been considering entering formal employment.

Interestingly, further comparisons found that a similar – albeit far smaller – proportion among both cohorts nominated distance between work and home; feelings of dislike or frustration towards their workplace/employer; an intention to find other, even better, employment; and because of factory closure, as reasons for their withdrawal. However, they differed significantly across several key variables. Pearson’s chi-square test of contingencies demonstrated associations found between the type of factory previously worked in and reasons for leaving. Women who had worked in G&T factories were almost twice as likely (1.81) to have left formal

manufacturing for marriage⁶, while women who worked in the 'other' factories were 5.1 times more likely to report leaving because of retirement.⁷ This could be attributed to their 'older' age profile (see Table 2). Respondents representing 'other' factories were also 3 times more likely to cite 'health concerns' as reason for their exit from the manufacturing industry.

Arguably, this last finding was somewhat unexpected given that G&T work (ostensibly) is typified by manual labor and therefore, an arguably higher propensity for injury or ill-health. Coupled with the traditionally negative reputation attached to work conditions in the G&T industry (see Fernandez and Sotelo 2013; Ferus-Comelo 2009; Hancock et al. 2011; Sivananthiran 2007), such trends indicate that Sri Lanka's formal manufacturing sector is potentially improving in-line with international standards (see Hancock et al. 2015). It may be assumed that employment undertaken by 'other' workers across multiple workplace conditions – ranging from tea and food production, to toy and rubber manufacturing – was possibly more physically demanding overall than G&T work.

Moreover, the higher age demographic among women from 'other' factories may be attributable to their reported 'ill-health'. It has long been perceived that as individuals' age, so their propensity for developing physical health concerns or sustaining workplace injuries increases and their mental ability may also decline (Harper 2006; Per Capita 2014; Smith, Smith and Smith 2010). At the time of data collection, the G&T cohort was much 'younger' than the group of 'other' workers surveyed; thereby reflecting our past studies that found G&T EPZs were overrepresented by 'younger' workers when compared to their contemporaries in 'other' types of EPZs within Sri Lanka (Hancock et al. 2015) – as well as the generally 'older' demographics of G&T (factory) workers, when compared to those representing 'other' sectors of manufacturing throughout other developing nations (Ferus-Comelo, 2009).

Therefore, it could be assumed that our cohort of 'other' former factory workers may have been 'older' and thus subject to age-related physical (mental) issues or greater work-related harm; thereby necessitating their withdrawal from these prior workplaces. Indeed, the fact that 'other' factory workers were more likely to have 'retired' is also somewhat indicative of their higher age profile (see Table 2). Together, these findings indicate that the higher age demographic, trends for 'retirement' and more varied work may have accounted for this disparity in health between the cohorts and thus, such pressures or physical stressors were related to decisions about leaving. As such, age is an important variable that requires further exploration in relation the work/life choices available to 'working women' in Sri Lanka.

⁶ $\chi^2(1, N = 1030) = 12.58, p < .001$

⁷ $\chi^2(1, N = 1030) = 19.22, p < .001$

Table 3
Reasons for Leaving Formal Manufacturing among Former G&T and 'Other' Factory Workers

Reason for leaving	G&T (n = 775)	'Other' (n = 256)
Family commitments	32.5%	31.3%
Care for grand/children	50.6% ^a	40.5% ^a
Because of pregnancy	24.1% ^a	27.0% ^a
Health reasons	5.0%	16.4%
Distance	4.3%	6.6%
Dislike/frustration	5.5%	4.3%
For other/better employment	6.2%	4.3%
For marriage	34.1%	22.3%
Other reasons	22.1%	21.9%
Retirement	6.0% ^b	28.6% ^b
Factory closure	33.1% ^b	28.6% ^b

Main uses of earnings from formal manufacturing

When employed as factory workers, individuals demonstrated great autonomy of choice in their use of earnings, clearly electing to allocate the bulk of income to several major areas of spending. As reflected in previous studies (see Hancock et al. 2011; Hancock, Moore and Middleton 2011; Perera-Desilva 2015), a majority of women used earnings for living expenses both on themselves and family while employed; with a substantial (albeit lower) proportion from each cohort continuing to do so post-employment. Encouragingly, a reasonably high proportion also saved their earnings or placed money into a fixed-deposit account for their personal use, prior to leaving factory work; and when compared to other uses of earnings post-employment, this prioritisation towards 'saving' for themselves in 'formal' banking institutions remained evident, thus demonstrating their continued economic independence – albeit at a lower rate.

Further, there was an approximate 20% difference between the two groups in terms of earnings spent on jewellery; with higher rates of spending among the G&T cohort on jewellery, both prior to and subsequent to leaving the manufacturing industry (see below). Prior research indicated that this may have been a way of funding marriage, with jewellery used for a dowry⁸ (Hancock et al. 2011). This supposition is complemented by the fact more G&T workers exited their former workplaces in order to get married (see Table 3), with their younger age (see Table 2) a potential influencing factor in this trend; further evidenced by the amount spent on dowries being considerably higher (almost double) than their 'other' counterparts. Past research has shown this to be an important objective for many female EPZ workers; and although potentially indicative of their adherence to societal expectations to get married, it was further evidence of their ability to achieve personal goals and so feel empowered (Hancock et al. 2011).

⁸ Dowry – “An amount of property or money brought by a bride to her husband n their marriage” (Oxford Dictionaries 2018 NP).

Furthermore, an argument long espoused in the literature has been that jewellery is also used across developing nations as an 'investment' in later life – "to be sold during times of personal or familial financial downturn" (Fernando 1986a; 1986b; Hancock 2017a; 2017b 39; Pasricha 2013; Samath 2000). As such, rather than solely representing these individuals' seeming acquiescence to traditional gender roles and patriarchal norms by entering into marriage, the buying of jewellery among our cohort was thereby indicative of their capacity for long-term planning and economic independence. Such 'informal' saving behaviors perhaps acted as a supplement for investments in 'formal' savings, which had declined in use post-employment; thereby ensuring their own (family's) continued socio-economic empowerment.

Indeed, overall findings suggest that the women sampled spent or saved money 'when they had it' and that this was largely on themselves when working, thereby demonstrating their autonomy while previously employed in factory work. However, as shown in Tables 4 and 5, they may not have retained regular access to money (savings) subsequent to their withdrawal from formal employment, with clear declines in the proportion of spending across all variables; and was perhaps due to just over half of all respondents not being currently engaged in paid employment. Moreover, the targets of spending (be it on themselves or family members), as well as the use of such earnings, were less defined – whereby income appeared to be more 'spread out' across all variables and slightly more, family-oriented (see below). This may have been attributable to the fact the bulk of women were married, cared for (grand) children (see Table 2) and (or) reported that their houses, businesses or agricultural land was joint-owned with spouses/family (see Table 6); suggesting that they now made 'collective' decisions, rather than 'individual' choices.

Indeed, substantive analysis revealed that G&T workers consistently allocated the greatest proportion of their earnings (savings) towards their families, rather than themselves, across a range of purposes. This included familial living expenses; buying (building) a family house; purchasing a vehicle for the family; investing in their family's education and health; as well as undertaking house renovations whilst previously engaged in factory work and upon returning home. Furthermore, there appeared to be a shift from greater self-spending during their time in formal employment, to allocating proportionately more funds towards procuring land for family use, familial leisure activities and obtaining house-hold goods for family members, post-employment.

Additional descriptive analyses showed that largely family-oriented spending behaviors were similarly evident among those from 'other' factories. A greater proportion bought land for family members than for themselves while employed; and like their G&T counterparts, shifted from greater self-spending during their time in factory work, to allocating greater funds towards family members post-employment across some variables. These included, setting up an economic venture; as well as assisting with a dowry; spending on leisure activities; investing in skill-development; and buying house-hold items. Such trends among both cohorts undoubtedly emanates from the 'value' Sri Lankan women place on familial and community ties and but also further reflected in the societal expectations placed on women (Hancock et al. 2011; Hareth 2015).

However, further comparisons of self-spending against the use of earnings on family identified several complexities in terms of their 'targets' of spending. Indeed, more detailed statistical analyses using Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies, revealed that compared to those who worked in 'other' factories, G&T workers were 1.5 times more likely to report using earnings

for their own living expenses⁹ while working in formal manufacturing. As alluded to above, these women were also 2.13 times more likely to buy jewellery¹⁰ and 1.89 times more likely to buy household items for themselves¹¹ (rather than on families) compared to their 'other' counterparts.

In fact, 'other' workers were 1.75 times likely to allocate money towards household items for family¹² while employed. This trend in familial spending continued subsequent to returning home. In comparison to G&T workers, they were found to be 1.86 times more likely to use earnings for their family's living expenses¹³; 2.28 times more likely to use money to educate their family¹⁴; and 1.85 times more likely to spend on families' household items after working¹⁵ in 'other' factories. Given the demographic similarities – in terms of their marriage profiles and presence of children (see Table 2) – as well as a shared commitment to family having led most to leave formal employment (Table 3), it is unclear why there was such a difference between these cohorts' with respect to the apparent 'individual focus' of former G&T factory workers and 'collective focus' of former 'other' factory workers. This requires further investigation which is beyond the scope of this paper (see Hancock et al., 2017b for a detailed discussion on targets of spending).

Table 4
Use of Earnings among Former G&T Factory Workers (n = 775)

Use of earnings	Target While employed		Target After employment	
	Self	Family	Self	Family
Living expenses	77.8%	82.2%	23.7%	28.5%
Savings/Fixed deposit in a bank	43.1%	3.4%	14.7%	3.2%
Buy land	3.6%	1.7%	0.9%	1.4%
Set up economic venture	1.2%	0.3%	4.1%	3.0%
Buy/build a house	8.4%	9.3%	4.3%	5.7%
Buy a vehicle	1.8%	2.1%	1.5%	3.5%
Education	3.4%	23.1%	0.9%	9.3%
Dowry	31.2%	1.2%	1.7%	0.4%
Jewellery	75.0%	6.7%	7.5%	2.2%
Health issues	21.4%	25.0%	7.2%	9.3%
Leisure activities	24.0%	11.5%	1.3%	4.0%
Skill development	3.1%	1.8%	1.4%	0.1%
Renovated house	5.5%	10.2%	2.2%	5.8%
Bought household items	49.8%	29.8%	12.4%	18.3%
Other	3.0%	2.2%	2.2%	1.3%

⁹ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 6.53, p = .011$

¹⁰ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 34.93, p < .001$

¹¹ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 18.45, p < .001$

¹² $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 14.20, p < .001$

¹³ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 17.49, p < .001$

¹⁴ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 29.69, p < .001$

¹⁵ $\chi^2(1, N = 1031) = 13.95, p < .001$

Table 5
Use of Earnings among 'Other' Factory Workers (n = 256)

Use of earnings	While employed		After employment	
	Self	Family	Self	Family
Living expenses	69.9%	85.2%	24.6%	42.6%
Savings/Fixed deposit in a bank	35.9%	3.9%	9.8%	3.1%
Buy land	0.8%	1.2%	0.8%	0
Set up economic venture	1.6%	0	0.8%	1.2%
Buy/build a house	7.0%	14.1%	4.7%	5.1%
Buy a vehicle	1.2%	1.6%	1.2%	2.0%
Education	3.1%	40.6%	0.8%	18.4%
Dowry	17.6%	1.6%	0.4%	2.0%
Jewellery	55.5%	5.9%	4.7%	3.9%
Health issues	22.7%	23.0%	9.8%	7.4%
Leisure activities	9.4%	7.0%	0.4%	2.0%
Skill development	2.3%	2.0%	0.8%	1.2%
Renovated house	3.5%	9.4%	0.8%	5.1%
Bought household items	34.4%	42.6%	12.9%	29.3%
Other	2.0%	5.1%	1.6%	2.0%

Post-Employment economic profile

As seen in Table 6, approximately half of all women sampled reported their current engagement in economic activities; with the majority, self-employed. Despite this encouraging finding, it would appear that slightly more former 'G&T' factory workers cited their engagement in formal employment and were also less likely to be working in casual, contractual and agricultural roles when compared to their counterparts; thus suggesting these former 'other' factory workers had attained less secure employment after leaving the manufacturing industry. Perhaps further indicative of this trend was the fact that although our sub-samples currently worked similar average weekly hours, data also revealed that former G&T¹⁶ factory workers earned significantly higher average monthly earnings than their contemporaries from 'other' factories¹⁷.

Despite this apparent economic divide, there remained many statistical similarities between these sub-samples in terms of their rates of business, home and agricultural land ownership. In fact, according to Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies there were no clear associations between the type of factory they worked in and current economic engagement or their ownership rates. Few reported having their own business; but of those who did, most reported

¹⁶ ($M = 12,576.LKR, Mdn = 10,000LKR, SD = 11570.24LKR$)

¹⁷ ($M = 10,179.41LKR, Mdn = 8,000.00LKR, SD = 7,870.60LKR$), $t(466) = 2.10, p = .036$.

sole ownership (representing 67% and 61.9% of former G&T and 'other' workers respectively). However, this level of independence was not reflected for home and agricultural land ownership.

Over a third of women advised that although they owned their own home, the rates of joint home ownership – particularly with male spouses or parents – were comparatively high across both groups. This may be linked to Sri Lanka's patriarchal culture, compounded by the possibility that much of our sample came from more traditional (rural or village) backgrounds – perhaps typified by male dominated households. Although beyond the scope of this paper, such regional comparisons were explored in the final analysis (see Hancock, Adusei-Asante and Georgiou, 2017a; 2017b). Interestingly, fewer 'other' factory workers co-owned a house with their spouse (approximately 15% points less than G&T workers), but more frequently owned land with extended family (siblings). This is potentially linked to the fact these respondents spent their earnings on families across several more dimensions than those representing G&T factories, particularly post-employment (see Tables 4 and 5).

Rates of agricultural land ownership were less than one-fifth across both groups; with slightly higher numbers of 'other' factory workers owning agricultural land, possibly indicative of the greater frequency of current agricultural workers among this sub-sample (see above). However, very few women cited sole ownership of agricultural land ownership, which again, as with home ownership, contrasted with the comparatively high number of female sole business owners. Moreover, with whom this land was jointly owned varied considerably between the two cohorts. The majority of those who had worked in the G&T industry owned land with their husbands (42.1%), while most from 'other' factories co-owned land with siblings (46.7%). Ostensibly, these figures likely account for there being more 'spousal' partnerships within this sub-cohort of G&T respondents. Indeed, such trends may be further linked to the finding that many (more) women previously employed in G&T manufacturing reported 'marriage' as a reason they left employment compared to respondents representing the 'other' cohort. .

Although somewhat encouraging that G&T factory workers and those previously employed in 'other' factories owned businesses, homes or land, overall ownership rates remained statistically small upon returning home. Findings also suggested that regardless of their former workplace, most among our sample remained largely dependent (or at least co-dependent) on others in procuring businesses, housing and agricultural land. In particular, our findings potentially indicate the extent Sri Lankan husbands and family members (in general) have control over their wives' or relatives' behavior and are an area for further exploration in comparison to other developing (developed) countries.

There was little difference between the two groups in terms of 'loan taking behavior', including when they were taken and whether loans were settled at the time of data collection. However, a slightly higher proportion of former 'other' workers had taken loans (around 35% compared to approximately 29%). Indeed, analyses using Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies found that those previously employed in 'other' factories were 1.34 times more likely to have done so than females representing G&T manufacturing. This may have been potentially related to their current work status.

Data indicated less of a propensity to save income both during and after their prior factory work *see Tables 4 and 5) among 'other' factory workers; moreover this cohort also reported lower income levels upon returning home than their G&T counterparts (see Table 6). This lack of finances and (or) savings, may be attributed to fewer having been engaged in formal employment at the time of data collection when compared to former G&T workers – with those

former 'other' factory workers who were currently employed, more highly represented in casual, contractual or agricultural employment. This may have truncated their choices about taking loans. Ultimately, this lack in finances and (or) job security may have necessitated their greater use of loans, perhaps as a form of private 'welfare assistance'.

Finally the majority of women (approximately 60% across both groups) reported receiving an Employees' Provided Fund (EPF¹⁸) and (or) Employees' Trust Fund (ETF¹⁹). However, there was a clear association between having received a gratuity²⁰ and the type of factory previously worked in²¹; with the odds ratio demonstrating that those who worked in G&T factories were 1.48 times more likely to have received gratuity than women from 'other' factories. The reason for this is unclear, but may be related to their having been engaged in factory work for longer (on average) and thus eligible for such payments; with qualitative findings from the greater study suggesting that some women elected not to receive employee pensions, further compounding their rates of access to these funds (see Hancock, Adusei-Asante and Georgiou, 2017b).

¹⁸ EPF - A contributory social security scheme that can be accessed upon withdrawing from work (due to business closure, for retirement or after marriage) or while employed/in relation to a home loan (Employees' Provident Fund ND; Salary.lk, 2015)

¹⁹ ETF - A non-contributory benefit to employees, accessible after leaving employment at any age (due to business closure, for retirement or after marriage) or every five years while still working (Employees' Trust Fund Board ND; Salary.lk 2015)

²⁰ Gratuity - A benefit for workers who remained employed with their employer for at least five years (Salary.lk 2015)

²¹ $\chi^2(1, N = 1026) = 7.49, p = .02$

Table 6
Post-Employment Profile for Former G&T and 'Other' Factory Workers

Variable	G&T (n = 775)	'Other' (n = 256)
Current engagement in economic activity? (yes)*	50.5%	48.4%
Engaged in:		
Formal employment	34.0% ^a	20.2% ^a
Self-employment	37.9% ^a	33.1% ^a
Casual employment	9.2% ^a	23.4% ^a
Subcontract	3.3% ^a	4.8% ^a
Farming	8.2% ^a	15.3% ^a
Animal husbandry	0.3% ^a	0.8% ^a
Other	7.2% ^a	2.4% ^a
Have own business? (yes)	14.2%	10.9%
Joint (yes)	33.0%	38.1%
Mean current monthly income if engaged in economic activity	12,576.26LKR (Mdn = 10,000; SD = 11570.24)	10,179.41 (Mdn = 8,000.00; SD = 7,870.60)
Mean current weekly hours worked	40.77 (SD = 16.74)	40.13 (SD = 15.51)
Own house? (yes)*	32.9%	38.3%
Joint ownership (yes)	42.5%	39.3%
With:		
Husband	77.3%	62.5%
Parents	6.8%	6.3%
Siblings	11.4%	18.8%
Family unit	2.3%	3.1%
Offspring	2.3%	9.4%
Own agricultural land? (yes)*	15.2%	18.0%
Joint ownership (yes)	64.9%	60.9%
With:		
Husband	42.1% ^c	20.0% ^c
Parent/s	15.8% ^c	26.7% ^c
Sibling	28.9% ^c	46.7% ^c
Family unit	5.3% ^c	6.7% ^c
Other	7.9% ^c	-
Loans (yes)*	28.9%	35.5%
Of those:		
Before working	0.5%	1.1%
While working	27.1%	21.3%
After leaving	25.3%	32.6%
Present	47.1%	44.9%
Settled (yes)	38.7%	35.6%
Employee's provided *fund	60.4%	60.2%
Employee's trust fund*	66.3%	60.5%
Gratuity*	48.8%	39.1%

Notes. *Does not equate to 100% due to missing responses

^a Percentage of those engaged in current economic activity.

^b Percentage of those who own a house

^c Percentage of those who own agricultural land

Factory type and its association with outcome measures

Table 7 presents data concerned with several social, economic and political outcome measures relating to 'empowerment'. As seen below, few respondents experienced deleterious events as a result of their prior work, whether in terms of public humiliation or exposure to negative social attitudes. Indeed, most cited feeling more accepted by – and as having more decision making power in – their families. Self-confidence was almost universal, with a clear majority of women in both groups believing themselves to be socio-economically stronger than other females who did/had not worked in formal manufacturing. However, their level of acceptance and engagement at the community level – along with political participation – was relatively lower amongst both cohorts.

A clear reason for this dearth in extra-familial engagement was not apparent from our present statistical analysis. However, it was observed during subsequent qualitative analyses, that many women were generally unable to balance local community or cultural activities with other paid work (familial) responsibilities, post-employment; some appeared unaware of political processes, except their ability to vote; but most, were simply disenchanted with politics/politicians overall and thus made an autonomous decision not to become involved with governmental/civic processes (see Hancock 2017a; 2017b for a complete overview of these findings and the wider implications for Sri Lanka). Despite such caveats, overall, our 'descriptive' findings indicated the importance of female engagement in formal employment for achieving a sense of personal empowerment among Sri Lankan women.

However, a series of Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies evaluated whether factory type was statistically associated with the above outcome measures. There were no statistically different associations between prior 'G&T' or 'other' factory work in terms self-confidence, exposure to negative social attitudes, decision-making power in families/communities or community participation. However, there was an association between factory type and feelings of acceptance in their community²². The odds ratio demonstrated that those who worked in 'other' factories were 1.49 times more likely to report feeling accepted; which may have been linked to them also being 1.62 times more likely to engage in political activities²³ after leaving factory work. According to Hancock et al. (2011, 11) female factory workers that experience familial (community) "support" and "respect", report a higher sense of "wellbeing".

Furthermore, given that those in the 'other' factory cohort allocated more earnings towards family members during their time in formal employment and upon their return home, these respondents benefited by being more accepted (by their family and community), with this also reflected in terms of access to greater (local) community level and political participation. Our past research (see Hancock et al. 2011), coupled with subsequent quantitative and qualitative analysis as part of our current larger study (see Hancock, 2017b), has continually indicated that the acquisition of (monetary) capital among Sri Lankan female factory workers is linked to achieving personal-level empowerment and fostered greater familial (social) respect; particularly when spent on others' personal or socio-economic development; with expenditure also related an individuals' greater feelings of inclusion – albeit mainly at the familial or local levels.

Furthermore, the odds ratio found that females from 'other' factories were 2.11 times more likely to perceive themselves as economically stronger than women of their own generation

²² $\chi^2(1, N = 1024) = 6.4, p = .01$

²³ $\chi^2(1, N = 1030) = 5.09, p = .024$

who were never employed in formal manufacturing²⁴. Compared to former G&T workers, they were also 1.50 times more likely to report having a better social status than women not affiliated with Sri Lanka's manufacturing industry²⁵. This is interesting and potentially paradoxical given the clear (objective) economic divide between our cohorts - with respondents previously employed in 'other' factories reporting an overall lower earning capacity and less likely to own businesses than former G&T workers (see above).

However, this perhaps reflects the fact that traditionally, G&T work has - and female EPZ or factory workers (in general), as well as garment factory working conditions have - been viewed negatively when compared to 'other' types of manufacturing - or other professions - in Sri Lankan society and other developing nations (see Fernandez and Sotelo 2013; Ferus-Comelo 2009; Hancock 2006; Hancock et al. 2015; Hancock et al. 2011; Hancock, Moore and Middleton 2011; Lynch 2007; Sivananthiran 2007; Perera-Desilva 2015). This thereby adds a subjective element to respondents' reported experiences. Indeed, analyses found those who worked in G&T factories were 1.83 times more likely to report experiencing humiliation while working in their prior job, than those previously employed in 'other' factories²⁶.

Encouragingly, the majority of women in the G&T and 'other' groups (96.3% and 90.6% respectively), reported attaining useful skills and knowledge from their previous manufacturing work experience. However, it should be noted that the odds ratio revealed those who worked in G&T factories were 2.38 times more likely to report bringing back useful skill and knowledge compared to those from 'other' factories (with clear associations identified *via* Pearson's chi-square test of contingencies²⁷). Arguably, their propensity for more secure (formal) employment, self-employment, (sole) business ownership and higher income work, may be extrinsically related to the significantly higher proportion of former G&T workers having believed they had brought back 'useful' skill and knowledge.

Such self-belief and (or) actual transferable experience may have increased their (perceived) viability or capabilities and options available for their continued socio-economic engagement. Therefore, this slightly higher reported rate of 'useful skills' among former G&T workers possibly reflects their having obtained 'better' (or more 'secure') work than their 'other' counterparts subsequent to returning home. Regardless, contrary to prevalent views in the literature that have long argued females experience only 'exploitation' in any 'women's work' undertaken - but particularly factory work and especially amongst G&T factories (see Hancock et al. 2015; Karunaratne and Abayasekara 2013; Perera-Desilva (2015) - in the case of this study, our statistical findings show that these women may have actually learned transferable skills. We maintain that such learning potentially helped almost half of our sample attain some form of work upon returning home; with this being a clear indication of their socio-economic empowerment.

Ultimately, regardless of factory type, the majority of respondents expressed positive socio-economic and personal outcomes upon returning to villages, with any negative experiences statistically minor. This indicated that the 'act of working' might have been more important to their accrual of economic capital and (subsequent) development of social capital, than their previous affiliation with G&T manufacturing or any 'other' factory type. This is similar to arguments made in our prior research into EPZs, whereby female Sri Lankan factory workers'

²⁴ $\chi^2(1, N = 1018) = 6.13, p = .013$

²⁵ $\chi^2(1, N = 1010) = 4.10, p = .043$

²⁶ $\chi^2(1, N = 1010) = 4.10, p = .04$

²⁷ $\chi^2(1, N = 1025) = 8.58, p = .003$

sector of employment was found to be 'less important' than the fact individuals we surveyed had engaged in formal employment and (or) had access to a regular income (Hancock et al. 2015).

Table 7
Outcome Variables among G&T Workers (n = 775) and for Workers in 'Other' Factories (n = 256)

Variable	Women who worked in G&T factories (n = 775)	Women working in 'other' factories (n = 256)
Brought back skills and knowledge gained from formal employment that has been useful? * (yes)	96.3%	90.6%
Feel more accepted by family? * (yes)	81.8%	82.8%
Have more decision making power in the family? * (yes)	67.1%	68.8%
Feel more accepted in your community? * (yes)	61.3%	70.7%
Have more decision making power in the community? * (yes)	27.2%	25.4%
Participate more than earlier in community activities?*(yes)	42.3%	47.7%
Participate more than earlier in political activities?*(yes)	9.4%	14.5%
Having worked in formal manufacturing industry, do you feel more self-confident?*(yes)	96.9%	98.8%
Were you ever humiliated in public, in your community or society when you were working in the manufacturing industry? * (yes)	9.9%	5.5%
Experience any negative social attitudes when you first returned home?*(yes)	13.3%	11.7%
Economically stronger than women of your own generation who were never employed in a manufacturing industry?*(yes)	88.6%	93.4%
Better social status than women of your own generation who were never employed in a manufacturing industry?*(yes)	78.3%	83.2%

Notes. *Does not equate to 100% due to missing responses

CONCLUSION

This paper compared the post-employment (socio-economic) profiles of women who had previously worked in Sri Lanka's garment and textile (G&T) factory with 'all other' (other) manufacturing sectors. An impetus for this present study was the seemingly consistent negative portrayal of (former) female factory workers' experiences in Sri Lanka's

manufacturing sector and the greater developing world. Moreover, despite the plethora of previous research having informed our understanding of Sri Lankan working women while engaged in formal employment, there appears to remain a significant gap in the existing literature relating to the actual post-employment outcomes and profiles women after leaving factory work, upon returning to their respective (home) villages or communities.

Ultimately, the majority of respondents representing both groups expressed positive personal outcomes across many dimensions upon their return home. The large majority had improved many important socio-economic aspects of their lives. A significant proportion of the women we sampled felt more confident and socially 'better off' than other women; having also set up their own businesses and (or) now owned properties – whilst still continuing to live as wives, mothers and care-givers. Although it is concerning that only less than half the proportion of respondents from G&T and 'other' factories were continuing to invest money into 'formal' savings (fixed deposit) accounts at the time of survey dissemination; when coupled with the fact that women had also used 'informal' savings mechanisms (such as procuring jewellery), these findings indicate that our cohort of former factory workers were not only able to provide financially for daily expenses, but also chose to invest in their future – both during their time in formal employment and subsequent to returning home, albeit perhaps with less disposable income and (or) secure paid work.

Overall, this sample of over 1000 Sri Lankan women appeared to be both empowered and disempowered by their experiences in the manufacturing sector. Although our findings were somewhat congruous with seminal literary sources, which supported the existence of negative societal associations with female labor force engagement across Sri Lanka – particularly across EPZs and in the G&T industry when compared to 'other' types of factory work or formal employment in general – there were some significant caveats to consider. While women who worked in 'other' factories believed that they were more socio-economically empowered and (subjectively) felt greater community acceptance subsequent to their return home, when compared to the G&T cohort; the majority of those who worked in the G&T industry were (objectively) better off in terms of representation in formal employment, current income level and business ownership arrangements than the women that worked in 'other' factories.

We also found that 'age' and length of time in employment, potentially played a key role in the post-employment choices, decisions and experiences of the female, former factory workers sampled and so, such factors should form new avenues of inquiry for future research into Sri Lankan 'working women'. Although beyond the scope of this paper, given that the Sri Lankan Government is actively trying to implement ILO guidelines to improve the conditions of female factory workers – albeit with apparently limited success in EPZs – it is anticipated that our findings could be used to contextualize workplace policy discussions. While not condoning the potentially deleterious environments in which many Sri Lanka females are engaged, contrary to them being projected as powerless and weak, our study has shown that even in seemingly disempowering situations, these women are able to negotiate challenging economic, social and political conditions. Nevertheless, continued rigorous exploration into the lived-experiences and personal outcomes of individuals who work across the manufacturing sector in the Global South, especially in garments and textiles, remains warranted – particularly studies that offer more in-depth (qualitative) insight into their reasoning and (or) other socio-cultural barriers to their autonomy of choice.

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On Z. Bauman's book 'A Chronicle of Crisis: 2011-2016', with the preface by Dr. N. Lawson. London, UK: Social Europe Edition 2017. 163 p. ISBN 978-1-9997151-0-6

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Zygmunt Bauman was undoubtedly one of the most influential sociologists of our times. It's hard to outline the realm of his interests and contributions. Some said that it was the idea of individualized society, others – the concept of liquid modernity, still others – the idea of current globalization, etc. To my mind, all the above aspects had been the various sides of an issue of transition from modernity to postmodernity, or as in the Preface to the book under review has been said, the transition from 'solid modernity' to the 'relativism of post-modernity' or taking the issue in the words of A. Gramsci, the times 'of morbid symptoms that appear in the interregnum when the old is not yet dead and the new is not yet born'(p. x), that is an unexpected break of continuity with the past.

This book is interdisciplinary in essence because it embraces almost all spheres of the life of our planet, from social and political to environmental ones because it contains very concise but deep insights into each of them. It's already a merit of the book by itself. But I'm never was as universal as Bauman was. Therefore, I'd concentrate on some of them only. Especially on those that, to my mind, are still are not well investigated and therefore enough elaborated. The book contains of twenty-four contribution that Bauman wrote for *the Social Europe* from 2011 until his death.

Bauman draws a reader's attention to the issue of the outcast generation. He wrote that 'every generation has its measure of outcasts... It does not, however, happen often that the plight of being outcasts may stretch to embrace *a generation as a whole*. This may, however, be happening now' (p. 3). Besides, Bauman wrote, 'each of generational changes arises from more or less traumatic events; in each case, a break in continuity and the necessity of some painful readjustments, caused by a clash between inherited/learned expectations and unanticipated realities, were signaled...Indeed, after several decades of rising expectations, the present-day newcomers to adult life confront expectations *falling* – and much too steeply and abruptly for any hope of a gentle and safe descent.' These newcomers are confronted with the situation of 'a long, dark tunnel stretching behind every one of the few blinking, flickering and fast fading lights trying in vain to pierce through the gloom' (p. 4).

'This is the first post-war (i.e. after the WWII – O. Yan.) generation facing the prospect of downward mobility. Their elders were trained to expect, matter-of-factly, that children will aim higher and reach further than they themselves managed..., they expected the inter-generational 'reproduction of success' to go on beating their own records as easily as they themselves used to overtake the achievement of their parents. Generation of parents were used to expecting that their children will have a yet wider range of choices..., be yet better

educated, climb yet higher in the hierarchy of learning and professional excellence, be richer and feel even more secure.' Bauman stressed that nothing has prepared 'them for the arrival of the hard, uninviting, and inhospitable new world of downgrading, devaluation of earned merits, doors showed and locked, volatility of jobs and stubbornness of jobless', and so on and so forth. (p. 4-5).

For the first time, 'the *whole class of graduates* faces a high probability, almost the certainty, of ad-hoc, temporary, insecure and part-time jobs, unpaid 'trainee' pseudo-jobs deceitfully rebranded practices -- all considerably below their acquired skills and eons below the level of their expectations...' A capitalist society, Bauman underscored, 'geared in the first place to the defense and preservation of extant privileges and only in distant...second to the lifting of the rest out of their deprivation, is high on goals while low on means.' And what is then? Is a supra-generational consent is possible? Or we are on the eve of a 'new war of generations'? (p. 6-7).

To my mind, the issues of the **outcast generation** and intergenerational conflict are the most acute for so called developing countries and for countries that experience a double stress, namely of coming the Fourth industrial i.e. the digital revolution and sharply growing global mobility. Such double pressure strengthened by the entering of humanity into uncertain and risky world and the weather fluctuations creates the ground for the stresses and social conflicts.

A transition from a society of producers to a society of consumers or from a sustainable modernity to a liquid post-modernity deserves special attention. We are in the transition from the solid and predictable life of the twentieth century to the fragility and the fluidity of a twenty first century in which everyone feels himself unstable and temporary, Bauman stressed.

In a political and sociological literature a sustainability and sustainable development are usually interpreted in demographic, social and environmental terms like the limits of growth, diminished poverty, rational use of energy and other natural resources and a nature protection. Not rejecting these approaches, Bauman focused the reader's attention on the issue of **political balance between the left and the right**. He argued that a 'social democracy has lost its own separate constituency - its social fortresses and ramparts' (p. 9). And therefore this constituency has been pulverized into an aggregate of self-concerned and self-centered individuals, competing for jobs and promotions, with little if any awareness of the commonality of fate and even less inclination to close ranks and demand solidarity action.

Accordingly, '*the 'solidarity' was a phenomenon endemic to the now bygone society of producers* (my italics - O. Yan.); it is but a nostalgia-bred fancy in the society of consumers. Members of this brave new society are notorious for swarming the same shops on the same date and hour ruled by the invisible 'hand of the market'. They have no common interest as tax of the taxpayers' (p. 9). There are no substantial differences between the right and the left now. And 'it is the right and the right only, that with the left's consent assumed and the uncontested dictatorship over political agenda of the day' (p. 10). Therefore, the 'message to the poor and needy cannot be clearer: there is no alternative to the society that makes rooms for poverty and for needs stripped of the prospects of satisfaction, but no room for dreams and dreamers' (p. 11).

Bauman bound the above right-shift with the idea of a **just society**. This society 'is a society permanently sensitive and vigilant to all cases of injustice and undertaking to take action to rectify them without waiting for the search of the universal model of justice to be completed.'

It is the society that has 'the capacity of making real and formal human right to decent life – recasting 'freedom *de jure*' into 'freedom *de facto*' (p. 22).

In the end of this section Bauman discusses the opposition offered by R. Rorty, namely the **politics of movement vs. the politics of campaign** (p. 22-23). Since during 30 years I've studied theory and practice of social movements and campaigns in Russia and abroad both as a theorist and a participant, I'd like to analyze this opposition a bit more detailed. First, the campaigns and movements are closely interconnected. Second, the campaign is usually temporary while the movement may exist over the years and decades. Third, in order to reach some positive result the campaign has to be repeated several times. Fourth, the statement that the politics of movement starts from *an ideal model of a fully 'just society'* means that it is going on about ideologically-sound movement only. Fifth, if the grassroots confronts with a certain injustice it doesn't mean that a total political structure of a given society is unjust as well. Sixth, the above two forms of politics have different structures, resource base and so on and so forth. It is sad that in this section Bauman only signified but not developed a very important of aspect of civil activism, its time regime. Anyhow, it's clear that any 'sustainability' is usually reached over a set of political and public campaigns and movements.

In his numerous works on postmodernity Bauman seldom used to spoke on the influence of new **scientific and technological revolution** on a society. And so the section titled 'On Internet, Slender and Irresponsibility' is of a special interest. Being not a technocrat, but a sociologist Bauman argues that the 'value of an information is enhanced or debased not so much by its content, as by the authority of its author or messenger' (p. 25). In this statement Bauman refer to J. Habermas' idea that 'people tend to judge the value of information by the quality of its source' (ibid).

But in our type of society, Bauman continued, all or almost all communication belongs to the 'distorted' kind of information. To be free from being distorted the communication would require genuine equality of participants, equality not just around the debating table, but in the 'real', offline or off-the-debating chamber life. And the main conclusion: Realization of 'such a condition would require nothing less than exploding and levelling up the hierarchy of speakers' authority' (p. 25). That is why the '*genuine adversary/alternative to the internet anonymity is not the principle of freedom of speech but the principle of responsibility: internet-style anonymity is first and foremost, and most importantly socially, an officially endorsed license for irresponsibility and a public lesson in practicing it...*' (p. 26, my italics – O. Yan).

In the online world, unlike the in the offline one, everybody can be the 007 agent. Being involved in the world of computer i.e. simulation world children and teenagers are losing a difference between real and virtual worlds. So modern internet, Bauman stated, is potentially the deadly weapons. 'Slander, invective, calumny, slur, smear, casting aspersion and defaming belong to the deadliest of weapons: deadly to persons, but also to the social fabric' (p. 27). It leads to an emergence of the phenomenon of a 'floating responsibility.' Here Bauman refer to Hannah Arendt who warned us the long time ago that such responsibility is the 'responsibility of nobody' or a total irresponsibility.

In this respect the Bauman's notice on **the shaky prospects of meritocracy** is indicative. He draws our attention to the divergence of two processes/trends. On the one hand, a university diploma is an entrance ticket to a labor market. The most prestigious academic institutions are full of applications every year. 'Social promotion-through-education serves for many years as a fig leaf for naked/indecent inequality of human conditions and prospects: as long as academic achievements correlated with handsome social rewards, people who failed to climb up the

social ladder had only themselves to blame – and only themselves on whom to unload bitterness and wrath' (p. 30). On the other hand, there is a shock of rapidly rising phenomenon of graduate unemployment much below graduate...expectations' hits a wider category of people. Not only in the US and the EU one could observe a picture of rising heaps of frustrated hopes. In the 'societies of allegedly-powered and information-driven economies and of education-driven economic success, knowledge seems to be failing to guarantee success and education failing to deliver the success-guaranteeing knowledge' (p. 33). How to maintain the idea of meritocracy in these conditions?

The above theme is tightly interconnected with the **new looks of inequality**. Bauman cited C.M. Blow, the US columnist: 'According to the National Centre for Children in Poverty, 42 percent of American children live in low-income homes and about a fifth live in poverty. It gets worse. The number of children living in poverty has risen 33 percent since 2000...There is no need to tell the parents of 42 percent of American children, struggling as they are day in, day out, trying to make ends meet, that the prospects of equality are nowhere nearer their children, while parents of the 20 percent of children living in poverty would hardly understand what the 'chances', of the vanishing of which the latest figures inform, were supposed to mean'. The message is very simple: 'this is no longer a land of opportunity; this is a land for people for gumption' (p. 35). Bauman concluded this section pointing out that 'inequality is bad not as such, not because of its own injustice, inhumanity, immorality and life destroying potential, but for making souls bad and melancholic.' It is a meeting point of the natural and social sciences because as it had been scientifically confirmed, '*humans become stressed when they find themselves at the bottom of <social> hierarchy*' (p. 37, my italics – O. Yan.). In any case, as Bauman argued, the Americans as well as the Russians are in a 'big disconnect.'

But alongside with inequality **the forced equality is produced by new technologies**. In principle there are endless forms of them. Bauman distinguish two of them: an 'information tsunami' and production of micro-drones. The former is presented by hackers' attacks and the latter by mass production of micro-drones which size is reduced to the size of a dragonfly or of a humming-bird.

For the reason of a suddenness of their appearance, unidentified size and speed of attack a cloud-like flight of drones is a mighty weapon. Besides, people are very sensitive to the invasion of any strangers in their private life, be it their behavior, time-table of activity, contacts with parents and friends, etc. New generation of drones will be not only much smaller but 'will be programmed to fly on their own. 'The new generation of drones will stay invisible while making everything else accessible to view; they will stay immune while rendering everything else vulnerable' (p. 56). The 'end of invisibility and autonomy is a shock for all levels and structures of individual life. We are 'never being alone again.

More than that, 'everything private is now done, potentially, in public – and is potentially available to public consumption... This erosion of anonymity is a product of pervasive social media services, cheap cell phone cameras, free photo and video web-hosts, etc. But most important of all, a change in people's views about what ought to be public and what to be private' (p. 59). Bauman calls this phenomenon as 'public privacy.'

In the section on 'The Changing Nature of Work and Agency' Bauman posed two of the key questions related to the period of transition from modernity to post-modernity. It is going on *the relationships between global and local agencies and between modern and postmodern modes of governance*. 'During most of the modern era, managerial strategies...were focused on rendering behavior of their subordinates utterly predetermined and therefore predictable

though eliminating or suppressing all and any factors of influence other than the commands issued by the superiors; those strategies involved as their major tenet the repression by the subordinates of their personal idiosyncrasies...for the duration of performing the tasks set by their superiors...' (p. 114-115). The kind of performance was measured and judged down to the single yardstick 'of the job having been done as commanded' (p. 115).

In the times of hard (solid) modernity 'the managers used to record individual idiosyncrasies of the managed on the side of liabilities.' The managers repressed 'those liabilities and better still to extirpate them altogether, as factors throwing out of balance routine and uniformity, the two pillars of an instrumentally-rational performance and also of a smooth and unswerving goal-pursuit' (p. 115).

According to Bauman, the liquid phase of modernity is characterized by new managerial strategy. The side-effect of it 'is the shifting of responsibility for the results onto the shoulders of the managed, simultaneously reducing the responsibilities of the managers according to the promise of profitability they hold for the enterprise and to the evaluation of quality (measured first and foremost in financial terms) of what they deliver' (p. 116). As Bauman stressed, it means 'the though and well-nigh comprehensive *individualization* of the employer-employee relations' (p. 116).

This shift has been mainly based on three preconditions: the deregulation of the labor market; the employee have been cast in a setting that favors mutual competition instead of solidarity; the management of situational uncertainty turned into a task of the managed instead of the managers; the ties between the managers and the managed were substantially weakened; and growing autonomy of the managed and flexibility of their working times.

And here Bauman pass on to the topic that seems to me yet underdeveloped in social sciences and in sociology of large complex systems in particular. It is ***a problem of an interregnum*** or a 'state in-between' in such systems in transition. 'Interregnum – the condition in which the old ways and means of getting things done have stopped already working properly, yet the new, more effective ways and means are still at the designing stage or at best in the stage of experimentation – has its temporal, to wit 'diachronic', but also its spatial, that is 'synchronic' dimension. Calling our present condition an 'interregnum' we refer to a time-span of yet unknown length, stretching between a social setting which has its course and another, as yet under-defined and most certainly under-determined, which we expect or suspect to replace it.' (p. 119). I'd draw the reader's attention to the fact that the very interregnum is also not permanent but is dependent on the development of means of information and communication i.e. on *a speed of inversion of a space into time*. So, to my mind, is more correct to speak not only about a time of transition from one state of a particular complex system to another but about of a tempo-rhythm of a given interregnum.

Bauman absolutely right speaking in this connection about the morphology of human togetherness or the structure of human co-habitation. 'Old structures...are falling apart, its fragments enter new and untested arrangements emergent settings are spattered with blank spots and ill-fitting fragments in an advanced stage of despair, as well as with other zombie-like fragments, still mobile though out of joint and lacking obvious uses and applications: the condition typical of 'failing systems' (p. 119).

It means that *the postmodern epoch is the time of permanent re-composition of large complex systems*, and it is one of their peculiarities as unstable and therefore uncertain and potentially risky ones. 'The structures once interlocked into something reminiscent of a system are now,

clearly, in disarray. But structures' function is to serve as catapults as well as guiding/steering frames for action.' It is the 'big, perhaps the biggest question of the time of interregnum, fully and truly the 'meta-question' – one that needs to be answered in order to for all the rest questions' of our transition era.

And here Bauman shifts to the issue of my long-term interest, to the place and role of mega-cities in globalization processes in general and their role in the transformation of the nation-states in particular. Following the viewpoint of prof. Monika Kostera, Bauman stated that a certain level i.e. meso-level of social integration will be optimal for a reconciling of top-down management with self-management and self-organization. Bauman said that prof. Kostera is 'right in disqualifying the uppermost level – the level of territorially sovereign nation-states – and the lowest level, that of the individual – or family-centered life politics' (p. 121).

Bauman stated that 'territorial sovereignty – the relic of the 1648 Westphalian settlement...for the duration of the nation-building and imperial colonialism eras presumed to remain the universal precept on the world order and practiced as such – has by now, in the era of global interdependency turned into illusion' (p. 121). From my viewpoint, the global interdependency is still not totally global. There is a continuous struggle between global, national and local forces and trends. More than that, the development of internet and other technical innovations opened the battlefield of invisible attacks on every social and technical structure. Such communities and structures are now in the search of technical constructions allowed them to be inaccessible and invisible. Then, one should distinguish a spatial morphology and a social one. The former may be relatively stable while the latter is very mobile.

The investigations carried out by prof. S. Sassen from the US and by my own showed that the technical morphology of large cities is relatively stable while their social structure is very mobile. Therefore, I'm not consent with B. Barber manifesto titled 'Dysfunctional Nations, Rising Cities.' In particular, I disagree with his statement that the city as a human habitat of first resort, has in today's globalizing world once again become democracy's best hope'. From my viewpoint, existing cities is not 'the best bet to all of us wishing for an agency able and willing to rise to the challenges of a globalized, multicultural and multi-centered planet' (p. 122, 123).

Yes, modern mega-cities are the 'dustbins in which the globally produced problems are disposed and where they ultimately land.' At the same time the mega-cities 'function as laboratories in which effective tools to tackle and methods to resolve those problems are daily designed and put to test' (p. 123). It's a dialectics of current globalized world. Thus, it seems to me that the concluding remark of this section that 'we are, *homini sapienti*, squeezed between an increasingly irrelevant past and stubbornly recondite future' (p. 124) is much more relevant characteristic of the current period of interregnum.

In the section titled 'The Charlie Hebdo Attack and what it reveals' Bauman argued that 'political assassination is as old as humanity and the chances that will be dead before humanity dies are dim. Violence is un-detachable companion of inter-human antagonisms and conflicts – and those in turn are part and parcel of the human condition' (p. 125). But the attack on the World Trade Center, on September 11, 2001 showed that the terrorists' attack was targeted against global social institutions symbolized economic and military power of the West. And the attack of the Charlie Hebdo murders was aimed at the shaking of public opinion of the EU and of the rest world.

As Bauman stated, 'knowingly or not, by design or by default, the murders endorsed – whether explicitly or obliquely – the widespread and fast gathering public sense of effective power moving away from political rulers and towards the centers viewed as responsible for public mind-setting and opinion-making' At the same time together with 'shifting the target to another institutional realm, that of public opinion, the armed assault against Charlie Hebdo was also an act of personalized vendetta' (p. 126). From institutional viewpoint, it had been the actions aimed at further de institutionalization, individualization and privatization of human condition as well as the perceptions of public affairs shifting away from the management of established aggregated bodies to the sphere of individual 'life politics' and 'away from social to individual responsibility' (p. 127).

In media-dominated informational society and close proximity of aborigines and newcomers in large cities the Christian-Muslim antagonism is a profoundly complex phenomenon deeply rooted in the remote past and liquid' present. Bauman saw one of the roots of social and religious conflicts in the ongoing process of 'diasporisation of the world.'

The close proximity of aborigines and the newcomers is always potentially conflicting. Especially when it is goes on about the migrants for North Africa and the Near East. The deep differences in the demands and wellbeing between the above groups is a strong barrier on the way of the policy of multiculturalism. 'It is in the nature of offence and humiliation to seek an outlet, through which it can be discharged, and a target. And when it so happens, as it does all around an increasingly diasporised Europe, that the boundaries between humiliating and the humiliated overlap with the boundaries between socially privileged and socially deprived, it would be naïve not to expect that both the outlets and the targets are avidly sought keenly pinpointed. We presently live on a minefield of which we know (or at least we should) that it is spattered with explosives. Explosions occur, though there is no way to predict when and where' (p. 129).

In his concluding remarks Bauman wrote that 'hopes for freedom of self-assertion and for arresting the rise of inequality, invested in democracy, blatantly failed to realize. Democratic politics and, yet more, the trust in democracy as the best road to the solution of the most haunting social problems are in crisis'. All around Europe 'we witness a rising tide of anti-democratic sentiment – and a massive 'secession of plebeians' (in the current reincarnation as precarians) to the camps located on the opposite extreme of political spectrum though promising in unison to replace the already discredited high-mindedness with yet to be tried high-handedness of autocracy' (p. 130).

And Bauman continued, heretofore widely unknown term securitization 'has appeared quite recently in debates. What this imported term is meant to grasp and denote is the ever more frequent reclassification of something as an instance of 'insecurity'' (p.134). The widespread sense of 'existential insecurity is a hard fact: a genuine bane of our society priding itself, through the lips of its political leaders, on the progressive deregulation of labor markets and 'flexibilisation' of work and, in the end result, notorious for the growing fragility of social positions and instability of the socially recognized identities, as well as for unstopably expanding the ranks of the precariat...' (p. 137).

Governments promote anxiety because the governments 'are not interested in allying their citizens' anxieties. They are interested instead in beefing up the anxiety arising from the future's uncertainty and constant and ubiquitous sense of insecurity...' (p. 138). Among the urgent problems, Bauman repeated, are 'such principal factors of the human condition as the availability of quality jobs, reliability and stability of social standing, effective protection

against social deregulation and immunity against a denial of dignity – all such determinants of the safety and well-being which the governments, once promising full employment and comprehensive social security, are nowadays incapable of pledging, let alone delivering' (p. 138).

Bauman periodically returns to the issue of 'floating' uncertainty, fears, risks, etc. 'We may risk guessing that, if coupled with a focus on a specific, visible and tangible adversary, an intensification of fear is somehow more endurable than are dispersed floating fears of unknown origin.' In the final analysis, the 'police of 'securitisation' helps to stifle our, the bystanders', pangs of conscience at the sight of its victims; it 'adiaphorises' the migrants issue (exempts them, that is, from moral evaluation), putting those victims, once they have been cast in public opinion in the category of would-be terrorists, outside the realm of moral responsibility...' (p. 140). As a result, on the 'top of being morally callous and odious, socially blind as well as to a large extent groundless and intentionally misleading, 'securitisation' can be charged with playing into the hands of the recruiters of genuine (as distinct from falsely accused) terrorists' (p. 142).

Linguistic Expression and Creative Writing: Medieval and Contemporary Arab Literary Criticism

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Medieval Arab literary critics wrote at great length on the theory of literary expression, its characteristics, types, accomplishments, internalization, etc. They also focused on language, as the main vehicle of written expression, serving simultaneously as medium and objective, through which its other features are realized. Perhaps the best-known of these compositions was Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Qalqashandī's *Ṣubḥ al-a'shā fī ṣinā'at al-inshā*, a large work divided into twelve parts, including the Introduction and the Conclusion. The author set forth the art of writing in detail by means of literary epistles. Thus in his third epistle he presented linguistic terms and expressions dealing with surnames and nicknames while the second epistle explained the conditions which writers had to meet (al-Qalqashandī, 2009). Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī in his famous work *al-Ṣinā'atāni* (al-'Askarī, 1981) examined the two arts of poetry and prose writing. In the chapter on the second art, that of prose writing, he explained the conditions of "linguistic correctness" (*istiqāmat al-luḡha*) that help create a work's esthetic uniqueness, and the ways to achieve a felicitous way of expression. Ibn Qutayba al-Dīnūrī in his *Adab al-kātib* also listed the elements of linguistic culture which are necessary for writers. He divided his book into four parts, in each of which he presented a pioneering theory of linguistic composition. In the first chapter, entitled "Chapter on Knowledge" he dealt with the anterior knowledge that a writer must have in preparation for commencing his composition. The second chapter, entitled "Amending the Hand", lists the common errors committed by writers of his time; the third chapter, "Amending the tongue", deals with common errors of speech, while the fourth chapter, "Structure of Verbs and Nouns", addresses the morphology of written and spoken Arabic (al-Dīnūrī, 1900).

Abū Bakr al-Ṣawlī in his famous *Adab al-kitāb* addresses the same issues as al-Dīnūrī but from a different perspective (al-Ṣawlī, 1980). A later writer from Andalusia, Abū al-Qāsim al-Kalā'ī, wrote a similar tome entitled *Iḥkām ṣan'at al-kalām* (al-Kalā'ī, 1985). The list of writers is long, so of necessity we mentioned only the most prominent.

Written expression has attracted the attention of critics and linguists in modern times, since it is both objective and means, as noted above. Interest in the subject has taken the form of scholarly studies and conferences (Norton, 1997, 5). It seems that the growing attention which this issue is gaining is due to the importance of linguistic expression in the teaching of other related subjects that are based on it, such as correct handwriting, the transmission of language, linguistic taste, the way ideas are perceived by students, writing style, etc. Because this is the case, written expression can be considered a basic linguistic concept, not merely a secondary element such as those noted above. Written expression is more than just the various linguistic skills which students must master in order to be able to write well; more important than the linguistic dimension is the cognitive one, which in turn is associated with obtaining

information, facts, expertise and culture, all of which are based on reading (al-Dulaymī & al-Wā'ilī, 2003:17-18), in keeping with Aristotle's saying: "Reading creates the perfect man".

Written expression brings together numerous forms of operations of thinking, composition and revision, which intersect to create a written text in its final form. The thinking stage is the first of the three operations. It crystallizes thought before writing. It is followed by the stage of preliminary writing or what is called the "draft stage", after which comes the stage of revision (*Reading Language Arts*, 1999:26). This is the stage with which the present study is concerned; this is when one reexamines what one has written and replaces routine, exhausted words with newer or meaningful ones derived from the richness of language.

Written expression is a language that realizes its objective and its means simultaneously. In fact, according to Muḥyī al-Dīn b. al-ʿArabī in one of the best-known philosophical works in antiquity, *al-Futuḥāt al-makkiyya*, it is "the secret of existence, the root of the universe's creation, the prime mover in the ontology of creation, the descendant of the initial "let there be", from which the act of creation began (Ibn al-ʿArabī, 1972-1985:16). Language is an expressive creative arrangement that allows one to create from nothing or to force the preexisting (i.e., language) into its creative final form, which fits the image which the author sees in his imagination (Bateson, 1985:81-85).

Creative writing, according to the medieval Arab critic Abū al-Ḥasan al-Jurjānī, is "the creation of something from nothing.

Original writing as described by the medieval Arab critic Abū al-Ḥasan al-Jurjānī is "making up something from nothing. It is said that creative writing means basing one thing on another while creation is making something from something". Al-Jurjānī bases his conclusion on the following Qur'ānic phrase: "Originator (*badī*) of the heavens and the earth" (Q 2:117; al-Jurjānī, 1987, 28). Literary expression is similar to reporting events, with the difference that the latter can be either true or false while the former is neither, since it does not refer to any external reality to which can be said to conform or not to conform (ʿAtīq, 1985:74). Creative expression, especially the written kind, is an effect of the author's imagination. Now naturally every human being possesses imagination to a greater or lesser degree, and imitation is a creative writer's artistic talent, one that plays an important role in the writer's relationship with the reality from which he draws his ideas (Jabr, 1993: 71). Written expression thus involves the imitation of the imagination with a medium taken from reality, namely language. The main element which constitutes the accumulative cognitive and esthetic system that connects between literatures composed in different times is that of imitation or mimesis, as noted by Aristotle in his *Poetics* when he defined tragedy as "the imitation of a momentous deed, an imitation that consists of parts of different texts which language has created" (Aristotle, 1993: 43).

Linguistic expression is a most important branch of Arabic; it is the substance and form into which a person puts his thoughts and through which he expresses his feelings and emotions. It makes it possible for anyone to easily understand what they read and hear.

Expression is the objective of all linguistic studies; all other branches of linguistic knowledge serve as means for achieving this objective. Thus reading helps the learner to understand the substance of expression, its ideas and its styles, syntax helps writers compose without making linguistic errors, literary texts enrich students' linguistic knowledge and dictation helps in writing down words correctly. But expression is the ultimate objective of the use of all these means, in speech and in writing. As a branch of language it is thus not isolated from the others,

but involves skills that are intertwined with other branches. Expression is not a set of linguistic skills which a student must master in order to become adept at it, but rather it concerns the acquisition of information and words through reading (al-Dulaymī & al-Wā'ilī, 2001:2-3).

Linguistic expression can be divided into two types, depending on its purpose: functional and rhetorical. Functional expression aims at fulfilling a need in a person's everyday life and can be oral or written; this includes everyday conversations, letters, memoranda, written complaints and all the other forms that help us to manage our daily affairs. This kind of expression does not require great effort or complex organization and rhetorical devices. Rhetorical expression, on the other hand, which like functional expression can be either oral or written, is used much less than the latter, and only for very specific purposes, usually on special occasions and in resounding speeches that aim at drawing people's attention and for achieving a certain objective. This kind of expression requires considerable effort on the part of the speaker or writer in order to draw people's attention; he must choose well-ordered and ornate expressions and the proper kind of rhetorical phrases in order to produce the desired effect in his readers or listeners.

With respect to form, linguistic expression is basically of two types, oral or written. Oral expression is acquired by students by means of and interprets the logic of language (orally) while written expression is acquired and interpreted through writing. The two types are interrelated and support each other. It is oral expression that students use extemporaneously in the form of sentences and constructions possessing linguistic meaning; its importance lies in the fact that it enables students to acquire speaking skills and the ability to participate in constructive debate and to express themselves in an effective and esthetically pleasing manner. In contrast, written expression as carried out by students in the classroom demonstrate their ability to express themselves using error-free language that obeys the rules of grammar and of writing (al-Dulaymī & al-Wā'ilī, 2001:21).

The concept of "linguistic expression" has been given numerous definitions. According to 'Ābid al-Hāshimī it "is a means for mutual understanding among people, for presenting their ideas and feelings with the tongue and the pen" (al-Hāshimī, 1986).

Written expression is always a difficult subject, especially in the primary schools. For this reason it is a topic that has received much scholarly attention. Thus the researcher Riyāḍ Zakī Qāsim, for example, in his *Taqniyyāt al-ta'bīr al-'arabī* discusses the various problems and issues related to written expression and the many reasons why in Arabic this kind of expression is so poor. The author argues that the main cause of the poverty of expression among Arab students is due to syntactic and morphological factors and poor knowledge of the language. He focuses on the morphological aspects of Arabic which he claims, have a major effect on success or failure in written expression in Arabic (Qāsim, 2003).

A number of more modern studies have approach the subject of written expression from a psychological perspective, relating it to students' perceptual abilities. Thus Ranā Bakdāsh in her *al-ta'bīr al-kitābī* (Bakdāsh, 1996) used educational theories and modern psychology for her analysis of written expression, while Walīd Aḥmad al-Jābir in his *Tadrīs al-luḡha al-'arabiyya – mafāhīm nazariyya wa-taṭbīqāt 'amaliyya* discussed written expression and its various uses (functional, literary) as well as the most appropriate methods for teaching primary school children the art of writing. He also noted the problems and weaknesses in Arabic writing, pointing to poor knowledge of the language's richness as one of these problems (al-Jābir, 2001).

Rātib Qāsim 'Āshūr and Muḥammad Fakhri Miqdādī in their *al-Mahārāt al-kitābiyya wal-qirā'iyya* discuss reading and writing skills. They consider the two to be interconnected and argue that expressive writing interprets reading, which explains the role which linguistic richness plays in it ('Āshūr & Miqdādī, 2003).

In a unique study published by the University of Diyālī in Iraq in 2009 under the title *Athar al-tharā' al-lughawī fī al-adā' al-ta'bīrī* the author, Muthannā al-Jash'amī, provides a comprehensive and profound analysis of the subject. In the book's first chapters he discusses medieval Arab critics and constructs a theoretical foundation for discussing written expression as perceived by ancient Arab criticism. On the basis of this theoretical foundation he carries out a linguistic-mathematical field study in which he applies his theory to the issue of the effect of linguistic richness on the expressive writing of university students (al-Jash'amī, 2009).

In another thesis, entitled *Tanmiyat al-tadhawwūq al-adabī ladā talāmīdh al-ṣaff al-thālith al-īdādī wa-athar dhālika 'alā qudrātihim 'alā al-ta'bīr al-kitāb*, presented by Tharayyā Maḥjūb Maḥmūd to the University of Ḥilwān in 1991, the author discusses the element of literary taste, mentioned in the introduction to the present study, and its role in the acquisition of linguistic skills, and the role of these skills in the construction of expressive texts and their language.

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Myth and Religion: Ancient Mesopotamian Myth and the Imitation of the Lost “Scrolls of Abraham”

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Myth is an important element of human culture. Every nation, from ancient Sumer to the present has had myths that served as distinguishing marks in their history.¹ These myths, whatever form they took, had a cultural, social, political and intellectual presence and influence.² The study of myth has engendered various theories since the birth of the science of mythology in the nineteenth century.³ These theories can be classified according to a number of approaches:

THE HISTORICAL APPROACH

According to this approach⁴ myth is a sacred tale of events in the nation's ancient past, linked to a specific religious system, that has been transmitted among different cultures and detached from the original chronological context in which it was created.⁵ This approach treats myths as records of actual happenings that take place in the real world, such as the changing seasons, rainfall, fertility and sterility in nature, comprehensive topics that affect the fate of the collective and of the cosmos as a whole. The pivot of a myth is usually a goddess, as in the case of the Babylonian myth of Ishtar, the Sumerian Inana and the Canaanite Anat. Myth as a historical concept has no author; it is the product of a collective imagination that accumulated over generations.⁶

According to the historical approach myths have their origins in the stories of great kings, whose deeds left an impression on the people.⁷ Succeeding generations added to their deeds and gave them imaginary powers and elements of divinity.⁸ As time went on the real nature of

¹ Sha'rawī, 1982, 171-173.

² Hilāl, no date, 215-216.

³ The study of myth, known as mythology, provides us with an image of life in antiquity in a form that aims at demonstrating the superiority of the culture in question. See: Sulayṭīn, 1992, 166-176.

⁴ One of the newest and most comprehensive studies of this kind is *al-Uṣṭūra wal-ma'nā* (2001) by the Syrian scholar Firās al-Sawwāḥ, who also provides references to the works of the pioneers of mythological studies. Al-Sawwāḥ studies myths and the history of religion in order to understand the spiritual dimension of humanity. Born in Homs, Syria (1941), he has published several studies on ancient myths and the history of the ancient Middle East. See: al-Sawwāḥ, 2001, 304. Another very important study on the same subject is the myth collection *Dīwān al-asāṭīr: Sūmir wa-Ākād wa-Āshūr wa-Bābil* (Beirut, Dār al-sāqī, 1996-1999), translated into Arabic and annotated by Qāsim al-Shawwāf, with an introduction by Adonis (‘Alī Aḥmad Sa‘īd).

⁵ Abū Sayf, 2005, 211-212.

⁶ Al-Mājidī, 1998, 60.

⁷ The element that gives myths their importance is the story of the superhuman hero, such as Gilgamesh; see: Coupe, 1997, 5. The protagonists of myths were flesh-and-blood kings and heroes who later took on mythological proportions; see: Jean, 1994, 1.

⁸ Many adherents of the historical and the anthropological approaches to myth reject the view that these are fictional in origin. They argue that such views in among modern scholars have caused myths to be misunderstood. All myths, according to these two approaches, are based on reality; see: Golsan, 1993, 61-63.

these kings was forgotten. The study of myths according to the historical approach can thus enlighten us about the thought processes of ancient man.⁹

According to the historical approach myth can help us become acquainted with how ancient man lived and operated in his natural environment, his rituals, including sacrifices, and the deeds of kings and heroes. Myth thus enables us to draw an almost realistic picture of antiquity.¹⁰ It may therefore be said that the historical approach views myths as reflecting historical events, with accumulated additions over time. In other words, they have a basis in fact but to these facts imaginary elements were added later.¹¹

THE LINGUISTIC-LITERARY APPROACH

Linguistically the Arabic word for myth, *uṣṭūra*, means "wondrous tales".¹² The word is derived from the root *ṣṭr*, whose basic meaning is "write".¹³ In the plural, *asāṭīr*, it means "vanities, idle talk".¹⁴ The English word "myth" also has this meaning.¹⁵

In pre-Islamic Arabia the word *asāṭīr* was used to denote stories of doubtful veracity,¹⁶ a meaning confirmed also by the Qur'ānic usage of this word. In addition to the study of the word's meaning the linguistic-literary approach focuses on the use which was made of myth in antiquity as a weak allusion to what it intends to convey. A myth could, for example, intimate a natural phenomenon such as fertility or drought, by providing a personification of such a phenomenon, derived from the human ability to create personifications.¹⁷ According to this approach myth represents an early attempt by mankind to interpret the world verbally. Myth is also one of the earliest forms of religion; words have always accompanied religious rites and rituals,¹⁸ by means of which early man expressed his ideas and feelings.¹⁹

The linguistic-literary approach views myth as a literary genre controlled by rules of narrative prose and by an element of fantasy. Myth as an attempt to explain complex transcendental phenomena in the cosmos and the world of men required the broad use of imaginary elements.²⁰ According to some adherents of the linguistic-literary approach myth as a literary genre has similarities with the folktale. The two genres share many elements, including chronological escalation, topical gradation, a unidirectional narrative plot that is basically simple,²¹ although the events may at times be complex, and a resolution²² that satisfies the reader.²³

⁹ Al-Jazā'irī, 2000, 30-31.

¹⁰ Al-Nūrī, 1989, 174.

¹¹ For the difference between "myth" and "history" see: al-Miṣrī, 1991, 8-9.

¹² Zakī, 2002, 15.

¹³ Al-Miṣrī, 1991, 8-9.

¹⁴ Al-Jawharī, 1979, 684; cf. al-Azdī, 1345 AH, 38.

¹⁵ On the meaning of "myth" in English see: Leeming, 1981, 1-8.

¹⁶ For more on the many attempts to define myth and the differences between the various approaches to this issue, see: 'Abd al-Ḥakīm, 1987, 11; Jean, 1994, 2.

¹⁷ Al-Jazā'irī, 2000, 30-32.

¹⁸ Khūrshīd, 2004, 4.

¹⁹ Ḥaddād, 1986, 6-7.

²⁰ Farḥān, 2005, 20-21.

²¹ The plot is traditional, in the sense of E.M. Forster's *Aspects of the Novel*, of the kind still found in many modernist prose works to this day, although it has become somewhat weakened and fragmented in post-modernist writings. A traditional plot requires three elements in a work of prose: logical actions and events (causality), inner tension among the events, beginning and ending. For more on these concepts see: Forster ; al-Bārīdī, 1993, 131; Abū Sharīfa, 1993, 132; Faṭḥī, 2001, 105.

This approach also views myth as a type of story based on continuous narrative, stirring plot and events of human significance. Myths speak of the transcendental, the supernatural, and its characters possess superhuman powers.²⁴

From the literary approach to myth arose a specific type of “mythological criticism”, which provides a literary interpretation of modern literary texts that use ancient myths. This kind of criticism focuses on the narrative and symbolic structure that connect the text to the ancient myths. An important source for this kind of criticism is James Frazer’s *The Golden Bough*.²⁵

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

This approach views myth as a genre of poetry, of mental diversion, or of rites²⁶ derived from ancient mankind’s curiosity about such baffling questions as: “When and where were men at the beginning? What is death? What is the meaning of the cycles of nature and the seasons?”²⁷

According to the psychological approach myths create a world with its own logic, the inner logic of the mind formed as a reflection of the external world. In the words of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), myth is a sexual interpretation, similarly to the world of dreams; in both dream and myth man is free of the bonds of space and time and can create a model world in which all the hidden desires in the depths of one’s soul can be realized.²⁸

Psychologists who have studied myths argue that myth has animistic origins, that the mythical mindset is derived from the human mental proclivity to seek interpretation. Men everywhere and at all times, according to psychological experts, strive to express the things that confuse them. In other words, mankind possesses a constant curiosity to discover the unknown, to understand in particular the things it fears and does not understand. The purpose of myth is to satisfy this curiosity and to assuage this fear.²⁹

Proponents of this approach claim that myths are a basic cornerstone of civilization, because they introduce order into beliefs, sustain principles of morality and grant peace of mind to mortals in the face of the unavailability of death. Myths thus became indispensable to early man, providing him with vital dreams and fantasies.³⁰

THE ANTHROPOLOGICAL APPROACH

For anthropologists myths are a human phenomenon with a symbolic function. They are one form of symbolism found in a cultural system. What is important about them is not the partial facts which they report overtly but rather their basic function in society, which is to symbolize certain core facts about their society and thus to help reform and rectify society.³¹

²² In myths the voice of redemption appears when the protagonist is in the depths of despair. The most complex moment is when the message of transformation arrives, bringing with it a resolution in the wake of the blackest of moments. See: Campbell, 1991 ; Lak, 1987, 153-158; Ya‘qūb, 1987, 40-41.

²³ Lak, 1978, 153-158.

²⁴ Ya‘qūb, 1987, 98-99; al-Nūrī, 1989, 175.

²⁵ See: Fathī, 2000, 33; cf. Barthes, 1986.

²⁶ See: al-Sawwāh, 2001, 21.

²⁷ Al-Yūsufī, 2005, 143-144.

²⁸ Al-Jazā‘irī, 2000, 30-32.

²⁹ Al-Nūrī, 1989, 175-176.

³⁰ Ibid., 25-26.

³¹ Cassirer, 1946.

Adherents of this approach argue that myths are symbols that appeared in the festivals and rituals of antiquity. The myths were performed annually, accompanied by movement and dance. The Sumerians, for example, produced performances in which that goddess Inana fell into the underworld. The performance of this myth was repeated at the beginning of every spring during the Akitu festival; its purpose was to explain why winter ended and summer arrived, when nature dried up.³² Ishtar's fall into the underworld and her rise from it also symbolized the return of spring.

According to Frazer and those who share his approach myths are derived from rites. After a rite has been performed for a long time it loses the meaning that it had for its founders and becomes meaningless. In order to preserve and retain a venerable rite an interpretation of it is needed, and this is done by means of a myth.³³

Within the anthropological approach there are two distinct interpretations of myth. One of these is "animism theory", according to which the ancients, having come to the conclusion that all bodies consist of matter and spirit, searched for their origins. Myth, in this view, was the earliest explanation for the origins of primordial matter and spirit. The second is "totemism theory" or taboo,³⁴ which views myth as a collection of ancient sacred and forbidden things, whose sanctity and inviolability were derived from the tribe,³⁵ giving rise to special obligatory rites³⁶ that symbolically represented the sacred and taboo things³⁷ which tribesmen were forced to obey due to their symbolic power.

Anthropologists attach great importance to myth, because it constitutes the material for rites. Myths express the ideologies of simple traditional human collectives in a profound and dramatic manner. The collective spirit depends on them, because they cause society to adhere to its values and to aspire towards its supreme models in every age. Primitive myths thus served as regulators and indicators that confirmed the traditional rites and rules which preserved society from disintegration and collapse.³⁸

THE RELIGIOUS HYPOTHESIS

A. Myth in Islamic religious thought

The term *asāṭīr* ("myths, legends", sg. *uṣṭūra*) appears in the Qur'ān nine times in various chapters. The meaning the word has in the Qur'ān is consistent with that of Arabic lexicons. The occurrences of the word in the Qur'ān are as follows:

1. ... those who disbelieve say, "This is not but legends of the former peoples" (Q 6:25).
2. "We have heard. If we willed, we could say [something] like this. This is not but legends of the former peoples" (Q 8:31).
3. And when it is said to them, "What has your Lord sent down?" They say, "Legends of the former peoples" (Q 16:24).

³² Al-Mājidī, 2000, 31-32.

³³ See: al-Sawwāḥ, 2007, 15.

³⁴ Salāma Mūsā defines taboo as the basis of ethics, in the sense that it restricts freedom of thought. As primitive nations advanced a class of priests and magicians arose which imposed taboos on the people, turning them into a unique force. See: Mūsā, 1959, 21-11. For more on taboo and its psychological effects in the psychological approach to myth see: Freud, 1913; Frazer, 1968.

³⁵ On myths of the holy and the taboo among primitive human tribes see: al-Udhari, 1997; Bailey, 1977.

³⁶ Myths are accepted only if they are agreed upon by the collective or tribe as a whole, and thus constitute a restriction on the freedom of thought. See: Kolkovsky, 1971, 29.

³⁷ Khān, 2005, 52-53.

³⁸ Al-Nūrī, 1989, 175; cf. al-Qumnī, 1999, 25.

4. We have been promised this, we and our forefathers, before. This is not but legends of the former peoples (Q 27:68).
5. And they say, "Legends of the former peoples which he has written down, and they are dictated to him morning and afternoon" (Q 25:5).
6. When Our verses are recited to him, he says, "Legends of the former peoples" (Q 68:15).
7. But he says, "This is not but legends of the former people" (Q 46:17).
8. When Our verses are recited to him, he says, "Legends of the former peoples" (Q 83:13).
9. This is not but legends of the former peoples (Q 23:83).³⁹

In addition to these occurrences of the word, the Qur'ān also contains numerous other expressions in which there appear words derived from the same root, *ṣṭr*. However, semantically the latter have very little to do with the subject at hand. An examination of the verses quoted above shows that the Qur'ān considers myths or legends as generally baseless tales or mere idle talk of the ancients. Thus in a tradition that explains the circumstances under which the first of the above-quoted verses was revealed to Muḥammad, it is related that at the dawn of Islam a group of men, among them al-Walīd b. al-Maghīra, Abū Jahl, Abū Sufyān and al-Naṣr b. 'Utba, gathered and listened to the Prophet's recitation of the Qur'ān and asked: "What is Muḥammad saying?". One of them replied: "Legends (*asāṭīr*) of the former peoples", that is, baseless tales of the ancients.⁴⁰

The same meaning appears in Q 8:31, which according to tradition quotes al-Naḍr b. al-Ḥārith b. Kalda, a non-believer who was taken prisoner in the Battle of Badr, to the effect that the Qur'ān is nothing but tales of the ancients, "like the stories about Rustum and Isfindiyār from Persia", that is, folktales that were current in pre-Islamic times and later.⁴¹

In Q 16:24, too, the non-believers maintain that the Qur'ān is nothing but old legends, invented by the ancients and passed on from one generation to the next in the form of "errors" (*al-aḍālīl*)⁴² and "lies" (*al-akādhīb*).⁴³

As for the word's occurrence in Q 23:83, the meaning of the word is explained as follows by al-Ṭabarsī in his *Jawāmi' al-jāmi'*:

*They said: That is, the people of Mecca said this, like the ancients who deny the Resurrection. Myths (asāṭīr, the plural of usṭūra) are unfounded things written down by the ancients. They were given the following answer that proved their ignorance: Know that He who created the earth and those on it is capable of bringing about resurrection. It is not too great a task for Him, and therefore one must not make Him share His divinity with one of His own creatures.*⁴⁴

In Q 25:5 the non-believers again claim that Muḥammad's utterances were mere legends of the ancients, which they wrote down and then memorized them morning to evening.⁴⁵ The same meaning, of fictional stories, appears also in Q 27:68.⁴⁶ In Q 46:17 we have a young man whose parents ask for God's help and call on him to repent, to no avail: "But one who says to his

³⁹ Al-Bāqī, 1996, 350-351; see also the Qur'ān, the above-quoted chapters and verses.

⁴⁰ Al-Ṭabarsī, 1992, 38.

⁴¹ Ibid., 405.

⁴² These interpretations are similar to those of the modern linguistic and anthropological approaches, both of which consider myths as the product of the collective imagination.

⁴³ Al-Ṭabarsī, 1992, 716.

⁴⁴ Ibid., 108-109.

⁴⁵ Ibid., 138-139; al-Tha'ālibī, 1987, 130-131; al-Sharbīnī, 2004, 18.

⁴⁶ Al-Ṭabarsī, 1992, 192-193.

parents, 'Uff to you; do you promise me that I will be brought forth [from the earth] when generations before me have already passed on [into oblivion]?' while they call to Allah for help [and to their son], 'Woe to you! Believe! Indeed, the promise of Allah is truth.' But he says, 'This is not but legends of the former people'".⁴⁷

In short, every occurrence of the word *asāṭīr* in the Qur'ān⁴⁸ is always associated with "the former peoples" and denotes fictional tales that have no basis in reality.

The Qur'ān contains in addition also various stories of mythical origin, some of whose details can be traced back to Sumerian and Babylonian mythology. Thus, for example, the giant with the two horns (*dhū al-qarnayn*) in Q 18 who wandered the four corners of the earth is very reminiscent of Gilgamesh, while the story of Noah's flood in a number of chapters of the Qur'ān reminds us of the Babylonian flood myth. This similarity naturally gives rise to the question of whether it is due to the former existence of now-lost texts in ancient Ur, for example the "Scrolls of Abraham" mentioned in Q 87:18-19: "Indeed, this is in the former scriptures, The scriptures of Abraham and Moses".⁴⁹ From the Old Testament we know that Abraham came from Ur of the Chaldeans,⁵⁰ the same city in which the myths of antiquity were discovered. Is it possible that the myths of ancient Iraq are the lost Scrolls of Abraham, which were distorted over time so that they lost their monotheistic nature and became pagan texts?

In Arabic translations of the Pentateuch and the Old Testament in general the word *asāṭīr* is very rare. However, this brings us to a complex issue, a venerable debate⁵¹ concerning the relationship between Sumerian-Babylonian myth and the Old Testament texts, which occasionally demonstrate an amazing similarity or even near-identity.⁵²

B. Myth in the Old Testament

Below we shall examine two Old Testament texts and compare them with similar Sumerian-Babylonian texts. We shall conclude that the biblical narrative is a later version of a more ancient mythological text,⁵³ providing possible additional support for the lost "Scrolls of Abraham" hypothesis.

Text 1: The story of the flood in the Pentateuch

The story of the flood in the Book of Genesis is as follows:⁵⁴

The LORD saw how great the wickedness of the human race had become on the earth, and that every inclination of the thoughts of the human heart was only evil all the

⁴⁷ Ibid., 474-475; al-Nisābūrī, 1994, 108-109; idem, 1990, 121.

⁴⁸ The Ṣūfī commentaries on the Qur'ān interpret the word no differently than other exegetes. See, for example, Ibn al-'Arabī (1165-1240) who explains its meaning as "frivolous stories of the ancients"; see: Ibn al-'Arabī, 1987, 208-211.

⁴⁹ See Q 87.

⁵⁰ Genesis 11:31.

⁵¹ This issue, namely the relationship between the myths and the Old Testament, has engendered a heated debate among modern scholars, prominent among whom was Kamāl al-Ṣalībī (1929-1986). Numerous studies have addressed this issue, among them: al-Sawwāḥ, 1999 as well as al-Ṣalībī, 1986, 1988, 2001.

⁵² Al-Sawwāḥ, 2007. The similarities between ancient Iraqi myths and the text of the Pentateuch are often striking. However, al-Sawwāḥ did not compare them; he merely presented both (for example, the Sumerian and biblical myths of creation [31-141], the myths of the flood [157-210], the sea monster [215-234] and Paradise [237-258]).

⁵³ These texts are provided merely as examples. There exist numerous texts in these two sources which are very similar to each other, for example the Babylonian stories about "Sargon the Akkadian", which show great similarity to the story of Moses in the Pentateuch.

⁵⁴ Genesis 6:5 – 8:12,

time. The LORD regretted that he had made human beings on the earth, and his heart was deeply troubled. So the LORD said, "I will wipe from the face of the earth the human race I have created—and with them the animals, the birds and the creatures that move along the ground—for I regret that I have made them." But Noah found favor in the eyes of the LORD. This is the account of Noah and his family.

Noah was a righteous man, blameless among the people of his time, and he walked faithfully with God. Noah had three sons: Shem, Ham and Japheth.

Now the earth was corrupt in God's sight and was full of violence. God saw how corrupt the earth had become, for all the people on earth had corrupted their ways. So God said to Noah, "I am going to put an end to all people, for the earth is filled with violence because of them. I am surely going to destroy both them and the earth. So make yourself an ark of cypress wood; make rooms in it and coat it with pitch inside and out. This is how you are to build it: The ark is to be three hundred cubits long, fifty cubits wide and thirty cubits high. Make a roof for it, leaving below the roof an opening one cubit high all around. Put a door in the side of the ark and make lower, middle and upper decks. I am going to bring floodwaters on the earth to destroy all life under the heavens, every creature that has the breath of life in it. Everything on earth will perish. But I will establish my covenant with you, and you will enter the ark—you and your sons and your wife and your sons' wives with you. You are to bring into the ark two of all living creatures, male and female ...

... on the seventeenth day of the second month—on that day all the springs of the great deep burst forth, and the floodgates of the heavens were opened. And rain fell on the earth forty days and forty nights.

On that very day Noah and his sons, Shem, Ham and Japheth, together with his wife and the wives of his three sons, entered the ark. They had with them every wild animal according to its kind, all livestock according to their kinds, every creature that moves along the ground ... But God remembered Noah and all the wild animals and the livestock that were with him in the ark, and he sent a wind over the earth, and the waters receded. Now the springs of the deep and the floodgates of the heavens had been closed ... The water receded steadily from the earth ...

After forty days Noah opened a window he had made in the ark and sent out a raven, and it kept flying back and forth until the water had dried up from the earth. Then he sent out a dove to see if the water had receded from the surface of the ground. But the dove could find nowhere to perch ... He waited seven more days and sent the dove out again, but this time it did not return to him.

The Sumerian flood text

In Tablet 11 of the Epic of Gilgamesh we read as follows:⁵⁵

Šuruppak, a city that you surely know,
 ... that city was very old, and there were gods inside it.
 ... The hearts of the Great Gods moved them to inflict the Flood
 O man of Šuruppak, son of Ubar-Tutu
 Tear down the house and build a boat!
 Abandon wealth and seek living beings!
 Spurn possessions and keep alive living beings!
 Make [the seed of] all living beings go up into the boat.
 The boat which you are to build,
 its dimensions must measure equal to each other:

⁵⁵ <http://www.historywiz.com/primarysources/sumerianflood.html>, accessed on April 30 2017.

its length must correspond to its width.
Roof it over like the Apsu ...
Just as dawn began to glow
the people assembled around me.
... The child carried the pitch,
the weak brought whatever else was needed.
On the fifth day I had laid out her exterior.
It was a field in area,
its walls were each 10 times 12 cubits in height,
the sides of its top were of equal length, 10 times 12 cubits each
... All the living beings that I had I loaded on it,
I had all my kith and kin go up into the boat,
all the beasts and animals of the field and the craftsmen I had go up
... Ninurta and made the dikes overflow
... All day long the South Wind blew,
blowing fast - and then the Flood came,
overwhelming the people like an attack.
... Six days and seven nights
came the wind and flood,
the storm flattening the land.
When the seventh day arrived ...
the sea, calmed; the whirlwind fell still; the flood stopped ...
I opened a vent and daylight fell upon my cheek ...
When a seventh day arrived
I sent forth a dove and released it.
The dove went off, but came back to me;
no perch was visible so it circled back to me.
I sent forth a swallow and released it.
The swallow went off, but came back to me;
no perch was visible so it circled back to me.
I sent forth a raven and released it.
The raven went off, and saw the waters slither back.
It eats, it scratches, it bobs, but does not circle back to me.

Clearly the two texts are very closely related, and share many details, among them the following:

- 1. The land is filled with iniquity due to man's misdeeds; this iniquity must be removed.**
- 2. The biblical Noah and the Sumerian-Babylonian Ut-napištim\Ziusudra are righteous men, entrusted with the task of saving humankind and the germ of life.**
- 3. The deity commands them to build a large boat covered with pitch, on which the germ of life will be carried.**
- 4. The world dies and Noah/Ut-napištim-Ziusudra, together with all the living creatures with them are the germ of future life on earth.**
- 5. The raven and the dove are sent outside the ark to test the water level.**

All of these similarities prove that the biblical text was influenced by more ancient myths, whose contents it used and with which it held a dialogue.

Text 2: The great king in the Old Testament

In the Book of Ecclesiastes we find a depiction of a powerful and wise king, who searches for the secret of immortality but comes to realize that death is the fate of all mankind. We read as follows:

Go, eat your food with gladness, and drink your wine with a joyful heart, for God has already approved what you do. Always be clothed in white, and always anoint your head with oil. Enjoy life with your wife, whom you love, all the days of this meaningless life that God has given you under the sun—all your meaningless days. For this is your lot in life.⁵⁶

The great king (Gilgamesh), the Sumerian-Babylonian text

... fill thy belly,
Day and night do thou rejoice,
Daily make a rejoicing!
Day and night a renewal of jollification!
Let thy clothes be clean,
Wash thy head and pour water over thee!
Care for the little one who takes hold of thy hand!
Let the wife rejoice in thy bosom.⁵⁷

Here, too, the similarities between the two texts are very obvious. Both urge one to enjoy life and not to allow oneself to be bothered by other things.

To conclude, we saw in this study that myths have been approached from a number of different perspectives, according to the theories of the various scholars. The present study argues that in extant monotheistic books, especially the Old Testament and the Qur'ān, myths are found in a modified form, giving rise to the hypothesis that they have a common origin. The only apparent logical explanation is that the myths of ancient Iraq are later versions of monotheistic texts such as the ancient Scrolls of Abraham.

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⁵⁶ Ecclesiastes 9:7-9.

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Actualization Of Mental Health And Self-Reliance Through Health-Based Education Management

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ABSTRACT

The study is aimed at assessing the actualization of mental health and self-reliance through health based education management among public secondary school students in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Three research questions and three research hypothesis were postulated to guide the study. The population of the study comprised all the 233 public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State. A sample of 72 physical and health education teachers selected from 45 randomly selected secondary schools in the three Senatorial District of the state. A self developed questionnaire was used as the primary instrument for data collection for the study, and Pearson Product Moment Correlation and simple regression analysis were used to test the hypotheses. The finding revealed a significant relationship between health based education management and the actualization of based programmes and significant influence on mental health was self-reliance among secondary school students while that of the Nigeria education system was statistically insignificant. It was recommended among others that, health based education programmes should be incorporated into the secondary education system in Nigeria to enhance good mental health of the students and skill for self-reliance.

INTRODUCTION

Education whether formal or informal, is generally accepted as a life-long endeavor that permeates individual's life course from birth till death and largely involves the acquisition of necessary skills required to perform roles in life-long development (Maranda, 2006). For an individual to create and recreate his social life and to also articulate himself and be fulfilled is not unconnected to quality and fulfilled education. Focal Point, (2010) reported that the transition from foster care to self-reliance is a challenging one; youth must piece together social, academic, mental health, and spiritual supports that they have in combination with their resilience and unique skill sets in order to actualize self-reliance.

Samuels and Pryce, (2008) in their interpretive study explored the experiences of 44 Midwestern young adults in the process of aging out of foster care. The study analyzed the degree to which young adults endorse self-reliance as they reflect on past experience, offer advice to foster youth, and identify barriers to achieving their own life goals. Findings indicated that youth have minimal individual control or power throughout their foster care experiences and were equally concerned that becoming too dependent on the foster care system seriously risked one's adult independence.

Agi and Yellowe, (2010) conceptualized self-reliance within the framework of social and economic empowerment and interpreted it to mean less dependence on external factors for

provision of basic and essential means of sustainability. The authors added that self-reliance is clearly a personal effort in sourcing for sustainable livelihood by means of acquired competencies, skills and capacities to cause sustainable productivity over time. Nasongo and Musungu (2009) viewed the term Self-Reliance in two well distinct words; they noted self as a term that referred to the human being as “the agent” or the “I” of the individual human being. Nasongo et al, posited that “self” connotes individual’s conception of his soul and body as being distinct from other souls and bodies. Reliance on the other hand, emphasizes a condition of dependency either on something or somebody else. It refers to a bond of relationship where an individual clings onto another external object such that they embrace an inter-subjected relationship (Nasongo and Musungu, 2009). However, actualization of self-reliability among individuals has traced to be a function of effective and fulfilled education.

Ahmad, (2014) studied education management accredited to impacting self-reliance and reported that education for self-reliance aims at providing learners with abilities in appropriate vocations and with self-employment skills. The author added that acquired skills and abilities can be useful in life-long development and for solving both personal and community challenges. In this way, education becomes a tool for emancipation. However, in the contrary, education in most development countries (Nigeria inclusive) has failed many minds because it has failed to realize its expected ends. Sabbi, et al, (2009) decried that majority of students from post primary to tertiary institution usually leave school lacking the basic skill for entrepreneurship.

In a study conducted to examine the self-employable skill development component of the MDG educational objectives in Ghana in the light of ever rising armies of unemployable youth who graduate from the educational system every year. Sabbi, Amankwah, Baoteng, (2009) surveyed 322 informants among pre-tertiary teachers, educational researchers and directors and assistant directors of education, using proportional, purposive and random sampling techniques. The authors found that the MDG educational objectives promote enrolment without a commensurate incorporation of quality and or self-employable skill teaching and learning. Also, the inadequacy of logistic, support and personnel inhibit the requisite skills needed by pre-tertiary graduates to go into self-employment.

Education and health are inextricably linked, such that healthy young people are more likely to learn more effectively and that health promotion can assist schools to meet their targets in educational attainment and meet their social aims (Whitman, and Aldinger, 2009). Bergland (2012) posited that when individuals dedicate themselves to staying healthy they will have more energy, strength and stamina- which are keys to self-reliance. Consistent with this, Morrison & Peterson, (2007) said “individuals with positive mental health are more likely to be self-determined; that is, “to think about and act on personal decisions to contribute to emotional and physical growth”.

Schools have largely been noted to contribute to mental wellbeing of children and youths. According to Deci and Ryan (2007), psychological wellness and interest in goals attainment and personal growth among school users are associated with positive mental health approaches and perspectives in school curriculum. In addition, Stewart, Sun, Patterson, Lemerle and Hardie (2004), identified a school as an important environment for promoting the psychological wellness and resilience of children and youths. In this regard, a school provides a “critical context for shaping children’s self-esteem, self-efficacy and sense of control over their lives” (Stewart et al,2004). Lister-Sharp, Chapman, Stewart-Brown, & Sowden, (1999) in their study, found that healthy people who attend school tend to learn better. There is also research

evidence demonstrating that actively promoting health in schools can improve both educational and health outcomes for young people (Deci and Ryan 2007).

WHO (2007) asserted that a health promoting school implements policies, practices and other measures that respect an individual's self-esteem, provide multiple opportunities for success, and acknowledge good efforts and intentions as well as personal achievements. This means that effective health-based education management promotes mental health among school users. According to Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI), (2009), fostering the development of positive mental health by supporting individual resilience, creating supportive environments and addressing the influence of the broader determinants of mental health, are key components of promoting mental health.

This study came up from observable problems challenging the adoption of approaches and perspectives that could aid schools in Nigeria to actualize mental health and self-reliant policies and practices. Despite overwhelming evidences that health promotion in schools correlate positively with psychological wellness (Deci and Ryan, 2007), better learning (Lister sharp et al, 1999), self-determination (Morrison & Peterson, 2007), self-esteem (Stewart et al 2004), provide multiple opportunities for success (WHO, 2007), resilience and self-reliance among children and youths (Bergland, 2012), it is apparent that most schools in Akwa Ibom State (if not all) still lack robust health-based education management, educators in schools system appears to lack professional competence in initiating health-based education programmes that could improve mental health and self-reliant abilities among children and youths. Our education system is bedeviled with poor funding, poor infrastructure, poor implementation of educational policies, and lack of political will to revamp educational sector to promote self-reliance among graduates. This paper therefore seeks to investigate the actualization of mental health and self-reliance through health-based education management in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

Research Questions

The following research questions were asked to guide the study:

1. Is there any relationship between health based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools?
2. To what extent has integration of health-based education programmes in schools influenced the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools?
3. To what extent has Nigerian education system contributed to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between health based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among student in public secondary school.
2. There is no significant influence of integrated health-based programmes on mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools.
3. Nigerian education system has not contributed significantly to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools.

METHODOLOGY

This research study was a survey which used descriptive survey design. As a survey study, the researcher sought to investigate the actualization of mental health and self-reliance through

health-based education management in Nigeria. The study was conducted in Akwa Ibom State among physical and health education teachers in public secondary schools. There are a total of two hundred and thirty-three (233) public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State. Forty-five schools were randomly selected from nine Local Government Areas across the three senatorial districts in the state, and a total of seventy two physical and health Education teachers which constitute the sample for this study were found in the selected schools since not all the selected schools had up to two teachers for that subject. Both multistage cluster and purposive sampling technique were employed for the study. A four (4) points Likert type instrument called actualization of Mental Health and Self-reliance through Health-based Education Questionnaire (AMSHEQ) was designed by the researcher. The questionnaire was structured as follows: Strongly agree = 4 point, Agree = 3 points, Disagree = 2 points, and Strongly Disagree = 1 point. A criterion mean point $(4+3+2+1 = 10/4=2.5)$ was established to decide on actualization or non-actualization of mental health and self-reliance in schools. The reliability of the instrument was established using twenty (20) physical and health education teachers who were not part of the main survey. Cronbach's Alpha statistic was used to obtain a reliability coefficient of .741, which was considered high enough for the study.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation and regression analysis were the analytical tools used for the study.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The statistical treatment given to the data here in this section was based on the proposed hypothesis for the study.

Hypothesis 1: there is no significant relationship between health based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among student in public secondary schools. This hypothesis was raised to determine the relationship between health based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students. To analyze the data, Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was employed.

Table 1: Summary of the Correlations Analysis of the Relationship between Health Based Education management and the Actualization of mental health and self-Reliance among Students (N=72)

	Health Based Education Management (HBEM)	Mental Health and Self-Reliance (MH/SR)
Pearson Correlation	1	.613**
HBEM Sig, (2-tailed)		.000
N	72	72
Pearson Correlation	.613**	1
MH/SR Sig, (2-tailed)	.000	
N	72	72

****Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

The result shows a correlation coefficient of .613 which implies that there was a good relationship between health based education management and actualization of mental health and self-reliance. The significance value (P-value) of .000 which is less than .056 (level of significance) caused the rejection of the null hypothesis. Hence, there was a statistical significant relationship between health based education management and actualization of mental health and self-reliance among secondary school students in Akwa Ibom State.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant influence of integrated health programmes on mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary school.

Table 2: Summary of the regression Analysis of the Influence of integrated Health –based programmes on Actualization of mental and self-reliance among students (N=72)

Parameters	Coefficients	Standard error	T Stat	P.value
Constant	13.749	2.195	6.265	.000
IHBP	.275	.116	2.368	.021

R-Square = .596, Adjusted R-square = .512, F-Cal = 5.608, P-Value = 0.21

Independent variable: IHBP= Integrated Health Based Programmes

Dependent Variable: Mental health and self –Reliance

The result in the table above gives the R-Square value of .596 which implies that about 60% of the total variation in mental health and self-reliance among secondary school students was contributed by integrated-based programmes. That is, integrated-based programmes had 60% influence on the mental health and self-reliance of secondary school students. The F-value of 5.608 and P-value of .021 shows that the regression model for integrated health-based programmes and mental health and self-reliance was statistically significant at .05 level of Significance. The regression coefficient of .275 shows that integrated health-based programmes contributed positively to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students. The null hypothesis was rejected since the P-value of .021 was less than .05 (level of significance), hence, integrated health-based programmes had a significant influence on mental health and self-reliance of students in public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State.

Hypothesis 3: Nigeria education system has not contributed significantly to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools.

Table 3: summary of the Regression Analysis of the contribution of Nigeria Education system on Actualization of mental Health and Self-reliance among students (N=72)

Parameters	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value
Constant	16.627	2.010	8.272	.000
NES	.152	.107	1.420	.160

R- Square = .088, Adjusted R- Square = .053, F-cal = 2.016, P-Value = .160

Independent variable: NES = Nigeria Education System

Dependent Variable: Mantel Health and Self-reliance

The result in Table 3 gives the R- square vale of .088 which implies that about 9% of the total variation in mental health and self-reliance among secondary school student was contributed by Nigeria education system. This implies that, Nigeria education system had only 9% contribution to the mental health and self-reliance of secondary school students. The F–value of 2.016 and the P – value of .160 (greater than .05) shows that the regression model for the Nigeria education system and mental health and self-reliance was not significant. The regression coefficient of .152 shows that Nigeria education system contributed positively to the actualization on mental health self-reliance among students. Though the contribution was positive, the null hypothesis was retained since the P-value of .160 was greater than .05 (level of significance), hence, Nigerian education system had not contributed significantly to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The study was conducted to assess the importance of health-based education management to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance of public secondary school students in

Akwa Ibom State. Three research hypotheses were formulated to check the relationship and the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

Using appropriate statistical tools to assess the relationship between health-based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools, which was the first hypotheses for this study, it was found that a good and statistical significant relationship exists between health based education management and the actualization of mental health and self-reliance. This implies that, for students to have sound mental health and self-reliance there must equally be an effective health –based education management. This goes in line with the study conducted by Deci and Ryan (2007) which asserts that psychological wellness and personal growth are associated with positive mental health. Supporting this study is Cihi (2009), which argued that the development of positive mental health and self-reliance could be done by supporting and actively promoting health-based and skill-based programmes in the educational system.

The finding of the second hypothesis of this study investigating the influence of integrated health-based programme on mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary school revealed that integrated health-based programmes had a positive and significant influence on the mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools. This shows that the availability and accessibility of integrated health-based programmes by school students has a great impact on their physical and mental wellbeing which is a key factor to students' self-confidence. This is supported by a study conducted by Bergland (2012) which showed that healthy students have more energy, strength and stamina all these are key factors to self-reliance. Also, Peterson (2007), supported this study that persons with positive mental health are more likely to be self-determined as well as grow both physical and emotionally.

The third hypothesis of these studies assumed no significant contribution of Nigeria education system to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools, and this hypothesis was retained as revealed by the findings that the Nigerian education system had no significant contribution to the actualization of mental health and self-reliance among students in public secondary schools. This reveals the porous nature of the Nigeria education system which aim is to enhance economic, social and political changes in the country. This insignificant contribution of the education system of Nigeria shows very little has been done by the education sector in improving the mental health and self-reliance of students and as such failed to fully achieve the objective of secondary education. This agrees with the study of Ahmad (2014) which argued that the Nigeria education system is yet to equip the Nigerian students with the necessary skills for self-reliance.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that health based education management and mental health/self-reliance have positive relationship. Good education system and effective health management system is bound to produce students who are physically and mentally sound. The integrated health programmes had significant influence on the mental health and self-reliance of students and the education system of Nigeria contributed insignificantly to the mental health/self-reliance of students and as such contributes a great deal to the dependency and psychological trauma faced by Nigerian youths after graduation due to lack of skilled oriented programmes in the secondary education programme.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the study therefore recommends that:

- i. Health based education programmes should be incorporated into the secondary education system in Nigeira to enhance good mental health of the students and skills for self-reliance.
- ii. Health based education management in Nigeria should be in practice and not only on paper in order to achieve its desired objectives.
- iii. Government should make health-based and skilled oriented programmes mandatory at all levels of studies in order to enhance good mental/self-reliance among Nigerian students.

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HIV Counseling And Testing Services In University Of Uyo Youth Friendly Centre: Impact Of Students' Knowledge And Perception Of HIV And AIDS

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ABSTRACT

A study of the impact of HIV Counseling and Testing (HCT) services on students' knowledge and perception of HIV and AIDS was conducted at the Youth Friendly Centre (YFC), University of Uyo, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State. The purpose was to find out whether the students who received HCT services of the YFC have acquired knowledge on causes, mode of transmission, and prevention of HIV and AIDS, as well as gained improved perception about the infection. A sample of 840 students who had received HCT services at the YFC were randomly selected from four faculties housed in the Town and Annex Campuses of UNIUYO using disproportional random sampling technique. The instrument title "Knowledge and Perception of HIV and AIDS Questionnaire (KPKHIVAIDQ)" was used for data collection. The instrument was validated and pre-tested for reliability using test-retest approach. A reliability coefficient of .82 was obtained after analysis. The instrument was administered on 840 respondents and all were completed, returned and used for analysis. Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used for data analysis. The results showed that the students are knowledgeable on causes and modes of transmission of HIV and AIDS. They are not adequately knowledgeable on the preventive measures of HIV and AIDS as they still believed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through prayers. Still, a little less than one-half of them disagreed on sexual abstinence as means of preventing of HIV and AIDS. The students have different perception of HIV and AIDS as some still believed that they can tell that a person has HIV and AIDS by merely looking at the person's physical appearance. And that there is no need to take HIV and AIDS test if one is not at risk. The YFC of UNIUYO should intensify enlightenment campaigns and education on HIV and AIDS among the students.

INTRODUCTION

In Nigeria, HIV Counseling and Testing (HCT) services have been the crux of HIV surveillance, prevention and treatment programs. It is described as a process by which one undergoes counseling to enable one make an informed choice for the future (Akpabio, 2015). It has been recognized as a vital entry point to HIV services including prevention, care and support. It provides people with essential knowledge and support that can help uninfected people to remain safe, and enable those infected with HIV to plan for the future and prevent HIV transmission to others. Onyeonaro, Emelumadu, Onwukwe and Ndukwe (2014) noted that through HCT services, the infected individuals can satisfactorily benefit from the available care, treatment and support, either from governmental or non-governmental agencies.

The young uninfected people are vulnerable to, and they are at greater risk of acquiring HIV infection because of their lifestyle. In spite of the obvious vulnerability of this group to HIV infection, the available interventions, including HCT services, targeting them are few in Nigeria. HCT services are predominantly clinic-based. Consequently, youths are disproportionately disadvantaged because they do not often utilize clinical services like their adult counterparts. Wusu and Okonukoni (2011) reported that the current orientation and pattern of provision of health care services in Nigeria is not youth friendly.

To address this problem, the National Agency for the Control of AIDS (NACA) recommended the establishment of Youth Friendly Centers (YFC) in all Nigerian Universities as a means of creating youth friendly access for HIV/AIDS voluntary counseling and testing services. This was done as a strategy to fighting HIV and AIDS pandemic (Ajuwon, Titilaye, Oshiname and Oyemole, 2012).

In University of Uyo (UNIUYO), the YFC was established on April 11, 2007. The centre provides recreational facilities conducive enough for the students while accessing HIV and AIDS counseling and testing services. The attractive facilities available at the centre for students include indoor games, internet services, place for reading and social interactions, and free HIV counseling and testing services. The result of HIV testing comes out within ten minutes. The centre also undertakes other programs such as mass enlightenment campaigns targeting students in the University. The intensity of the program includes visits to students in hostels; weekly health talks held at the YFC, and observation of World AIDS Day every year on the first day of December. The center collaborates with Student Union Government and all the faculties of the university to raise awareness on HCT services (Akpabio, 2015).

Wusu and Okonukoni, (2011) reported that increasing youths access to HCT services does not only enhance their access to HCT services but also increase their knowledge on HIV and AIDS and promote imitation of the recommended risk reduction behaviors. However, the effectiveness of the HCT services in the YFC, University of Uyo, has never been assessed. In essence, there is a need to examine the impact of the HCT services on students' knowledge of causes, mode of transmission, and methods of prevention of HIV and AIDS, as well determining their perception of the infection.

Specifically, the questions raised for this study are: Do the HCT services of the YFC, University of Uyo, Nigeria, help the students to improve their:

1. Knowledge on causes of HIV and AIDS?
2. Knowledge on mode of transmission of HIV and AIDS?
3. Knowledge on prevention of HIV and AIDS?
4. Perception of HIV and AIDS?

METHODOLOGY

The ex post facto survey research design was adopted in this study because of the assumption that the variables of the study had already occurred. The researchers had no control of the variables, but only assess and report as they existed. The population consisted of the entire 13,729 students of the Town and Annex campuses of UNIUYO (Ikpatt, 2016). This population excluded the students of other campuses (Ediene and Permanent Site) of the university because they are located far away from the YFC serving the students of the Town and Annex campuses. A sample of 840 students who had received HCT services at the YFC were selected using disproportional random sampling technique from four faculties housed in the Town and Annex Campuses of UNIUYO. The facilities were Agriculture and Law in Annex Campus and

Arts and Education in Town campus. Two hundred and ten students were selected from each of the four faculties making up 840 respondents for the study.

The instrument for data collection was researcher-developed questionnaire titled "knowledge and perception of HIV and AIDS Questionnaire" (KPKHIVAIDQ). The KPKHIVAIDQ was developed in five sections (A-E). Section A elicited demographic data (gender, age and marital status) from the respondents. Sections B-D sought information on respondents' knowledge of causes, mode of transmission, and methods of prevention of HIV and AIDS respectively. Section E gathered information on respondents' perception of HIV and AIDS after receiving HCT services at the YFC of UNIUYO. The instrument was validated by three eminent researchers in Health Education and Psychology in UNIUYO. The instrument was pretested on 25 students in University of Port Harcourt, River State, Nigeria who had received HCT services at the YFC of their institution, using test-retest approach. They were not part of the main study but had similar characteristics with the respondents in the main study. The scores obtained from the first and second administration of the instrument were correlated using Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistic. The result yielded a reliability coefficient of .82.

The KPKHIVAIDQ was thereafter administered to the 840 selected respondents in the University of Uyo. Each respondent was given instruction on how to complete the questionnaire. After completion, it was returned to the researcher who issued it. The 840 copies of the KPKHIVAIDQ were completed satisfactorily and returned for analysis. The data collected were analyzed using frequencies and percentages.

RESULTS

The results are presented in tables 1-5.

Table 1: Demographic Data of Respondents

Variable	f	%
Gender		
Female	463	55.1
Male	377	44.9
Age in Years		
16-20	253	30.1
21-24	357	42.5
25-29	124	14.8
30 and above	106	12.6
Marital status		
Single	645	76.8
Married	149	17.7
Divorced	46	5.5

Table 1 shows that the respondents were both females (55.1%) and males (44.1%). Their age brackets were 16-20 years (30.1%), 21-24 years (42.5%), 25-29 years (14.8%), and 30 years and above (12.6%). Majority of the respondents were single (76.8%), other were married (17.7%) and divorced (5.5%).

Table 2: Respondents percentage scores on knowledge of causes of HIV and AIDS (N=840)

Items	Agree	Disagree
HIV and AIDS are caused by bacteria	323 (38.45%)	517 (61.55%)
HIV and AIDS are punishment for sin from God	266 (31.67%)	517 (68.33%)
HIV and AIDS are caused by witchcraft and other spiritual agents	164 (19.52%)	676 (80.48%)
HIV and AIDS are caused by virus	754 (89.76%)	86 (10.24%)

Data in Table 2 shows that 61.55% of the respondents disagreed to the statement that HIV and AIDS are caused by bacteria. Majority of them (68.33%), disagreed that HIV and AIDS come as a punishment for sin from God. A greater proportion of the respondents (80.48%) disagreed to the statement that HIV and AIDS are caused by witchcraft and other spiritual agents. A higher proportion of the respondents (89.76%) agreed that HIV and AIDS are caused by virus. Generally, these responses indicate that the respondents are knowledgeable about the causes of HIV and AIDS.

Table 3: Respondents percentage scores on knowledge of HIV and AIDS transmission.

Item	Agree	Disagree
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through blood transfusion.	669 (83.21%)	141 (16.79%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through handshake with an infected person	318 (37.86%)	522 (62.14%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through using the same toilet the infected person used	279 (33.21%)	561 (66.79%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through needle and skin piercing instruments that an infected person used	726 (86.43%)	114 (10.36%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through sexual intercourse.	753 (59.64%)	87 (10.36%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted from infected mother to unborn child	501 (59.64%)	339 (40.36%)
HIV and AIDS can be transmitted through breast feeding	518 (61.67%)	322 (38.33%)

As shown in Table 3, majority of the respondents (83.21%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through blood transfusion. On whether HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through handshake with an infected person, (62.14%) of the respondents disagreed. High proportion (66.79%) of them also disagreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through using the same toilet used by the infected person. Larger proportion of the respondents (86.64%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through sharing needle and skin piercing instruments with an infected person. Majority of the respondents (89.64%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through sexual intercourse with an infected person. On whether HIV and AIDS could be transmitted from an infected mother to unborn child, 59.64% of the respondents agreed. They (61.67%) also agreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through breast feeding. The overall, responses indicate that the respondents are knowledgeable on the modes of transmission of HIV and AIDS.

Table 4: Respondents' percentage scores on knowledge of preventive measure of HIV and AIDS

Item	Agree	Disagree
HIV and AIDS can be prevented through prayers.	363 (43.21%)	477 (56.79%)
HIV and AIDS can be prevented through abstaining from sexual intercourse.	497 (59.17%)	343 (40.83%)
HIV and AIDS can be prevented through use of condoms.	788 (93.81%)	52 (6.19%)
HIV and AIDS can be prevented through sticking to one sexual partner.	555 (66.07%)	285 (33.93%)
HIV and AIDS can be prevented By not sharing needle and other sharp skin piercing instruments.	565 (67.26%)	275 (32.74%)
HIV and AIDS can be prevented By not touching blood soak material	501 (60.12%)	339 (39.88%)

Data in Table 4 showed that 56.79% of the respondents disagreed to the statement that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through prayers. On whether HIV and AIDS could be prevented through abstaining from sexual intercourse, 59.17%) respondents agreed, while 40.83% disagreed.

A higher proportion of the respondent (93.81%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through the use of condoms, while only 6.12% of them disagreed. Sticking to one sexual partner could prevent HIV and Aids, 66.07% of the respondents agreed and 33.93% disagreed. More than one-half of the respondents (67.26%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented by not sharing needles of other sharp skin piercing instruments. Five hundred and five (60.12%) respondents agreed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented by not touching blood soaked material without wearing protective gloves.

Table 5: Percentage scores on perception of HIV and AIDS (N=840)

Item	Agree	Disagree
HIV and Aids are death sentence	460 (54.76%)	380 (45.24%)
One can tell that a person has HIV and AIDS by personal appearance	471 (56.07%)	369 (43.93%)
There is no need to HIV and AIDS test if one is not at risk	422 (50.24%)	418 (49.76%)
HIV and AIDS can be cured by herbal medicine and alternative medicine.	393 (46.76%)	447 (53.21%)
HIV and AIDS has no cur	780 (92.86%)	60 (7.14%)
HIV and AIDS can be managed with drugs.	591 (70.36%)	249 (29.64%)

As indicated in Table 5, 54.76% of the respondents agreed that HIV and AIDS are death sentence. More than one half of them (56.07%) agreed that one can tell that a person has HIV and AIDS by merely looking at personal appearance, while 43.93% disagreed. Four hundred and twenty-two representing 50.24% of the respondents agreed that if one is not at risk of HIV and AIDS, there is no need to take HIV and AIDS test, but 49.76% of them disagreed. More than one-half of the respondents (53.21%) disagrees that HIV and AIDS can be cured by herbal medicine and alternative medicine. Majority of the respondents (92.8%) agreed that HIV and Aids have no cure. On the statement that HIV and AIDS could be cured through prayer, 54.3% of the respondents agreed and while 45.7% disagreed. As high as 70.36% of the respondents agreed that HIV and AIDS could be managed with drugs.

DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to assess the impact of HIV Counselling and testing (HCT) service on students' knowledge of cause, modes of transmission, preventive measures and perception of HIV and AIDS. Students in the Town and Annex campuses of UNIUYO who had visited YFC for HCT services supplied information for this study. Majority of them were within the age range of 16-24 years. They were more females than males. Majority of them were singles in marital status. Young people with these characteristics are most vulnerable to HIV and AIDS. They are at greater risk of acquiring HIV and AIDS because of their lifestyle. Wusu and Okonukoni (2011) stated that the current orientation and pattern of provision of the health care services in Nigeria is not youth friendly. HIV counseling and testing services in Nigeria are predominantly clinic based, and youths are disproportionately disadvantaged because they do not often utilize clinic service like their adult counterparts.

The result of this study on knowledge of causes of HIV and AIDS indicated that majority of the students (89.76%) agreed that HIV and AIDS are caused by virus. The finding agrees with Unadike, Erikpo and Bassey (2012) who found that very high proportion of their respondents (students) identified virus as being the cause of HIV and AIDS. The respondents in the present study did not agree that HIV and AIDS come as q punishment from God, or being caused by witchcraft and other spiritual agents. The result contradicted that of Asante and Oti-Boadi (2013) who reported that HIV and AIDS are viewed as diseases that afflict immoral people as a punishment from God for their sins. The fact is that HIV and AIDS can affect any person whether "immoral or moral" because one can contact AIDS through other means apart from sexual intercourse. The finding also differ from the views of Nanaan and Obet (2013) who stated that most Africans attributed the causes of HIV and AIDS to witchcraft and other spiritual agents.

On knowledge of HIV and AIDS transmission, findings revealed that majority of respondents agreed that HIV and AIDS are transmitted through blood transfusion, sexual intercourse, and through the use of needles and skin piercing instruments already contaminated by HIV and AIDS infected person. They also agreed to the transmission of HIV and AIDS from an infected mother to the unborn child, as well as through breast feeding.

In study by Hesses, Adu – Aryee, Etnsuamensah and Wu (2006), most of their respondents mention blood as number one mode of transmission. Blood is one of the easiest ways of transmitting any disease infection. The findings supported that of Jang-Wook, Byoung- Gwon, Soo-Hyun and Changsu (2006) who found that HIV could be transmitted through needle stick. The present finding also agreed with Nanaan and Obert (2013) whose respondents (98.4%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be transmitted through unprotected sexual intercourse with an infected person.

On knowledge of preventive measures of HIV and AIDS, it was surprising to find that up to 43.2% of the respondents agreed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through prayers. The group may be those who believe in the power of prayers for healing. Findings further revealed that a higher proportion of the respondents (93.81%) agreed that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through the use of condoms. Only 59.17% of the respondents agreed the HIV and AIDS could be prevented through abstaining from sexual intercourse, while 40.83% disagreed. Those who disagreed to sexual abstinence as a means to prevent HIV and Aids may be having negative attitudes towards involvement in indiscriminate sexual activities. The respondent agreed that one can prevent HIV and AIDS by having only one healthy and loyal sexual partner, by not sharing needle and skin piercing instruments with HIV infected person, and by not touching blood soaked materials with bare hands. These results showed that the students are knowledge about HIV and AIDS preventive measures, but they still require sensitization on the A, B, C of HIV and AIDS prevention. That is, Abstinence from sexual intercourse, Be faithful to sexual partner, and Condoms use for coital activities.

On students' perception of HIV and AIDS, findings revealed that respondents viewed HIV and AIDS as a death sentence. They agreed that one can tell that a person has HIV and AIDS by merely looking at the persons' appearance, and that there is no need to take HIV and AIDS test if one is not at risk of HIV and AIDS. These results revealed that the students are still ignorant of facts about HIV and AIDS. There is need for health education intervention to upgrade their knowledge of HIV and AIDS. More than one-half of the respondents (54.3%) agreed that HIV and AIDS can be cured through prayer. And that HIV and AIDS could be managed with drugs. The students tend to be confused as majority of them (92.8%) agreed that HIV and AIDS have no cure. But, they earlier agreed that HIV and AIDS could be cured through prayer. This result showed that more work needs to be done on education and enlightenment of students on the importance of HCT service at the YFC.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that the student of UNIUYO who had received HCT services from the YFC are knowledgeable on the causes and modes of transmission of HIV and AIDS. Up to 40.83% of the respondents did not agree that HIV and AIDS could be prevented through sexual abstinence. It was further concluded that the respondents have poor perception of HIV and AIDS as they agreed that they can tell the person with HIV and AIDS by merely looking at the person's physical appearance. And that there would be no need for HIV testing, if one is not at risk. Some of them tend to forget that they are sharing barbing equipment and accepting blood transfusion.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- The YFC of the university should intensify enlightenment campaign and education on HIV and AIDS to the students
- Students should be sensitized on the importance of accepting voluntary counseling and testing service, even when they are not infected with HIV and AIDS, especially when they are exposed to conditions that can transmit HIV and AIDS such as sharing barbing equipment and accepting blood transfusion.
- The University should include HIV and AIDS as part of the topic in general studies curriculum for students.
- The University should employ a Health Educator among the staff of the YFC to champion the HIV and AIDS education to students at the centre. The education should target mostly the newly admitted students of the University.

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Exploring Esp Needs of Undergraduate Nursing Students in A University In Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the English for specific Purposes (ESP) needs of nursing students in a university in Semarang, Indonesia. This study employed a descriptive qualitative design and involved a total of 116 undergraduate students recruited using purposive sampling. A self-administered questionnaire adopted from Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive (1999) was utilized. To meet the purpose of the study, some necessary adjustments were made to the questionnaire. This questionnaire was particularly aimed at gathering the students' views on (1) the importance of English language in students' studies and future careers, (2) basic skills needed in nursing English course and students' problems in English learning, and (3) suggestions for the development of English language curriculum. In addition to the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews with 10 students were also carried out to gather their perspectives related to the study. The collected data were descriptively analyzed and presented in the form of frequency and procentage. The results revealed that English was perceived as very important for students both in their academic studies and future careers. The students wanted basic English language skills to be included and emphasized in the course for a number of reasons, naming speaking as the most important skill to master. Limited vocabulary and poor grammar were two most highly rated problems the students perceived in their study. The students desired to have a combination of general English and specific nursing English throughout the study.

Keywords: ESP needs, English for nursing, needs analysis, nursing students

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the demand for non-native speakers of English who want to learn English in their particular domains is growing increasingly [1]. This happens worldwide including in Indonesia. As the first foreign language, English is thought to be the compulsory subjects at school curriculum [2]. At the university levels, English also receives a growing concern. It is not only taught for students of English department but also students across disciplines. English is deemed to be a crucial skill that should be mastered by students and staffs [3].

As an attempt to achieve more optimal outcomes, in the practice of English language teaching, the needs of students in different fields or disciplines have been increasingly investigated. Some studies revealed the high importance of English in related disciplines. However, some studies also indicated that the English courses at universities were not able to fulfill the students' expectations, such as in Aliakbari and Boghayeri [4], Chia, Johnson, Chia, and Olive [5], and Mazdayasna and Tahririan [6]. These findings lead to a further discussion and

development for the practice of English teaching to meet the needs of the students in specific areas of study.

The practice of teaching English to different fields of science is known as English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It is defined as an applied English language teaching as the content and aims of the course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners. ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners, makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves, and focuses not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register) but also the skills, discourses, and genres appropriate to those activities [7]. Hutchinson and Waters [8] point out that ESP is “an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to contents and methods are based on the learner’s reason for learning.” In ESP, learner’s needs are often described in terms of performance that is in terms of what the learners will be able to do with the language at the end of a course study [9]. ESP differs from general English as it broadens one’s knowledge about the specific subject matter by offering intensively specialized vocabulary, for example, that in turn prepares learners to use the language in their future professions [10].

English for Nursing Purposes (ENP) is one of the sub-branches of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). ENP targets audiences who are non-English speaking student nurses who need career-specific language, i.e., the language which is useful for their work-related duties. It depicts skills and competency level beyond that of general English [11]. English for nursing focusses on the specific ways in which nurses use English both in the clinical setting as well as in nursing education [12].

The teaching of English for nursing students has been practiced for years. Meeting the students’ specific needs using underlying methodologies and activities of the discipline and focusing on the language appropriate to these activities should be the main concerns of this teaching practice [4]. However, there can be a mismatch between what the students need and what the course offers. Mazdayasna and Tahririan [6] analyzed the English needs of undergraduate medical science students studying in the faculties of nursing and midwifery using questionnaires and interviews. The findings revealed that ESP courses provided were not as effective as it was supposed to be and did not meet the learners’ needs. They concluded that most of the ESP courses in Iran were conducted without consultation with specialists and without assessing the learners’ needs. Liu, Chang, Yang, and Sun [13] also reported discrepancies between students’ perceptions of needs and the actual courses they took. Similarly, Aliakbari and Boghayeri [4] also found some dissatisfaction of the learners towards the English course given, particularly with the textbooks, the pertinent topics, and length of the courses. They argued that there has been no empirical investigation of the communicative needs of health professionals in the workplace in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, teaching English for medical purposes is far from satisfactory in terms of customizing ESP courses by using the language situation at the workplace as the input to feed ESP courses. Based on the results of the study, they concluded that some revisions of the current programs seemed to be necessary to offer more effective ESP courses for the students [4].

In the practice of ESP teaching, in order to determine learners’ needs as a basis for developing ESP programs, a need analysis is then required. Brown [14] identifies the term ‘needs analysis’ (also called needs assessment) as the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum which meets the learning needs of a particular group of students. Witkin and Altschuld (1995) in Alharby [15] defines needs analysis as a systematic set of procedures undertaken to set priorities and making decisions about programs or organizational improvement and allocation of resources. According to this

definition, needs analysis should fill the “gap” of needs between the current state of affairs and the desired state of affairs [15]. Moreover, Basturkmen [16] mentions that needs analysis is the identification of language and skills are used in determining and refining the contents of a course, such as English for a specific course.

So far, there have been many studies on the use of needs analysis in ESP contexts, such as in medical science [5], chemistry [17], engineering [18], transportation science [1], architects [4], business and public administration [10], maritime science [19], and nursing and midwifery [20], [6], [21], [2], [22], [23]. These studies urge the practice of needs analysis to identify student needs in different disciplines where the ESP course is given since many revealed unmet findings between the needs and the courses given.

In Indonesia, the demand for English language teaching has been increasing both in private sectors and informal institutions. However, this situation has not invoked sufficient research in ESP [4]. Furthermore, the studies focusing on the English needs of nursing students are also still limited. Referencing to Hutchinson and Waters [8] that learners’ needs and interests have a powerful relationship in regard to motivation in learning English, it is then necessary to conduct a study to investigate the needs of ESP courses, especially English for Nursing Purposes; therefore, the English course developed can be more relevant to the students’ demands and goals. This study aimed to investigate the ESP needs of undergraduate nursing students in a public university in Indonesia. In particular, the study aimed to find out the students’ perceptions on (1) the importance of English language in students’ studies and future careers, (2) basic English skills needed in the nursing English course and their problems, and (3) suggestions for the development of an English language curriculum.

METHODS

This study employed a descriptive qualitative research design to describe the ESP needs of nursing students. A total of 116 undergraduate nursing students recruited by purposive sampling technique participated in the study. A self-administered questionnaire adopted from Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive [5] was utilized. The questionnaire was modified to meet the purpose of the study. The newly modified questionnaire was reviewed, back-to-back translated, piloted and revised for this study. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section described the demographic profile of the participants; the second described the participants’ perceptions of English in college and professional careers, and the third described the perceived language skill needs and problems; the fourth explored the opinions of students concerning their language demands, attitudes towards language instruction, length of the course as well as the content, syllabus, and methodology of the specialized English course. The questionnaire was then distributed to the students to have their responses. In addition to the data from the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews with randomly selected students (n=10) were also conducted to gain their views on ESP needs. The collected data from the questionnaire were descriptively analyzed and presented in the form of frequency and percentage. Meanwhile, the results of interviews were also described to support the findings.

This study was approved by the school where the study took place. The participants were informed and gave consent for their voluntary participation. Their identities were kept confidential. They had the freedom to withdraw from the study anytime without any negative consequences.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile of Students

The majority of students in this study ($n = 102$) were female (87.9%). Most of them were of age 22-24 years old (72.4%), and the rest were between 19-21 years old (27.59%). All students (100%) had experiences of learning English language previously either started in elementary school or junior high school.

Importance of English for students' studies and future careers

Question (Q) 1-2 described the importance of English for students' studies and future careers. Of the total number of respondents, the majority ($n=95$; 81.90%) mentioned that English was very important. The remaining 19 (16.38%) and 2 (1.72%) mentioned that English was important and quite important, respectively. In terms of the perceptions of English for future careers, 91 (78.45%) and 24 (20.69%) of respondents stated that English was very important and important, respectively. Only 1 respondent (0.86%) mentioned that English was quite important for his future career.

Perceived English language skills for nursing students and their problems

Questions 3-10 in this study captured the students' perceptions about which of the skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing, was the most important skill for study and future careers, and the problems that the students faced in learning English. It was revealed that the majority of respondents (49.14%) perceived speaking as the most important skill for study and career. Next, the students viewed writing (22.14%), listening (16.38%), and reading (12.07%) as the other important skills after speaking.

Regarding the teaching of English skills within the course, the students reported that listening should be included in the language program for the reasons of understanding daily conversation (87.07%), understanding lectures (6.03%), understanding radio and TV programs (3.45%), and others (3.45%). Meanwhile, reading should be included for the reasons of understanding professional journals (81.03%), reading textbooks (9.48%), reading English newspapers and magazines (5.17%), and others (4.31%). As for speaking, students perceived that carrying out daily conversations (79.31%) and presenting reports in front of the class were the most dominant reasons for including speaking in the course. In terms of writing, the students perceived that they needed to learn writing in order to write correct sentences (37.93), to write various texts (31.03%), to write research reports (18.97%) and to write for practical purposes (12.07%).

In their future career, the majority of students perceived that understanding English textbooks and journals (40.52%), understanding lectures in class (19.83%), presenting reports (15.52%), carrying out daily conversations (16.38%), as well as writing research reports (7.76%) were the most dominant English skills the students needed to gain success in their future careers in nursing.

Regarding the English language problems as perceived by the students, limited vocabulary (39.66%), poor grammar (32.76%), limited skill of speaking (18.96%), poor listening comprehension (6.89%) and poor writing skill (5.17) were rated highest as the problems the students faced in their study.

English language curriculum, course contents and materials

Most students (81.03%), in response to Q11, believed that the materials they learn in English course should be relevant to their study. Regarding the amount of the materials (Q12), 48.28% of stated that 70-89% of the English materials should be relevant to their discipline, while

30.17% believed that the relevancy should be 50-69%. The remaining 12.07% and 9.48% mentioned that the relevancy should be 90-100% and 30-49%, respectively.

Furthermore, when asked about the curriculum design (Q13), the most suitable design perceived by the students (44.83%) was general English in the first semester, and English for nursing in semester two to eight. Another alternative was general English in the first semester, and English for nursing in semester two and three, as indicated by 27.58% of respondents.

Table 1. Perceived Language Curriculum Design

Type of course design	f	%
General English in 1 st and 2 nd semester, no English for nursing.	2	1.72
General English in 1 st semester and English for nursing in 2 nd semester	22	18.97
English for nursing in 1 st and 2 nd semester with no general English.	8	6.89
General English in 1 st semester and English for nursing in 2 nd and 3 rd semester	32	27.59
General English in 1 st semester and English for nursing in 2 nd to 8 th semester	52	44.84

RESULTS OF INTERVIEWS

Ten students were randomly selected for interviews after they completed the questionnaires and expressed availability for interviews. This number was chosen considering the time constraints in the data collection. Three questions, i.e., the importance of English for nursing students, the most important English language skill for nursing students, and the problems that most nursing students encountered in learning English were given to the students. These questions were quite similar to those stated in the questionnaire. However, it was expected that more detailed information was gained from the students.

In response, all respondents (100%) perceived English as very important for both study and future career. It was one of the reasons why the students had more motivation to learn English in their school. For them, mastering English is crucial to help achieving better future and career. Two students also mentioned that they wanted to work abroad as nurses where English served as the medium of communication. To achieve the dream, they had to learn and master English so that they would not any problems in terms of communication.

Similar to the results of questionnaire, most students (83.33%) perceived speaking as the most important skill for nursing students. It was for a reason that nurse students had to communicate a lot with the patients in performing their duty in delivering care. The nurses should do some assessment to the patients and carrying out interventions as a part of nursing process. These duties required nurses to have excellent communication skills, and speaking played a vital role in this context.

The third question in the interview elicited students' problems in learning English. The majority of students (83.33%) found poor grammar and limited vocabulary as the two main problems in their learning. The rest (16.67%) experienced a difficulty in speaking as the main problem.

DISCUSSION

This study describes a needs analysis conducted to investigate the ESP needs of undergraduate nursing students in a public university in Indonesia. The learners' needs were assessed through questionnaires and interviews. A total of 116 students participated in the study; ten of

whom were randomly selected for interviews. The demographic data revealed that the majority of students were females and aged of 22-24 years old.

Importance of English for nursing students

The first part of this study addressed the views and perceptions of students regarding the ESP needs. The findings revealed that the majority of students (81.90%) considered English as very important, whereas the remaining viewed English as important and quite important (16.38% and 1.72%). Results of interviews also indicated that English is considered very important for nursing students. These results are congruent with the findings by Chia, Johnson, Chia, and Olive [5], Pongsapan, Wello, and Jabu [2], and Rostami and Zafarghandi [17] which emphasizes the importance of nursing English. Mastering English for nursing students is important since using English, students can do and access many things more easily such as reading books, browsing internets to learn nursing topics and materials, and practicing competence-based tests as required for registered-nurse testing, where English is utilized.

Along with the era of globalization nowadays, the demand for non-native speakers of English who want to learn English in their particular domains is growing increasingly [1], and this also occurs in the nursing context. Thus, it is no wonder that English has been the compulsory subjects at school curriculum [5]. Similarly, at the university levels, English also receives a growing concern since it is not only taught for students of English department but also students across disciplines. English is deemed to be a crucial skill that should be mastered by students and staffs [3].

Perceived English language skills for nursing students and their problems

The second part of the study captured the students' perceptions of the most important skill for study and future careers and the students' problems in learning English. It was found out that the majority of respondents (49.14%) perceived speaking as the most important skill for study and career. Interestingly, a similar finding is also indicated in the interview results where 83.33% of students perceived speaking as the most important skill. The fact that nurses have to communicate a lot with the patients in performing their duty in delivering care is associated with this finding. Similarly, studies by Gass [20], Pongsapan, Wello, and Jabu [2], and Saragih [22] also revealed that speaking is the most important skill for nursing students. However, this finding is in contrast with a study by Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive [5] which found the reading was the most important skill for students of medical studies.

In this study, speaking is mostly needed since in their study and career, nursing students have to communicate a lot with the patients in performing their duty in the delivery of nursing care. The nurses should do some assessment to the patients and carrying out interventions as a part of nursing process. These duties require nurses to have excellent communication skills, and speaking plays a vital role in this context. Nurses also need to communicate so they can find out about the people in their care by taking a nursing history, give them information about their care and teach them about managing their illness [25]. Some informational skills such interviewing techniques, giving instructions, asking for cooperation, checking readiness, explaining medical information in language that is easy to understand, explaining procedures, asking for permission, giving feedback, understanding colloquial language, and teaching techniques are also required by the nurses and need excellent speaking skill [26].

With regard to the teaching of English skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) within the course, it was indicated that nursing students reported the need of all four language skills to be included in the language program for a number of reasons. Students learn and develop listening skill to understand daily conversation, lectures, and radio and TV programs. They also

learn reading to comprehend journals, read textbooks, and read English newspapers and magazines, and learn speaking skill to carry out daily conversations and present reports in front of the class. Furthermore, they learn writing to write correct sentences, write various texts, research reports and write for practical purposes. All these four skills are needed by the students to perform optimally in their study and future career. This is in line with the concept of ESP which is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners, makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves, and focuses not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register) but also the skills, discourses, and genres appropriate to those activities [7]. English for nursing targets audiences who need career-specific language, i.e., the language which is useful for their work-related duties [11].

The problems of nursing students in learning English are associated with limited vocabulary, poor grammar, limited skill of speaking, poor listening comprehension, and poor writing skill. These findings are relevant with studies by Chia, Johnson, Chia, and Olive [5], Gass [20], Susandi and Krishnawati [27], and Rostami and Zafarghandi [17]. Limited vocabulary and poor grammar are the most dominant problems of nursing students. Therefore, it is expected that the ESP nursing course should give more concern on these two issues. Having to use the vocabulary and structures taught in meaningful situations that relate to the students' discipline will reinforce what is learned and raises their motivation [10]. It is expected that these problems can be minimized to help students achieve more success in their study.

English language curriculum, course contents and materials

Most students (81.03%) believed that the materials they learn in English course should be relevant to their study. The material relevance with a range of 70-89% was mostly perceived by the majority of students (48.28%). It is expected that by learning materials which are relevant to the discipline, students can relate what they have got in nursing courses with that in the English course. As a result, the learning can be more meaningful since students learn what they have been exposed to. This concept of relevancy is an important aspect of ESP courses as proposed by Dudley-Evans [7]. ESP programs are meant to equip learners with the required information and skills in their target subjects; they are designed for tertiary level students who aim to learn English for particular purposes (Ghanbari & Rasekh, 2012 as cited in Albassri [10]).

Regarding the curriculum design, most students (44.83%) perceived that general English in the first semester and English for nursing in semester two to eight was the most suitable. Another alternative was general English in the first semester, and English for nursing in semester two and three, as indicated by 27.58% of respondents. This finding implies that a combination of general English and discipline specific English is necessary for students as indicated in Chia, Johnson, Chia, and Olive [5].

ESP nursing courses differ from general English since they broaden someone's knowledge about the specific subject matter by offering intensively specialized vocabulary that in turn prepares learners to use the language in their future professions. The learners in an ESP course will frequently know more about the technical aspects of the subjects [10]. On the other hand, General English prepares students for the kind of English they will need in everyday situations. It emphasizes the development of communication skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are also taken into account [28]. The present finding indicates that a combination of general English and specific English for nursing students is necessary. It is expected that the curriculum designers could refer to this evidence for the improvement of nursing curricula.

CONCLUSION

The present study showed an evidence that English is highly important for nursing students for their current study and future careers. The students needed English for a number of purposes such as understanding journals, understanding lectures in class, presenting reports, carrying out daily conversations, writing research reports, and so on. They also wanted to learn basic English course and specific nursing English course in their study. A combination of English in the first semester and English for nursing in semester two to eight was mostly preferred by the students. Regarding the English language problems as perceived by the students, limited vocabulary, poor grammar, limited skill of speaking, poor listening comprehension, and poor writing skill were rated highest as the problems the students faced in their study. This study can be a reference for English teachers or subject-specific teachers to reconsider their teaching practice by taking into account the students' needs and expectations in their study.

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Undergraduate Economics Students' Opinion about Research Supervisors: The Ghanaian Public University Context

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ABSTRACT

Supervisor-student relationship is crucial for completion of an undergraduate programme since students, as a requirement to complete, are expected to write a project work. The purpose of this study was to find economics students' views about their supervisors. Using a cross-sectional descriptive design, 148 economics major trainee teachers from two faculties in a public university were randomly selected. The study showed that students had opinions that supervisors are guides who must show interest in students' research. Again, students' opinion was that they did not have adequate guidance and mentoring from supervisors and this contributed to their negative perceptions relative to their relationship with supervisors. Also, gender was found to have an association with students' perception about relationship with supervisors. The study advocated for measures to be put in place to mitigate the negative effects of student-supervisor rift which has detrimental effects on student completion rates among students in Ghana.

Key words: research supervisor; undergraduate; economics students; supervisory relationship; supervisor role

INTRODUCTION

Undergraduate students have often had negative perceptions about their relationship with supervisors due to a number of reasons. Among others, they have always harbored suspicions about supervisors desire to frustrate the progress of their project work. Supervisors have therefore been painted in a bad light because of these unsubstantiated perceptions. Some students have had to report supervisors to the Heads of Department or sometimes to the Deans of the school Graduate Studies (SGS) to intervene to find lasting solution to the problems. In the University of Competitive Choice (UCC), the setting of the current study, these incidences never seem to stop. The situation is worrying especially because of its ability to obliterate the cordial relationship which hitherto exists between students and supervisors. In UCC, the SGS in collaboration with other Colleges within universities continue to organise programmes for students and supervisors to sensitize them on the need to play their expected roles to improve graduate completion rates. In most public universities in Ghana, completion rates among graduate students are often low even though the same trend seems to emerge with undergraduates.

Burgeoning literature on graduate and post graduate studies recognises graduate supervision as a process involving complex academic and interpersonal skills (Sahlberg, 2006). In my candid opinion, same applies to undergraduate supervision. These skills include guiding graduate students towards sound proposal preparation and defense, methodological choices, documenting and publishing their research, maintaining both supportive and professional relationships, as well as reflecting on the research process. These can be achieved only when

there is a harmonious relationship between the student and their supervisor. Faculty member involved in supervision of graduate and post graduate research are often required to possess the right interpersonal skills to play the role of a promoter and supervisor (Amehoe, 2013). Without these skills, supervision may suffer many setbacks which may result in unwarranted delays in student completion rates. The supervision process is influenced by many factors, including the social setting, the personalities of the supervisor and the student, the relationship that develops between them, the expertise of the supervisor, and the problems that are varied among students (Abiddin, Ishmael, & Ishmael, 2012). The complexity of the work is heightened when it is a masters' of philosophy or doctoral programme. Egan, Stockley, Brouwer, Tripp and Stechyson, (2009) suggested that effective supervision is related to supervisory style of supervisor and their competence with respect to the student project. In addition, they suggested that the supervisor's personal characteristics such as intellectual capacities and attitudes also play a major role in effective supervision. Supervisory style has to do with level of direction and level of communication between the two (such as highly directive, regular meetings, availability (i.e. making time for students) interest and commitment and explanatory to the student.

These faculty members, after their appointment not only guide and support the candidate, but also play an important role in the assessment of the quality of the final manuscript submitted. Heath (2002) argues that the success of research system heavily depends on the supervisors, who must provide the time, expertise and support to foster candidate's research skills and attitudes, and to ensure the production of a thesis of acceptable standard. Although the frequency of meetings between supervisor and candidate is essential, the quality of these meetings, defined by the relationship between the two, is even more (cf. Li & Seale, 2007). Unfortunately, however, there seems to be more research on the frequency of contact than on its quality (Pearson, 1996) which largely depends on quality of relationship between the student and the supervisor. The literature is awash with documentary research evidence to the effect that the supervisor-student interpersonal relationship is important for the success of a graduate-project (Golde, 2000; McAlpine & Norton, 2006).

Ives and Rowley (2005) for example reported that good interpersonal working relationships between supervisors and their graduate students were associated with good progress and student satisfaction. Studies of mentoring showed that in particular the psychosocial aspect of mentoring was connected to the protégé's sense of competence, confidence and role effectiveness (Paglis *et al.*, 2006). Denicolo (2004) reports that in the eyes of graduate students positive attributes of supervisors are amongst others reliable, confidence in the student, encouraging, knowledgeable, informative, and sharing. Supervisors should have listening skills, encourage argument and debate, provide continuous feedback and support, be enthusiastic, and show warmth and understanding. Seagram, Gould and Pyke (1998) showed that important positive characteristics of supervisors according to their doctoral students were professional, pleasant, and supportive behaviour.

Statement of the Problem

Several problems have accounted for the seeming increase bitter relationship that often exists between graduate students and their supervisors in Ghanaian public universities. Some literature has attempted to attribute low completion rates among graduate students to incompatible relationship between students and supervisors (Lube, Worrel, & Klopper, 2005; McCulloch, 2007 in Wadesango & Machingambi, 2011). Indeed, performance of graduate students in respect of completion of their projects has moved from bad to worse as worldwide the completion rate of students ranges from poor to abysmal (Wadesango & Machingambi, 2011). Research suggests that about 50% of students who begin post graduate studies (a PhD)

abandon the programme (Golde & Dore, 2001; McAlpine & Norton, 2006) due to several problems that students face. It has been argued with little evidential value that supervisors create a number of problems that cause post graduate students' studies to derail. A number of studies have cited supervisor-supervisee relationship as the biggest problem (Holligan, 2005; Abiddin & West, 2007; Abiddin, Ishmael & Ishmael, 2012). Sometimes, there are serious imbalances in the power relationship between supervisors and students which delay project completion.

Abiddin and West (2007) in a study on supervision practices for foreign graduate research students concentrated on practices of foreign graduate students. Abiddin, Ishmael and Ishmael (2012) in a similar study however focused on effective supervisory approach in postgraduate research studies. All these studies were conducted outside Ghana thereby creating a geographical gap as the subject relates to Ghana. In a recent study in Ghana, Azure (2016), attempted to investigate students' perspective of effective supervision of graduate programmes in Ghana without surveying their perceptions about how they view the relationship between them and the supervisors using the descriptive design. The methodological gaps in his study motivated me to conduct this study, using a more robust design (the cross-sectional descriptive design to unravel the issues bothering on students' perceptions about their relationship with supervisors in Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine graduate students' perceptions about their relationship with supervisors in Ghana. In particular, the study may seek to achieve the following objectives:

- a. To describe graduate students' views about their research supervisors' role.
- b. To examine the perceptions of undergraduate students as regards their relationship with supervisors.
- c. To find whether difference in gender accounts for graduate students' good or bad perceptions they have about their relationship with supervisors.

Research Questions/Hypothesis

Two research questions and one hypothesis guided the study.

1. What are undergraduate students' views about their research supervisors' role in UCC?
2. What perceptions do undergraduate economics students have as regards their relationship with supervisors in UCC?
3. H_0 : Students' perceptions (good = 1 or bad = 0) regarding their relationship with supervisors is not explained by gender.

H_1 : Students' perceptions (good = 1 or bad = 0) regarding their relationship with supervisors is explained by gender.

Significance of the Study

Why would a study of this kind be important? An exclusive character of this study is that it focuses on the graduate student perceptions regarding their relationship with supervisors in detail. Its outcomes foster understanding of students' expectations of supervisors by appreciating and managing supervisors' expectations of themselves. The study is also significant because it provides scientific bases for deriving an ideal supervisor-student supervision framework necessary to improve the practice undergraduate research supervision in Ghana thus ensuring excellent research scholarship culture. It provides hands-on information to managers of undergraduate studies in Ghana on the need to tailor their activities to reflect students' perceptions regarding their relationships with supervisors to

foster a harmonious working relationship (Azure, 2016). This study provides insight into the roles of undergraduate students so that they complement the efforts of their supervisors to their mutual benefit. These may result in cultivation of quality research culture among graduate students in Ghana. Finally, since undergraduate students are supposed to conduct cutting-edge research, it is critical that their institutions through research supervisors provide students with 21st century supervisory services to take care of their diverse needs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Jesson, Lazey and Matheson (2011) literature review as a written product varies in format depending on the purpose of the review. In this study, a variety of sources such as peer review journal articles, books and internet searches were consulted during the literature review process. The interpersonal view describes and analyzes supervision relative to the rapport between the supervisor and the student (Mainhard, van der Rijst, van Tartwijk & Wubbels, 2009). Two elements are central to this perspective: the communicative systems approach and a model to describe the relationship aspect of supervisor behaviour. To describe the relationship-aspect of the supervisor behaviour, a model developed by Wubbels *et al.* (2006) was used to analyze supervisor behaviour in this case: the model of interpersonal supervisor behaviour. An important aspect of this model is that the dimensions map a degree of behaviour. A behaviour that a supervisor displays has a degree of influence and proximity on student. The higher the degree of influence the higher the behaviour is displayed. For the eight sectors this means that the closer a behaviour is to the center of the model, the lower is the intensity of the behaviour (Mainhard, van der Rijst, van Tartwijk, & Wubbels, 2009).

CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL REVIEWS

The literature on graduate supervision abounds with evidence pointing out that supervisors are expected to be aware of their roles and to help students understand theirs and help them to overcome possible shortcomings to them manage their research in a timely manner. A good supervisor is required to be welcoming, open, and aware of the standard of work expected of their student (Ali, Watson & Dhingra, 2016). Expectations of an effective supervisor have been reported previously (Abiddin & West, 2007b; Sambrook, Stewart & Roberts, 2008; Wisker, 2007, 2012) just as it has been documented by the SGS guidelines for presentation of thesis (UCC, SGS, 2016). It was interesting to find that in a recent study by Ali *et al.*'s (2016), supervisor's and students' views about postgraduate supervision were very similar.

In the UCC Guidelines (2016), the supervisor, "is to provide guidance to the student mainly on the technical aspects of research" (p. 7). The technical aspects were defined to include the research design elements, structure and organisation of the report. The document also demands that co-supervisors generally "provide experience to strengthen methodology (statistics) and or specialised knowledge, and to take charge if the principal supervisor is absent for continuity" (UCC SGS, 2016, p. 7). According to Petersen (2007), quality supervision a key determinant of student completion rates in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). The student-supervisor relationship is an important determinant of quality of supervision. A number of studies in the literature discussed students' level of satisfaction with their PGR supervision experiences, quality of supervision (Tahir, Ghani, Atek & Manaf, 2012; Zuber-Skerritt & Ryan, 1994), and students' and supervisors' beliefs about supervision (Murphy *et al.* 2007).

Evidence suggests that vague directives from supervisors often increase student problems in the supervisory relationship (Abiddin, Ismail, & Is-mail. 2011; Tahir *et al.* 2012; Talebloo & Baki, 2013) And a positive perception of students about the role of their supervisors is crucial in building a healthy and productive supervisory relationship (Thompson, Kirkman, Watson, &

Stewart, 2005) which guarantees successful completion. Most studies related to the students' perceptions suggest that the supervisor must be an active, competent, knowledgeable researcher who is able to analyze and enhance his or her research students' research practices as a result of personal reflection and development (Abiddin & West, 2007a). For Frischer and Larsson (2000) and Phillips and Pugh (2000), the person so chosen should be credited with high-quality published articles. They must as well have made copious contribution to research in their field of specialisation. An effective supervisor, according to Yeatman (1995) should ideally also have a track record of successfully supervising a large number of PhD students.

In a recent study by Ali, Watson and Dhingra (2016) on 'postgraduate research students' and their supervisors' attitudes towards supervision' found that students saw 'show of interest in the student's research', 'provision of critical feedback on their written work in good time, and encouraging the student to present their work at seminars and conferences, as some of the important roles they perceived and expected supervisors to play. The least important expectations of the student that the supervisor should 'ensure that the student has conducted training needs analysis to identify their personal and professional skill requirements', 'continually motivate the student', and 'be accessible outside appointment times when the student needs help' (p. 233). The supervisor is also expected to have counselling skills (Abiddin, 2007a). The person should be ready avail themselves to students when they need help, and should have the ability to give constructive feedback to students (Sambrook, *et al.*, 2008; Talebloo & Baki, 2013; Wisker, 2007, 2012). In addition, they expect supervisors to provide regular, timely, and constructive feedback on their written work and overall progress in the programme (Abiddin *et al.*, 2011; Tahir *et al.*, 2012; Talebloo & Baki, 2013). Supervisor's leadership style is also an important consideration as it can influence the outcome of graduate student supervision. Much of the evidence related to students' expectations of their supervisors comes from reflective, or theoretical and scholarly papers.

Research Supervisor Role

The role of the supervisor has been outlined in the SGS guidelines for the presentation of research projects. Basically, the supervisor is to provide guidance to the student mainly on several aspects of the research. He/she must show interest in the students' research, provide guides/advises to students on topic selection to meet student career objectives, and their long term interests. The supervisor must provide critical feedback on student written work in good time and encourage student to present their work at seminars/conferences if need be (Mainhard *et al.*, 2009). He or she must be friendly and approachable and must encourage the student to work independently. They must be knowledgeable about the standards expected and also ensure that the student is aware of the short-comings of their work and progress (Mainhard *et al.*, 2009).

They must ensure that the student's research is manageable in the time available. They must give the student information about appropriate meetings, conferences and training opportunities and provide guidance to the student mainly on technical aspects of the research (UCC SGS, 2016, p. 8). The supervisor must provide guidance on sources of literature that the student may consult. He or she must draw students' attention to the strengths and weaknesses in their approach to the task. The supervisor must provide guidance and verify corrections the student is expected to make after the examination of the project work, dissertation, or thesis (including viva where applicable) and must be willing to "prepare periodic reports to the SGS on student's progress" (UCC SGS, 2016, p. 8). He or she should refuse to allow submission of sub-standard work for examination, regardless of the circumstances.

Gender Differences in Student Perceptions

Some studies have shown differences between men and women in diverse facets of life (Sullivan & Buttner, 1992). In terms of cognitive ability or academic performance, differences in their preparations for class and their learning styles (Gallos, 1995a) account for intrinsic psychological differences in attitude towards formal learning activities (Gilligan, 1982). According to Theda and Alesha (2006), women tend to believe that they perform less well in class, learn less than they actually do, and feel less confident than men in their abilities to succeed at related future endeavors. Gender role stereotypes often picture women as more communal and concerned with the welfare of others than men, and men as more assertive and controlling than women (Eagly, 1987). Such differences provide a foundation for understanding how gender contributes to differences in perceptions as well. Gallos (1995b) argues that women and men do not have parallel experiences. These diversities often result in different perceptions Wismath and Zhong (2014). The mixed findings in the literature warrant an attempt to ascertain if indeed significant differences exist in perceptions of graduate students as regards relationship with supervisors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The current study is situated within the positivist or the functionalist world view which assumes that social world is composed of familiar empirical facts that exist separate from the research and reflects the attempt to apply models and methods of the natural sciences in the study of human behaviour (Asante, Mike, Yin, 2008, p. 74). A positivist quantitative design was used in this study. The reason for the adoption of this philosophy was that it allowed the investigator to explain the phenomena of graduate students' perception through collection of numerical data which were amenable to mathematical analysis (Mujis, 2011, p. 1). In line with this, a cross-sectional descriptive design was used as the strategy to allow for a snapshot description of the phenomenon. A survey method was therefore used to generate appropriate data through distribution of questionnaires to graduate students in the University of Competitive Choice in the first semester for the 2016/2017 academic year.

Population

Kumar (2011, p. 398) defines target population as, 'the bigger group, such as families living in an area, about whom an investigator wants to find something about'. The population for the study comprised final year undergraduate economics regular students in the University of Competitive Choice for the 2016/2017 academic year comprising Bed Social Science and Bed. Psychology students comprising 331(60.6%) males and 133 (39.4%) females. In all, there were 564 graduate students for the 2016/2017 academic year pursuing various programmes in economics in the two faculties within the college. These students, most of who are pre-service teachers, were currently faced with the challenge of writing their project works.

Sampling Technique

Sampling, according to Thompson (2012, p. 1), consists of selecting some part of a population to observe that one may estimate something about the whole population. In the present study, the simple random technique was used (Babbie, 2013). In this study, the data base from the SGS of the University of Competitive Choice was used as the sampling frame. Mobile contacts of the final respondents were accessed through data I obtained from the departments and they were reached via telephone. The sample size was set at $n = 140$ representing 24.8% of elements within the population. A 50:50 proportionate stratified random sampling based on gender was used to pick samples for participation in the study (i.e. 70: 70).

Instruments

An instrument was prepared from two literature sources: the thesis guideline from the SGS, UCC and the work of Ali *et al.* (2016). The value of a questionnaire is that it tends to be more reliable because it embraces anonymity, encourages greater honesty, more economical in time and monetary terms relative to other methods for data collection. The questionnaire used in the study comprised three sections. Section A comprised three items which generated demographic data on students (gender, programme, and faculty). Section B comprised 20 items that focused on students' perceptions about graduate supervisor roles. A five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree = 4 to strongly disagree = 0 was used to measure these. In section C, consisted of 16 items, 15 of which was connected to issues bordering on supervisor-student relationships with one requesting them to describe their perceived relationship with supervisors (either they felt the perceived relationship was good or was bad). Closed-ended questions were preferred because of their efficiency and time economy for respondents. The items in section C were measured on a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree = 4 to strongly disagree = 0 and good = 1 or bad = 0.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures that which it claims to measure (Nelson, Silverman, & Thomas, 2011, p. 193). Steps were taken in this study to ensure that content, construct, convergent, and discriminant validities were achieved. Maree (2010, p. 215) defines reliability as the extent to which a measuring instrument is repeatable and consistent. To ascertain this internal consistency, a pilot testing was conducted in a sister university.

The pilot testing afforded the researcher opportunity to identify beforehand potential imminent problems potentially could affect validity of the results (Chakrabarti & Lucienne, 2009, p. 114). This early version administration was done to 30 graduate students in the field of education. Results were analysed using SPSS for Cronbach's α reliability coefficient which ranges from 0 to 1, and, in the social sciences, values at or above .7 are deemed desirable (Andrew, McEvoy & Pederson, 2011, p. 202). After the analysis, a Cronbach's α reliability coefficient of .782 was obtained.

Procedure for Data Collection and analysis

Through telephone conversations, the investigator booked appointments with prospective respondents in either their halls or their residences. The questionnaires were distributed after and two days period was given for collection. Two weeks was used for the data collection and the return rate was 87.2% (i.e. 122 respondents completed and returned their questionnaires) despite efforts of the investigator to retrieve the survey instruments. Data was audited, organised, and entered into SPSS version 20.0 for analysis. Analysis was done in two steps: descriptive and inferential analysis. Descriptive analysis was conducted to summarize the perceptions of graduate students regarding the supervisory roles of their supervisors. Inferentially, an independent sample t-test was used to examine differences between male and female students' perceptions relative to their relationship with supervisors.

Ethical Issues

Ethics is the branch of philosophy that deals with how one ought to live, with the idea of the good, and with the concepts such as right and wrong ((Pojman, & Fieser, 2009). It is the study of what should be done (Kerridge, Lowe & McPhee, 2005, p. 1). There were a number of ethical issues which were considered and adhered to. Firstly, contacts were made through mobile phones to the respondents and permissions were sought from them before they were given questionnaires to complete. Respondents' right to participate or decline to do so was strictly

complied with. Personal responses of graduate students were not attributed to them since their identities were concealed. I maintained professionalism in the collection and analysis of data (Pojman & Fieser, 2009). Finally, the investigator upheld independent objective interpretation of the survey findings.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Profile of Respondents

Table 1 portrays the demographic profiles of participants. Approximately 57% of the participants were males and 43% were females. Twenty three (19%) were from the FEF who pursued programmes in educational Psychology (Economics major option) whereas the majority 99(81%) were drawn from FoHSSE. These were students who pursued the Bachelor of Education (Social Sciences Economics Major) programme. It was clear FoHSSE had the highest number of undergraduate students within the college. These were level 400 pre-service economics teachers being prepared to teach senior high school economics. I reckon they have the competences to contribute to the study.

Research Question 1: Undergraduate economics students' views about their Research Supervisors' Role

This section presents descriptive statistics for 20 statements in section B of the questionnaire touching on economics students' views about their research supervisors' supervisory roles via Mean (M) and standard deviations (SD). Respondents stated that they saw the following roles of supervisors as key and therefore expected their supervisors to play them these roles included: 'show an interest in the student's research' (Mean= 3.78; SD = 0.61), 'provide critical feedback on the student's written work in good time' (Mean = 3.85; SD = 0.54) and 'guides/advises student on topic selection to meet student career objectives, in congruence with their long term interests' (Mean = 3.59; SD = 0.74) as the most important roles to be played. The least perceived roles assigned by undergraduate students to their research supervisors involved the fact that the supervisor should 'encourage students to present their work at seminars/conferences' (Mean = 1.56; SD = 0.96), 'encourage students to work independently' (Mean = 1.85; SD = 1.01), and 'provides assistance in orientating the student towards appropriate behaviour in the oral examination' (Mean = 1.86; SD = 0.99).

Research Question 2: Undergraduate economics students' perceptions regarding their relationship with supervisors

Students were asked to either agree or disagree with the statements. This aspect sought to find out undergraduate economics students' perceptions regarding their relationship with supervisors. Table 2 shows the graduate students' perceived relationship with supervisors. On this, 98(80%) disagreed that supervisors always cooperate if they wanted something from them. Students had bad perceptions about supervisors' relationship with them. For instance, a majority of them 77(63%) agreed that their supervisors are quick to criticize them and supervisors appeared unclear in their conversations with them. Again, 110(90%) intimated that supervisors did not agree with them right from the onset in respect of how they interact and exchange information and they also failed 112(92%) to discuss meeting schedules with them (students).

Also, 79(65%) of them were of the view that supervisors appear to anticipate possible misunderstandings between them. Finally, 86(70%) agreed and therefore had perceptions that their research supervisors think they know nothing and therefore did not follow their proposals. From these, it was clear students did not have positive perceptions about their relationship with supervisors. This manifested in their disagreement with certain statements. For instance, 114(93%) disagreed that in students' interactions with supervisors, they made

amorous advances towards them in violation of the university provisions on sexual harassment. Further, 84(69%) disagreed that supervisors appeared not to trust them and therefore disbelieved them. Also, 90(74%) refuted that claim that their supervisors had bad temper which manifested during their discussions.

Finally, 62(51%) disagreed that supervisors were impatient with them. These outcomes are contrary to a recent similar study by Azure (2016) which found among other things, that graduate students had adequate guidance and mentoring from their supervisors on their theses where the mean perceptual values for most items were above 3.50. In that study, supervisors were found to be friendly, open and flexible, knowledgeable and resourceful, encouraged students to plan and work independently (Azure, 2016). On their part, Mainhard *et al.*, (2009) perceived a good supervisor to be the one who provides critical feedback on student written work in good time and encourage student to present their work at seminars/conferences if need be.

Hypothesis: Students' perceptions (either good or or bad) regarding their relationship with supervisors is explained by gender.

A non- directional (two-tailed) hypothesis was tested using a logistic regression where the dependent variable was dichotomized or categorised into good and bad perceptions. It was conducted to investigate correlation between student's perceptions in respect of gender. Here, a Wald statistic and its associated p value (which are part of the logistic regression output) were used to determine whether each independent variable was significantly associated with the dependent variable. Correlation analysis preceded the logistic regression analysis to check for the existence of multicollinearity but none of the dependent variables exceeded 0.70. Table 1 presents the inferential statistical finding on whether gender difference is responsible for good or bad perceptions students have about their relation with supervisors.

Table 1: Logistic Regression Analysis Showing Good or Bad Perceptions of Students about Relationship with their Research Supervisors

		B	SE	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step	Gender	3.495	1.672	4.262	1	.023	32.664
1(a)	Constant	-10.706	5.172	4.268	1	.061	.000

a. Variable(s) entered on step1: Gender

Gender Logistic regression was performed in order to assess whether gender had a correlation with good or bad perceptions students had about relationship with research supervisors. As can be inferred from Table 2, there was a significant association between gender and economics students' perception (either good or bad) that they had about relationship with their supervisors (OR 32.664, p = 0.023). Specifically, change in gender was associated with a change in student perception about relationship with supervisors. This implies that students' description of a good or bad relationship they perceive to have with their supervisors is explained by their sex or gender status. For instance, a male student may perceive to have good relationship with their supervisor whereas the reverse may be the case for a female student. This finding lays stress on an outcome of a study by Gallos (1995b) which argued that women and men do not have parallel experiences and these differences exist in their dissimilar perceptions. Similarly, a study by Wismath and Zhong (2014) found, that significant gender differences existed in perceptions though no differences were found in confidence and ability among the male and female students.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Effective supervision of undergraduate project work is dependent on the harmonious symbiotic relationship between students and their supervisors. This study concludes that an effective undergraduate supervisor is required to do their best to play key role to ensure that undergraduate economics students finish their research work on time. Students, like their research supervisors, need to acquaint themselves with the doctrines or guidelines documented by their respective SGS for use by supervisors and students. Supervisors also need in order to lead an effective supervision, to get students accustomed to contents of the guide so that they can apply themselves to the rules of research writing. For instance, they would find in the guide that they are required "to provide guidance to the student mainly on the technical aspects of research" (p. 7). This may pave way for quality supervision since one of the most significant issues affecting student completion of programmes was found to be supervisor guidance (Wright, 2003).

In view of the findings, supervisor should be interested in their student's research and also help them identify areas in their research life which improvement. Supervisors owe it a duty to provide constructive and timely counsel to students and help them manage their time effectively. Again, it is incumbent on supervisors to encourage students to work independently and to use opportunities to publicize their work at conferences and seminars as a way of making their scholarly contributions visible. Supervisors and students ought to play their expected roles if universities in Ghana desire to train competent and skilled undergraduate students. It is the view of this paper that supervisors and students alike take practical steps to resolve all forms of conflicts arising from the supervisor-student relationship. When these are done, the desire to mentor competent undergraduate researchers in economics would be a fait accompli.

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Households Socio-Economic Characteristics And The Level Of Accessibility To Water In The Low-Income Areas Of Lagos Metropolis

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ABSTRACT

The paper assessed socio-economic characteristics of households in the low income area of Lagos Metropolis and the effects on potable water accessibility. Hence, water is central in maintaining good living condition and maintenance of residential building facilities. Such demographic variables that were examined include gender, occupation, education, household size, marital status, income, water facility assets and location. The essence was to establish whether there is relationship between these variables and, quantity and quality used by different households for their domestic activities, such as cooking, drinking, washing, bathing, toileting and general environmental sanitation. Using multistage sampling method, 1,532 households were successfully investigated. Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were used, where ANOVA, chi-square and Pearson Correlation Coefficient were employed to test the relationships and effects of some households' variables on the quantity and quality of water used. The paper discovered that there are relationships between some demographic variables and quantity of water used by households. Both water facilities used and household's residential location have significant effect on the households' perceptions on the quality of water they used. It was based on these findings the paper suggested improvement in the socio-economic status, particularly education and income on the need to use adequate quantity and good quality of water. Hence, income status was identified having a significant effect on water consumption capacity to meet the water quantity to be consumed, recommended by WHO and Lagos State, for healthy living and good environmental sanitation. In order to change the perception of households on water quality from the available sources, there is need for the government to ensure water quality control.

INTRODUCTION

Water is central to life, as it is very important to all human activities; may it be social or economic. It is very important in maintaining good hygiene and maintaining facilities in any residential building, such as kitchen, laundry and toilet facilities. In order to keep housing environment clean, specifically the drainage system, there is need to have adequate access to water. Due to this broad importance of water to human life WHO (2004) recommends minimum use of 50 litres of water per capita per day (Reed, 2014), while Lagos State Policy on water (2010) recommends 60 litres for peri-urban dwellers, 100-120 litres for urban dwellers. This global and regional attention explains further the importance of water to mankind.

Equitable access to safe drinking water is also essential for achieving gender equity, sustainable development, poverty alleviation and fighting against child labour, thereby helps to

remove different types of vulnerability that are associated to limited access to water facilities. In most cultures, women and their younger children are primarily responsible for the use and management of household water resources, obliged to walk many hours every day fetching water for household use (Akpabio, 2012). However, in the plight to provide water to serve the need of people, users' satisfaction must be considered very important.

However, water satisfaction needs to meet certain criteria, in the area of quality, quantity, water facilities location, cost of procurement, distance and time required to gain access (Liangxin et al, 2014). It is when these criteria are favourable, water services can be said to have met users' satisfaction. The WHO (2004) has come up with some criteria or what may be regarded as standards to govern water provision. This helps to assess the extent is the water provision within a geographical location met the water needs of the users, within the global framework.

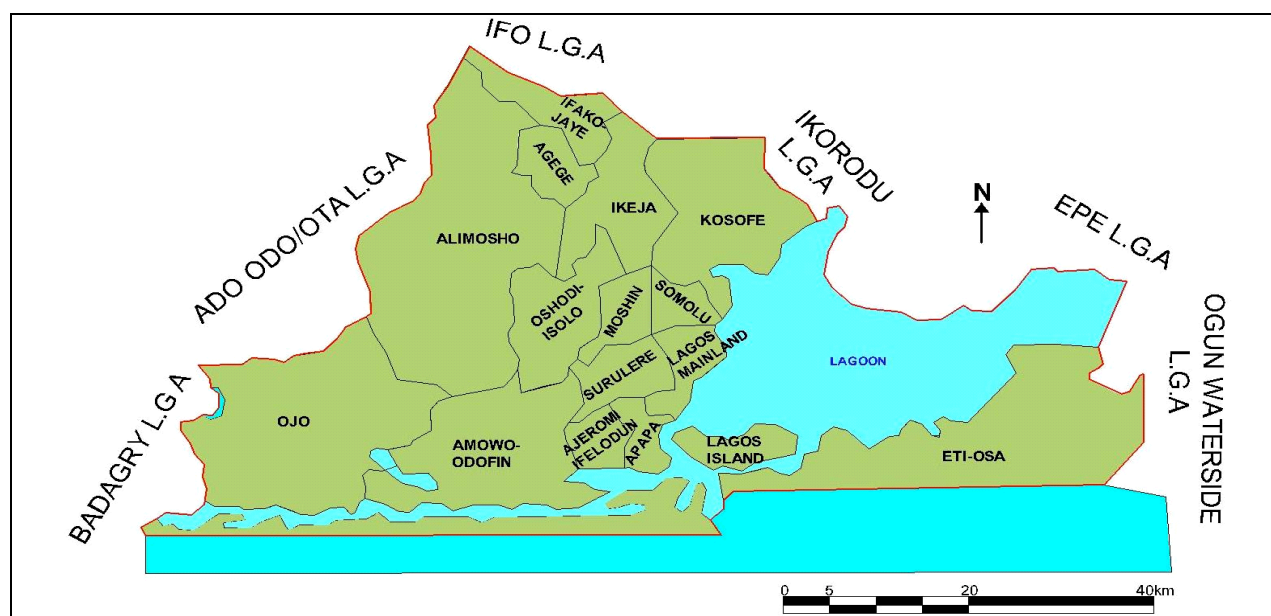
Water accessibility has become a great challenge; the extent varies from urban area to another and from rural to urban. Globally, it has been discovered that 884 million people were without access to improved source of drinking water, out of which 348 million were from Africa (WHO & UNICEF, 2010). In the developing countries, within a single urban area, there has been a wide disparity in the level and quality of water provision. This implies that in these countries, disparity in water provision is as a result of disparity in spatial location. It is a situation, where the rich who reside in a planned area enjoy adequate supply of pipe borne water; their counterparts in the unplanned area got the water from unprotected source (Akpabio, 2012; Oyegoke et al, 2012).

Due to limited accessibility to safe drinking water, as explained here, it was realised that a concerted effort has to be made to address this challenge. According to Singh (2008), concern about water-related problems has long existed but it came to the forefront only in 1977 when the UN brought water issues to the global arena. Hence, provision of qualitative and quantitative water became global agenda, and became part of Millennium Development Goals (MDG) target in 2000. This has been reinforced by the formulation of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015, where water became goal 6. Although, some countries have made a good move toward achieving the MDG target on water, some countries are still lagging behind.

This paper highlights some socio-economic characteristics households in the low income area of Lagos Metropolis, assessed the effects on the quantity and quality of water used by these households. However, water facilities available to the households were assessed in order to determine the challenges faced in accessing water to carry out house chores.

THE STUDY AREA

Lagos Metropolitan Area is located in the core of Lagos State, comprises a group of islands endowed with creeks and lagoons. As at 2006, the Metropolitan area has expanded to cover 16 local governments (National Bureau of Statistics, 2007). It shares boundaries with Epe and Ikorodu local governments in the south-east and north-east respectively. In the west, it shares boundaries with Ado-Odo/Ota and Badagry Local Governments, and Ifo in the north and Atlantic Ocean in the south. See Fig 1.



Source: Field Work (2014) Using www.lagosstate.gov.ng

Fig 1: Map of Lagos Metropolitan Area

The population of Lagos Metropolis grew from in 1973 to 7,937,932 in 2006, with a population density of 7,938 persons per km² (National Bureau of Statistics, 2007). The rapid increase in the Lagos population has a significant impact in the rise in water demand. Hence, the challenge of water accessibility is becoming alarming, because of the population growth and its dynamic characteristics. Lagos State Government (2017) averred that the state required 720 million gallons of water per day, against 201 million presently supply per day by the government. This implies that there is shortfall of 500 million gallons per day in water supply, which have been left in the hand of individual households, who might have relied in water from unprotected sources.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to UN-Habitat (2003), water sources fall into three main categories; these include rainwater, surface water and groundwater. Hence, UN-Habitat (2006) identified three main methods through which a household can get access to public water service, these include standpipes or public tap, yard and house connections. Other common methods in developing countries include dispensing by water tanker, vendor using small container like bucket and keg, and water provision through digging of borehole and deep well (WHO, 2011; AFRODAD, 2013; Okwere et al, 2015).

Oyegoke et al (2012) noted that water supply to different households in Lagos metropolis is dominated by water vendors, because of their socio-economic status. It was on this basis Mughogho and Kosamu (2012) argued that most of the urban population, especially in the unplanned areas relies on small scale informal service providers, where such arrangement poses such challenges as poor quality, unreliable and intermittent water supply. Similarly, Akpan (2005) discovered that households in Apapa/Iganmu, Alimosho, Shomolu, Ajeromi Ifelodun areas primarily depend on vendor to access potable water. Drinking water from this source is very risky, because of the unhygienic way in which the water is handled.

Different studies have shown that low income household size in Lagos is very large, ranges between 3-10, mostly live in cramped and congested houses (Fagbohun, 2007; Lagos Bureau of Statistics, 2010), where demand for water for consumption and sanitation is in the increase, without correspondent increase in supply. This makes the residents to rely on alternative

water provision, such as vending, self-help approach, such as digging of borehole, well, and the use of rainwater.

In accessing potable water facilities, residential location of the vulnerable people becomes determinant factor of how long they must travel and how much they will pay to get water (UN-Habitat, 2011). The daily time spent to travel to get water, because of poor access to public water is a form of social alienation from public water. Due to unsatisfactory provision and distribution of water facilities, UN Water (2013) noted that sub-Saharan Africa women and girls spend 40 billion hours in a year collecting water (up to 6 hours every day). These waste hours have been identified to be equivalent of a year's worth of labour by the entire workforce in France. From this social viewpoint, urban vulnerability to public water facilities is a situation of inequality and lack of opportunities to overcome problem of accessibility (Berthe, 2014). In the case of low income area of the city, it is a situation where residents are excluded from having access to drinking water, unlike their counterpart in the well paved area.

Potable water services that would meet the need of the low income are expected to have some social attributes that would enable this water to be provided at short long distance and low cost in a continuous manner, thereby increase the consumption capacity (Amori et al, 2012). Bourque (2010) averred that central to the debate on water as a good its position as a public good cannot be overemphasised. Bourque (2010) defined public good as: non-rivalrous; i.e. others are not deprived from its use by another person; non-excludable; i.e. it is impossible to restrict others' consumption of this good if one person consumes it; and non-rejectable – one is unable not to use this good.

According to Osei-Asare (2004), water quality perception may contribute to household health problem. It was based on this a water of good quality, according to UN-Habitat (2011) is expected to be uncontaminated and should be water from improved sources from the following: piped water into dwelling yard, plot, public tap, standpipe, tube well, borehole, protected well, protected spring and rain water collection. Hence, majority of households in the low-income areas lack this type of water because of the nature of their socio-economic characteristics (WHO&UNICEF, 2010). Succinctly put, water that will satisfy the need of households should meet some quantitative criteria. The WHO (2004) recommended 50 litres per capita per day (Mbuvi, 2012). Lagos State in its 2010 policy on water recommended 30-120 per capita per day: 30litres for rural, 60litres for peri-urban and 100-120litres for urban. But only few number of households were able to meet up with this recommended quantity

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Multistage sampling method was adopted for this study. The study area was divided into 4 equal parts, comprising 4 local governments (LGAs) each. However, 4 LGAs were sampled, 1 from each division. The sampled LGAs include Lagos Mainland, Ajeromi-Ifelodun, Shomolu and Agege. In order to ensure the target population was actually studied, low income areas of Lagos Metropolis were identified using the existing political wards, created by Independent Electoral Commission in 1998. These were of three categories, based on their densities, such as low, medium and high. High density wards that are commonly occupied by the low-income were identified from the 4 selected LGAs. This accounted for 21 in number. It was from this, 12 were proportionally sampled from each LGA. However, 1,542 households were systematically sampled from these 12 sampled wards for questionnaire survey. Inspection survey was conducted on the water facilities of the sampled households. Descriptive and inferential analyses such statistical tests, as Kruskal Wallis median, Chi-square, Pearson Correlation and ANOVA tests were conducted. Tables and maps were used to summarize the data.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section is divided into three parts. The first part assesses socio-economic characteristics of the study area households, section two assesses challenges of households' accessibility to water, while the last part analyses relationship between the socio-economic variables assessed in the first section with the water quantity and quality variables, as in second section.

Socio-Conomic Characteristics Of Households

The study assessed 7 major households' socio-economic characteristics, which include gender, occupation, educational qualification, marital status, income, household size, households' occupancy per building and type of water facility used. It was discovered that there were 50.5% males and 49.5% females, with little variation among the 12 sampled wards.

The study found, as in Table 1 that 62.9% of the respondents were married, 30.7% were single, while 4.2% were either divorced or separated. The study further discovered that 2.2% were either widows, or widowers. Hence, there was variation in the marital status among the 12 sampled political wards, where Fadeyi, (77%) has the highest proportion; Oniwaya (46.3%) has the lowest.

The study discovered, as shown in Table 1 that 5.4% of the respondents have no formal education, 11.8% and 47.8% have primary and secondary school education respectively. However, 34.7% of the respondents have tertiary education, such as university, polytechnic and college of education. In overall, 94.31% of the respondents from the 12 sampled political wards have minimum primary school education, with little variation among the sampled wards. For instance, Oniwaya has 2.3% and 12.2% of its respondents in no formal education and primary education respectively, its counterpart Papa Ashafa has 16.7% and 38.6% in the 2 respective education categories.

Table 1: Marital Status and Education Qualification

Marital Status										
Married		Single		Divorce		Separated		Widow/ Widowed		Total
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq
964	62.9	471	30.7	39	2.6	24	1.6	36	1.2	1532
Education Qualification										
Informal Education		Primary		Secondary		Tertiary				Total
Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq
82	5.4	181	11.8	737	47.8	532	34.7			1532

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Occupation of the population of the study area was grouped into 7, based on their relevance to this study. As it can be deduced from Table 2, the study revealed that 28.1% of the respondents were in to teaching and other salary jobs, 25.5% were artesian, while 14.3% were traders in food stuff and other farm products. It was further discovered that 10.9% were traders in manufactured or finished goods, 2.4% were sanitary and laundry service providers, while 5.0% were into catering. It was identified by the study that 15.1% were into different other occupations, such as driving, house help, apprenticeship and study, with variation among the 12 sampled wards. Bariga has 41.1% of its respondents into teaching and other salary occupation, while Alaba Amukoko has the least, 9.35%.

Analysis on household income indicates that 20.8% of the respondents' households earned ₦ (10,000-17,000), while 47.5%, 17.8% and 7.1% earned ₦ (18,000-50,000), ₦ (51,000-100,000) and ₦ (101,000-150,000) respectively. On the other hand, 4.3% of the respondents'

households earned ₦ (151,000-200,000). The analysis further shows that the same percentage, 1.3% of the households earned ₦(201,000-250,000) and ₦(251,000-300,000) per month. However, 0.6% earned more than ₦ 300,000 per month. This implies that not all the households living in the low income area of the Metropolis are low income earners.

Table 2: Occupation of Respondents and Household Monthly Income

Occupation	Freq.	%	Income in Naira	Freq.	%
Teaching & Office Works	413	28.1	10,000-17,000	318	20.8
Artesian	390	25.5	18,000-50,000	728	47.5
Trading in Food Stuff	219	14.3	51,000-100,000	273	17.8
Trading in Finished Goods	167	10.9	101,000-150,000	108	7.1
Sanitary & Laundry	036	2.4	151,000-200,000	66	4.3
Catering	076	5.0	201,000-250,000	20	1.3
Others	231	15.1	251,000-300,000	20	1.3
Total	1532	100	>300,000	9	0.6
			Total	1532	100

Source: Field Survey (2015)

However, Table 3 shows the average monthly income of the sampled household heads for each of the 12 sampled political wards and the study area. Tolu Ajegunle has the least household average monthly income of (N32, 220), followed by Oniwaya (N32,300), Alaba Amukoko (N33,560), Iddo-Otto (N55,100), while Orile Agege, Okekoto and Olodi Apapa has N52,040, N55,600 and N56,120 respectively. It was Fadeyi (N98, 960) that has the highest household head average monthly income, while the study area has N63, 470. Using Kruskal-Wallis Median test by ranking, the study found that there is significant difference in household monthly income distribution among the 12 sampled wards, with value (189.398) at 11 degree of freedom, ($0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$) significant test. Since this value is $< \alpha = 0.05$, it can therefore be concluded that at least one household head income median of one political ward is different from the household head income median of at least one other political ward. This implies that there is significant difference in the households' heads monthly income distribution among the 12 sampled wards ($\alpha = 0.05$).

Table 3: Average Household Head Monthly Income, Household Size and Household Occupancy

Wards	Household Head Monthly Income		Household Occupancy per Building		Household Size	
	MA Score	Income (₦)	MA Score	Occupancy	MA Score	Size
Oniwaya	1.85	32,300	4.15	10	2.74	6
Papa Ashafa	2.69	85,190	3.16	8	2.78	6
Okekoto	2.11	55,610	3.57	8	2.69	6
Orile Agege	2.04	52,040	4.05	10	2.73	6
Bariga	2.80	90,800	3.54	8	2.89	6
Bajulaiye	2.32	66,320	3.26	8	2.62	6
Fadeyi	2.96	98,960	2.98	6	2.73	6
Makoko	2.76	88,766	3.32	8	2.86	6
Iddo/Otto	2.10	55,100	3.79	8	2.97	6
Tolu Ajegunle	1.79	31,220	4.65	10	3.11	7
Alaba Amukoko	1.92	33,560	4.74	10	2.92	6
Olodi Apapa	2.12	56,120	4.50	10	2.90	6
Study Area	2.31	63,470	3.80	9	2.85	7

Source: Field Work (2015)

Household Occupancy per Building

The study revealed the number of households that were residing in each of the residential buildings of the sampled households. From Table 7, it can be deduced that 4.9% of the residential buildings were occupied by (1-2) households, while 20.3% were occupied by (3-4) households. However, 21.0% were occupied by (5-6) households, while 16.9% were occupied by (7-8) households. On the other hand, 15.8% were occupied by (9-10), while 21.2% were occupied by 11 and above.

Table4: Household Occupancy per Building

Occupancy/Building	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	≥11	Study Area
Frequency	79	311	321	259	242	324	1532
Percentage	4.9	20.3	21.0	16.9	15.8	21.2	100.00

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Table 3 shows variation in the average household occupancy per building among the 12 sampled political wards. In a situation, where 5 wards, such as Oniwaya, Orile Agege, Tolu Ajegunle, among others have the same average household of 10 persons per building, 6 wards, including Papa Ashafa, Okekoto, Bariga, Bajulaiye, Makoko and Iddo-Otto have 8. Fadeyi, on the other hand has 6. Using Kruskal-Willis Median test by ranking, the study discovered that there is statistical significance difference among the 12 political wards in the number of household occupancy per building ($\alpha=0.05$): (203.62) at 11 degree of freedom, ($0.000 < \alpha=0.05$) significant test.

Household Size

Table 5 shows that 10.1% of the sampled households have 1-2 as their household size, while 29.3%, 35.7% and 18.35 have 3-4 and 5-6 respectively. It was also found further that 34% have 9-10, while it was only 3.2% that have 10 members as their household size. The average household size, as shown in Table 3, indicates that all the sampled political wards have the same size of 6 members, except Tolu Ajegunle that have 7. A statistical test using Kruskal-Willis Median test by ranking shows that there is significant difference in the household size distribution among the 12 sampled wards: (33.864), at 11 degrees of freedom ($0.000 < 0.05$) significant test. Therefore, there is significant difference in the household size among the 12 sampled wards of the study area ($\alpha=0.05$).

Table 5: Household Size

Household Size	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	≥11	Study Area
Frequency	154	499	547	281	521	49	1532
Percentage	10.1	29.3	35.7	18.3	34.0	3.2	100.00

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Challenges In Accessibility To Water Based On Variations In Socio-Economic Characteristics

Types of Water Facilities and Level of Coverage

As shown in Table 6, the study identified 3 main types of water facilities, which include pipe water; other public water and alternative to public water facilities were identified. Both other public and alternative to public water facilities are similar, which include boreholes and wells. The only difference is the provider, such as the government, philanthropists, the NGO and religious organisations. Others include the landlords, households or property owners. There

was alternative drinking water, provided by the organised private sector, such as sachet nylon pure water, plastic bottled water and dispenser machine bottled water.

The study discovered, as shown in Table 6 that out of 1,532 sampled households, 412, which accounted for 26.9% of the sampled size have access to pipe water, while 454, which accounted for 29.64% have access to water from other public water facilities. Ironically, all the sampled households have access to water from alternative to public water facilities. There was variation in the level of coverage of each of the available water facilities among the 12 sampled wards. Using Kruskal Wallis test by ranking, inferential analysis shows that there is significant statistical difference in the median value of the level of households' accessibility to water from the available water facilities among the 12 sampled wards: (258.818) for pipe borne water; (297.772) for other water; (396.77) for alternative to public water, with a significant test ($0.000 < \alpha < 0.05$), all at 11 degree of freedom. The level of variation confirms inequality among the sampled wards in the level of households' accessibility to water from the available water facilities.

Table 6: Water Facilities and the Level of Accessibility

Type of Water Facility		Oniwaya	Papa Ashafa	Okekoto	Orile Agege	Bariga	Bajulaiye	Fadayi	Makoko	Iddo Otto	Tolu Ajegunle	Alaba Amukoko	Olodi Apapa	Study Area
Pipe water	Freq	11	23	29	36	11	42	22	72	126	19	6	15	412
	%	8.9	17.4	18.5	31.0	11.6	37.5	18.0	47.1	83.4	15.3	5.1	11.7	26.9
Other Public Water Facilities														
Other Public Water	Freq	18	95	23	9	74	55	76	52	20	12	4	16	454
	%	1.18	6.20	1.50	0.59	4.83	3.59	4.96	3.39	1.31	0.78	0.26	1.04	29.64
Alternative to Public Water Facilities														
Alternative to Public Water	Freq	123	132	157	116	95	112	122	154	151	124	118	128	1532
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Location of Water Facilities

As shown in Table 7, the study discovered 3 main places where water facilities in the study area could be found, which include inside compound, nearby house and outside the neighbourhood. For the pipe water facilities, 29.1% of the households that have access to these water facilities have them within their compound, 52.9% have their own nearby their house, while 18.0% have these facilities located outside their neighbourhood. In the case of other public water, 13.0% of those who have access these water facilities have them within their compound, 54.9% have them nearby their house, while 32.2% have these facilities outside the neighbourhood. For alternative water facilities, 42.3% of the sampled households for this study have the facilities within their compound, 38.1% have them nearby their house, while 20.3% have their own located outside their neighbourhood. There is variation among the 12 sampled wards in the locational pattern; it has impact on the comfort derived from accessing these water facilities.

Table 7: Location of Water Facilities

Type of Location	Pipe		Other Public		Alternative	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
In compound	120	29.1	59	13.0	648	42.3
Nearby house	218	52.9	249	54.9	583	38.1
Outside Neighbourhood	74	18.0	146	32.2	301	19.7
Study Area	412	26.9	454	29.6	1532	100

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Quantity of Water Used Per Day

As shown in Table 8, the estimate quantity of water used per day by each household was given for home choir purposes. However, this estimated quantity did not include drinking water, based on the fact that taking of drinking water is flexible, because it is not only at home a household member could drink water. There was inequality in the quantity of water used per day among the 12 sampled political wards, as shown in Table 8. Oniwaya has 153litres average quantity of water used per household per day, while Papa Ashafa, Okekoto and Orile Agege have 156litres, 140litres and 160litres. Among the 12 sampled wards, Orile Agege has the highest of 26.0litres per capita per day, while Makoko/Ebute Meta has the lowest, 20.3litres. In overall, the study area has 21.4litres per capita per day.

Table 8: Average Quantity of Water in Litre Used per Capita per Day

Political Wards	Household Size	Per Household/Day	Per Capita/Day
Oniwaya	6	153	25.5
Papa Ashafa	6	156	26.0
Okekoto	6	140	23.3
Orile Agege	6	160	26.7
Bariga	6	159	26.5
Bajulaiye	6	138	23.0
Fadeyi	6	130	21.7
Makoko	6	122	20.3
Iddo-Otto	6	154	25.7
Tolu Ajegunle	7	160	22.9
Alaba Amukoko	6	148	24.7
Olodi-Apapa	6	150	25.0
Study Area	7	160	21.4

Source: Field Survey (2015)

Quality of Water Used by Households

The study identified 3 main qualities of water that were very important to the households, which include good taste, fine odour and good colour quality. Any water that failed to meet these qualities was regarded as unhygienic water by the sampled households. However, Table 9 shows that 16.6% of the sampled households perceived that the water they used have excellent quality, while 53.7% and 22.5% rated their water to be good and fair in quality respectively. It was only 4.2% and 3.1% of the sampled households that observed that their water was bad and very bad in quality respectively.

Table 9: Households' Perceptions on Water Quality

Variables	Agege			Shomolu			Lagos Mainland			Ajeromi Ifelodun			Study Area	
	Oniwaya	Papa Ashafa	Okekoto	Orile Agege	Bariga	Bajulaiye	Fadeyi	Makoko	Iddo-Otto	Tolu Ajeunle	Alaba Amukoko	Olodi Apapa		
Excellent	Freq	7	12	16	11	7	11	3	20	10	56	100	1	254
	%	5.7	9.1	10.2	9.5	7.4	9.8	2.5	13.0	6.6	45.2	84.7	0.8	16.6
Good	Freq	84	43	107	92	58	68	66	90	89	56	11	58	822
	%	63.3	32.6	68.2	79.3	61.1	60.7	54.1	58.4	58.9	45.2	9.3	45.3	53.7
Fair	Freq	26	20	29	12	28	30	49	37	45	11	4	53	344
	%	21.1	15.2	18.5	10.3	29.5	26.8	40.2	24.0	29.8	8.9	3.4	41.4	22.5
Bad	Freq	5	21	5	1	2	2	3	7	3	1	2	13	65
	%	4.1	15.9	3.2	0.9	2.2	1.8	2.5	4.5	2.0	0.8	1.7	10.2	4.2
Very Bad	Freq	1	36	0	0	0	1	1	0	4	0	1	3	47
	%	0.8	27.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.8	2.4	3.1
Total	Freq	123	132	157	116	95	112	122	154	151	124	118	128	1532
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Study (2015)

Relationship Between Demographic Variables And Quantity And Quality Of Water Used Per Day

i) Effect of Gender and Quantity of Water Used

In order to establish the significant effect of gender on the quantity of water used by each of the sampled households per day, excluding drinking water, one-way ANOVA test was conducted to compare the effect of gender of the sampled household members on the quantity of water consumed by each household. The result of the test, as in Table 10 shows that the effect of gender on the quantity of water use is not significant, $F(1, 1502) = 0.015, P > 0.05$. This also implies that there is no significant difference in the quantity of water consumed by males and females within the 12 sampled wards.

ii) Effect of Occupation on the Quantity of Water Consumed

One-way ANOVA test was conducted to compare the effect of occupation of the sampled household members on the quantity of water use per day by each household. The result as Table 10 shows that the effect of occupation on the quantity of water use is significant, $F\{(6, 1461) = 3.081, P < 0.05\}$. This implies that there is a significant difference in the quantity of water use by the sampled household members based on occupation.

iii) Effect of Education on the Quantity of Water Consumed

For education relationship, one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of education of the sampled household members on the quantity of water use by each household. As indicated by Table 10, the result of the analysis of variance shows that the effect of education on the quantity of water use is significant, $F\{(3, 1482) = 2.711, P < 0.05\}$. This implies that education has effect on the households' quantity of water use per day.

Table 10: ANOVA Tests on Relationship between Some Demographic Variables and Quantity and Quality of Water Used Per Day

Effect of Gender and Quantity of Water Use Per Day					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.021	1	.021	.015	.902
Within Groups	2074.595	1501	1.382		
Total	2074.616	1502			
Effect of Occupation on the Quantity of Water Use Per Day					
Between Groups	25.096	6	4.183	3.081	.005
Within Groups	1983.331	1461	1.358		
Total	2008.428	1467			
Effect of Education on the Quantity of Water Use Per Day					
Between Groups	11.336	3	3.779	2.711	.044
Within Groups	2065.549	1482	1.394		
Total	2076.886	1485			
Effect of Household Size on the Quantity of Water Use Per Day					
Between Groups	53.430	5	10.686	7.877	.000
Within Groups	2032.261	1498	1.357		
Total	2085.691	1503			
Effect of Marital Status on the Quantity of Water Use Per Day					
Between Groups	16.067	5	3.213	2.333	.040
Within Groups	2063.164	1498	1.377		
Total	2079.231	1503			
Effect of Local Government (LGA) Location on Factors Influencing Water Availability					
Between Groups	1.145	3	.382	2.056	.104
Within Groups	283.444	1527	.186		
Total	284.589	1530			
Effect of the Type of Water Facility on Households' Perception on Water Quality					
Between Groups	9.852	2	4.926	10.891	.000
Within Groups	648.580	1434	.452		
Total	658.432	1436			

Source: Field Work (2015)

iv) Effect of Household Size on the Quantity of Water Use

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of household size of the sampled household members on the quantity of water use by each household. The result of the analysis shows that the effect of household size on the quantity of water use is significant, $F \{(5, 1498) = 7.877, P < 0.001\}$. This is as shown in Table 10. This implies that household size has effect on the quantity of water use..

v) Effect of Marital Status on the Quantity of Water Use

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of marital status of the sampled household members on the quantity of water consumed by each household. The result of the analysis, as indicated in Table 10 shows that the effect of marital status on the quantity of water use is significant, $F \{(5, 1503) = 2.333, P < 0.05\}$. This implies that marital status has influence on the quantity of water use.

Looking at the statistical analysis, as in (i-v) above, it can be concluded that apart from gender, which was tested negative, there is significant relationship between other demographic variables and the quantity of water used per day by households of the study area. Hence, there

is a significant relationship between the quantity of water use by households and some demographic variables.

vi) Effect of Household Location on Water Availability

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of the LGAs within which the 12 sampled wards are located on factors influencing availability of water. The result of the analysis, as shown in Table 10 shows that the effect of the LGAs within which the 12 sampled wards are located on factors influencing availability of water is not significant, $F\{(3,1527)=2.056, P > 0.05\}$. This also implies that factors influencing water availability among the 12 sampled wards within the LGAs are similar.

vii) Effect of the Type of Water Facility on Households' Perception on Water Quality

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of the types of water facilities in the 12 sampled wards on the sampled households' perception on water quality. The result of analysis shows that the effect of the type of water facility on the households' impression on water quality is significant, $F\{(2, 1436) = 10.89, P < 0.001\}$, as demonstrated in Table 10. This also implies that impression on water quality varies among the different facility users in the 12 sampled wards. It can be concluded that there is significant effect of the type of water facility in the 12 sampled wards on the households' perception on water quality.

viii) Correlation between Household Income and Quantity of Water Used

Using Pearson Correlation Coefficient, as shown in Table 11, there is relationship between household head monthly income and the quantity of water used by the household per day, because Pearson Correlation value for both variables are the same ($r = 0.143$). Table 11 shows the relationship is positive, as both household income and household quantity of water demanded per day have sig $\{(2\text{-tailed}) = 0.143\}$, which is their correlation coefficient value. This implies that an increase in household head monthly income will increase the household quantity of water use.

ix) Correlation between Household Size and Quantity of Water Used

as in Table 11, Pearson Correlation Coefficient test shows positive relationship between the size of household and the quantity of water use per day ($r = 0.126$). The relationship is positive, as both size of household and the quantity of water used per day have sig $\{(2\text{-tailed}) = 0.126\}$, which is their correlation coefficient value. This implies that increase in the household size will definitely lead to a correspondence increase in the quantity of water used per day, but not vice versa.

Table 11: Correlation Test for Relationship between Quantity of Water Used and Household Head Monthly Income, and Household Size

Tested variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	Samples Taken
Household Head Monthly Income and Household Quantity of Water Used Per Day			
Household head monthly income	0.143	0.000	1468
Household quantity of water used per day	0.143	0.000	1468
Household Size and Household Quantity of Water Used Per Day			
Household size	0.126	0.000	1304
Household quantity of water used per day	0.126	0.000	1504

Source: Field Survey (2016)

x) Association between the Quantity of Water Used By Household and the Type of Available Water Facilities

Chi-square (χ^2) analysis was carried out to examine the association between the quantity of water use per day per household and the type of water facility in the sampled wards. The result of the analysis shows that there is no significant association between the quantity of water use per day per household and the type of water facility in the sampled wards: $\{\chi^2(10, N = 1421) = 53.68, P > 0.05\}$. In other words, type of water facility does not affect the quantity of water used per day per household.

xi) Effect of the Household Location and the Type of Water Facilities Used on Households' Perception on Water Quality

Two-way ANOVA analysis was conducted to determine 3 cases: whether the LGA location of the sampled wards has effect on the perception of the households on water quality; whether the type of water facility use has effect on the perception of the households on the quality of water; and whether both the location and type of water facility have interaction on the household perception on water quality. There were 2 independent variables germane to the test, which include the 4 sampled LGAs and 3 identified water facility types. As shown in Table 12, the test revealed that all effects of both variables and their interaction are statistically significant at 0.05- significance level, except the LGA factor. The main effect for water facility types yielded an F-ratio of $F \{(2, 1425) = 13.245, P < 0.001\}$, indicating a significant difference between pipe-borne water (M= 2.13, SD = 0.67), other public water (M= 2.24, SD= 0.66) and alternative water (M= 2.38, SD= 0.69). The main effect of LGA yielded an F-ratio of $F \{(3, 1425) = 2.399, P > 0.05\}$, indicating that the effect of LGA is not significant on Agege (M= 2.23, SD= 0.85), Shomolu (M= 2.27, SD= 0.59), Lagos Mainland (M= 2.28, SD= 0.54) and Ajeromi (M= 2.36, SD= 0.53). The interaction effect of the 2 independent variables on the impression on the water quality is also significant, $F \{(6, 1425) = 2.523, P < 0.05\}$.

Table 12: Two-way ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Impression on Water Quality					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	20.781 ^a	11	1.889	4.222	.000
Intercept	2528.575	1	2528.575	5650.771	.000
Types of W.F.	11.854	2	5.927	13.245	.000
LGA	3.221	3	1.074	2.399	.066
Types of W.F. * LGA	6.774	6	1.129	2.523	.020
Error	637.651	1425	.447		
Total	8104.111	1437			
Corrected Total	658.432	1436			

a.R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .024); LGA=Local Government Area; WF=Water Facilities

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

It can be summarized from the study that households in the low income areas of Lagos Metropolis face a number of water challenges, described by the types of water facilities, coverage, distance and time required to access water, frequencies of water availability, water quality and quantity. Some households' socio-economic characteristics have a significant impact, not only on the quantity of water use per day, but on their perception on the quality of water assessed from the available water facilities. Apart from gender, which its impact was negative, all other socio-economic variables, such as occupation, education, household size, residence location, income, and marital status have a significant effect on the quantity of water use per day.

The study also discovered that the LGA within which the 12 sampled wards is located have a significant effect on the sampled wards water availability. This implies that water availability in the 12 sampled wards varied; according to their location. On the other hand, the type of water facility used by households within the residential buildings of the study area has a significant impact on their perception on water quality. Thus, households' perception on water quality varied, according to the type of water facility they used. Hence, there was existence of inequality in water accessibility problem among these households.

The study also found that there was positive relationship between household's head monthly income and the quantity of water use per day. Similarly, there was positive relationship between household size and the quantity of water use per day. Hence, an increase in household's head monthly income or household size will lead to a correspondent increase in the quantity of water used by the household per day. Significant association was also established between the quantity of water used per day by the households and the type of available water facility.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It can be concluded that socio-economic characteristics of water users have impact on the quantity of water they use, and also on the perception they have on the quality of water accessed from the available water facilities. Apart from these characteristics, water provision related assets available to the water users equally have effect on their water availability and challenges the households face.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that socio-economic characteristics of households of a building, or of a residential area must be understudied and understood before a solution can be successfully found to address their water accessibility challenge. This is necessary in order to ensure that quantity and quality of water provided meet the need of the consumers, based on their socio-economic attributes.

Also, concerted effort should be made to ensure that water facilities and other water provision assets are provided and kept in good condition. This will increase the quantity of water provided by these facilities, since water facilities and other assets have a significant impact on water availability. Apart from quality in provision, the number of these facilities should be increased and evenly located among different political units. This is necessary in order to overcome challenges posed by the effect of residential location on water availability and price, and interaction effect of water facility and households' location on perception on water quality.

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Influence of Socio Demography Factors on Knowledge of Intimate Partner Violence among Soldiers in Ibadan: A Cross Sectional Survey

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ABSTRACT

The global dimensions of intimate partner violence are alarming. It occurs in all parts of society, regardless of geographic location, socio-economic status, age, cultural and ethnic background, or religious belief, and it's often devastating effects -psychological, social and economic, short-term and long-term — rebound on families, children, and the community as a whole. This study investigated influence of socio demography factors on knowledge of intimate partner violence among soldiers in Ibadan. Prevalence of knowledge of IPV was also examined. The non experimental study adopted cross sectional design. A total of 26- item carefully structured self report questionnaire was administered to three hundred and fifty-five (N=355) purposively selected married soldiers from Adekunle Fajuyi cantonment, Ibadan, out of which 294 (82.8%) were male and 61 (17.2%) were female. All the respondents (100%) completed at least secondary school education. It was found that prevalence of knowledge of IPV was 192(54.5%). Age of the participants was more on knowledge of IPV than Spouse's age, years in marriage and educational qualification. Soldiers' rank did not have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV) ($F(16, 339)=.584; P>.05$). Male are more on knowledge of IPV than female ($t(353)=3.21; P<.05$). Type of marriage did not have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence ($F(4, 350)=1.384; P>.05$). There is need for proactive action on sensitization on intimate partner violence in the Nigerian military.

Index term: knowledge of intimate partner violence, Soldiers, Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment,

BACKGROUND

Gender based violence (GBV) is defined as any act of violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or mental harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts,

coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.¹ It is the most common form of violence experienced by women around the world.¹ Despite one in six women being a victim of this violence, the challenge remains largely hidden for obvious reasons. Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a form of gender based violence and according to the World Health Report on Violence and Health, IPV refers to any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship male and female alike.² This definition has been modified to any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm, including acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours.³ This was to include all previous definitions of spousal violence.

IPV can take a variety of forms including physical assault such as hits, slaps, kicks, and beatings; psychological abuse, such as constant belittling, intimidation, humiliation and coercive sex. It frequently includes controlling behaviours such as isolating a woman from family and friends, monitoring her movements (stalking) and restricting her access to resources.^{2,4} Although both men and women assume either role of victim or perpetrator, females are usually the victims in male-dominated patriarchal societies with less gender equality like Nigeria, while higher levels of male IPV victimization occur in countries with greater gender equality.⁵ Population-based studies from several countries indicate that between 10% and 75% of women reported that an intimate partner had physically abused them at least once in their lifetime.⁵ The lowest figure of 10% was reported in Paraguay and Philippines while the highest prevalence rates were recorded in Bangladesh.^{2,4,6,7,8} Similarly, lifetime prevalence of physical or sexual partner violence or both varied from 15% to 71% in a study of 15 sites in 10 different countries.⁶ Overall, at least 1 in 3 of the world's female population has been physically or sexually violated by a man or men at some time in their lives.⁴ It has been reported that physical violence is often associated with psychological or emotional, and sexual violence.⁹

Various risk factors for IPV have been extensively reported in the literature and in broad terms, can be classified as individual, partner, couple and societal characteristics.⁸ At the level of the individual whether victim or perpetrator, it has been reported that young women and those below the poverty line are disproportionately affected.^{9,10,11} Low socioeconomic status has also been identified as a risk factor for IPV.¹² Women who contribute a greater proportion to the family income have been identified to be at risk, possibly because the woman's economic power questions the man's role as provider.^{13,14,15}

In Nigeria, Fawole and colleagues who studied both male and female civil servants in Ibadan, found that being young, unmarried and having a history of parental violence in the partner were significantly associated with a woman being a victim of IPV.¹⁴ On the part of the perpetrator, men who abused alcohol and other psychoactive substances were more likely than those who did not abuse alcohol to perpetrate IPV.^{16,17} Witnessing parental violence or being a victim of physical violence as a child has also been associated with men who perpetrate IPV.^{14,18,19} Women who were exposed to childhood violence and witnessed domestic violence are at higher risk of being victims.^{20,11}

At the level of the couple, dysfunctional, unhealthy relationships characterized by inequality, power imbalance and conflict can lead to IPV.²⁰ IPV has repeatedly been reported to be associated with gender inequality as well as social norms supportive of traditional gender roles, and patriarchal male dominance. Similarly, the lack of institutional support from police and judicial systems and weak community sanctions are other factors known to encourage IPV.¹¹

Numerous women and girls in Nigeria are subjected to violence by some members of their families and within their communities, as in many countries throughout the world. Women of all ages across all socioeconomic groups, living in rural and urban communities are affected. The near to non-existence of official statistics particularly among the military makes accessing the enormity of the violence difficult but studies suggest that the level of violence is shockingly high in the general population. More than a third and in some groups nearly two thirds of women in Nigeria are believed to have experienced physical, sexual or psychological violence in the family.^{12,13,27} The prevalence of IPV in the Southern part of Nigeria is high ranging from 31.3% to 78.8%.^{14,15,28} The situation is not too different in the Northern part of the country with prevalence ranging from 36% to 77.2%.^{18,21,29,30} Odujinrin found wife battering to be highly prevalent with 81% of women interviewed in Lagos reporting having been beaten by their husbands.³¹ Another study conducted by Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH) and World Health Organization (WHO) reveal a high prevalence of wife battery in Western Nigeria.³² There is dearth of literature on IPV among military personnel in Nigeria.

The goal of the study is to investigate influence of socio demography factors on knowledge of Intimate Partner Violence among soldiers in Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment. Specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

- i. Discover if ranks will have any relationship with knowledge of IPV among Soldiers and
- ii. Examine if there will be mean differences of age, spouse's age, years in marriage and education on knowledge of IPV.
- iii. Ascertain influence of marriage type on knowledge of IPV.
- iv. Determine difference of gender on knowledge of IPV.

Hypotheses

H₁ = Soldiers' rank will have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV).

H₁ = There will be a significant difference between male and female on knowledge of IPV.

H₁ = Type of marriage will have significant influence on knowledge of IPV.

METHOD

The study adopted cross sectional design. The independent variables were gender, marriage type, age, rank, religion, educational qualification and spouse's education. The dependent variable was knowledge of Intimate Partner Violence. This design was also used in a similar study conducted by Kumar (2005)³³.

The study was conducted at Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment, Ibadan. The Barracks is located in Odogbo area of Ibadan in Akinyele Local Government Area of Oyo State. The barracks was known as Odogbo Barracks but was later renamed after late Brigadier General Adekunle Fajuyi who was a military governor of then Western State of Nigeria. The Barracks is the location of the headquarters of 2 Division Nigerian Army. It has other units which are co-located in the barracks. These units are 2 Division Garrison, 52 Division Signals, 2 Division Ordnance Services, 2 Division Supply and Transport and 2 Division Medical Services. Soldiers in the Barracks participated. They were required to fill inclusion-exclusion criteria including:

- i. Being currently serving soldier of the Nigerian Army
- ii. Being married or cohabited and currently living with spouse
- iii. English literate and
- iv. Personally willing to participate after an informed consent process

A total 1778 soldiers were on the nominal roll in the barracks. Only 360 soldiers fulfilled inclusion exclusion criteria, were purposively included as participants. Out of these, 355 questionnaires were correctly filled and returned, representing 98.6% response rate. These were made up 294 (82.8%) male and 61 (17.2%).

Instruments

Data was collected with the use of a 26-item self-report questionnaire made up of two sections. The 11 items Section A was designed to tap information about respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. Such information included: gender, age, marital status, religion, year of marriage, duration of courtship, educational background, type of marriage, spouse age, spouse highest educational qualification and number of children. Section B had 15 items. It contained knowledge of intimate partner violence developed by the authors. It had a Cronbach alpha of .85.

Data Collection

The researchers obtained permission from the Department of Epidemiology and Community Health, University of Ilorin to conduct the study. Being a vulnerable group, the researcher thereafter sent the protocol for further institutional review and ethical approval from the Ministry of Defence Research Ethics Committee, which was granted following due ethical review process. The researchers also discussed the protocol with the Authority of Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment, Ibadan.

At the barrack, the nominal records of the participants were reviewed to identify potential participants that meet the inclusion-exclusion criteria. While the participants were not on duty, the researcher discussed the purpose of the study and gave the questionnaires to prospective participants, including a detailed informed consent document. Only willing and consenting married Soldiers were recruited as research participants. They were allowed to read the questionnaire and respond accordingly. This took an average of 40 minutes. A total of 360 of them fulfilled the inclusion criteria in the Barrack, and were purposively included as participants. Of these, only 355 questionnaires were correctly and completely filled. Completed questionnaires were sorted, coded, and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences for data analysis.

RESULTS

Table 1: Source of First Information about Intimate Partner Violence among Respondents in Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment

Source of Information about IPV	Frequency (%)
Radio	88(24.7)
Television	60(16.9)
Newspaper	56 (15.7)
Friends	43 (12.1)
Seminar	41 (11.5)
Others	67(18.8)
Total	355

The most commonest source of information about IPV was radio (24.7%), followed by television (16.9%) but preceded by others (18.8%). The least source of information was seminar (11.5%).

**Table 2: Knowledge of different forms of Intimate Partners Violence among Respondents
Adekunle Fajuyi, Ibadan.**

Knowledge	Yes (%)	No (%)
<u>Physical Violence</u>		
Beating, Kicking, Pushing	225 (63.9)	127 (36.1)
Slap	235 (66.2)	117 (33.8)
Push or shove	233 (67.0)	119 (33.0)
Choke or burn on purpose	223(62.9)	129(37.1)
<u>Psychological Violence</u>		
Insulting, Public Humiliation	230 (65.3)	122 (34.7)
Denial of resources	215 (61.1)	137 (38.9)
Denial of Freedom	212 (60.3)	140 (39.8)
Denial of Job, career or education	208 (59.4)	142 (40.6)
Threaten with a gun or other weapon	225 (63.9)	125 (35.5)
Intimidate or scare by shouting	229 (65.1)	119 (34.9)
<u>Sexual Violence</u>		
Denial of Sex	209 (59.4)	143 (40.6)
Forced to have sexual Intercourse	219(62.9)	133(37.4)

Generally, respondents have good knowledge of IPV as the percentage of YES is higher than NO as shown in table 2.

Table 3: Distribution of Soldiers' Aggregate Scores on Knowledge of Intimate Partners Violence among Soldiers in Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment

Composite Score	Frequency (%)
Good	192(54.5)
Poor	160(45.5)

Prevalence of knowledge of IPV was 192(54.5%).

Table 4: Summary of mean difference of age, spouse's age, years in marriage and education on knowledge of IPV.

	Mean	±SD	P
Age	40	5.9	
Spouse's age	34	4.6	0.001
Years in marriage	12	2.1	
Educational qualification	3	0.97	

Table 4 revealed that age of the participants was more on knowledge of IPV than Spouse's age, years in marriage and educational qualification. This implies that age had influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence.

Table 5: Summary of one way ANOVA showing influence of Soldiers' rank on knowledge of IPV

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig
Between groups	14.413	16	.901	.584	.896
Within groups	516.81	339	1.543		
Total	531.224	354			

Table 5 revealed that hypothesis which state that Soldiers' rank will have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV) was not confirmed ($F(16, 339) = .584; P > .05$). This means that rank did not have influence on knowledge of IPV.

Table 6: Summary of t-test of independent showing mean difference between male and female on Knowledge of IPV

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t	P
Male	294	112	10.1	350	3.21	<.05
Female		58.23	4.5			

Table 6 showed hypothesis which state that there will be a significant difference between male and female on knowledge of IPV was supported ($t(353) = 3.21; P < .05$). This implies that male ($x=112$) soldiers were more knowledge on IPV than female ($x=23$).

Table 7: Summary of one way ANOVA showing influence of marriage type on knowledge of IPV

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig
Between groups	20.613	4	.401	1.384	.506
Within groups	516.81	350	1.243		
Total	536.694	354			

Table 7 revealed that hypothesis which state that type of marriage will have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV) was not confirmed ($F(4, 350)=1.384; P>.05$).

DISCUSSION

The investigated influence of age, sex, type of marriage, and rank on knowledge of intimate partner violence among soldiers in Adekunle Fajuyi Cantonment, Ibadan. It was found that Soldiers' rank did not have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV), male are more on knowledge of IPV than female and type of marriage did not have significant influence on knowledge of intimate partner violence (IPV).

In contrast with the study conducted in Abuja among pregnant women, almost all the women (92.9%) in the study were aware of domestic violence²⁸ Fawole and colleagues reported in another study on intimate partner violence that all the civil servants respondents (431, 100%) in a study in Ibadan were aware of intimate partner violence and could give examples of acts that constitute this form of violence.¹³ In a similar study in South West Nigeria, it was reported that awareness and knowledge of various acts that constituted violence against women was high the respondents.

In similar studies in developing countries, significant proportions of both men and women justify IPV to punish a woman's transgression from her normative roles in society.^{11,14,17} Disobedience, adultery, and disrespect of her husband's relatives were also seen as justifiable reasons for IPV.^{12,34,35,36} Moreover, many of women appear to reinforce IPV, as they more often than men justify such abuse and tend to oppose punishment for IPV-related aggression.¹² The reasons why potential victims of IPV (i.e., women) justify it remain elusive, but factors such as their disempowered position may offer a plausible explanation. Attitudes toward intimate partner violence were compared between Zambian and Kenyan men on socio-demographic, attitudinal, and structural predictors of such attitudes. The results showed that almost three quarters of the men in Zambia (71%) and well over halve in Kenya (68%) justified IPV to punish a woman for transgression from normative domestic roles.³⁸ Access to information (i.e., newspapers and radio) was independently associated with a lower likelihood of justifying IPV among Zambian men.

Intimate partner violence has seldom been measured in the military, although the issue is recognised as serious. Globally, only few militaries like the United States military have made attempts to document the prevalence rates of IPV among its military. In the available literature, prevalence rates of IPV perpetration among active duty servicemen and veterans vary widely, with rates ranging from 13.5% to 58% in the United States.³⁹ The official reports of spousal abuse in the U.S Army indicate a past-year prevalence in 1996 between 8.0% and 10.5% of married couples, whereas the Heyman and Neidig (1999) survey of married army couples found 22.8% of the active duty males and 31.1% of the active duty females reported

perpetrating physical violence against a wife or husband in the prior year.⁴⁰ Heyman and Neidig also reported that 13.3% of the men and 17.5% of the women reported past year moderate (i.e., threw something that could hurt; pushed, grabbed, or shoved; slapped; kicked, bit, or hit with a fist) to severe (beat up; choked; threatened with a knife or gun; used a knife or gun) husband violence.⁴¹ In a representative sample of Caucasian men enlisted in the U.S. Army, 30% reported perpetrating IPV during the past year. Similarly, a rate of 32% was found in a representative sample of active duty, primarily enlisted, Army servicemen.⁴² In another study of 616 active duty military women in the U.S. Army, Campbell et al reported 30% adult lifetime IPV, defined as physical and/or sexual assault. The lifetime prevalence of any abuse, including emotional abuse and/or stalking, was 44.3%.⁴³

CONCLUSION

One of the major contributions of the study to gender based violence study is the mean combination of age, spouse's age, year in marriage and education. For instance, it was discovered that age of the participants was more likely to influence knowledge of IPV than years in marriage and educational qualification. This implies that age is critical in understanding intimate partner violence. Male are more on knowledge of IPV than female in the study. This might result from male dominant population in the Nigerian Army. The prevalence of knowledge of IPV is alarming but effort has to be intensified to sensitize military personnel on implication of IPV on positive living.

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Violence against Women: Widowhood Practices and the Church. Towards the Construction of a New Culture of African Womanhood

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ABSTRACT

This study is an attempted overview of the African oppressive structure against women, with special reference to widowhood - all in the name of culture. We shall envisage the journey so far towards their liberation thanks to Christianity through inculturation. This paper therefore proposes an unrelenting upgrading of this liberation scheme in favour of the African female folks, aligning the scheme with the contemporary situation of women in the wider world. This proposed insertion of the African woman into the broader global picture would however caution African women against losing their identity in the process and thereby being isolated from their African roots. Our basic method in this study is critical, explorative and analytic.

INTRODUCTION

One can say without fear of contradiction that the African cultural ambience was dominated by male hegemony. In such a setting women were isolated and confined to domestic life where they were expected to achieve self-worth through submission to their husbands while becoming a sort of factory machines for the 'manufacture' of children to populate their kinship. Quoting Wasike, Mbefo (2009) proffers the following remark:

The woman was looked upon as the vessel of life or a fertile field in which a man planted his seeds. The more children she bore, the better for the man; the more wives (fields) the man had, the more children he was likely to beget.... The barren woman was (therefore) considered a dead - end and useless to the community. In some communities she was scorned and at times labeled a witch.... Whatever other qualities, gifts and talents a woman might possess, the inability to procreate reduced her to the status of a non-person. (55)

This picture of childlessness resulting in apparent nonentity of an African woman is just a glimpse at the horrible experiences of the female folk right from birth. The upbringing of a female child already set her aside for these unacceptable but unfortunately tolerated degrading burdens against women. Like her mother, she was to patiently accept as normal her privation of freedom and self-determination. In the past she would not be allowed a say in matters concerning her education or even choice of marital partner. She could even be "given out"¹ in marriage the very day she enters the world or at a very tender age. One of the disastrous consequences of such forced marriages forms the following headline of the CNN News. Noura Hussein, a Sudanese teenager, has been sentenced to death for stabbing dead a man she was

¹ In Annang culture of Eastern Nigeria, baby girls were sometimes "married" to certain families at birth. According to tradition, this was done to substantiate the friendship between the two families. By simply tying a yellow palm frond to the wrist of the future spouse- the baby girl- the deal was done.

forced to marry at the age of sixteen. The late husband is said to have raped Noura while she was being held down by the deceased relatives. *CNN News, via Skype, Nairobi, Kenya; 11.49 GMT, May 11, 2018.*

All these are nothing compared to the plight and prolonged ordeal of widowhood, an additional agony at the passing on of the male partner. In addition to the irreparable loss, created in her life at the death of the husband, the widow was, and still is (in certain parts of Nigeria) subjected to terrible emotional and physical stress. Levirate marriage, which often follows the burial of the husband, is another conundrum especially with the resulting women warfare if the new "husband" is already a couple. In majority of cases, the widow is a major suspect in the husband's death and therefore subjected to unimaginable inhuman treatment, as we are going to see, as a way of declaring her innocence. This study accredits a great deal to Christianity in an effort to alleviate the insurmountable horror of the widows on the African continent. However, our position is that it should go further to eliminate totally the awful oppressive schedule associated with widowhood, for as it stands the widow seems caught in the web of conflict between allegiance to an inhuman custom and a not-fully fulfilled liberation scheme of Christian culture.

AFRICANISM AND THE CULTURE OF BONDAGE

As with other cultures, the African people's way of life flows from their world view, the heritage of African culture, which has become a value of an inestimable worth – a source for discovering the primordial mindset of Africans. This involves their collections of folktales, myths, proverbs and customs that predated European intrusion which nonetheless have preserved the African primitive (in the sense of original and originating) mind, a treasure that would have been lost in the non-literate culture if not for the expatriates' work. These collections have become reservoir of native wisdom; independent, primal African vision of reality. In addition, the above structure also harbours the kinship relationship, which is a form of social organization flowing from African culture based on blood and marriage. From this perspective, traditional African womanhood as a dimension of African culture was manifestly polygamous. It also betrayed other alternatives as early marriage, widowhood, levirate marriage and divorce. Looking at polygamy as a cultural tool, John Mbiti (142-143) observes that it helps satisfy the African's quest for many children which increases the sense of corporate existence and is a source of labour force and economic asset. It provides the necessary manpower needed in providing security and safeguarding the integrity of one's fatherland. Polygamy, it is argued, also reduces the tendency of marital infidelity in husbands. He also acknowledges the existence of its inherent negative aspects namely, the inter wives rivalry, quarrelling and fighting. However in our judgment, in the above situation, women are always the scapegoats and the enslaved.

Agreeing with our observation above, African women theologians see polygamy as a part of the broader scheme of African oppressive system against women, constructed primarily for the interest of men. These theologians say that the polygamous social structure confers on men more than women, social, political, economic and even sexual gains. Polygamy denies women the human right to conjugal love with husbands, for while the wife cannot share her love with other men, the man can share his with as many women in the system. Polygamy turns women into an appendage, a property of the man - one of the man's labourers. (Odooye: 189-191).

The Marginalization of Women

As a popular saying goes, a woman is called *in union with man* to represent humanity and to develop both herself and humanity in as complete a manner as possible. From the above statement a woman is defined and conceived of only in connection with man. The book of

Genesis reads: "This at last is the bone of my bone and the flesh of my flesh, therefore she shall be called woman, because she was taken out of man" (Gen. 2:22-23). However, it must be noted that the man-woman paradigm is inconceivable without each other. From the beginning of history, the two beings were inseparable though they can hardly co-exist without rancour. "Male and female he created them." This issue of the distinction between man and woman hinges on an essential and foundational dimension of our personhood as sexual beings. This all-important dimension of our being as either male or female involves our self-awareness and self-expression: the way we are, the way we think and behave in the world as masculine and feminine. Its primary importance and objective consist in the fact that it is sexuality which divides humanity into two opposite though complementary compartments. McGrath et al. also have the details:

Let us look at something we all know well, the crowd of people at the market place or the stream of people walking on the main street of the town. The first thing that strikes us is that this large group is made up of two kinds of people: men and women. We notice that we are all alike but different. Alike in having a body crowned with the head, with its eyes, ears and nose and mouth – a body with arms and hands, legs and feet. Yet they are also different from the body of woman. We know that in our bodies every part has its work to do for us (9).

My immediate and only reaction to the above is that the writer is speaking philosophically. In reality what attracts our attention first in a market place is something else other than the distinction between the sexes, unless our attention was initially drawn to it. Such is taken for granted in all cultures and does not spontaneously captivate us. However, the important thing in the above is that we are either male or female; otherwise we are not human. I do not believe in hermaphrodites. Therefore being a man or a woman is neither a punishment nor a privilege. None is superior; none is inferior to the other. Oduyoye (1990) vehemently defending women's right to self-determination avows that: "By nature we are male and female; there is no intrinsic hierarchy here" (40).

Since our write-up concerns widowhood practices in Africa, the female folks are directly our main focus. As a member of the female *homo sapiens*, a woman has characteristics, talents and potentials peculiar to her. These are qualities totally different from yet complementary to those of men. This male/female partitioning is essential as a matter of distinction. But trouble crops up only when this essential distinction turns into artificial opposition. This artificial dichotomy is the main focus of our research and is worth the condemnation similar to the classification of races into superior and inferior here written off by Udodata and Ekanem (2013): "Races are unique and different not superior or inferior; the idea of racial or tribal superiority or inferiority is a delusion" (18). Yes, the idea of a particular sex being branded superior or inferior is a delusion. Hence a woman is a woman and she should remain a woman to the fullest, realizing all her potentialities; she cannot be a man and was not meant to be one. She should not want to be or strive to become a man.

However, before a woman can justly be said to be marginalized or violently treated by a particular culture, many related issues must be considered; otherwise such judgment cannot be objective. The role of a woman in society ideally includes actualization of all her talents to the fullest. It is when she is roughly prevented from performing these nature-assigned functions freely and without interference, that violence against women can be evoked. Hence when inquiring about the role of woman in society, one must ask: "Which Woman?", "Which Society?" and "Which Epoch in History?"

Which Woman?

Whatever positive or negative cultural attitudes there are towards African womanhood are further concretized and complicated by the kind of woman one is thinking of. The following are some of the several kinds of women in Africa and their roles are variedly affected: the westernized educated woman, the locally-educated woman, the illiterate woman, the rural woman, the urban dweller, the *élite* woman, the common folk woman, the married, the single woman, the married child bearing, the married barren, the single woman parent, the single childless woman, the divorced woman or remarried woman, the widow, the working woman, the home maker, the professional (lawyer, engineer, medical doctor) the non-professional, the non-Christian, the Christian woman, the professed religious woman, and the non-professed. "The role of woman will differ according to whether she is young or old, educated or uneducated, rich or poor, single or married, with her husband or divorced, childless or with fifteen children, searching for husband without finding one etc". <https://sedosmission.org/old/eng/umorem.htm>

Which Society?

Coming to the society one must ask: is the society primitive or modern? , Rural or urban? , agricultural or industrial?, under-populated or overpopulated?, at peace or at war?, in an era of penury or affluence?, of social chaos or orderly?, with parochial family system or egalitarian?, or in which women are of high or low self-esteem? Is the population of such an environment educated or illiterate? We must also note that the social role in sexual matters derived from one culture can quickly become antiquarian in interest and applicability in another since specific roles must be constantly reanalyzed in relation to existing circumstances. According to Oduyoye:

*The denigration of women is the creation of human culture ... the culturally defined duties and attributes we call gender are human creations not to be turned into idols....
What we call women's place in one human culture is also men's place in another....
There is nothing permanent about human beings as culturally defined (40).*

Which Epoch in History?

Human society evolves with time because it is dynamic. That means that principles, worldviews and customs of a particular place may become refurbished to the point of non-recognition according to a particular era. Others may equally become redundant. What is women's work in a particular age may turn out to be a man's work in another. Certain acceptable and even prescribed modes of behaviour of the past may become aberrant to the present generation and thereby become a violation of basic human rights of citizens. For instance in some African communities, twin mothers were either ostracized or killed while their babies were thrown into the evil forest in accordance with the tradition of the forefathers. This practice became outlawed thanks to European missionaries such as Mary Sellsor. As I have also mentioned elsewhere, primitively in some areas slaves and even most beloved wives, were buried alive with their dead masters (Umoh, 2015: 94). Such abominable practices that would shock and traumatize people today as barbaric were carried out strictly in conjunction with the traditional norms and regulations prevalent during such periods.

Patriarchal Culture has its Blame

Right from birth, the initial early childhood upbringing of a baby girl followed strict local cultural norms and stipulations completely different from those of boys. At any rate this was normal because boys are not girls. However, in most African societies even today, girls are not supposed to be extroverts or even outstanding. Such would not send good signals to the society. They should hide in the crowd not sticking out their necks. They should proudly and virtuously be withdrawn and in a way shy – an attitude that eventually relegates them to the

background, classifying them as second-class citizens. Such was normal but unfortunately had an untold negative impact on their self-esteem and personality development.

In a not-too-distant past I think the required cut-off points for girls in some examinations in Nigeria, were normally lower than those of boys. And the female folks were happy for being recognized as the weaker sex – though intellectually. They did not complain of inequality. In some cultures that concession would trigger off demonstrations for an insult against women. However, it should be noted, this derogatory attitude towards women is not peculiar to the Nigerian culture. It is welcome in many Muslim countries, even by the female folks themselves. In Saudi Arabia, I think it was only in 2017 that women could go out to cinemas and were officially permitted to drive.

The above childhood upbringing of girls was in complete contrast with what obtained in boys, who were called to be courageous and even outrageous; characteristics that would qualify them as brave warriors, fearlessly ready and poised even to shed their blood in defense of their families and their fatherland. This is the process of enculturation which molds people according to the dictates of one's culture.

This enculturation process has both cognitive and emotional elements. The girl child who later becomes a woman learns and internalizes both. This learning-to-become is comprehensive in the sense that one learns and internalizes both the derogatory and positive concepts, judgments and attitudes towards womanhood. This learning takes place through example, direct teaching and in patterns of behaviour, in songs, proverbs, wise sayings and folktales. What is learnt directs towards corresponding patterns of behaviour. <https://sedosmission.org/old/eng/umorem.htm>

The Biblical Slant

The Old Testament presents woman as both equal and yet subordinate to man. It was through woman that sin entered the world, though man was at last to bear the blame (Gen. 3:1ff). However, her role as mother gave hope of redemption. In Israel, women had no priestly role or official participation in the religious cult, though this would not prevent them from being prophetesses. This was the case with Miriam, the sister of Moses ((Ex. 15:20) or Deborah (Jdg. 4:4). This ambivalence between equality and subordination is displayed in the book of Leviticus when both the adulterer and the adulteress were, according to the law of Moses, to be put to death (Lev. 20:10). However, in practice, women were numbered among other possessions of their husbands. In fact, they had no status. Despite the above law, what obtained was that a woman caught in adultery or an unmarried pregnant woman was to be stoned to death, while nothing would happen to her male counterpart. This was the issue in the story of Susana (Dan. 13).

This discriminatory attitude did not stop with the Old Testament. Instances abound in the New Testament where women were not regarded as human beings or at best were treated as very inferior to men. In the case of a woman caught in adultery, the scribes and the Pharisees brought only the woman and would have stoned her to death but for the dramatic intervention of Jesus (Jn. 8:1ff). They misquoted the Law of Moses cited above to support their prejudiced plan of action. Even during the miraculous feeding of the four thousand, St. Matthew gives the impression that women and children are not human beings: “...those who ate were four thousand without counting women and children” (Matt. 15:38). This ambivalence is well spelt out in St. Paul. On the one hand he affirmed the equality of the sexes before God (Gal. 3:28) and preached the restoration of the dignity of women in Christian homes (1Cor. 7:3; Eph. 5:25; Col. 3:19). However, Paul prescribed strict norms and regulations which were to unilaterally govern women's behaviour in public religious assembly. When they pray or speak in public

their heads were to be veiled, for man is the image of God while woman is the image of man (1 Cor. 11: 4:16). He continues that women were not permitted to talk in Christian assembly, they were to keep silence (1Cor. 14:34-37). Women were forbidden to teach. Rather they were to listen and learn in silence and in humble submission. Whatever they did not understand they were to ask their husbands at home (1Tim. 2:9-15).

Most widows in biblical history were poor, defenseless, vulnerable, pitiable always oppressed and therefore in perpetual need of assistance, justice and pity. The only exception that comes to mind here is Judith the wife of Manasseh (Jdt. 8:4ff). For this reason God was and still is always on the side of widows and orphans. Therefore the reproach of widowhood found in (Isaiah 54:4) and (Ruth 1:13) may be because for these authors death before old age was considered as a punishment from God. Hence priests were forbidden to marry widows (Lev. 21:12). Passages abound warning against ill-treatment of widows and orphans. In the book of Exodus we read: "You shall not afflict any widow or orphan. If you do afflict them, and they cry out to me, I will surely hear their cry and kill you... and your wives shall become widows and your children orphans" (Ex. 22: 22-24). Similar warning are carried by the following Old Testament passages: (Is.1-17, 23), (Job 22:9; 31:16), In the prophet Jeremiah God is presented as protector of widows. (Jer.: 49:11). Israel was warned not to exact her clothing or other property in payment of debt (Deut. 24:19-21). At harvest grains, some fruits of olive and grapes were to be left behind in the field for widows.

In the early Church, during the apostolic era, widowhood among other things was noted for indigence. This is what led to the appointment of the first seven deacons whose duty was to cater for the neglected Hellenistic Jewish widows in Jerusalem (Acts 6:1). Widows were also noted for their industriousness and generosity. In Joppa, widows grieved over the death of their generous colleague, Tabitha, who during her life time was the supplier of their needs by her industry. They were over joyful when Peter raised her from death (Acts 9:36-41). Under the pretence of offering prayers for widows, the Pharisees enriched themselves by "devouring the substance" of these defenseless women (Mk. 12:40; Luke 20:47). Paul's advice that widows should remain unmarried was not binding (1Cor. 7:8-9, 39-40). He later admonished them to remarry if their loneliness tended to lead them to behave in a way unedifying to the Church and win them disrespected in the early church. He later constituted them officially into a group of widows. Members were to be women of high esteem and of at least sixty years, given to prayers and good works. They should have no intention of remarrying; must be hospitable to the poor (1 Tim. 5:3-16).

Though exact trustworthy documentary evidence on the post-apostolic evolution of the status of widows is lacking, it seems probable that widows were regularly chosen as deaconesses, although the distinction in terms of duties between the two was not very clear. However, deaconesses received the imposition of hands (Const. Apost. 8:19), whereas widows did not. The institution of widowhood, at least as a rank certainly survived public recognition by the church under Emperor Constantine. Canon 11 of the Council of Laodicea suppressed institution of Presbytides, precisely that higher rank of widows who had been chosen as deaconesses, but the lower rank of simple widow was not affected by this canon. The institution began to decline as an independent class with the 5th century rise of female monasticism and the elimination of the need of providing financial and religious security for these precariously situated Christians. According to Vatican11 widowhood should be accepted bravely as a continuation of marriage vocation. Cf. *Marriage and Family Life in the Modern World*, no. 167. In the same document, widows, as other Christians are called to a life of holiness: "A like example, but one given in a different way as that offered by widows and single people who are able to make great

contributions towards holiness and apostolic endeavour in the Church” is given in the following document – *The Call of the whole Church to Holiness, no. 187*.

The Oppressive Culture of Widowhood

African marriage seems to be the breeding ground for abhorrent violence against women. It is here that is found the practice of early marriage which does not accord the girl the right of mature choice of life partner based on love. The pre-marital rites of fattening preparing the maiden for womanhood and marital life was another practice marked by activities which still provoke a lot of controversies even to this day. Here we are talking about clitoridectomy or female circumcision. Although male domination is always blamed for its perpetration, this culture of puberty rite is in reality promoted by the female folks themselves. And there are corresponding rites for male adolescents, often not cited in defense of women allegations. Therefore the male folks cannot actually be accused of dominating over women in this regard. Cf. Umoh (2016, 130-136). It is within marriage as well that exorbitant bride price is in vogue, which gives the impression of the woman being sold to the highest bidder, thereby reducing the woman's status to that of commodity. More often than not, this provokes a lot of tension in marital homes. There is discrimination against women during divorce, for the woman is always to blame for the breakdown of marriage and often she has no share in the property jointly acquired with the husband. In many cases, women cannot even sue for divorce. During child delivery, it is the woman who must confess her marital infidelity (if applicable) under pains of being killed by the spirits of infidelity, whereas a husband can freely engage in adulterous acts and get away with it without being divorced or subjected to public ridicule.

The entire aforementioned, are nothing compared to the abhorrent and dehumanizing ill-treatment of widows on the African continent. According to Onyekuru (2011), widowhood is the loss of the head of the family. Therefore widowhood refers essentially to the woman at the death of her husband, when she did not remarry. Akanni (2001) in turn defines a widow as one whose husband has died and has not married again. Widowhood practices affect women more than men. Hence Nwosu is right in observing that

...the disorganizing and traumatic experience, which accompanies death of husbands, tends to be greater on women than that of men when they lose their wives. While the wife immediately becomes the primary suspect for her husband's death, the man is immediately offered an appropriate substitution to comfort him upon the loss of his wife (79).

Referring to Annang widowhood called *Akpe*, Umoh (2015) insists that widowhood was strictly woman's affair:

*It was a rupture of alliance with the death of the husband. Since Annang culture is patriarchal, only women were expected to be initiated into widowhood. One can now see why **Akpe** was a purely women's affair and took place simultaneously with other male's ceremonies performed on the corpse or in the deceased compound. **Akpe** was an initiation of its own and was normally performed in the new widow's hut. Widowhood ceremonies are performed by older widows, usually those who have had the second burial of their late husbands celebrated. (93)*

All the above was to prove that the ill-treatment meted on the woman at the demise of her husband had no corresponding rites for the man, the widower, at the death of his wife. In terms of widowhood, women's societal status is far below that of human.

The widow is subjected to physical, emotional and spiritual violence. She is perceived as taboo to living husbands and other males. She is subject to hopelessness, punishment, neglect, contempt, suspicion about her treachery, or lack of good care.

She is perceived as threatening to other couples' relationship and suspected of adulterous living. The result is that a widow is usually a neglected and deserted lonely woman (Mbefo: 56).

In Okrika, Ahoada, Ogoni, Nembe and Ikwerre communities, all in Rivers State of Nigeria, widows are subjected to the following harsh treatments: They have to sit on the bare floor for a number of days before and after the husbands' burials. They must remain unkempt for a period before being allowed to shave and for the period of seven days or more, they are forbidden to have their bath. They must remain confined within the deceased homestead and are subjected to compulsory mourning and wailing while recounting the husband's virtuous life. Their only dress is black clothes and among the Annangs of Eastern Nigeria these are the only articles of clothing that she is allowed for a year or more; that is until the memorial service of the late husband.

Widows in the above mentioned tribes in Rivers State are forbidden to inherit the husband's property and should abstain from sexual acts for a year or more after the husband's burial. They are forced to confess their guilt in an event of sexual affairs during the period and must offer sumptuous sacrifice to appease the deceased husband and the gods of the land. Eventually she must present such items as a goat, fish, drinks, plantain, and yams to the elders to be allowed to conclude her mourning ordeal. Umoren <https://sedosmission.org/old/eng/umorem.htm>

In some cultures in Nigeria, widows are made to cook with broken pots and eat with unwashed hands. She is also kept with her husband's corpse to keep away flies from the body, walking about the household while wailing. This wailing is measured as adequate or otherwise by the relations of her husband. If the widow is suspected of having a hand in the husband's death, her trauma is unimaginable. In some cultures like Abakaliki in Ebonyi State of Nigeria, widows – even educated ones – are compelled to sleep on the same bed with the husbands' corpses for stipulated number of days and are made to drink the water used in bathing the corpses by way of exoneration. Soon after the post burial mourning, comes levirate marriage, a compulsory process of remarriage of the widow. She has to make her choice from among the kinsmen of the deceased. Having made her choice, she is mandated to offer specific items such as palm wine, fowl and yam tubers to the men of the family for outwards transmission to the newly selected husband. If he rejects the offer, the widow is again made to search from within the family for a new levirate husband. On acceptance, the new husband is required to offer his new wife specific items ranging from clothes to foodstuff as demanded by custom. The new wife is then officially handed over to the new husband and she must prepare banquet meals for the elders in the family. This is called the acceptance meal among the Annangs. If the man is already a husband, this is the beginning of warfare for the widow with the old wives. In line with this, Eluwa (1988) has this to add about the problem of levirate marriage in Edo State of Nigeria:

...after the period of mourning in Edo State some widows are being subjected to psychologically frustrating experience on process of being inherited by the heir or next of kin of the late husband and any attempt at rejecting such an offer attract total ostracisation from her husband's family or limited access to her children.³⁹

Umoren supports this view when he observes: Another aspect of African marriage that robs the woman of her human dignity is levirate marriage, the marriage between a woman and the relation of deceased husband. Levirate emphasizes the position of the bereaved woman as the property of the husband and his family. Therefore at the husband's death she is generally expected to stay on (as property of the family) without any choice in the matter. She raises

children to immortalize the deceased husband's name. With the absence of choice, levirate is more dehumanizing than polygamy. Umoren <https://sedosmission.org/old/eng/umorem.htm>

Authors are numerous to condemn widowhood in Nigeria as a sordid practice which allocates to widows a position of societal scorn and disdain, rendering them wretched and pitiable. With such barbaric treatment, some of them meet their gory end sooner than later even before the expiration of their ordeals. Onyekuru (2011) is with us in this regard: "Over the years it has been found that cultural practices against widow have several negative effects on them and the family, the ultimate of it is the early death of the widow leaving the children as orphans and escalating poverty and moral ills in the society"(355).

The New Culture of Liberation

There we are with the atmosphere that welcomed the missionaries unto the continent of Africa. But we have to observe right away that initially the missionaries were completely ignorant of those barbaric traditional norms which tended to enslave the host citizens in the name of culture. For them, everything cultural was designated pagan and was immediately thrown overboard without being given slightest thought. In the life of the Church in Africa, however the above patriarchal tendencies tacitly still found their interpretation in the exclusion of women from certain liturgical and ecclesiastical functions whereas the liberation from the above entanglements should have been the primary target of inculturation, an importation of the foreign religions. "Christianity and Islam in Africa are often said to be "guest religions." By this appellation we are to understand the obvious: namely, in Africa both Christianity and Islam, coming from outside continent, are received on the basis of convictions already arrived at by their host, African Traditional Religion." (Mbefo: 51).

Enculturation, Inculturation and the Gospel of Liberation

Having looked at the nature of the culture of African womanhood as marginalizing, we now are to examine how inculturation, imported by Christianity, is to relate the Gospel of Liberation to the culture of bondage and, transforming it, set the African woman free, for integral development. According to Umoren (1992) "inculturation refers to the missiological process in which the Gospel is rooted in a particular culture and the latter is transformed by its introduction to Christianity. Christianity and (the) culture are thereby mutually enriched." (Cf. Ukpong 1992: 63-65). In a way inculturation is the introduction of the Christian message to a new mission land. To be successful, such a founding of the Gospel must not overlook the already well established faith of the people. Rather it must try to tactfully embrace it and in a way espouse it, converting it to the profit of Christianity. For as Umoren avers, inculturation is a two way process: it roots the Gospel in a culture, and introduces that culture to Christianity. Within the context of this study, to root Christianity in the African culture is to initiate two events. The first is to transform the African culture of oppressing women. The second is to develop the culture's latent potential towards the human development of the woman, created like her male counter-part in the image and likeness of God. The other aspect is to introduce the woman and her transformed culture to Christianity, for example by allowing the woman a meaningful place among the agents of inculturation. (Ukpong: 63-65).

It was in the above sense that inculturation was welcome to Africa under the following designations: "Adaptation", "indigenization" or "Contextualization". Later on all these appellations were found to be wanting in one way or the other and were therefore replaced with the terminology "Inculturation".

... since late 1980's it has become fairly clear that while "contextualization" refers to the general theological approach that takes the social, historical and cultural contexts of a people as the starting point for theologizing, "inculturation" refers to the specific

type of contextual theology whose methodology derives from the world-view and cultural dynamics of the people. "Feminist theology" which addresses the issue of sexism in society, "Black theology" which addresses the issue of social discrimination against the Blacks, and "Liberation theology" which addresses the issue of economic and political oppression in society, are other types of contextual theology. Journal of Inculturation Theology, Vol.1 no. 1, 1994, Editorial, pp. 5-6.

This approach is really of great importance, because it contributes to a greater understanding and appreciation of African traditional religion and culture in relation to Christianity. For one thing African traditional religion and culture form the base on which Christianity is built in the African mission land. However, I must point out the little inadequacy of the partial area covered by the objectives of inculturation up till now. Here, I am in full agreement with Professor Justin Ukpung (1994) who avers that "...this approach covers an important area of concern of inculturation theology. However, it falls short in terms of the realization of the Christian message in practical daily life for its focus is limited to the religious aspects of culture and does not extend to the economic, social and political aspects." But Alas! This is the very core area where the African widowhood ordeal is situated. And to be successful, inculturation should capture an African person in his/her integrity and in his/her day to day existence. Otherwise it must be seen as inadequate.

In the church in Nigeria today, there is no established and officially designated assignment for widows by way of engaging them and helping them to forget their "eternal loss". In some churches they are simply constituted into small quasi-devotional societies with self-imposed regulations and obligations like cleaning up and adorning the sanctuary. In the Catholic Church in the United States, for example, some of the communion helpers and sacristans are widows of high esteem. Many too are employed as parish secretaries. The condition for such engagements centers always on their probity of life, trustworthiness, devotedness and life of prayer. In Europe, in Germany in particular, old widows are employed as housekeepers to clergies. As they are well advanced in years they are glad to offer their wealth of experience in the service of priests, bishops, old nuns and other aged in old peoples' homes. The situation is different in Africa.

In the Catholic Church in Nigeria, East of the Niger, apart from the small group called St. Monica, which coordinates a handful of widows, I am unaware of other organizations specifically designated for widows to give them a sense of belonging. We must observe here that there is need for a forum where widows would not only be able exchange their views and discuss their plights, but more so encourage themselves in the light of the gospel and the Church. As we know there are very many young widows these days that are not lucky to remarry; this experience of apparently not being recognized does not augur well with their agony of losing dear ones at a tender age. In many cases the deceased were the bread winners. This is coupled with the sexual harassments from men, some of whom are already husbands and fathers. Many young widows today, who are not lucky to be remarried, are compelled by circumstances to give in to sexual advances from these men. Those who withstand these advances are persecuted and the property of their late husbands seized with impunity. Their problems may not be only financial, but it is mostly so. In the West where social security obtains, widows are able to stand up to their Christian principles without dying of hunger. In addition to that some churches organize small scale businesses, like thrash shops meant for the less privileged and thereby offering 'employment' to widows. Such keep them engaged, self-sustaining and thereby shielding them from innumerable temptations.

The Church has an important role to play as defender of widows and orphans. The Church should preach and fight vehemently against any barbarous culture and practice imposed on her daughters who are unfortunately bereaved of their spouses. The women folks should be educated and encouraged to rise above and against any inhuman treatment in the name of culture. Sometimes those barbaric ordeals are perpetrated on women by the women themselves because of their superstitious attachment to tradition. This is paganism to the core, even though sometimes practiced by church goers.

These days many young widows are the cause of their plight. While in their conjugal homes they consider themselves prisoners very eager for 'liberation'. Now 'released' from their chains by the death of their partners, the whole universe is theirs. Such bring enormous disregard to widowhood and are deterred neither by African tradition nor by Christian principles. My humble suggestion in this regard is that elderly widows should initiate these new breed of 'mad widows' into authentic widowhood which commands the respect of the church and even of tradition. They should either remarry or stop bringing disrepute to well-bred widows who live according to the principles of the gospel.

CONCLUSION

A mature and single woman is as free and independent as a mature and single man. In marriage both man and woman subordinate themselves to the principles of moral law. Even here, a woman's basic role may not be violated though the husband is called the head of the family. In fact, violence against women comes when they are not allowed to play their God-assigned role freely as women. The most important of these roles is concerned with her destiny as woman. Very often the agent perpetrating such violence is presumed to be people of the opposite sex – in this case the men. Sometimes this is true. But often a time women are more violent and discriminatory against their fellow women than men. When a woman decides to be wicked, she can be excessively wicked. As was evident above in the case of clitoridectomy and even widowhood, in most cases women are the pioneering agents perpetrating the much denounced phenomena. However, violence is violence whether inflicted on women by men or on men by women, or on women by women or on men by men. The tendency to consider men as the only perpetrators of violence against women arises from the erroneous type of feminism which confuses women's equality with identity. But I must repeat that man is man and woman is woman. The physical differences associated with reproduction are obvious. Discoveries in paleontology, genetics, endocrinology, physiology and pediatrics provide irrefutable evidence that identification of both sexes is absolutely untenable.

The sexual life of the female moves sequentially and rhythmically through complex changes that have no close counterpart in the male. Her earlier maturation, greater vulnerability, inescapable biological aptness for motherhood cannot be safely ignored or safely exchanged with qualities found in men. The gracefulness, tenderness and care natural to women have no close counterparts in men. Yet these do not make women superior to men in any form. Menstruation with its discomforts, moods and special requirement, defloration, pregnancy, childbirth, lactation, biological readiness for early child care, menopause with their varied and critical glandular and hormonal adjustment are typical differences between male and female. These do not make women inferior to men either. Dear readers, there are a thousand and one things a woman can do that a man cannot do. Likewise there are innumerable things that men can do that ladies cannot do and are not expected to be able to do. Therefore it is sheer nonsense and immaturity to say: "What a man can do a woman can also do; or perhaps do it better." Who is competing with whom and for which trophy? And who is the winner and in which contest? Time has come for the African women to cling on to the "gospel message" of

their full and unconditional liberation. This is the message in the battle cry of Oduyoye's poem: "Woman with Beards":

I am Woman
I am African...
And from this hidden strength
Will burst forth the new Me – for
I am in the process of giving birth
To myself – recreating Me
Of being, the Me that God sees.²

I think the efforts of some African women theologians preoccupied with the alleviation of suffering of the womenfolk on the continent should be sustained and compensated. Groups such as The *Daughters of Anowa* and other Women's Movements in Africa, which of late are fighting to gain back their legitimate rights, have to be upgraded. I see in their struggle something similar to that of *The Daughters of Buddha*, the *Sakyadhita*, whose objective arose from the conviction that the emancipation of women is compatible and in consonance with the teachings in Buddhism. (Rommelure: 40).

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² The Amazons, in Greek legend, were a race of warrior women living in the region of the Black Sea. They have been late with Brazil and Dahomey, modern Benin Republic of West Africa. Credit Mbefo, L. (2009) "African Women and the Challenges of Modernity" *Bigard Theological Studies* vol. 29, no.2, p. 52.

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Translation Competence and Market-oriented Translator Training in a Globalized World

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ABSTRACT

Higher Education translator training programs have to keep in pace with market changes and students' expectation in a globalized world. Based on (European Master's in Translation)EMT's competence framework and European Union's EN 15038 classifications of translator competences, this study is to propose a specialized translators' training mode, which can be designed and implemented in a learner-centered and market-oriented curriculum. Provided in this paper is the detailed illustrations of the procedures for the related translation process and teaching focus to tap students' self-management potentials, and encourage group work and use of technical tools. This study aims to contribute to the improvement of the pedagogy in translator training by suggesting the procedures or strategies in translator training, and by serving as a reference source for future training programs.

Key words: Specialized Translator Training, Translation Competence, Globalized Market, Translation Service

TRANSLATOR COMPETENCE IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD

With the rapid exchanges of information and products, and the fast spreading of technology, translators' role in the process of globalization is becoming downsized. As Cronin (2003) has assumed that translators' role will be increasingly obscure despite the fact that translation used to be a vital driving force for globalization [3]. In the past decade, similar debates have been putting translators under the pressure to invisible and transient (Bielsa and Bassnett, 2009)[2]. It is well perceived, though unwillingly, by many translators that their professional statuses are being undermined in today's globalized world.

With the advent of new media, the translation process is fragmented to meet the deadlines are some of the factors accounting for the fragmentation of the translation process. Back to more than a decade ago, Gouadec (2007) mentioned a number of new skills and sub-competences for translators at that time: an information managing, term managing, multilingual translation, proof-reading, revising, quality control, post-editing, editor, technical writing, file managing [4]. This demand for a wide range of knowledge and expertise from translators is just one radical feature that leaves translators under the pressure to change.

Then the question arises that how translator training can deal with these new challenges. Higher Education translator training programs have to keep in pace with these market changes and students' expectation. The answer lies in the shift of focus in the design and implementation process of such training programs.

COMPONENTS IN TRANSLATION COMPETENCE

EMT's Competence Framework for 2018-2024

By competence, Yves Gambier (2009) claimed it was the combination of six competences necessary for a given task, i.e. language competence, intercultural competence, translation service provision competence, information mining competence, thematic competence and technological competence. In Gambier's model, translation and service provision is the core, with other competences around it [5]. Later in 2017, EMT (European Master's in Translation) modified this model, and proposed a five categories of competence [7].

- For translation service provision competence, translators need to rapidly react to the language industry's or customers' needs, such as marketing and negotiating skills, task specification for customers' requirements, skills to edit, revise and post-edit, quality control and assurance, and professional ethics, etc.
- The second one is the language and cultural competence, for which translator need to know linguistic knowledge of both ST and TT, and the socio-linguistic and textual levels of aptitude, which are the genres, intercultural communication rules, textual coherence and cohesion, etc.
- The third one is the strategic, methodological and thematic competence, which is to develop translators' strategies for problem detections and solutions, the research skills and domain-specific knowledge as well as language transference skills in domain-specific, media-specific and situation-specific types of translation.
- The fourth one is the technological competence, such as the abilities of Internet searching, term extraction, file management and retrieval and document formatting, and to know how to use tools to assist translation, such as CAT tools, TB, TM, QA tools, machine translation tools, corpora, desk top or online dictionaries, etc.
- Last but not least, the personal and interpersonal competence develops translators' generic skills, like time management and teamwork, that promote their adaptability and employability.

As is indicated by EMT's classifications, translators need to have those competences to foster their adaptabilities and promote all-round knowledge and skills rather than focus on domain-specific knowledge. This change is the reality that the need for specialization is no longer appropriate in a globalized world.

EN 15038's Five Classification Model

One of the influential standards in the translation industry is the European standard for translation EN 15038, which intend to promote the quality of the translation service [6]. The EN 15038 is also not pushing domain-specific knowledge as clear demands from professional translators, and promoting the five categories of translation competences in translating, language, research, culture and technology. A detailed explanation of the competences is provided in the EN 15038 (2006).

- Translating competence: the ability to translate under the guidance of translation norms and client instructions, and analyze translation difficulties;
- language competence: the familiarity with genres and their applications and the ability of ST comprehension and TT production;
- Research competence: the ability to retrieve by-text information to assist comprehension and production, and to use research tools and information sources.
- Cultural competence: the ability to use culture-specific knowledge of ST and TT conventions, behavioral standards and values.
- Technical competence: the ability to use computer-aided translation tools, term-bases, translation memory and quality assurance tools to prepare the TT.

In the EN 15038, the focus is on quality and market awareness as well as translators' abilities to translate in accordance with the client and translation service provider requirements. Similar views have been expressed in Anderman and Rodgers (2000) that translator training programs in universities should focus on fostering students' abilities in research, evaluation and translation practice, etc. instead of the narrow specialized translation [1].

To make judgments from those points, translators' market awareness and transferable skills should be developed in line with their core translation competence training. In that sense, the focus of specialized translator training should be shifted from cultivating the domain-specific competence to sharpening translators' adaptability skills or fostering the ability to learn to learn. Only in this way will universities, student translators, translation market, as well as the professional translators benefit. With this change in the diverse globalized translation markets, universities will be able to develop academic training scheme, student translators will develop all-round skills instead of narrow specialization so as to better adjust to the market demands, the translation market will get better quality translation from those who can quickly adapt to clients' diversified requirements, and professional translators will be able to stand out from other roles, such as terminologists, revisers, localizers, subtitlers and so on. `

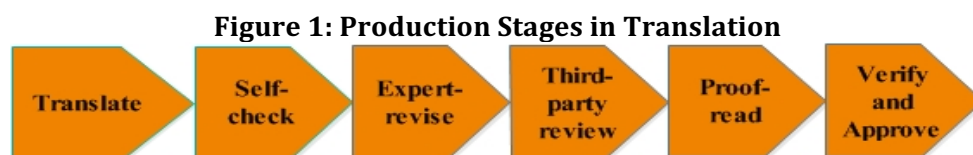
MARKET-ORIENTED TRAINING MODE

EMT competence framework(2018-2024) and En 15038 both concern the necessary requirements in translation and other relevant services. The overall objective is to make a market-oriented standard for translators and translation service providers. These standards also promote translation industry for the global market in accordance with the standardized requirements in other industries.

In this part, the researcher provides the detailed illustrations of the procedure to train specialized translators for a globalized market to be service-oriented with a focus on the procedures through the whole translation process. For research purpose, some terminologies are defined and their working definitions are used for the provision of translation services, around which are the requirements related to task specifications, translation quality assurance and project management, business-oriented service procedure, etc.

Production Stages in Translation

In the production processes, the stages in the translation are defined in a broad sense, which concern the whole translation procedure, namely preparation for translation, at-work translation, and post-translation. A short translation process includes translation, TT checking, and TT revision, while in a full translation process, there may also be expert review and proofreading in the production stages, as is illustrated in the following figure 1:



In the translation process, the first step in the whole production stages, it involves not only the transfer of meanings with the proper use of grammar, words and expressions, but also the correct interpretation of local customs, TT language styles and formatting. In translation, project-specific vocabulary or terms should be applied consistently. In the checking process, the translated texts are checked to eliminate empty or incomplete translations, etc., also correct the grammatical and lexical errors. The checking is done by the translators themselves as a part of the overall quality assurance. Revision is similar to checking, but is carried out by

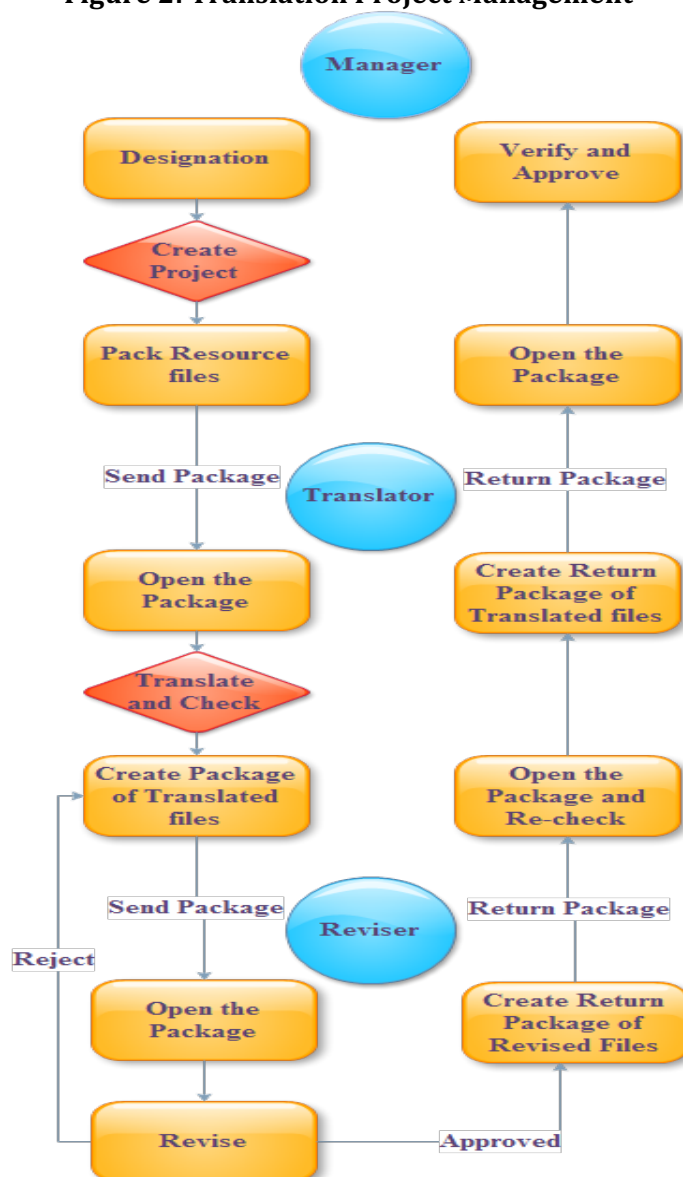
an expert in a specialized domain to verify the translations against the project instructions, such as terms, styles, etc. The revisers can propose advice for correction or ask the translators to retranslate. Both the checking and revision involve corrective behaviors by looking through the source translations and target translations. Review will be carried out if necessary, such as upon the clients' demand. But reviewers will only read through the target translations. Thus, this process can be carried out by a target language expert or a domain-specific expert who may have no translation expertise or not even know anything about the source language. Proofreading is also a choice at the clients' wishes. It can be extensive check to make the translations publishable or just a quick technical check to prepare the translations for desk top publishing. The last necessary step is to verify the provided services by a translation service provider are up to the requirements specified in the standards.

It is well-acknowledged that revision plays a crucial role in the translation process, in particular the quality assurance. After the translators' self-checking, another translator needs to revise the translation, so this double checking process will guarantee the translation quality to a greater degree. It is a must for a translation company to follow this mechanism of quality assurance, which will distinguish it from a translation agency because the latter only act as an inter-mediator between freelance translators and clients. As Shih (2006) stresses it is the feedback that matters the most in terms of what revision can bring to the translation process [8].

Managing Translation Project

The standard practice in a market-oriented translation project involves the translation project management. It is also essential for translator trainees to know project management. The manager need to carry out the following work, as is described in the figure 2:

Figure 2: Translation Project Management



In the preparation process, the project will be first registered under a designated category, such as text type, clients' name and so on. A pre-translation processing of the ST will also be done at the same time when the reference translation memory or technical documents or a domain-specific vocabulary list are ready. The next step is to distribute the work in one or several resource file package(s) among a group of translators, so the translators can open the designated package for translation and then self-checking when finished. Translators will continue to send the package of finished files to a group of revisers or reviewers for this project. So, the finished translations can be checked or reviewed with all the necessary files in the package. The manager will act as the mediator and maintain contacts between the clients and members of this translation project, such as negotiating translation adjustment and sending each side the necessary instructions about inquiries and demands. If the some or all of the translations are rejected by the revisers or reviewer, the translation package will be sent back to the original translators for reexamination or retranslation. So, consistency will be constantly monitored and the deadline will not be missed. At last when the process comes to the end, the manager can approve or disapprove the finished translation work against the standards. With the help of this work flow, the translations will be kept at a higher standard.

Additional Services

Additional services to the clients will mean added values and increased revenues for the TSPs. The related services should include text preparation, source text and target text adjustment, quality control, translation memory and term base assistance, DTP and designing, work language and culture consultancy, etc. These are indispensable parts of the translation competences to be ready for the needs of the translation industry and the wider labor market in the globalized world.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In all, translation competences are the combination of linguistic, social, and psychological knowledge or skills, and they can be fostered in a well-designed curriculum through practices. The present research proposes a specialized translator training mode based on the two translation competence classification schemes by EMT competence framework(2018-2024) and EN 15038 respectively. This mode focuses on the dynamic translation process with the detailed illustrations of the translation production stages, translation project management, and translation service provision all combined into one in the training.

The limitation of this research is obvious, i.e. lack of experimental research results from a real training class to prove the validity of the design of the training mode. The future work can focus on the curriculum design of such a course and the evaluation of the translator trainees' performances on the basis of this training mode.

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Test Of Exchange Market Efficiency In Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the foreign exchange market in Nigeria to determine the significance of past exchange rates in predicting the present exchange rates which is a test of weak form efficiency. It examined the cointegration and causal relationships between selected pairs of exchange rates to determine the semi strong form efficiency, and inspected the variant of the Random Walk Model that exchange rates in Nigeria conformed to. Secondary data sourced mainly from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin 2014 and its official websites were used. The study's data were the spot and nominal monthly average foreign exchange rate series from the official market of Naira to Dollar, Naira to Pounds, Naira to Yen, Naira to Swiss Franc and Naira to CFA Franc between January, 1986 and December, 2015. Methods used include the autocorrelation function, unit root tests, Johansen Cointegration and Granger Causality tests. Autocorrelation and unit root tests revealed that all the series were non-stationary at level and became stationary at first difference. In addition, the Johansen cointegration test revealed that there were no cointegrating equations between selected pairs of exchange rates. The Granger causality test supported no causal relationship between selected pairs of exchange rates and the coefficients of determination were highest with the assumption of intercept and trend. The findings implied that the foreign exchange market in Nigeria within the sample period was efficient in the weak and semi strong forms, that is, information in past exchange rate series and public information were fully reflected in current exchange rates, the exchange rate series lacked exploitable pattern and conformed to the Random Walk Model with intercept and deterministic trend. The study therefore recommended that a more liberalized flexible exchange rate regime and improvements in money supply, national income, local and foreign bonds.

Keywords: Exchange Market Efficiency, Nigeria foreign exchange market, Autocorrelation Function, Unit root, Cointegration, Granger causality test.

INTRODUCTION

Market efficiency studies was pioneered by Fama (1965) who originally applied the concept to stock market prices. Application of the concept to foreign exchange market led to exchange market efficiency studies. The Efficient Market Hypothesis postulates that a market is efficient if all available information is reflected in the prices of the assets traded in such market thereby foreclosing the possibility of exploitable trends that can be used to outperform the market. As initially applied to stock prices, three notions of market efficiencies exist depending on the information set thus, Weak form, Semi Strong form and the Strong form (Wickremasinghe, 2004).

The concept of market efficiency has practical implications for the private sector and also to the government in formulating intervention policies in the exchange market. When the foreign exchange market is not efficient, there exist opportunities of making unusual or risk adjusted profits and private agents can formulate trading strategies to take advantage of such. Furthermore, present prices do not reflect all available information and forecasts of a forward rate based on the present non efficient rate can be outperformed by formulating a forward rate that can beat the future spot rate. A foreign exchange market that is not efficient presents a tantalizing profit making opportunity wished for by speculators. The government will interpret a non-efficient market as a market failure, that is failure of the market to set equilibrium prices and this translates into additional costs incurred by someone somewhere in form of greater unemployment, reduced output or higher prices and to correct this, government intervention policy is imperative.

An efficient market on the other hand means all available information are reflected in the quoted prices, out forecasting the market prices to earn unusual or risk adjusted profit will be difficult and private agents can concentrate on activities that reduce the risks of foreign exchange exposure. The incentive of engaging in forward transactions will not be to earn profit but to reduce risk exposure. To the public policy maker, the price in an efficient market is taken as the best reflection of information and conditions underlying the determination of exchange rates, intervention will be unnecessary and government agents can concentrate on addressing exogenous factors that determine the pattern of foreign exchange rates.

Conclusions of studies on financial market efficiency in the past can be categorized into two schools of thought thus, the Random walk School and the Time Series School. The Random Walk School holds the view that financial asset prices (stock prices, foreign exchange rates) follow a stochastic (random) path, thus past price movement cannot be used to predict future prices. Conversely, the Time Series School holds that financial asset prices follow a predictable path. In addition, inconsistencies have been noticed in past researches ranging from test methods, to conflicting results even with the same data set. For instance, (Wickremasinghe, 2004) concluded that the foreign exchange market of Sri Lanka was not efficient using Engen Granger cointegration test but concluded the opposite when he applied the Johansen's cointegration test. Kang (2008) applied a cointegration method known as the Search method which he claimed was better than the Ordinary least Square method in finding cointegration relationship, however, Reddy and Sebastin (2008) used a novel method called the entropic analysis in the Indian market.

Reviewed works on foreign exchange market efficiency used mainly foreign data and were limited in spread and number of exchange rates used. In addition, where the market was found to be efficient, the specific model of random walk it conformed to was not located, (Wickremasinghe 2004, Lee and Sodoikhuu 2012, Aron 1997, and Mabakeng and Sheefeni 2014), while some tested the market efficiency in the forward foreign exchange market (Minalis 1995, Crowder 1994).

Nigerian studies that have foreign exchange rates as a variable examined the effect of exchange rate changes on indices of economic performance (Ayodele, 1988, Ogun, 1985). Of the very few exchange market efficiency studies by Nigerian scholars, Oloyede (1999) did a classification of exchange market efficiency studies which were mainly on foreign countries, one of his classifications is "test of time series properties of exchange rates, this paper sought to provide empirical evidence of time series properties of exchange rates in Nigeria with a view to determining exchange market efficiency in the weak and semi strong forms.

The questions bothering on exchange market efficiency in Nigeria that were addressed in this study include: to what extent can past values of foreign exchange rate be used to predict current values? What is the nature of long run equilibrium relationship between selected pairs of foreign exchange rates? What is the nature of causality among various pairs of foreign exchange rates? And to what extent do series of currency exchange rates follow the Random Walk with intercept and trend?

The broad objective of this study is to determine the efficiency of spot foreign exchange market in Nigeria, while the specific objectives are to: determine the significance of past values of exchange rates in Nigeria in predicting present exchange rates in the country, evaluate whether selected pairs of foreign exchange rates have long run equilibrium relationship, investigate the causal relationship among selected pairs of foreign exchange rates in Nigeria and lastly, assess whether the series of exchange rates in Nigeria follow the Random Walk with intercept and trend Model.

The next section reviewed relevant literature while section three discussed research method. Section four contained results, discussions and recommendations and the paper was completed with conclusions and recommendations in section five.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual literature

The Efficient Market Hypothesis is concerned with the establishment of market prices and states that the prices of securities fully and fairly reflect all relevant available information (Fama, 1970). Market efficiency therefore refers to both the speed and the quality (direction and magnitude) of price adjustments to new information. Researchers have identified three forms of Market Efficiency thus: the weak form, the semi- strong form and the strong form efficiencies. A capital market is weak form efficient if the securities prices reflect all historical information such as past price volatility. In such a situation it will be impossible for a market player to use technical analysis to study past price movement, discover a trend and use such information to outperform the market or make unexpected profit. Information occur randomly as such price volatility to past information should also be random. Ibrahim, Long, Ghani and Mohd Salleh. (2011) stated that if a market is efficient in the weak form, it is impossible to predict future prices by analyzing past prices. Similarly, Fama (1970) defined the weak form efficiency as the situation in which the current prices reflect all information in the historic series of prices.

A market is semi strong form efficient if the prices reflects all past information and all publicly available information, and if prices react quickly and accurately to incorporate any new information as it becomes available. In a semi strong efficient market, an investor cannot use a company's financial statement to undertake a fundamental analysis and make abnormal returns. Fama (1970) defined it as a market in which current prices reflects all publicly available information. Publicly available information in this case includes past and emerging public information. A market is strong form efficient if its market price reflects all available information whether it is publicly available or not. It implies that even the investor with insider information cannot use such to make abnormal profit. According to Fama (1970), a market is strong form efficient if the current price reflects virtually all available information including proprietary and insider information. For instance, information such as proposed bonus share announcement or dividend payout are only known to top management initially before being made public. If such management staff leaks such insider information to a market player and makes abnormal gain, then the market is not strong form efficient. Researchers have widely

reported that foreign exchange market are efficient in the weak and semi strong forms while widely not efficient in the strong form.

Theoretical literature

The theory of market efficiency was originally developed and applied to capital market. Its development was pioneered by Fama (1970), who defined an efficient market as a market where prices of its assets “fully reflect” all “available information”. The term “fully reflect” suggests the existence of an equilibrium or benchmark to which actual prices conform. Fama (1970) further classified available information as historical, publicly available or insider coinciding with the weak form, semi strong form and strong form efficiencies respectively. Capital market efficiency theory has been widely applied to other financial markets including the foreign exchange market.

Conditions for market efficiency as established by Fama (1970) can be explained in terms of returns on assets or prices of financial assets. In terms of returns, if it is assumed that $r_{j,t+1}$ is the actual returns on assets j at time $t+1$, and $E(r_{j,t+1})/I_t$ is the expected returns based on available information set I at time t . therefore excess returns will be.

$$U_{t+1} = r_{j,t+1} - E(r_{j,t+1}) / I_t \dots\dots\dots 2.1$$

The conditions for market efficiency is that, the series U_{t+1} on the average should equal to zero and secondly it must be free from serial correlation that is, it must conform to fair game. Existence of serial correlation in the series suggest the existence of a pattern that can be exploited for profit.

In terms of assets prices , the link between assets price today (P_t) and the expected future price given information set in time t { $E(P_{t+1}/I_t)$ }, can be stated thus

$$E(P_{t+1}/I_t) = P_t \{ 1 + E(r_{t+1}/I_t) \} \dots\dots\dots 2.2$$

Where $E(r_{t+1}/I_t)$ is defined as the expected equilibrium rate of returns on spot market speculation. As in the case using returns, market efficiency requires that the excess of spot value of assets over expected values must conform to a fair game. That is

$$U_{t+1} = P_{t+1} - E(P_{t+1}/I_t) \dots\dots\dots 2.3$$

The International Fisher Effect under the assumption of uncovered interest parity has it that percentage expected exchange rate change equal percentage interest differential. (See equation 2.5)

The study assumes $E(S_{t+1})$ and S_t as the expected spot rate in time $t+1$ and the current spot rate respectively, I_n as the local interest rate and I_f as the foreign interest rate. One Naira investment in Nigeria will earn $(1+i_n)$. If the one Naira is converted to foreign currency and invested abroad it will earn $1/S_t (1+I_f)$, and if this is converted back to naira it becomes $1/S_t (1+I_f)E(S_{t+1})$. Investment in Nigeria and investment abroad will be similar, that is

$$(1+i_n) = 1/S_t (1+I_f)E(S_{t+1}) \dots\dots\dots 2.4$$

After deducting 1 from both sides of equation 2.4, it can be rewritten as

$$\frac{E(S_{t+1}) - S_t}{S_t} = \frac{i_n - i_f}{1 + i_f} \dots\dots\dots 2.5$$

That is

$$E(S_{t+1}) = (1+i_n) / (1+i_f) \times S_t \dots\dots\dots 2.6$$

The international Fisher Effect tells us about the market’s implied future spot rate and that if local interest rate is higher than foreign interest rate the exchange rate should be depreciating. Equation 2.6 can also be rearranged as

$$S_t = \frac{(1+i_f)}{1+i_n} \times E(S_{t+1}) = \frac{E(S_{t+1})}{1+(i_n-i_f)} \dots\dots\dots 2.7$$

i.e $E(S_{t+1}) = S_t \{1+(i_n - i_f)\} \dots\dots\dots 2.8$

Equation 2.8 means that the expected future spot rate is determined by the present spot rate and interest differentials between the countries under consideration.

Errors between expected and actual future spot rates is given as

$$U_{t+1} = S_{t+1} - E(S_{t+1}) \quad \text{or} \quad E(S_{t+1}) = S_{t+1} - U_{t+1} \dots\dots\dots 2.9$$

Equation 2.9 must be uncorrelated and equal to zero on the average (fair game) for the market to be efficient. Substituting the value of $E(S_{t+1})$ in equation 2.9 thus

$$S_{t+1} - U_{t+1} = S_t \{1+(i_n - i_f)\} \dots\dots\dots 2.10$$

$$S_{t+1} - U_{t+1} = S_t + S_t (i_n - i_f) \quad \text{and} \dots\dots\dots 2.11$$

$$S_{t+1} = S_t (i_n - i_f) + S_t + U_{t+1} \dots\dots\dots 2.12$$

Equation 2.12 conforms to the random walk model. If the value of $S_t (i_n - i_f)$ equals to zero (i.e where interest rate differentials equals to zero) it results into a situation of pure random walk, and if $S_t (i_n - i_f)$ is not equal to zero, it means a situation of random walk with drift.

Empirical Literature

Dooley and Shafer (1976) used the filter rule on a sample of daily spot rates of nine currencies between 1973 and 1981. The data included the exchange rates of one United States dollars to the currencies of Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. They reported profitability for the small filters (f= 1, 3, Or 5 percent) while 50 per cent of the large filters (10, 15, 20 and 25) reported profitability. Sweeney (1986) used the filter rule on a sample of ten currencies over the period April 1973 to December 1980. He similarly reported profitability for small filters (0.5, 1, 2,3,4,5 and 10 percent). Schulmiester (1987, 1988) used three technical trading rules of Filter, Moving Average and the Momentum model on Dollar to Dutch Mark exchange rates between April 1973 and October 1986. He reported that over the period, the 2 percent filter achieved an average return of 8.2 percent which is statistically greater than zero; he also reported a positive but not statistically significant profitability for the one percent and three percent filters. On the contrary, the application of the moving average rule resulted into annual profits of 14- 15 percent which is statistically greater than zero.

Levich and Lee (1993) used the filter rule and the moving average crossover rule on a sample of 3800 daily currency futures prices between January 1976 and December 1990 involving the Dutch Mark, United Kingdom Dollar, Canadian Dollar, Yen and the Swiss franc. Profitability was similarly reported using the moving average and filter rules with the profitability of the latter being smaller. The profits are also lower for the Canadian Dollar which has lower volatility than the other currencies in the sample. They gauged the significance of the reported profits using the technical trading rule by testing the profitability of randomly generated series (obtained from the original series). It was observed that for most times the profits of the original series are greater than the profits from the randomly generated series.

Lee and Sodoikhuu (2012) applied the filter rules of buy long, sell short, to examine the efficiency of foreign market. Currencies examined were Euro dollars, Japanese Yen and Great Britain Pound. The sample period was between January 2, 2003 and December 30, 2009 resulting into a sample size of 1713. The authors reported that people will obtain more returns by taking long/sell short strategies of filter rule without considering transaction costs. But by considering transaction cost the result indicates that foreign exchange rate of the Eurodollars, Japanese Yen and Great Britain Pound will be more efficient.

Krishnavenni, Varadaraj and Karthika (2014) investigated the efficiency of the foreign exchange market using Random walk model. They adopted the serial correlation (Autocorrelation test) and the unit root test of Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF). Daily rates of the CHFJPY for 5 years from 1st January 2008 to 31st December 2012 formed the sample. The overall autocorrelation of the currency pair from lag one to lag twenty was found to be significant at one percent level indicating lack of randomness in the first differences of the sample data. The authors concluded lack of weak form efficiency in respect of CHFJPY currency pair. Similarly the Augmented Dickey Fuller test rejected the hypothesis of the presence of unit root in the series and therefore concluded that the foreign exchange market is not efficient in the weak form for the currency pair of CHFJPY.

Ibrahim *et al.* (2011) examined the weak form efficiency of the foreign exchange market in thirty Organizations for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries using weekly data for the period 2000 to 2007. Data for spot, 3, 6, and 1 year forward were used, the writers conducted unit root tests using Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) Phillip- Peron (PP) and Kwiatkowski - Phillip-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) tests. They found out that most variable are integrated of order one, $I(1)$, that is, they are non-stationary in the level but stationary in the first difference. This is consistent with the weak form of the Efficient Market Hypothesis.

Wickremasinghe (2004) conducted the weak form and the semi strong form efficiencies tests on Sri Lanka monthly data for six currencies for the period January 1986 to November 2000. The writer used Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillip Peron tests for weak form and Johansen Cointegration, Granger Causality and Variance Decomposition analysis for the semi strong form tests. This researcher's unit root test concluded that all the six exchange rate are random walks in line with the Efficient Market Hypothesis (EMH) in its weak form, but the semi strong form tests concluded that the market is not efficient.

Kasman and Ayhan (2007) investigated the relationship between exchange rates and foreign reserve using monthly data between 1982 and 2005. The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF), and Zivot and Andrews (1992) test of unit root were employed by them, they reported the absence of long run relationship between exchange rates and foreign exchange reserve. Kim and Ratti (2006) concluded a positive relationship between exchange rate and interest rate, similarly, Christos kollias *et al.* (2012) provided evidence of causality between the stock and exchange rate markets.

Ogun (1985) investigated how best to devalue the Naira and leans heavily on the Marshall Lerner condition that opines that devaluation will lead to an improvement in the trade balance if the sum of price elasticity of demand for devaluation sensitive exports and competitive imports plus the difference between the price elasticity of demand for noncompetitive imports in the total exceeds unity. He concluded that devaluation of Naira have bad effect on the Nigerian economy and by implication will reduce the welfare of Nigerians.

Ayodele (1988) examined the impact of exchange rate devaluation on the Nigerian external account using a model that regresses changes in foreign exchange rate on changes on foreign reserves, changes in capital and changes in current account balance. Research’s sample data spans 1960 to 1985. He concluded that a naira increase in foreign exchange rate has significant effects on foreign exchange reserve, capital balance and current account balance.

Oloyede (1999) did a review of existing literature and categorized existing empirical tests of exchange market efficiency into five groups thus, test of opportunity of making extra ordinary net income in the exchange market, test of ability of different technical trading rules (filter, moving average, and momentum) to produce abnormal profits, test of time series properties of foreign exchange rates and deviations from past forward rates. The other two categories are, test of forward exchange rates as predictors of future spot rates, and test of market forecasts of future foreign exchange rates. In addition the following more specific tests have been noticed in literature in recent times

- i. Cointegration tests among various exchange rates in a country (Baillie and Bollerslev, 2014, Aron, 1997. Wickremasinghe, 2004.)
- ii. Cointegration tests of exchange rates across various countries (Fama, 1984, Ibrahim et.al, 2011)

If two exchange rates cointegrate, one will be a predictor of the other, a violation of the semi strong form efficiency condition. This study investigated the time series properties of exchange rates in Nigeria to determine the weak form efficiency and examine the level of cointegration among selected pairs of foreign exchange rates in Nigeria to determine the semi strong form efficiency.

RESEARCH METHOD

Model specification.

The research adopts the Random Walk Model to test the stationarity of exchange rates as earlier used by Ibrahim *et al.* (2011) and Krishnaveni *et al.* (2014). The models are as follows.

Model I: Random walk without Drift

$$Y_t = \beta_2 Y_{t-1} + U_i \dots\dots\dots 3.1$$

Model II: Random Walk with Drift

$$Y_t = \delta + \beta_2 Y_{t-1} + U_i \dots\dots\dots 3.2$$

Model III: Random Walk with Drift and deterministic trend

$$Y_t = \delta + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 Y_{t-1} + U_i \dots\dots\dots 3.3$$

Model IV: Cointegration Model

$$Y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X + U_t \dots\dots\dots 3.4$$

The author will also estimate

$$U_t = P U_{t-1} \dots\dots\dots 3.5$$

Variable description.

In the Random Walk Models

Y_t is the exchange rate in the current period

Y_{t-1} is the exchange rate in the immediate past period

t is time, the trend parameter

σ is the constant the drift parameter.

β_1 and β_2 are the coefficients

U_t is the white noise error term with zero mean and constant variance.

In the cointegration model.

X and Y are any two stochastic variables (exchange rates of any two currencies) integrated of order one $I(1)$.

α_1 and α_2 are the coefficients

U_t is the white noise error term with zero mean and constant variance.

U_{t-1} is the immediate past value of the error term

Data source

Secondary data sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin 2014 and its website (www.cbn.gov.ng/rates) were used in the study. The data represent the nominal official, monthly average foreign exchange rates in the Nigerian spot market. Five exchange rates, that is, the exchange rates of the Naira to five other international currencies will be involved in the study. The data period spans January 1986 to December 2015, a period of thirty years. The monthly average rates for the period will result into a total sample of three hundred and sixty (360) for each of the five exchange rates making a total sample size of one thousand eight hundred (1800). The notion of market efficiency assumes market deregulation and minimum interventions from the government which was the exchange rate regime in Nigeria from 1986 when the floating exchange rate system was introduced in the country, this informed the choice of data period. Judgmental sampling technique based on listings in the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin was used to select the exchange rates, the specific five exchange rates include, Naira to US Dollar, Naira to Pounds Sterling, Naira to Japanese Yen, Naira to CFA Franc and Naira to Swiss Franc.

Method of data analysis.

Test of weak form efficiency in the foreign exchange market examines the significance of past values of exchange rates in determining their present values, this would be addressed by a test of stationarity of an equation that include the present and past values of exchange rates. The random walk model captures this scenario.

Popular tests of stationarity as identified by Gujarati (2013) include, graphical analysis, autocorrelation function (ACF) and correlogram; and unit root analysis. Gujarati (2013) also identified cointegration test as a test to determining whether two variables have a long term or equilibrium relationship. If two different exchange rates have long run or equilibrium relationship then one exchange rate can be used to predict the value of the other which is a necessary condition for the exchange market not to be semi strong form efficient. In addition, a popular test of causal relationship as identified by Cameron (2005) is the granger causality test. Unilateral or bilateral causal relationships between selected pairs of exchange rates are necessary violations of the semi strong form efficiency.

To test for the Weak form efficiency of the exchange market in Nigeria, the research used the Autocorrelation Function (ACF) and the unit root tests of Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) and Phillips Peron (PP). For the test of the semi strong form efficiency the Cointegration test (Kellard, 2006) and Causality test were adopted. In the Cointegration test the Johansen method were used. Lastly, in determining which of the Random walk models that the foreign exchange rates in Nigeria conform to, the coefficient of determination (R^2) as contained in the unit root analysis were used to determine the model with the best fit. All the tests were carried out using the E-View statistical package.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSES

Descriptive statistics:

The summary of the descriptive is contained in table 4.1. The Pounds had the highest average at N136 to a Pound, a median of N160, a maximum of N307 and a minimum of N1.26. The CFA Franc had the lowest mean at N0.157, a median of N0.153, a maximum of 0.36 and a minimum of N0.006. The Pounds had the highest deviation from the mean at N104 while the CFA Franc had the lowest at N0.117. All the exchange rates had strong positive correlation with each other (table 4.2), that is, selected pairs had direct or positive relationship, for each pair, increase in one exchange rate led to an increase in the other. The pair of Dollars and Pounds had the highest correlation coefficient at 0.988, while the pair of Pounds and Swiss Franc had the lowest at 0.948. The Covariance matrix summarized in table 4.3 depicts that the pair of Pounds and Swiss Franc had the highest covariability at 6500, while the pair of CFA Franc and Yen had the lowest at 0.073. The Pounds had the highest covariability with any other exchange rates.

Table 4.1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics

	CFA FRANC	DOLLARS	POUNDS	SWISS FRANC	YEN
MEAN	0.157	83.13	136.14	72.4	.0799
MEDIAN	0.153	106.7	160.73	65.52	0.938
MAXIMUM	0.36	196.57	307.21	210.89	2.03
MINIMUM	0.006	0.999	1.264	1.075	0.011
STD. DEV.	0.117	63.39	104.05	63.19	0.647

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Table 4.2: Correlation Matrix

	CFA FRANC	DOLLARS	POUNDS	SWISS FRANC	YEN
CFA FRANC	1	0.968	0.969	0.976	0.967
DOLLARS	0.968	1	0.988	0.962	0.971
POUNDS	0.969	0.988	1	0.949	0.952
SWISS FRANC	0.975	0.964	0.949	1	0.968
YEN	0.967	0.971	0.952	0.968	1

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Table 4.3: Covariance Matrix

	CFA FRANC	DOLLARS	POUNDS	SWISS FRANC	YEN
CFA FRANC	0.014	7.174	11.797	7.210	0.073
DOLLARS	7.174	4006.818	6500.1	3851.682	39.753
POUNDS	11.797	6500.1	1079.5	6221.082	63.982
SWISS FRANC	7.210	3851.682	6221.082	3982.246	39.467
YEN	0.073	39.753	63.982	39.467	0.418

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Results of analyses

This section contained the result summaries of the tests for weak form efficiency using the Autocorrelation (ACF) test, the Unit Root tests using the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) method as well as the Phillips-Perron method. It also contained the result summaries of the tests for Strong form efficiency which included the Johansen co-integration test and the Granger Causality test.

The autocorrelation function (ACF) test:

The Autocorrelation Function and the Q statistics for all the exchange rate series from lag 1 through lag 36 were presented in table 4.4. The study applied the 95% confidence interval for

Normal distribution and tested the hypothesis that P_k (autocorrelation Function) was equal to Zero thus.

$$P_k - 1.96 \times \text{standard error} = Z = P_k + 1.96 \times \text{standard error}$$

Where P_k is the Autocorrelation Function at lag k and standard error is $\sqrt{1/n}$ and n is the sample size. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicated that the series were stationary.

At level none of the interval from lag 1 through lag 36 contained the value zero, the study therefore rejected the null hypothesis (non-stationary). The Autocorrelation Function also approached zero as the lag length increased, this was similar to the property of Random Walk Process at level. However at first difference the intervals included the value zero, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis (stationary).

At level, the calculated Q statistics were higher than the critical Q statistics (55.8) obtained at 40 degrees of freedom and 5% level of significance using the Chi Square statistics. The study rejected the null hypothesis (non-stationary), but at first difference the calculated Q statistics were lower than the critical Q statistics, the null hypothesis was accepted (stationary). The Autocorrelation Function test revealed that the exchange rate series in Nigeria in the sample period were non-stationary at level but became stationary at first difference. This property followed the Random Walk Model.

Table 4.4: Autocorrelation Function Test Results at Level

	ACF	INTERVALS		Q STAT	ACF	INTERVALS		Q STAT
LEVEL								
	CFA FRANCS				DOLLARS			
1	0.99	0.88	1.09	354.4	0.99	0.89	1.09	356.73
5	0.95	0.85	1.06	1722.30	0.95	0.85	1.06	1727.8
10	0.91	0.81	1.02	3318.00	0.91	0.80	1.01	3311.7
15	0.88	0.78	0.99	4818.2	0.87	0.76	0.97	4773.6
20	0.85	0.75	0.95	6240.2	0.83	0.73	0.94	6141.7
25	0.81	0.71	0.92	7568.6	0.8	0.69	0.9	7417.4
30	0.78	0.67	0.88	8802.2	0.76	0.66	0.86	8597.2
36	0.74	0.63	0.84	10159.00	0.72	0.61	0.82	9886.4
	POUNDS				SWISS FRANC			
1	0.99	0.89	1.09	344.15	0.99	0.89	1.09	356.6
5	0.95	0.85	1.06	1716.7	0.95	0.85	1.06	1723.8
10	0.91	0.8	1.01	3297.5	0.9	0.8	1.00	3294.1
15	0.87	0.77	0.98	4770.8	0.87	0.76	0.97	4742.9
20	0.84	0.74	0.94	6158.6	0.83	0.73	0.93	6102.5
25	0.81	0.7	0.91	7453.8	0.79	0.69	0.89	7356.6
30	0.77	0.67	0.88	8861.9	0.75	0.65	0.85	8507.9
36	0.73	0.63	0.84	10006.00	0.70	0.60	0.81	9760.9
	YEN							
1	0.99	0.89	1.09	356.21				
5	0.96	0.86	1.06	1734.20				
10	0.92	0.82	1.02	3355.80				
15	0.88	0.78	0.98	4863.20				
20	0.84	0.74	0.94	6261.30				
25	0.8	0.69	0.9	7542.70				
30	0.76	0.65	0.86	8715.40				
36	0.71	0.6	0.81	9988.00				

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Table 4.4 Continues: Autocorrelation Function Test Result at First Difference

	ACF	INTERVALS		Q STAT	ACF	INTERVALS		Q STAT
FIRST DIFFERENCE								
	CFA FRANCS				DOLLARS			
1	-0.24	-0.34	-0.13	20.33	0.07	-0.03	0.17	1.71
5	-0.03	-0.14	0.07	32.16	-0.02	-0.12	0.09	3.99
10	-0.04	-0.15	0.06	34.16	0.01	-0.1	0.11	4.29
15	-0.03	-0.14	0.07	36.29	-0.02	-0.13	0.08	4.62
20	-0.01	-0.11	0.1	40.27	-0.01	-0.11	0.09	5.47
25	-0.05	-0.15	0.05	41.86	-0.01	-0.11	0.1	6.73
30	0.00	-0.11	0.10	43.99	-0.03	-0.13	0.07	7.83
36	0.01	0.09	0.11	44.69	0.00	-0.10	0.11	8.13
	POUNDS				SWISS FRANC			
1	0.03	-0.07	0.13	0.35	0.10	-0.1	0.2	3.4
5	-0.01	-0.12	0.09	1.62	-0.09	0.19	0.02	7.89
10	-0.01	-0.12	0.09	4.74	0.07	-0.03	0.18	13.64
15	0.01	-0.10	0.11	11.93	-0.05	-0.15	0.06	21.73
20	-0.04	-0.14	0.06	18.59	0.03	-0.08	0.13	26.68
25	-0.03	-0.14	0.07	20.38	-0.03	-0.13	0.08	29.04
30	-0.03	-0.13	0.08	21.13	0.01	-0.09	0.11	29.66
36	0.01	-0.09	0.12	22.38	0.07	-0.04	0.17	41.06
	YEN							
1	-0.16	-0.26	-0.05	8.68				
5	-0.01	-0.11	0.09	8.76				
10	0.03	-0.08	0.13	40.16				
15	0.00	-0.1	0.1	40.64				
20	0.04	-0.06	0.15	41.77				
25	0.00	-0.11	0.1	44.36				
30	-0.02	-0.12	0.08	46.01				
36	-0.04	-0.14	0.06	48.59				

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Unit root test: the augmented dickey fuller (ADF) test.

The study tested for the Null Hypothesis that the exchange rate series has a unit root at 5% level of significance. The test was conducted both at level and at first difference. The summaries of test results at level and first difference are presented in tables 4.5 and 4.6 respectively.

Table 4.4 Result Summary of Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test at Level

	AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER LEVEL INTERCEPT CRITICAL VALUE 5% -2.869			AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER LEVEL INTERCEPT&TREND CRITICAL VALUE 5% -3.422			AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER LEVEL NONE CRITICAL VALUE 5% -1.942		
	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW
CFA FRANC	-0.634 ^a	8.9	2.027	-2.657 ^a	10.6	2.018	1.094 ^a	8.2	2.02
DOLLARS	0.071 ^a	0	1.862	-2.043 ^a	1.3	1.846	2.151	0	1.85
POUNDS	-0.433 ^a	0	1.934	-2.166 ^a	1.3	1.918	1.372 ^a	-0.6	1.93
SWISS FRANC	0.650 ^a	0.1	1.811	-2.352 ^a	2	1.794	2.566	-0.4	1.80
YEN	-0.803 ^a	2.5	2.008	-2.515 ^a	4.1	2.003	0.655	1.9	2.00

Superscript 'a' indicates not significant, that is, non-stationary

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

At level, all the test statistics fell within the critical values except in two cases. Exceptions occurred where the Dollar and the Swiss Franc's test statistics fell outside the critical values under the assumption of pure Random Walk. The study therefore accepted the null hypothesis. The tests were not statistically significant and the series were non-stationary at level. However at first difference, all the test statistics were greater than the critical values, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the tests were statistically significant, that is, the series were stationary at first difference.

Table 4.6: Result Summary Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test at First Difference

	AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER FIRST DIFFERENCE INTERCEPT CRITICAL VALUE 5% -2.869			AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER FIRST DIFFERENCE INTERCEPT&TREND CRITICAL VALUE 5% -3.422			AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER FIRST DIFFERENCE NONE CRITICAL VALUE 5% -1.942		
	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW
CFA FRANC	-17.811	63	2.02	-17.787	63	2.02	-17.657	62.8	2.023
DOLLARS	-17.612	46.6	2	-17.611	46.6	2	-17.319	45.6	2
POUNDS	-18.210	48.4	2	-18.187	48.4	2	-18.035	47.9	2
SWISS FRANC	-17.113	45.1	2	-17.166	45.4	2	-16.793	44.1	2.01
YEN	-22.05	57.7	2.01	-22.025	57.7	2.01	-21.967	57.4	2.01

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

The Coefficient of Determination R² in tables 4.5 and 4.6 were highest under the assumption of Random Walk with intercept and Deterministic Trend. This led to the conclusion that the Nigerian exchange rate series in the sample period followed the Random Walk with Intercept and deterministic trend model.

Unit root tests: phillips-perron

The summaries of test results were contained in tables 4.7 and 4.8. The study tested for the Null hypothesis that the exchange rate series had a unit root at 5% level of significance. The

tests were conducted at level (table 4.7) and at first difference (table 4.8). At level, almost all the test statistics fell within the critical values, the null hypothesis was therefore accepted, the tests were not statistically significant and the series were non-stationary. However two cases where the series were stationary at level were noticed, these were in the case of CFA Franc under the assumption of only intercept and the Swiss Franc under the assumption of Pure Random Walk

Conversely, at first difference the test statistics were greater than the critical values in all the cases. The null hypothesis was rejected, the tests were significant and the series were stationary. The coefficient of determination R^2 was also highest under the assumption of intercept and trend. This pointed to the fact that the exchange rate series in Nigeria followed the Random Walk with intercept and deterministic trend.

Table 4.7: Result Summary of Phillips-Perron Unit Root Test at Level

	PHILLIPS- PERRON LEVEL INTERCEPT CRITICAL VALUE 5% -2.869			PHILLIPS-PERRON LEVEL INTERCEPT&TREND CRITICAL VALUE 5% -3.422			PHILLIPS-PERRON LEVEL NONE CRITICAL VALUE 5% -1.942		
	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW
CFA FRANC	-0.808 ^a	0.3	2.465	-3.486	4.1	2.376	0.750 ^a	-0.3	2.470
DOLLARS	-0.0473 ^a	0	1.862	-2.67 ^a	1.3	1.846	1.874 ^a	-0.7	1.857
POUNDS	-0.486 ^a	0	1.938	-2.344 ^a	1.3	1.918	1.222 ^a	-0.6	1.933
SWISS FRANC	0.475 ^a	0.1	1.811	-2.493 ^a	2	1.794	2.233	-0.4	1.807
YEN	-0.809 ^a	0.2	2.303	-2.686 ^a	2.3	2.25	0.642 ^a	-0.4	2.303

Superscript 'a' indicates acceptance of the null hypothesis

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Table 4.8 Result Summary of Phillips- Perron Unit Root test at First Difference

	PHILLIPS- PERRON FIRST DIFFERENCE INTERCEPT CRITICAL VALUE 5% -2.869			PHILLIPS-PERRON FIRST DIFFERENCE INTERCEPT&TREND CRITICAL VALUE 5% -3.422			PHILLIPS-PERRON FIRST DIFFERENCE NONE CRITICAL VALUE 5% -1.942		
	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	R ² (%)	DW	TEST STAT	(%)R ²	DW
CFA FRANC	-24.727	61.8	2.087	-24.690	61.8	2.08	-24.746	61.6	2.081
DOLLARS	-17.659	46.5	2	-17.656	46.6	2	-17.468	45.6	2
POUNDS	-18.234	48.4	2	-18.212	48.4	2	-18.096	47.9	2
SWISS FRANC	-17.153	45.1	2	-17.167	45.3	2	-16.786	44.1	2.01
YEN	-22.123	57.7	2	-22.092	57.7	2	-21.998	57.5	2

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Johansen cointegration test

A necessary condition for the conduct of cointegration test is that the selected pairs of exchange rate series must be integrated of same order. Since all the series became stationary (integrated) at first difference all the exchange rate series qualified to be included in the

pairwise cointegration analysis. For each pair, the researcher tested the null hypothesis of no cointegrating equation at 5% level of significance. The trace statistics and the maximum Eigen statistics under the trend assumption of linear deterministic trend were employed. The trace statistics as well as the Maximum Eigen statistics were all within the respective critical values. The study therefore accepted the null hypothesis, that is, the test was not statistically significant and none of the selected pairs were cointegrated. The summary of Johansen cointegration test result is contained in table 4.8

Table 4.9 Result Summary of Johansen Cointegration Test.

	TRACE STAT	CRITICAL VALUE	MAX EIGEN VALUE	CRITICAL VALUE
CFA/DOLLARS	5.879	15.495	5.856	14.265
CFA/POUNDS	5.194	15.495	4.677	14.265
CFA/SWISS FRANC	4.782	15.495	4.772	14.265
CFA/YEN	7.774	15.495	7.384	14.265
DOLLARS/POUNDS	10.07	15.495	10.05	14.265
DOLLARS/SWISS FRANC	3.831	15.495	3.798	14.265
DOLLARS/YEN	3.264	15.495	3.263	14.265
POUNDS/SWISS FRANC	3.411	15.495	3.397	14.265
POUNDS/YEN	4.539	15.495	4.121	14.265
SWISSFRANC/YEN	4.646	15.495	4.646	14.265

For all the pairs, null hypothesis was accepted, i.e. pairs were not cointegrated. Test was not significant.

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Granger causality test

As in the case of cointegration test, a condition for performing Granger causality test is that the selected pairs of exchange rate series are integrated of same order. All the exchange rate series used in the study were stationary at first difference, that is, they were integrated of order $I(1)$, therefore all the series were involved in the causality test. The critical F statistics were obtained at 5% level of significance at $k-1(V_1)$ and $n-K(V_2)$ degrees of freedom. K is the number of variables and n is the sample size. The critical F statistics at $(1,358)$ (V_1, V_2) was approximately 3.84. The summary of the Granger Causality test results is contained in table 4.10. In majority of the cases the researcher accepted the null hypothesis of no causal relationship between the pairs, that is, the tests were not significant. However, the hypothesis that Yen does not Granger cause CFA Franc is mainly statistically significant, that is rejection of the Null Hypothesis. A case of unidirectional causality from Yen to CFA Franc was established. In addition the calculated F statistics decayed as the lag length increased. This meant that past exchange rates in near periods had more causal effect on present exchange rates than far periods' past rates. The farther the period the lower the causal effect

Table 4.10. F statistics of Pairwise Granger Causality Test

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
Lag																				
2	5.8	0.6 a	8.6	0.7 a	7.5	0.6 a	5.1	2.1 a	1.6 a	4.2	1.1 a	0.9 a	0.4 a	6.4	0.2 a	0.1 a	0.5 a	3.9	0.2 a	4.7
3	5.3	0.7 a	8.6	0.6 a	8.1	0.4 a	4.6	1.6 a	1.9 a	2.9	0.9 a	0.8 a	0.5 a	4.5	0.4 a	0.2 a	1 a	2.8 a	0.3 a	3.2
4	5.0	0.6 a	8.2	0.8 a	8.4	0.5 a	4.8	1.3 a	1.7 a	2.2	0.7 a	0.7 a	0.4 a	3.4	0.3 a	0.2 a	0.8 a	2.2 a	0.3 a	2.5
5	3.7 a	0.7 a	5.7	0.6 a	6.1	0.4 a	3.7	1.1 a	1.8 a	1.8	0.8 a	0.8 a	0.4 a	2.7	0.4 a	0.2 a	0.7 a	1.9 a	0.4 a	2.4
6	3.1 a	0.8 a	4.8	0.5 a	5.1	0.4 a	3.1	0.9 a	1.5 a	1.6	0.8 a	1 a	0.4 a	2.3	0.4 a	0.2 a	0.6 a	1.6 a	1 a	2 a
7	2.6 a	0.7 a	4.1	0.7 a	4.3	0.3 a	5.1	0.8 a	1.3 a	1.4	0.7 a	0.9 a	0.5 a	2	0.3 a	0.2 a	0.5 a	1.3 a	0.8 a	1.9
8	2.3 a	0.6 a	3.8	0.7 a	3.7	0.3 a	9.3	0.7 a	1.1 a	1.2	0.6 a	1 a	0.4 a	2.8	0.3 a	0.5 a	0.5 a	1.7 a	1 a	2.7
9	2.2 a	0.5 a	3.7	0.6 a	3.3	0.3 a	8.5	0.5 a	1 a	1.1	0.5 a	1 a	0.4 a	2.3	0.5 a	0.7 a	0.6 a	2.2 a	0.9 a	2.3
10	2 a	0.5 a	3.6	0.7 a	3	0.3 a	8.3	0.5 a	1 a	1	0.5 a	0.9 a	0.4 a	2.6	0.4 a	0.6 a	0.4 a	2.1 a	1 a	2.1
11	1.7 a	0.4 a	3.1	0.7 a	3.3	0.2 a	7.6	0.5 a	0.8 a	0.9	0.5 a	0.8 a	0.4 a	2.5	0.5 a	0.5 a	0.5 a	2 a	0.9 a	2
12	1.6 a	0.4 a	2.8	0.7 a	3.4	0.2 a	6.9	0.6 a	0.7 a	0.8	0.4 a	0.7 a	0.3 a	2.3	0.4 a	0.5 a	0.4 a	2 a	0.8 a	1.8
13	1.7 a	0.4 a	3.1	0.7 a	3.7	0.4 a	6.5	0.6 a	0.7 a	0.8	0.4 a	0.7 a	0.3 a	2.3	0.4 a	0.8 a	0.5 a	2 a	1 a	1.7
14	1.7 a	0.3 a	2.9	0.6 a	3.4	0.5 a	6	0.5 a	0.7 a	0.8	0.4 a	0.7 a	0.3 a	2.1	0.4 a	0.7 a	0.6 a	1.8 a	1 a	1.6

Source: Authors' computation (2016).

Alphabet "a" indicates acceptance of the null hypothesis, that is, the test is not significant

KEYS:

- A: Dollars does not Granger cause CFA Franc
- B: CFA Franc does not Granger cause dollars
- C: Pounds does not Granger cause CFA Franc
- D: CFA Franc does not granger cause Pounds
- E: Swiss Franc does not Granger cause CFA franc
- F: CFA Franc does not Granger cause Swiss Franc
- G: Yen does not Granger cause CFA Franc
- H: CFA Franc does not Granger cause Yen
- I: Pounds does not Granger cause Dollars
- J: Dollars does not Granger cause Pounds
- K: Swiss Franc does not Granger cause Dollars
- L: Dollars does not Granger cause Swiss Franc
- M: Yen does not Granger cause Dollars
- N: Dollars does not Granger cause Yen
- O: Swiss Franc does not Granger cause Pounds
- P: Pounds does not Granger cause Swiss Franc
- Q: Yen does not Granger cause Pounds
- R: Pounds does not Granger cause Yen
- S: Yen does not Granger cause Swiss Franc
- T: Swiss franc does not Granger cause Yen

Implications of findings

The Weak Form Efficiency test deployed the Autocorrelation Function test and the Unit Root tests of Augmented Dickey Fuller and Phillips-Perron. The Autocorrelation test at level concluded rejection of the null hypothesis that the series autocorrelation equals zero. ($P_k=0$). This implied that the series were non-stationary at level. However at first difference the Autocorrelation test accepted the null hypothesis, that is, the series became stationary at first difference. This was in line with the properties of the Random Walk Model. Similarly the unit root tests accepted the null hypothesis of presence of Unit Root at level and rejected same at first difference, this meant that the series were non-stationary at level but became stationary at first difference.

The fact that the series were non-stationary at level meant that past values could not be used to predict present value of exchange rate. This is a necessary condition for weak form efficiency. The study therefore concluded that exchange rates series in Nigeria within the sample period were weak form efficient. All past information were reflected in the present price, the exchange rates were random in response to economic climate and no market player could discover an exploitable trend to outperform the market consistently. Wickremasinghe (2004) arrived at similar conclusions in the case of Sri Lanka.

The Semi Strong form efficiency test deployed the Johansen cointegration test and the Granger causality tests. In the Johansen cointegration test, the researcher tested the hypothesis that the selected pairs were not cointegrated. In all the cases, the test accepted the null hypothesis and thus statistically not significant. This indicated that the selected pairs did not have long run equilibrium relationship. Kasman and Ayhan (2007) reached similar conclusion. In each pair one exchange rate could be used to predict the value of the other exchange rate. This was a necessary condition for semi strong form efficiency. Similarly the Granger Causality tests accepted the null hypothesis of no causal relationship between selected pairs that is the test was not significant. The study concluded that the exchange rates in Nigeria within the sample period were semi strong form efficient. All publicly available information were reflected in the values of all exchange rates simultaneously and one exchange rate could not be used to predict the value of the other.

Lastly, in the unit root tests, the significantly higher Coefficient of Determination (R^2) of all the exchange rate series under the assumption of Random Walk with intercept and deterministic trend led to the conclusion that the exchange rate series in Nigeria within the sample period followed the Random Walk Model with drift and deterministic trend

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Foreign exchange market in Nigeria within the study's sample period was efficient in weak and semi strong forms, consequently, the private participants should concentrate on hedging foreign exchange risks by actively participating in forward exchange transactions since exploitable profit opportunities were absent in the market. Regulatory policies should therefore be geared towards ensuring market liquidity and depth of the forward market. The government should take rates determined in the foreign exchange market as the equilibrium, and if domestic currency appreciation is desired, policies that will improve exogenous factors determining exchange rates should be pursued. Specifically the following policy recommendations are suggested.

First, the flexible exchange regime adopted in Nigeria should be more of the clean float, as at December 2015, the Nigerian exchange rate policy was more of the filthy float. Heavy interventions by the Central Bank of Nigeria to keep the Dollar rates within target bands were

noticed even in the face of dwindling oil inflows. Arbitrage premium widened which encouraged round tripping and rent seeking. The floating exchange regime in operation in Nigeria should be more liberalized and move towards a clean float, this will engender automatic clearance of deficit or surplus in the market, protection of external reserve and ensure monetary policy independence. Second, the depth of the foreign exchange forward market should be improved, presently the Forward Exchange market in Nigeria is none existing, partakers in Foreign Exchange transaction were exposed without hedging options, key participants in the Foreign exchange market should be encouraged to develop, buy and sell hedging products like Futures, Forward and Options for protection against risk.

Third, Non-oil Exports should be promoted and diversified the main Foreign Exchange earner in Nigeria is oil export, this stood at 67.5 per cent of total federally collected revenue as at December 2014 (Central bank of Nigeria annual Report, 2014), and this heavy dependence on oil exports exposed the Nigerian economy to risk brought about by volatility in the oil market. Encouraging agro based exports through fiscal incentives, low interest loans and subsidized agriculture inputs should be vigorously pursued.

Fourth, restriction of consumer goods importation should be pursued progressively, capital goods and raw material imports should be substituted as much as feasible with locally available alternatives. As at December 2014, 43.2 per cent of total imports were consumer goods (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2014), this trend should be reversed, consumption of locally available consumer goods should be encouraged through imposition of high tariffs on imported consumer goods, this would lead to increase in domestic aggregate output and employment.

Fifth, Capital Imports should be encouraged, investment by foreigners in Nigeria should be encouraged, this may be in the form of Portfolio Investment or Foreign Direct Investment, effect of cross border movements in finance has overtaken effects of trade movements on exchange rate determination due to globalization, as such policies that will improve domestic security, provide access to domestic and regional markets and provide critical infrastructure that will drive economic development should be pursued. A corollary to this is to discourage Capital Flight, Nigeria being a developing economy should attract Capital Imports and reduce Capital Flight to the barest minimum. Tax incentives, establishment of free trade zones, unrestricted opportunity to repatriate profits and relaxed minimum legal requirement for startups will achieve reduction of capital flight in Nigeria.

Sixth, the Arbitrage Margin which is the difference in rates between the official exchange rates and the parallel market rates should be reduced. Companies that earn foreign currency should have unfettered right of use and of which market to patronize when converting the foreign currency to domestic currency equivalents, in addition, the dollarization of the domestic economy should be halted through legislation, transactions in foreign currency should be through accounts kept with financial institutions, these suggestions would engender improved surveillance of the financial system, improve market liquidity, Arbitrage Margin will decay and the incentive for Round Tripping and Rent Seeking will be eroded.

Lastly there should be Improved Monitoring by the Central Bank of Nigeria. Systems that will promptly detect sharp practices of market participants should be used in the market and erring participants should be severely sanctioned to act as deterrent. Market participants should be required to provide market information and analyses that are necessary inputs for the development of the system.

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The Financing Of The European Union Budget

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ABSTRACT

The European Union (E.U.) has a special system of financing its institutions. The system has been the subject of political discussion for many years. The current financing system has been in place since 1970 and was modified in 2014. But this system has come under increasing pressure as a result of the growth of the number of member states and growing economic disparity between the member states. The question of whether to rely on its own sources of finance or on contributions from its members is the subject of a separate political argument.

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the way the European Union is financed.(2) The numerical data presented here is drawn from the primary source, namely the figures in the EU budgets.(3)

Specifically this article pursues the following lines of inquiry:

- how have the “own resources” evolved in recent decades,
- how much do members contribute to the financing of the EU budget, ranked per capita and general funding,
- what are the future alternatives for the EU budget?

THE PRESENT SYSTEM

Since 1970 several systems have been used to finance the EU budget. At present a new financial system for the general budget of the European Communities is in working with the new council decision of 2014.(4)

The financial system of the European Union is based on a council decision. This means that the member states are deciding. This accords with article 311 of the Lisbon treaty (on the functioning of the EU), which says that the arrangements relating to the union’s own resources must be unanimously decided by the council. Effectively this means that every member state can veto proposals aimed at changing the system.

TOR – Custom duties

The assignment of the customs duties as own resources for the EU budget is the consequence of the free movement of goods within the member states. This custom duties may comprise all kin of levies and amounts establishes on goods coming from outside the Union and imported in one of the EU states. So these duties are a tax on imports levied at the external borders of the Union. The common customs tariffs were set in 1968, two years earlier than planned. In the Treaty of Rome customs duty was designated as the primary source of finance for the expenditure of the European Economic Community. In 1988 the regime was extended to include the customs duties levied by the European Coal and Steel Community. percent of this Agricultural levies were instituted in 1962 and were transferred to the Community by the decision of 21 April 1970. Originally these were taxes which varied according to the price in global markets and the price in the European market. Since the multilateral trade agreements of the Uruguay Round (April 1994) were taken up into Community law no distinction is made

between agricultural levies and customs duties. Agricultural levies are now simply customs duties imposed on agricultural products imported from third countries.

So the custom duties are existing to protect the European goods against the cheaper import from non-European goods, which have mostly a lower production cost.

The levies on the production of sugar were originally also a TOR source. But following the end of the sugar quota system on 30 September 2017, the sugar production levies don't exist anymore. The EU budget 2018 is the first one without the duties for the common organization of the markets in sugar.

VAT

The "Value Added Tax" (VAT) was established by the decision of 21 April 1970 because the traditional own resources provided insufficient finance for the community budget. The harmonization of this complex resource demanded much time, so that it was only first collected in 1980. The VAT resources are the result of the application of a specific percentage to a uniformly established basis.

In the 2014 system the VAT rate is fixed at 0,30%. But first of all there are a number of calculations prior. The own resource system of 2014 calculates for every member state the 1% VAT and the 1% GNI (Gross National Income). Thereafter there is a cap of 50% of the GNI. If the 1% VAT is higher than the 50% cap GNI, the system works further with the capped GNI figure. The reason for these two calculations is the fact that the own resource decision wants to defend the countries with a higher indirect taxes on consumption, which is the VAT. In the fiscal year 2018 this is the case for Estonia, Croatia, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta.

Example: I (figures budget 2018)

Belgium

1% VAT is 1.875 million euro

1% GNI is 4.450 million euro

50% cap is 2.225 million euro

In this case of Belgium the 1% VAT is lower than the cap of the GNI. So the 0,30% rate is calculated on the 1.875 million, which is the 1% VAT. That gives a Belgian VAT contribution of 562 million.

Luxembourg

1% VAT is 282 million euro

1% GNI is 394 million euro

50% cap is 197 million euro

In the case of Luxembourg the 1% VAT is higher than the GNI cap. So the 0,30% VAT rate is for Luxembourg calculated on the 197 million, which is the 50% capped GNI. That gives for Luxembourg a VAT contribution of 59 million euro for 2018.

The system of the own resources defines for three countries: F.R. of Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden a lower rate of 0,15%. In the former system of 2007 the Netherlands and Sweden did have a rate of 0,10%. These two countries have a little less attractive reduction. (minus 0,05%) For Germany the reduced rate is the same as in the old system. In the 2007 system Austria had also a reduced rate of 0,225%, but this benefit disappears in the present system for this federal republic.

In the 2014 system these reductions in favour of these three countries do cost 2,8 billion euro. Germany wins 2.093 million, the Netherlands 470 million and Sweden gains 321 million.

GNI

In 1988 the “Gross National Income” (GNI) was introduced as the new own resource, and was originally based on “Gross National Product” (GNP). This resource was meant to replace the VAT resource as a way of balancing the budget. In 2000 the EU extended the application of the European system of economic accounting introduced in 1995 (ESA 95) to the EU budget. In ESA 95 gross national product (GNP) was replaced by the concept of gross national income (GNI). The new decision thus used GNI for the determination of the own resources instead of GNP. In order not to touch the amount of financial resources made available to the Communities the ceiling for the own resources as a percentage of the GNI of the EU was adjusted.

Every year the European Union calculates the 1% GNI for every member. Thereafter they do a calculation of the uniform rate of “additional base” GNI as own resource. This is the rate which is needed for a balanced budget. The EU treaty doesn’t allow a deficit budget for the Union. For 2018 this uniform rate is fixed at 0,6524062% of the full 1% GNI figure.

Example: II

Belgium 1% GNI is 4.450 million euro

The fixed rate (0,65... %) gives a contribution of 2.903 million euro.

The 2014 system concerning the own resources has, as the old one of 2007, an exception for three countries (Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden). These national reductions concerns a total amount of 1.099 million euro, divided as follow over the three mentioned members:

- Denmark: 141 million,
- the Netherlands: 757 million,
- Sweden: 201 million.

These 1.099 million is related with a complicated calculation in which for every country the percentage share in the EU – GNI is made. (f.e. for 2018: Germany: 21,59%, France: 15,16%, ... Netherlands: 4,67%, Sweden: 3,20% and Denmark: 1,94%, ..)

In these part of the system the shares of the three related countries are imported. Indeed all these shares are linked with the amount of the reduction: 1.099 million euro. That gives the following figures for the three related countries:

- Denmark: 21,3 million,
- Netherlands: 51,4 million,
- Sweden: 35,2 million.

These are the amounts which the three countries are losing on their reduction, namely their percentage share in the 1.099 million. What means that their real reduction is as follow:

- Denmark: 141,5 million minus 21,3 gives a reduction of 120,2 million,
- Netherlands: 756,8 million minus 51,4 gives a reduction of 705,4 million,
- Sweden: 201,4 million minus 35,2 million gives a reduction of 166,7 million.

This reduction of 991,8 million euro for the three countries has to be paid by all the other members on base of their share in het GNI of the EU.

UK rebate

The first rebate in favour of the United Kingdom was made under the agreement of June 1984 and this on demand of the former conservative PM miss Thatcher. This was approved in the 'Fontainebleau ' summit and resulted in a new 'own resource decision ' of 1985. All the other nine member states (5) were agree to give the UK a reduction on their EU contributions , because was the country was a 'net' payer to the union. This measure came in the 'own resources' decision, which can only be changed by unanimity, which gives the UK a 'de facto' veto ! The correction mechanism in favour of the United Kingdom was upheld in all the Council decisions concerning the own resources. First of all, the UK is reimbursed for 66% of the difference between its contribution and what is received back from the budget. The calculation is based on its GNI and VAT. In the 2018 budget this rebate concerns 4,9 billion euros. The own resources system now in effect makes the rebate in favour of the UK less attractive than it was in previous versions of the system. Indeed the system was changed in 2007 and in the 2014 version.

The cost of the UK rebate is shared among the other EU member states in proportion to the share they contribute to the GNI of the EU. The yearly calculation is a complicated step by step procedure. First of all there is a calculation concerning the percentage share in the GNI.

Following without the share of the UK, which is divided over all the other members. And since 2002 this impact is limited to 25% of its normal value for Germany, the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden. As a result the cost of this reduction in the contribution by these four member states to the UK's rebate is divided among the other 22 countries.

Example: III

- Percentage share in the GNI of the EU: f.e. Belgium 2,83%, FRG: 21,59% and UK 15,55%;
- Share without the UK: f.e. Belgium: 3,35% and FRG: 25,56%;
- Share without the four reduction countries and the UK: Belgium: 5,37%;
- $\frac{3}{4}$ of the share of Austria, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden should not be paid. This means that these four countries have only to pay 25% of their share in the GNI calculation without the UK. That's gives for Austria: 0,7% in place of 2,8%; FRG: 6,39% in place of 25,56%; the Netherlands: 1,38% in place of 5,53% and Sweden: 0,95% in place of 3,79%.
- Belgium with a GNI share of 2,83% has finally to pay 4,86% in the UK rebate of 4,9 billion euro for 2018. The share for France increases from 15,16% to 26,1%, which makes from the France republic the greatest contributor in the UK rebate.
- The discussion about this UK rebate was also the beginning of the demands of other members for exceptions concerning their own resources obligations.(6)

Total reduction costs

All the previous reductions systems in the 'own resources' decision do have a total price card of 8,6 billion euro in the budget year 2018. It concerns the UK rebate for 4,9 billion euro; the GNI reductions of 991 million euro for three countries (FRG , the Netherlands and Sweden) and the reduced VAT rate of 0,15% for three countries (FRG, the Netherlands and Sweden). This VAT favour has a budget impact of 2,8 billion euro.

COMPARISON

From the figures given below it will be seen that the importance of the own resources system (TOR and VAT) has declined significantly relative to total revenues.

This declining share in respect of the traditional own resources (agricultural levies, customs duties) is related to the growing freedom of world trade and the associated policy of lower import duties.

The lower share of VAT revenue has to do with the maximum percentage of 1.4 % imposed in 1985 and which now has been reduced to the current 0.3% for most member states.

Over the last twenty years the importance of the GNI resources has grown uninterrupted. For the budget 2018 the revenues are as follow voted and fixed (in billion euro):

- custom duties: 22,8
- VAT: 17,2
- GNI: 102,8
- others: 1,9
- Total:144,7

The other revenues (1,9 billion euro) are related with the taxes from the EU civil servants, MEP etc. and surplus balances and adjustments.

Table I: Percentage of the budget

	1988	1995	2000	2005	2012	2018
(Sugar levies) & Customs duties	28.5	19.3	15.3	11.3	14.95	15.8
VAT resources	57.2	52.2	38.1	14.0	11.23	11.9
GNP/GNI resources	10.6	18.9	42.3	73.8	72.60	71.0
Other revenues related with the EU institutions	3.7	9.7	4.3	0.9	1.22	1.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

The intention of the 1970 treaty to introduce a system of own resources has been allowed to decline by the present system, which is again based on national contributions: the GNI !

BUDGET 2018

Next this article calculates the contributions of the members in relation till the three main sources, namely: custom duties, VAT and GNI.

First of all the custom duties (estimated reception 2018: 22,8 billion euro)? The top ten of payers are the following countries (in millions of euro and % share of the total) :

- FRG: 4.731 or 20,71%
- UK: 3.535 or 15,47%
- Netherlands: 2.746 or 12,02%
- Belgium: 2.473 or 10,82%
- Italy: 2.095 or 9,17%
- France: 1.749 or 7,65%
- Spain: 1.712 or 7,49%
- Poland: 705 or 3,08%
- Sweden: 548 or 2,39%
- Denmark: 377 or 1,65%

The custom duties, which are mainly related with import of goods from outside the EU, are concentrated in the ports and the airports of the countries near the North Sea. See the importance of the UK and certainly : Germany. If you take together the two low countries, then their receptions of these duties are the most important. Indeed, Belgium and the Netherlands are contributing 5.2 billion euro or 22,9%. This large contribution, coming from these two countries, can be explained by the size of their ports (f.e. Antwerp, Rotterdam, Zeebrugge) and their airports (Schiphol- Amsterdam and Zaventem- Brussels). With the FRG the share of contribution is already 43,6% for these three countries and with the UK custom duties it's increasing till 59% ! The top ten together contributes 90,4% of all the custom duties.

The TVA (estimated: 17,2 billion euro) and their ten most important contributors. Hereby we underline again the reductions for Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden. The top ten of payers are the following countries (in millions of euro and % share of the total):

- UK: 3.465 or 20,08%
- France: 3.133 or 18,16%
- FRG: 2.093 or 12,13%
- Italy: 1.996 or 11,57%
- Spain: 1.588 or 9,2%
- Poland: 597 or 3,46%
- Belgium: 562 or 3,25%
- Austria: 519 or 3%
- Netherlands: 469 or 2,71%
- Denmark: 342 or 1,98%

Remarkable is the fact that two of the three countries with a TVA reduction (0,15 in place of 0,30 %) are still in the top ten: the FRG and the Netherlands. Of course the UK f.e. has higher indirect taxes and lower personal income taxes, which has also a historic influence on this list. If Germany shouldn't have an exemption, then this country should pay 24,26% of the total TVA revenues for the EU general budget. The five biggest members are paying 71% of the TVA. The complete top ten of payers are contribution in 2018 nearly 85% of their own resources.

Finally, the GNI-GNP contribution for the EU general budget.(estimated: 102,7 billion euro) Also here, the own resource system has exceptions for three countries: Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden.(supra) The top ten of contributions is coming from the following countries (in millions of euro and % share of the total)

- FRG: 22.179 or 21,59%
- UK: 15.973 or 15,55%
- France: 15.579 or 15,16%
- Italy: 11.417 or 11,11%
- Spain: 7.831 or 7,62%
- Netherlands: 4.798 or 4,67%
- Poland: 3.054 or 2,97%
- Sweden: 3.291 or 3,2%
- Belgium: 2.903 or 2,83%
- Austria: 2.427 or 2,36%

Even with their reductions the Netherlands and Sweden are top ten contributors of the GNI financial levy. Of course the level of well fare and the GDP total are very crucial for these kind of contribution to the EU general budget. The main five members are paying 71% of the total GNI. The two low countries are together good for 7,64% and therefore a little bit more

important than Spain. All these top ten countries together are contributing nearly 87,2% of all the GNI financial levy.

In these calculations of the three financial sources , eight countries are always in the list of the ten most important contributors: FRG, UK, France, Italy, Spain, Poland, the Netherlands and Belgium. Sweden is only in the list for the custom duties and GNI; Austria only for TVA and GNI and Denmark for the custom duties and the TVA. Over the three calculations only 11 of the 28 members are in a top ten position. With exception of Poland , there is no other new member state of this century in these lists !

Who is paying ?

The following tables are given an overview of the ranking of the member states by per capita contribution (in euros) to the budgets for the years 2006, 2013 and the present one: 2018.

Per capita contribution

An important remark is that Bulgaria and Romania were not EU member states in 2006 and Croatia has been member only since 1 July 2013 ! The next tables examines the national contributions to the EU budget per capita in euro for the three mentioned years.

Table: II Per capita contribution in 2006

1.	Luxembourg	535
2.	Denmark	355
3.	Ireland	327
4.	Sweden	290
5.	Belgium	276
6.	France	274
7.	The Netherlands	260
8.	Austria	259
9.	Finland	258
10.	Germany	236
11.	Italy	230
12.	Spain	198
13.	United Kingdom	179
14.	Cyprus	172
15.	Greece	162
16.	Slovenia	139
17.	Portugal	129
18.	Malta	108
19.	Czech Republic	92
20.	Hungary	84
21.	Estonia	69
22.	Slovakia	67
23.	Poland	60
24.	Lithuania	58
25.	Latvia	52

Source: EU budget figures and population figures from Eurostatt

The financial crisis had to yet to strike in 2006 and the Benelux and Scandinavian states were the largest per capita contributors to the EU budget along with France and Germany. The member states joining the EU since 2006 are all smaller contributors. With the exception of

Cyprus all the new member states joining in 2006 made a smaller contribution than the 15 existing member states (apart from Portugal). It may be recalled that the EU expanded to 15 in 1995. The contributions of Luxembourg and Latvia differed by a factor of 10.28 !

Table III - Per capita contribution in 2018 (in parentheses figures 2013)

1.	Luxembourg	614 (677)
2.	Belgium	546 (502)
3.	Ireland	488 (326)
4.	Denmark	479 (505)
5.	The Netherlands	432 (380)
6.	Sweden	404 (425)
7.	Finland	375 (412)
8.	Austria	368 (380)
9.	F.R. Germany	357 (341)
10.	France	327 (345)
11.	United Kingdom	276 (263)
12.	Italy	273 (276)
13.	Spain	255 (241)
14.	Malta	235 (186)
15.	Slovenia	215 (207)
16.	Cyprus	213 (154)
17.	Portugal	177 (161)
18.	Estonia	176 (156)
18.	Czech rep.	176 (153)
20.	Greece	162 (176)
21.	Lithuania	152 (109)
22.	Slovakia	149 (147)
23.	Latvia	144 (116)
24.	Poland	122 (113)
24.	Hungary	122 (104)
26.	Croatia	113 (53)
27.	Romania	87 (69)
28.	Bulgaria	73 (65)

Source: EU budget & Eurostatt figures

It is noteworthy that the two countries (i.e. Belgium and Luxembourg) that are home to the great majority of European institutions were among the top five per capita contributors in 2006 and the top three contributors in 2013 and 2018. Despite the reductions is the Netherlands, the third Benelux country, is this country a growing contributor per capita.

Concerning the five big countries we see a different evolution in these member states. Per capita are Spain and Italy the top contributors to the budget. The same conclusion is related with the United Kingdom, but this a member with a well know financial rebate ! Over these years France decreased form the fifth to the 10th place on the list. The reduction don't have an influence on the position (place 9 or 10)of the federal republic.

Ireland takes remarkable positions in these lists over the three years. In 2006, before the financial crisis, the Irish republic the third most important contributor per capita. But in 2013 the per capita contribution was nearly the same figures as in 2006, what indicates the enormous impact of the crisis on the island. But in 2018 the same country has left the crisis

behind with a third place and a giant increase of the per capita contribution ! Also the Scandinavian countries in the EU are in these lists larger payers.

What is also worth remarking is that the 21st century expansion of the Union with the ten Southern and Eastern European countries in 2004 as well the 2007 expansion with Romania and Bulgaria cannot be regarded as a financial success for the EU budget.

The Republic of Cyprus is the only member state in the 2006 ranking which had a higher per capita ranking than in the 2013 list. The reason is the amazing financial crisis on this east Mediterranean island. For the same reason Greece has in 2013 the same per capita figure as in 2006 ! ranking this applies to only Slovenia and Malta.

Furthermore, the 2018 ranking shows that the 15 member states in 1995 still lead the contributions table with the minor exception of Portugal and Greece. Malta is in 2018 the first new member of this century at the list (place 14), following by Slovenia.

The Luxemburg (place n° 1) and Bulgarian (last place) per capita contributions differ by a factor 10.41, which is nearly the same as in 2006. (see table: II) But in the 2018 list the difference between Luxembourg and Bulgaria goes down to 8,41 !What means that differences between the top and the down of the list are a little bit decreasing.

Even after the reductions enjoyed by Austria, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden these four countries remain among the top ten.

Contributions

The EU general budget may also be used to determine the overall share of the member states in the financing of the budget (TOR, VAT and GNI).

The following table ranks the member states by their percentage contribution to EU budget between 2002 (15 members), 2012 (27 members) and 2018 (28 members).

TABLE: IV Ranking of Member States by % Contribution to the EU Budget

	2002	2006	2012	2018
Germany	24.44 % (1)	20.56 % (1)	19.95 % (1)	20.70 % (1)
France	16.72 %	16.43 % (2)	16.37 % (2)	15.75 % (2)
United Kingdom	14.27 %	12.38 % (4)	11.61 % (4)	12.70 % (3)
Italy	13.03 %	13.69 % (3)	12.89 % (3)	11.61 % (4)
Spain	7.73 %	8.93 % (5)	8.87 % (5)	8.31 % (5)
the Netherlands	6.48 %	5.20 % (6)	4.99 % (6)	5.16 % (6)
Belgium	3.97 %	4.01 % (7)	4.11 % (7)	4.34 % (7)
Sweden	2.73 %	2.72 % (8)	2.77 % (9)	2.83 % (9)
Austria	2.47 %	2.15 % (11)	2.12 % (10)	2.26 % (10)
Denmark	1.97 %	2.09 % (12)	2.04 % (11)	1.90 % (11)
Greece	1.63 %	2.20 % (10)	1.73 % (12)	1.22 % (16)
Portugal	1.46 %	1.36 % (15)	1.29 % (14)	1.28 % (14)
Finland	1.45 %	1.48 % (13)	1.56 % (13)	1.44 % (13)
Ireland	1.40 %	1.38 % (14)	1.25 % (15)	1.61 % (12)
Luxembourg	0.25 %	0.24 % (20)	0.25 % (23)	0.25 % (24)
Poland	-	2.34 % (9)	3.18 % (8)	3.25 % (8)
Czech Republic	-	1.02 % (16)	1.08 % (16)	1.25 % (15)
Slovakia	-	0.38 % (18)	0.60 % (18)	0.56 % (19)
Hungary	-	0.91 % (17)	0.86 % (19)	0.93 % (18)
Slovenia	-	0.29 % (19)	0.33 % (20)	0.31 % (22)
Lithuania	-	0.22 % (21)	0.26 % (21)	0.30 % (23)
Latvia	-	0.13 % (23)	0.15 % (25)	0.19 % (25)
Estonia	-	0.10 % (24)	0.13 % (26)	0.16 % (26)
Cyprus	-	0.16 % (22)	0.16 % (24)	0.12 % (27)
Malta	-	0.05 % (25)	0.06 % (27)	0.07 % (28)
Romania	-	-	1.07 % (17)	1.19 % (17)
Bulgaria	-	-	0.32 % (21)	0.36 % (20)
Croatia	-	-	-	0,33% (21)

Germany was and still is the greatest contributor to the Union. Even so Germany's contribution has fallen as a result of the EU's expansion and the correction in favour of the Federal Republic. As a result the difference with France has been reduced, with the latter's contribution remaining at its historic level.

The "juste- retour" (fair return) principle works in favour of the British treasury and the UK has been a smaller contributor than Italy since the mid-2000s. This country's contribution has remained steady over the years, although here again we see the impact of the financial crisis. The same remark can be made for Spain.

If we group these countries by date of accession we are struck by the following shares based on the figures-facts in the budget 2018 (see supra):

- the six founder members still contribute 55.52 % of funding;
- the three member states that joined in 1973 contribute 15.86 % ;
- the southerly expansion of the eighties with the accession of Greece in 1981 and the two main countries of the Iberian peninsula (1986) accounts for 10.81 % ;
- the 1995 expansion, which saw the accession of Sweden, Finland and Austria, has in relative terms been financially favourable. These three member states provide 6.53% of all national contributions;

The conclusion is that the fifteen member states that acceded in the period from 1951 to 1995, still account for 89.11% (figures 2018) of the national contributions to the EU budget.

This makes it clear that the accession of the new members has certainly not brought any budgetary windfalls.

It also says much about the differences in prosperity between the former fifteen and the member states acceding to the EU in the new century.

Comparisons of the figures for 2006 and 2012 also highlight the impact of the economic recession and financial crisis, particularly the decline of the contributions to the EU budget of the "PIGS" countries (7).

The Eurozone states (19 members)(8) finance the budget for 73.35% (2018).

Noteworthy is the 9.75% (2018) contribution of the Benelux, which is in excess of that of Spain. Comparison of the British contributions for 2006 and 2012 also show that the UK rebate became less attractive in this researched period.

CONCLUSION

The own resources decision formalized the existing trend towards making the GNI contributions the main source of finance for the general budget of the European Union. After 50 years this system started with the emphasis on the importance of 'real ' own resources (Custom duties and VAT) to the present GNI.

For almost 40 years this budget has been compromised by the "fair return" principle, which works in favour of the United Kingdom.

In the meantime special arrangements are exiting for many members: Austria, Denmark, the FRG, the Netherlands and Sweden.

All decisions on the own resources continues to be subject to unanimous approval. This means that each member state must give its approval to any change. This is the challenge that must be overcome if any change is to be made. This will be the problem in the near future to modify the system, even when the UK will have his 'Brexit' there is no present change that the 27 members should be agree to go from an unanimous rule to an easier majority !

Although the idea of raising a direct EU tax for funding the EU's budget was widely discussed in the 1970s and 1980s, it is now moribund. Even today with the French idea, President Macron, for an own Eurozone budget the discussion will be: how large can the budget be and who will pay with which source ?

The funding of the budget continues to rest very largely on the shoulders of the first 15 member states of the 20th century. The accession of the 13 new member states can hardly be regarded as a financial – budget success.

The discussions for a new 'Multiannual Financial Framework' (which is not the subject of this study) for after 2020 is related with a new system of own resources. (9) This discussion is now completely overshadowed by the upcoming European parliament elections of 2019 and the fear of several countries that they have to pay more after the 'Brexit'.(10)

My proposal is to return to the original idea of own resources. The VAT is an excellent means for financing the EU budget and that in combination of the custom duties.

Europe needs a new fairer and more transparent system. Since the 1970 Luxembourg agreement the Union has done little regarding the use of VAT for own resources. VAT is related to the welfare of member states and a fixed percentage of this indirect tax could be set aside as part of a long-term financial plan for the funding of the general EU budget.

So ultimately it comes down to the following question: are the member states prepared to return to the own resources system and an associated increase in revenues at a time when nearly all member states are having to implement strict budgetary discipline. Finally it's up to the EU Council to take the decision, but in several member states the present governments are not so pro EU anymore and this determination is related with the European failures in several actual case. (f.e. migration) A real answer to these questions will be there after the 2019 elections ?

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China Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC): The Counter Balancer Of Momentous Energy Crisis In Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

This paper will highlight the importance of energy projects that has been covered under the CPEC. Energy is the most important and significant factor for the development and growth of the economy. CPEC is an economic Corridor which is also working as an energy Corridor for Pakistan, 30 billion dollar is invested in energy sector, which will ultimately boost up Pakistan's shut down industry due to the energy crisis. This paper will highlight the projects of energy sector that has been started in Pakistan and how these energy projects will be beneficial for the economy of Pakistan. This paper will discuss the link between electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio with GDP of Pakistan. Data has been taken from the World Bank for the period of 1990-2016, GDP is considered as dependent variable whereas electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio have been analyzed as independent variables in the light of CPEC and its effects. Least Square Regression has been applied with the help of E-Views a statistical software. The result reveals that GDP of Pakistan is highly and positively affected by electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio. CPEC will help to improve the supply of energy including electricity, increase employment rate and generate more opportunities of employment that will enhance the GDP of Pakistan. The energy projects which includes coal, wind, hydro and solar are covered under the CPEC will help the country to come out from the energy crisis that Pakistan has been facing from the last decade.

Keywords: CPEC, Energy, GDP, Electric Power Consumption, Labor Force, Price Ratio

INTRODUCTION

In order to fulfill the dream of strengthening and revitalizing his home-land, Xi Jinping, the president of China in the year 2012 announced the 'Chinese Dream', with motto of 'One Belt, One Road' (OBOR) initiative, revealed in the subsequent year. It comprised the linkage of China to Europe, Persian Gulf and the Africa through the ways of new sea means and land. The Huge, in broader perspective, therefore has been considered both as an essential part of OBOR and as the foundation of China's struggles to revive and make deeper its strategic co-operation with Pakistan. Announcement is followed by the implementation of this great plan, the very first initiative was the dialogue with Pakistan, the old and very faithful neighboring companion of China. Negotiation with Pakistan is completed successfully and plan is announced with the name of "CPEC" i.e. the China Pakistan Economic Corridor.

Likewise OBOR (One Belt, One Road), CPEC (China Pakistan Economic Corridor) was also launched with great fanfare and greet by the officials of China. It was also being considered as the way to prosperity and affluence, not just for China but for the rest of the world. The bragging surrounding the introduction of the CPEC thus highlights the image of a confident, positive China which has the ability to reshape the economic and geopolitical scenario of Europe and Asia for its benefits, and of a relationship between China and Pakistan which is strengthening more and more with the passage of time. Yet, the propensity to regard China's rise as unavoidable, which seems to have become the traditional view in certain foreign policy rings, masks the nation's weaknesses and dependent-ability and dismisses the degree to which they lead and constrain its external behavior. More precisely, it have a tendency to make a one-sided picture of the roots, determinations, and scenarios of the CPEC - not to highlight of the Sino Pakistan affiliation itself. China-Pakistan Economic Corridor is a mega project of USD 45 billion. The economic corridor is about 3000 Km long consisting of highways, railways and pipelines that will connect China's Xinjianghe (Sheengjaang) province to the rest of the world through Pakistan's Gwadar port.

From the Stone Age to the supersonic energy has played a major role in taking man. Energy is crucial to all economic activities of a country like infrastructure, transport, information, agriculture, industry, communication, residential uses and others. Economically the energy is costlier factor. However, a robust energy supply system is the essential factor for the nation that want to improve and upgrade the living standards. The rise of incomes is followed by rise in increase of use of energy. As more countries and as more countries develop their economies and rise out of poverty, energy demand rises proportionately. For fast developing countries the supplies of energy are now less trusted due to volatility in prices. So to make sure availability of energy in low cost becomes very imperative.

Coal is one of the cheapest mean of energy but these days it becomes dangerous for the climate of the world. Though, rapid growing economies, have found low-cost natural gas as best alternative. A multidimensional approach will be required to meet the challenge that domestic supplies fall short of demand. In this regard, Increment in resource efficiency and productivity will be the critical task. Expansion of innovation is also in progress. Globally, the world is shown a tremendous growth in the use of wind and solar power. Fossil fuels are the dominant means of energy.

Since independence, the electricity sector in Pakistan is remained inefficient. Technological, political, economic and organizational machinery problems are the dominant factors of backwardness of this sector. Like treatment was given to other sectors of economy with the same consequences. Throughout the period a mismatch has been observed between demand and supply, tariffs and efficiency of electric energy in Pakistan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

For the purpose of this research enough literature has been reviewed, (Calabrese, 2014)during the past decade China intends influence Pakistan's geographical advantages to counter balance international pressures which is aiming its stability. It is a clear fact that China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC). Is the most ambitious recent effort by China to strengthen and augment its energy, expand its strong, longstanding, resilient, robust and strong strategic bonds with Pakistan, Unveiling a \$46 billion infrastructure spending plan by President Xi Jinping during his April 2015 visit to Pakistan, aimed at bringing this megaproject to fruition, was in this sequence. (Spokesperson China's Foreign Ministry, April 15,2015)said, Being a substantial part of the current economic cooperation between China and Pakistan. The China-Pakistan Economic Corridor as a pragmatic mutual cooperation, is expected to cover various

fields, deepen the integration of interests of the two countries and boost common developments.

The most important role of CPEC is power generation. \$33 billion dollars will be invested in energy sector related projects. Pakistan is losing approximately 2.5% of its annual GDP, due to a shortfall of 4,500 MW electricity. The power generation projects, will be developed between 2018 and 2020 as preferred fast-tracked "Early Harvest" plan. (Deloitte) To help Pakistan to overcome its stubborn energy crises. CPEC scheduled energy projects will be built by private entrepreneurs and not by the governments of either China or Pakistan. The Exim Bank of China will finance these private investments at a nominal interest rate of 5–6%, while the Government of Pakistan will be contractually obliged to purchase electricity from these Independent Power Producers at agreed rates. (CPEC Official Website).

Huge amount of energy has been used in the previous decades to upgrade the life style of the people. After the revolution in industry .i.e. known as "industrial revolution" economy of the world and consumption of energy showed a rapid growth (Tang , Gong, Xiao, & Wang , 2017). (Razzaqi, Bilquees, & Sherbaz, 2011)As already stated, it is universally held that Energy is an essential factor to economic growth and also it has a potential role of a restraint factor to curb economic growth, as other factors of production cannot work properly without energy. It can be well contended that the impact of energy use on growth depends on the economic structure, energy intensity and the phase of economic evolution of the country.

(Aqeel & Butt, 2001), *find the positive link between economic growth, energy consumption, and employment in Pakistan and determined the result that economic growth is the reason of total energy consumption.* (Kakar & Khilji, 2011), determined for Pakistan the link between total energy consumption and economic growth from 1980-2009. By using Johansen Co-integration, they established that for economic growth energy consumption is vital and any energy shudder may upset the Pakistan's economic development in long-run. (Ahmed, et al., 2013) Studied the bearing of economic growth and energy consumption of Pakistan by using the data of period 1975 to 2009. The results of the test confirmed that in Pakistan there is a positive relationship between energy consumption and GDP. In 1978, (Kraft & Kraft, 1978) utilize the data of 1947 to 1974 of the United States of America and summarized that GDP determined energy consumption. (Stern & D.J., 2000) used the series of data from 1948-1994 and concluded that GDP of the country is significantly influenced by consumption of energy.

Oh and Lee Used the Korea's seasonal series of data from 1981-2004, they applied Granger Causality Test between three demand variables (GDP ,energy consumption and price)and four supply variables (GDP ,energy consumption, labor and capital),the results indicated the unidirectional long term causality between GDP and consumption of energy. (Oh & Lee, 2004) . (Hunt, L.C., & Y. Ninomiya, 2005)Formulate the relationship between energy price, GDP and per capita energy consumption with the help of ARDL model.

Although, some researchers determined no relationship among economic growth and energy consumption. (Yu & Jin, 1992) did work on US seasonal data 1974 to 1990 and expressed no connection. (Yu, & Hwang, 1984) and (Akarca & Long, 1979) also drew the similar results.

METHODOLOGY

World Bank and official website of CPEC are the main sources of utilized data to investigate the relation of growth & energy and to highlight the importance of energy projects of CPEC, data includes annual consumption of electric power, labor force and price ratio with GDP of

Pakistan for the period 1990-2016 and details of energy projects. We use correlation and least square regression method with the help of E-Views.

Descriptive Statistics

	LOGGDP	EPC	LF	PR
Mean	6.545915	400.0042	17.64575	0.219173
Median	6.334335	400.0042	17.63982	0.197971
Maximum	7.291788	486.7914	18.03567	0.28632
Minimum	5.917744	277.3531	17.25048	0.172361
Std. Dev.	0.45868	60.24097	0.255551	0.039659
Skewness	0.332532	-0.16434	-0.02203	0.598564
Kurtosis	1.525844	1.944691	1.622532	1.769063
Jarque-Bera	2.942377	1.37442	2.13678	3.316863
Probability	0.229652	0.502977	0.343561	0.190437
Sum	176.7397	10800.11	476.4354	5.917672
Sum Sq. Dev.	5.47006	94353.33	1.697959	0.040893
Observations	27	27	27	27

Descriptive statistics shows that 27 observations are analyzed and found positive mean of all variables which are LOG-GDP 6.545915, Electricity Power Consumption (EPC) 400.0042, Labor Force (LF) 17.64575 and Price Level Ratio (PR) 0.219173. GDP has been transformed into log to make a normal skewed distribution. EPC has the highest maximum & minimum values that is 486.7914 and 277.3531 respectively whereas PR has lowest maximum & minimum values 0.28632 and 0.172361 respectively. The highest standard deviation is of EPC that is 60.24097 and PR has lowest standard deviation that is 0.039659. All variables have Kurtosis less than 3 whereas p-value of Jarque-Bera shows the normal distribution of all variables having p value more than 5%.

Correlation Of Variables

	LOGGDP	EPC	LF	PR
LOGGDP	1	0.810194	0.969521	0.949524
EPC	0.810194	1	0.855633	0.64796
LF	0.969521	0.855633	1	0.854275
PR	0.949524	0.64796	0.854275	1

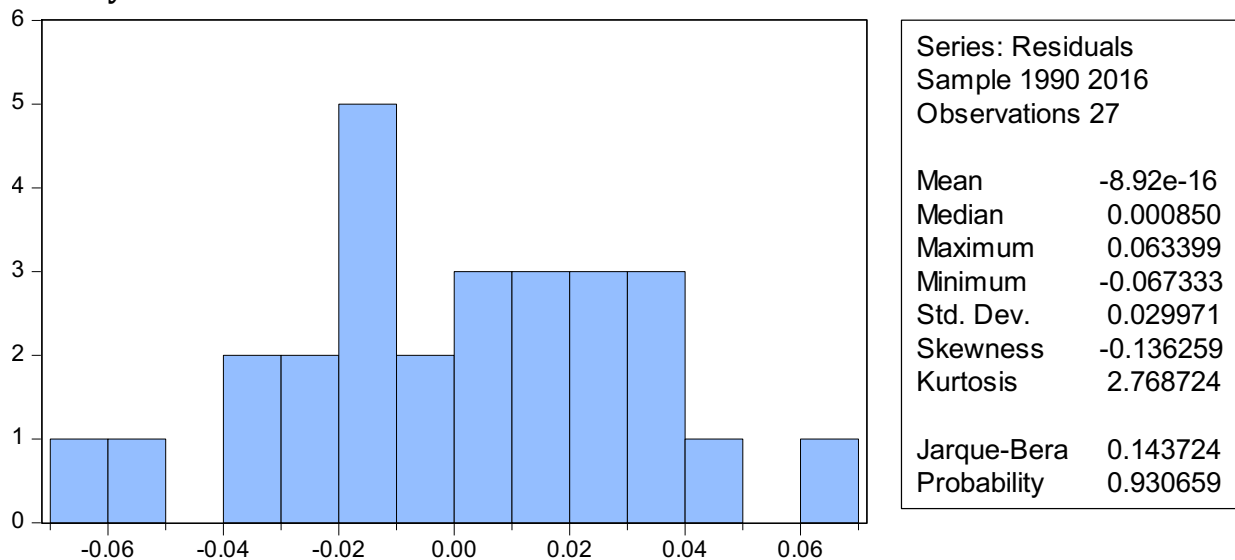
Correlation of variables shows the degree to which they are associated with each other. Above table shows that GDP is correlated with EPC 81% whereas with LF 96.9% and with PR 94.9%. The correlation shows that all independent variables are interrelated with dependent variable positively and highly significantly. GDP is affected by EPC, LF and PR due to high relativity.

Least Square Regression Analysis

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-10.82326	1.167585	-9.269781	0
EPC	0.000562	0.000211	2.666711	0.0138
LF	0.903854	0.072778	12.41934	0
PR	5.453405	0.318676	17.11268	0
R-squared	0.995731	Mean dependent var		6.545915
Adjusted R-squared	0.995174	S.D. dependent var		0.45868
S.E. of regression	0.031865	Akaike info criterion		-3.91865
Sum squared resid	0.023354	Schwarz criterion		-3.72667
Log likelihood	56.90172	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-3.86156
F-statistic	1788.04	Durbin-Watson stat		0.586994
Prob(F-statistic)	0			

The regression result shows that all independent variables are significant having p value less than traditional 10% level of significance that are EPC 1.38%, LF 0% and PR 0%. EPC, LF and PR have positive effects on LOG-GDP. R-square is the coefficient of variance that shows the portion of reliability of GDP due to electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio that is 99.57%. The result reveals that GDP relies and changes 99.57% due to explanatory variables. p-value of F-statistics is also significant that shows that independent variable is effective for population as well.

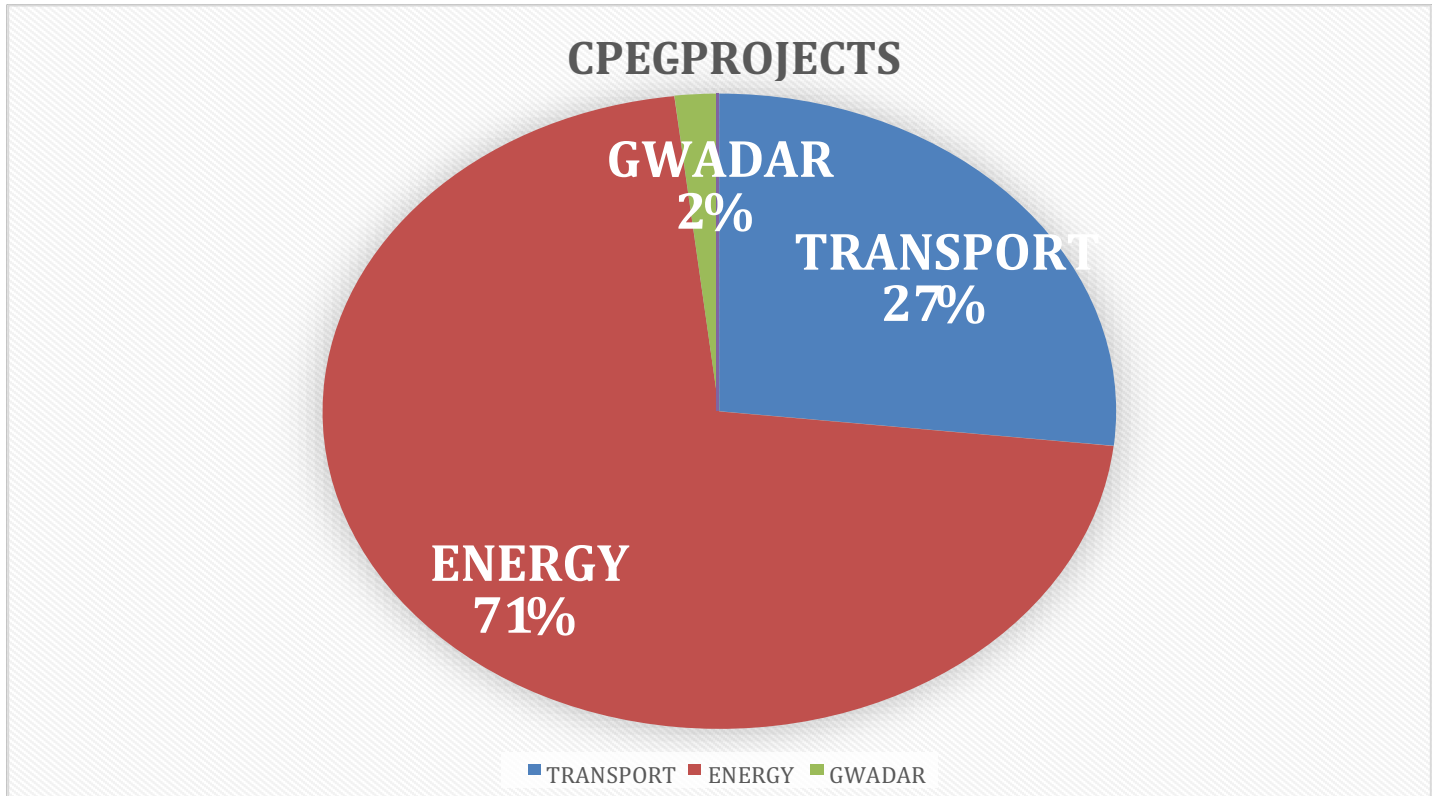
Normality Test



We can observe from the above table that the overall mean is $-8.92e-16$, the max value is 0.063399, min value is -0.067333 whereas skewness of the data is -0.136 with the kurtosis 2.768724 & Jarque Bera is 0.143724 that shows the variables are normally distributed.

Projects Cost

PROJECTS	COST MILLION(\$)
Transport	12363
Energy	33043
Gwadar	792.6
Fiber cable	44
TOTAL	46242.6



CONCLUSION

From the above statistical analyses, we found that there is a strong association of electric power consumption (EPC), labor force (LF) and price ratio (PR) with GDP consumption. The table of correlation shows that GDP is related with EPC 81% whereas with LF 96.9% and with PR 94.9%. It means their reliability is very highly dependent. Based on our data, the table of least square regression analyzed that GDP of Pakistan relies 99.5% on the electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio. These results described that due to increased electric power consumption, labor force and price ratio the growth of Pakistan changes positively. There will be some other factors as well that affects the GDP of Pakistan but here we have focused mainly on use of electricity, labor force and price ratio in the broad view of CPEC. The 27 years' statistics shows and supports the concept that economic growth of Pakistan relies on variables that will affect during the development of CPEC. Our result elaborates that CPEC will be very fruitful for the economic growth of Pakistan as so many projects will contribute to meet the demand of energy and electricity whereas the employment rate will also increase that leads to enhance the labor force and due to high productivity, price ratio will be affected as well. CPEC will help industries to reopen the shutdown units and stabilize the existing ones, it will induce more investors throughout the country and internationally as well that will improve the GDP of Pakistan.

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APPENDIX

Years	GDP Per Capita (current US\$)	Consumption (kWh per capita)
<u>1990</u>	<u>371.57</u>	<u>277.53</u>
<u>1991</u>	<u>410.47</u>	<u>297.57</u>
<u>1992</u>	<u>427.57</u>	<u>334.27</u>
<u>1993</u>	<u>440.92</u>	<u>335.38</u>
<u>1994</u>	<u>433.28</u>	<u>345.95</u>
<u>1995</u>	<u>493.66</u>	<u>358.59</u>
<u>1996</u>	<u>502.78</u>	<u>360.15</u>
<u>1997</u>	<u>483.65</u>	<u>363.67</u>
<u>1998</u>	<u>470.24</u>	<u>344.88</u>
<u>1999</u>	<u>465.07</u>	<u>356.81</u>
<u>2000</u>	<u>533.86</u>	<u>373.13</u>
<u>2001</u>	<u>510.65</u>	<u>379.04</u>
<u>2002</u>	<u>499.86</u>	<u>385.8</u>
<u>2003</u>	<u>563.59</u>	<u>411.07</u>
<u>2004</u>	<u>649.8</u>	<u>430.57</u>
<u>2005</u>	<u>711.46</u>	<u>464.72</u>
<u>2006</u>	<u>873.77</u>	<u>488.56</u>
<u>2007</u>	<u>950.43</u>	<u>482.68</u>
<u>2008</u>	<u>1039.31</u>	<u>444.19</u>
<u>2009</u>	<u>1006.6</u>	<u>460.29</u>
<u>2010</u>	<u>1040.14</u>	<u>466.57</u>
<u>2011</u>	<u>1226.21</u>	<u>456.67</u>
<u>2012</u>	<u>1261.2</u>	<u>451.69</u>
<u>2013</u>	<u>1272.44</u>	<u>449.96</u>
<u>2014</u>	<u>1316.98</u>	<u>471.4</u>

ENERGY PROJECTS COVERED UNDER CPEC

S.NO.	PROJECT NAME	MEGA WATT (MW)	Estimated Cost (US\$ M)
1	Port Qasim Electric Company Coal Fired, 2x660, Sindh	1320	1,980
2	Sahiwal 2x660MW Coal-fired Power Plant, Sahiwal, Punjab	1320	1,600
3	Engro Thar 4x330MW Coal-fired, Thar, Sindh	1320	2,000
3A	Surface mine in Block II of Thar Coal field, 6.5 metric ton per annum (mtpa), Thar, Sindh		1,470
4	Gwadar Coal /LNG / Oil Power Project, Gwadar	300	600
5	HUBCO coal power plant 1X660 MW, Hub Balochistan	660	970
6	Rahimyar Khan Coal Power Project, Punjab	1320	1,600
7	SSRL Thar Coal Block 1 - 6.5 metric ton per annum(mpta) Thar, Sindh		1,300
7A	SSRL 2x660 MW Mine Mouth Power Plant,Sindh	1320	2,000
8	Zonergy 900MW Solar Park, Bahawalpur, Punjab	900	1,215
9	Dawood 50MW wind Farm, Bhambore, Sindh	50	125
10	UEP 100MW wind Farm, Jhampir, Sindh	100	250
11	Sachal 50MW Wind Farm, Jhampir, Sindh	50	134
12	Suki Kinari Hydro power Station, KPK	870	1,802
13	Karot Hydropower Station, AJK & Punjab	720	1,420
14	Matiari to Lahore Transmission line		1,500
15	Matiari to Faisalabad Transmission line		1,500
16	Gaddani Power Park Project (2x660MW)	1320	3,960
16A	Gaddani Power Park Project (Jetty + Infrastructure)		1,200
17	HUBCO Coal Power Plant 1X660 MW, Hub, Balochistan	660	970
18	Kohala Hydrel Project, AJK	1100	2,397
19	Pakistan Wind Farm II 2X50 MW(Jhampir, Thatta, Sindh)	100	150
20	Thar mine mouth oracle, Thar Sindh	1320	1,300
21	Muzaffargarh Coal Power Project, Punjab	1320	1,600
		16070 Mega Watt	33043 Million

Gender differentials among tobacco farmers and household welfare in Kuria East and West Sub-Counties, Kenya.

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ABSTRACT

The main focus of this study was to evaluate the effects of gender differentials between female and male headed households in tobacco production on socio-economic welfare of the household in Kuria East and West Sub-Counties. The social dilemma in this study was that household gender-labour relations were affected by tobacco production, which eventually affected other important household features such as socio-economic status and welfare necessities amongst tobacco farmers in Kuria Sub-Counties. Therefore, at the onset, this study investigated how tobacco production dynamics operated at the household level, mainly premised in gender-labour relations that were anchored in socio-cultural practices. This study was a sociological examination of a tobacco growing peasantry in Kuria Sub-Counties which concentrated on gender-labour relations between men and women for whom tobacco had become an important part of their existence as small-scale agricultural contract producers for the tobacco companies. All this was done at the behest of tobacco multinationals with capitalist hegemony that was supported by Government of Kenya at their beginnings. Specifically, the socio-economic aspects of the household were taken into consideration in the cash crop production, especially tobacco, which has raised interesting welfare issues that led to this study. Several factors were established and lead to the justification of this study. For instance, it was established that gender-labour relations in Kuria Sub-Counties were affected significantly by tobacco production whereby women were twice as likely as men to be involved in tobacco related farming activity in which their labour and welfare imperatives varied from household to household. On the other hand, this study also determined gender distribution of work in the household, that it particularly had bias on women and mainly disadvantaged them in Kuria Sub-Counties. This was premised in the fact that tobacco was a dominant cash crop in the society. It emerged that women needed to be empowered in Kuria Sub-Counties in order to participate fully in household decision making processes. In addition, this study established that female headed households had good welfare considerations in comparison with male headed households. Also, that male heads of households had institutionalized gender restrictions and constrained women regarding access household resources especially the benefits accrued from tobacco sales. This factor seemed to accrue long term significant implications for socio-economic welfare of the male headed households in Kuria Sub-Counties. Thus, the emphasis of this study was placed on gender-labour relations anchored on the socio-economic and cultural changes that have occurred and affected household welfare in Kuria Sub-Counties for several decades.

KEY WORDS: Gender Differentials, Tobacco Farming and Household Welfare.

INTRODUCTION

The Kuria people are early inhabitants of Kuria region whose gender subject informs this study. They came from both Bantu and Nilotic speakers who brought into Kuria their peculiar cultures. This predominantly agricultural Bantu came into close contact with primarily nilotic pastoralists, thus, a blend of cultures took place among the early inhabitants of Kuria from the start by combining agricultural practice with pastoral pursuits as well as tendencies towards nomadic life. Today elements of Kuria agriculture is much like that of the Abagusii and the Luo while in cattle keeping they have borrowed the practices of the Maasai, Zanaki and Nguruimi (Bwiyere, 2013). Further, during the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries, more and more immigrants settled into the region and whether they liked it or not, the earlier communities were forced to interact with the new arrivals or at any rate to confront them. Some of the newcomers were aggressive and would not let their neighbours live in peace as they engaged in raiding for cattle and at times fought for dominance in the region. This meant that the small family clusters that had hitherto lived peacefully in the region shifted location and internal migration and resettlements were a continuous and repetitive process within and around Kuria. In this way, new social groups were formed. The Kuria people were mainly pastoralists in the pre-colonial era but currently the Kenyan Kurians lean towards crop production and the Tanzanian Kurians lean more towards pastoralism (Bwiyere, 2013). The Kuria also keep and love cattle and in the past, this used to lead to inter-clan and inter-tribal clashes over cattle rustling. On the other hand, crop production has been commercialized for several decades in this region and has adopted capitalist features which this study investigates.

The Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2011) indicates that the Kuria people are natives of Kenya. They live in Kuria East Sub-County (headquartered in Kegonga) and Kuria West Sub-County (headquartered in Kehancha). The immediate neighbours of the Kuria are the Maasai, Luo and the Suba. Socially, the Kuria are divided into four clans namely, the Abagumbe, Abairege, Abanyabasi and Abakira. The Kuria are traditionally a farming community, mainly planting maize, beans and cassava as food crops. The cash crops grown include coffee and tobacco. This background has offered a good glimpse into the history of the Kuria people, thereby understanding the various socio cultural and economic practices they embraced in the past and how contemporary agricultural changes have come into the community, in particular the new developments and investments found in tobacco production in Kuria Sub-Counties have been highlighted and have formed the basis for launching this study.

Further, there are two varieties of tobacco grown in Kuria Sub-Counties, the flue and fire cured varieties, which both required heavy fertilizer applications. The flue-cured variety mainly uses heat passed through aluminum pipes inside a stuffed house. A lot of wood therefore is needed to provide fire and heat. Furthermore, heat and humidity control being extremely crucial. This means a 24-hour watch over the whole process involving regular checking and adjustment to the furnaces on an hourly basis. This entailed intensive work for the peasants, which usually had a gendered dimension (KNA, 1965-1985). This study contextualized the types and demands of tobacco varieties grown in Kuria Sub-Counties and confirmed that they determined skewed gender-labour demands in its production. Not only have governments placed greater emphasis on cash crops rather than food crops, but the crop has exhibited numerous significant peculiarities. It is exhaustive and deleterious to the soil. It also causes deforestation and produces infinite wretchedness and misery among those who produce it, turning a fruitful land into barrenness (Akehurst, 1981). Others contend that Africa's inability to develop is mainly as a result of systematic transfer of surplus value through unequal exchange (Palmer and Persons, 1974). In this connection, it is affirmed that cash crops are given more attention by governments despite their various shortcomings. Tobacco production in Kuria begun under sponsorship of the British-American Tobacco Company Ltd. (B.A.T) in

October, 1969 when a group of B.A.T officials toured the Sub-Counties to select pilot farmers. About ten farmers were selected to grow tobacco, which was the first step for B.A.T in extending tobacco farms to the Sub-Counties. There were government agricultural instructors attached to this project (KDMR, 1969). This study obtained background information into how tobacco crop was piloted into Kuria Sub-Counties, meticulously with government of Kenya approval and facilitation. Also, affirmed that tobacco multinationals operate with little government control in the region. Moreover, Boserup (1965) contends that the intensification rarely takes place while possibilities for expansion still exist. Both approaches lead to a similar ending, yet it is the mechanism that differs. The basis of her argument concentrates upon the relation between demographics and technological change. This study was premised on whether tobacco intensification with its intensive land use led to socio-economic change in Kuria Sub-Counties. Therefore, it was confirmed that tobacco production actually affected this aspect significantly. Thus, tobacco has been phased as a cash crop among the Kuria people.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in Kuria (East and West) Sub-Counties. The site is located in south western Kenya bordering Tanzania. Kuria society remains one of the poorest Sub-Counties in Kenya despite being agriculturally lush. The area is re-known for its prominent agricultural activities producing both cash-crops like tobacco and coffee respectively. Also, food crops like maize, beans and other cereals are produced in this area (KDDP, 1997-2001). This study adopted both the Cross-Sectional Survey and Ex-Post Facto designs. Thus, Cross-Sectional Survey design was utilized in examining the empirical evidence (Bryman and Cramer, 2001). This is a design that avoids manipulation of data by the researcher. On the other hand, it functions through the collection of contemporary primary data in the area of study, based on information of previous occurrences (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). The target population in the two Sub-Counties was 230,000 natives. The number of households was 42,681 (KNBS, 2011). The Sub-Counties have four administrative areas namely: i). Bukira with 12,080 Households, ii). Bugumbe with 14,093 Households, iii). Nyabasi with 10,468 Households, iv). Bwirege 6,040 with Households (KNBS, 2011). Particularly, the total population, which, according to Nachmias and Nachmas (2006) is the aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of specifications. Thus, such populations were stratified into four administrative units, named above. Both male and female headed households were considered as respondents of the study. The study used 0.01497 percent to arrive at the sample size. The sample size for this study was 212 households. The sample size was used according to the tenets for sample threshold which states that 100 is the minimum sample size in an academic study (Kathuri and Pals, 1993). The unit of analysis adopted by this study is the household head. The respondents in this approach were heads of households or any household adult member appointed by them to respond on his/her behalf. The data for this study was derived from both primary and secondary sources that were collected in Kuria Sub-Counties. In this study, the household was taken as the unit of study and analysis. They were selected by the use of proportionate stratified random sampling from each of the four administrative areas in Kuria Sub-Counties. The data was collected through the interview schedules and focus group discussion guides respectively. Interview schedules were administered directly by the principle researcher and well briefed research assistants to the male and female household heads. Focus Group Discussions data collection method was employed in this study as an alternative process of collecting information by interviewing a group(s) rather than an individual. On the other hand, the discussions involved a systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously, which was premised in the ideas of Fontana and Fey (2000) and yielded substantial responses. Further, according to Cohen et al (2004) a group is specially chosen to discuss the issues being examined in the study, a perspective that was complimented by Morgan (1998) which differentiates focus group discussions from other groups. Therefore, this study also considered

different levels of education of the respondents and ensured that they were involved in tobacco farming. In addition, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003b) presented focus group discussion as one that can be utilized by a study to better understand and interpret information and results emanating from an earlier use of other data collection methods. Pilot survey was conducted as a pre-test exercise in Suba region, an area that borders the Kuria people. This area was selected because it has many similarities with mainstream Kuria in terms of both population demographics and environmental dispositions. In this effort, the articulations of Baker (1994) were considered, which state that between 5 to 10 percent of the sample size is a reasonable number for pre-testing research participants. At the completion of data collection the concept of Fulcher and Scott (2011) was invoked, which indicates that once data has been collected, it must be organized and presented in ways that highlight their relevance for theoretical interests that inform the research. Thus, at the end of data collection which involved 212 respondents, coding and entry techniques were utilized. Further, this analysis utilized the inferential statistical techniques in which relations were explored between various socio-economic and welfare variables. In another case, descriptive statistics were applied, thereby using pie charts, percentages, frequency tables, histograms and bar graphs to illustrate the quantitative aspects of the results. Also, 5 percent significance level was adopted as required in social sciences, especially in taking care of marginal errors and mistakes in the process of data analysis. Besides, FGD data was analyzed by utilizing the tenets of Hollway and Jefferson (2004), an approach which analyzes data using “tell it like it is” common sense approach and evidence. A study permit was obtained and supplied to the various local administrative officers in the study area. Also, considering that this study had a lot of public and corporate interests, confidentiality was taken into consideration. All the respondents of the study were made to understand the academic value and purpose of the study. The conduct of the principal researcher and research assistants during fieldwork were up to expected study ethics and standards.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been encouragement by tobacco multinationals for more tobacco farming around the world, along with government subsidies, led to a glut in the tobacco market. This surplus resulted in lower prices, which were devastating to small-scale tobacco farmers. According to the World Bank, between 1985 and 2000, the inflation-adjusted price of tobacco dropped 37%. Tobacco was the most widely smuggled legal product (*Campaign for Tobacco Free Kids, 2001*). Married women’s labour supply could be assumed to be determined along with that of other family members in an effort to maximize household welfare. This model expected the supply of labour to increase with the rise in wage rate, unless the income effect of wage change outweighed its substitution effect (Gronau, 1980). In view of peasants, concern to ensure the survival of the family is founded in the labour behaviour of married women. This may be interpreted as geared towards fulfilling the survival requirements of their respective families. Therefore, married women supply their labour here according to the fluctuating subsistence requirements, so as to attain some level of good standard of living. *This study confirmed that low tobacco prices among other factors affected households’ income and consequently its welfare in Kuria Sub-Counties.* This study also established that tobacco production activities amongst married women exhibited similar characteristics in the region, for instance, they all worked extra ordinarily hard and benefited less at the end of tobacco production cycle.

Various concerns have been raised by many stakeholders regarding tobacco production and use around the world. In response to the growth of tobacco use in developing countries, the World Health Organization successfully rallied 168 countries to sign the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control. The convention was designed to push for effective legislation and its enforcement in all countries to reduce the harmful effects of tobacco. This led to the

development of tobacco cessation products (WHO, 2008). Women from tobacco estates were further disadvantaged. A report on the tobacco industry in India and Bangladesh exposes the realities of health, sexual and economic abuses faced by female workers (*John and Vaite, 2002*). This study found out that Kenya has many policies and legal frameworks regarding tobacco production controls, especially in curbing the activities of the multinationals, while improving the farmers' welfare imperatives, but was not enforced. This study also proved that women were less likely than men to be land owners and named in agreements with tobacco companies, but were encumbered with intensive tobacco farming responsibilities in Kuria Sub-Counties.

The study by Raymond (1980) presented power relationship as part of the stratification system whereby one dominant gender (male) used macro manipulation, such as the control of social institutions and economic resources sufficiently to make the less powerful (female) fall into line. Whereas the less dominant gender (female) used micro manipulation, such as interpersonal skills and charm to offset the control of the powerful. There are traits and roles associated with men, such as the socio-economic and socio-cultural positions that men hold, are seen as more valuable than those encompassed by the feminine gender-role. The presumption that social structures existed outside individual desires or motives and that social structure at least partially explained human action. This embraced the transformative power of human action (Smelser, 1959). This study established how intra-household socio-economic structures affected its welfare. In essence, this study demonstrated that household power relations informed their welfare dynamics amongst farmers in Kuria Sub-Counties. Besides, contemporary realization that African nations are unable to feed themselves led social scientists to examine the historical roots of rural poverty. Some scholars attributed the contemporary African food crisis to the destruction of traditional economies, which has in turn undermined peasants' reproductive capacity as well as their ability to cope with ecological disasters (Helmunt, 1999). This study ascertained how the agricultural economy in Kuria Sub-Counties found itself prone to tobacco multinationals and whose activities even threatened household welfare, especially food security.

Further, Joan (1975) asserts that gender involves four interrelated elements. Firstly, culturally available symbols that evoke multiple representations, for example, light and dark, purification and pollution, innocence and corruption. Secondly, normative concepts that set forth the interpretation of the meanings of the symbols expressed in religious, educational, legal and political doctrines. These, categorically assert the meaning of masculinity and femininity. Thirdly, restricted use of gender to kinship systems focuses on household and family as the basis for socio-cultural organization. But the same can be extended to include other aspects of society, for example the labour market and gender as a subjective identity. This entails the reproduction of gender, a description of the transformation of the biological sexuality of individuals as they are acculturated. Fourthly, gender is a constitute element of social relationships based on perceived differences between the sexes (male/female), indeed it is the primary way of signifying relationships of power. And so, whenever people are considered different, it is likely that they will be differently valued. Therefore, this leads to socio-economic ranking or stratification which is predominant in the developing countries of Africa. This study proved how tobacco producing households in Kuria Sub-Counties aligned themselves to traditional gender dimensions and how their welfares were affected in due course. Gender relations had very strong linkage with income and its utilization at the household level, which significantly affected welfare imperatives.

In order to have more insight and understanding to this development, a socio-psychological point of view is crucial for this study. For instance, Freud (1931) did emphasize the essence of

gender differentiation, reinforcement and modeling by psycho-analysis. When Freud began to develop his ideas about gender development at the turn of the century, it was taken for granted that men and women were different. In Freud's focus on the subject, it was assumed that psychological differences between the sexes stemmed from differences in reproductive function. This study established that psychological aspects were essentially attuned to the farmer's gender psyche. In particular, this had significance in gender metaphors construction in regard to household economic welfare. This was strongly rooted in Kuria traditional values.

The study by Mohamed (1987) contributed to the understanding of household dynamics. In support of this, structures needed to be understood comprehensively. This was in the framework of a system whose modes of operation and rules of the game operated in such a way that it was always the poorest and economically weakest that suffered the most serious consequences of the crisis. This study affirmed that traditional values were well socialized amongst the Kuria people, in the sense that, gender relations were significantly affected by these notions. Men were always the strong and women emerged to be the weak and burdened at the household. In fact, female headed households were found to have better welfare parameters. A significant attempt has been made to review literature from various sources that were presented in three tiers. This entailed step by step review that attached the works to the study premised on three objectives of the study.

RESULTS

The main objective of this research was to evaluate the effects of gender differentials between female and male headed households in tobacco production on socio-economic welfare of the household in Kuria Sub-Counties. This research involved 212 respondents, all of whom revealed that their children were working in tobacco farms. In fact, it was a common practice to have children work in tobacco farms, some at the expense of their schooling time, especially during the pick season of tobacco production. Thus, in some way, children at the household level were affected by tobacco production. Results indicate the type of work done was also under scrutiny. At 90 percent (190) of their time during this stage of the crop husbandry, farmers worked in nurseries while the rest worked in spraying the seedlings. Some 10 percent (22) worked in spraying pesticides in the farms. This describes the type of work undertaken by the tobacco farmers during the time of the study; the major activity was nursery preparations and pesticide spray of the seedlings in the farms. Thus, at the time of the research, it was the beginning of tobacco farming cycle. Results show that basically men allocate socio-economic roles to both genders. Indeed, men are considered not only as heads of households, but also as breadwinners for households, which is considered as a masculine duty. In addition, women are relegated to the feminine nurturer and carer roles in the household, which are actively enormous. In addition, all the respondents of this study were involved in tobacco growing in Kuria Sub-Counties. The duration of tobacco growing was different with 61 percent (130) having dealt with tobacco farming for duration between 1-5 years, 15 percent (32) between 11-15 years, 13 percent (27) over 20 years and 11 percent (23) for 6-10 years.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to their duration of tobacco growing

	Frequency	Percent
Between 1-5 yrs	130	61
Between 6-10 yrs	23	11
Between 11-15 yrs	32	15
Above 20 yrs	27	13
Total	212	100

Source: Field Data (2015)

Table 1 above indicates the statistics which are indicative of the fact that tobacco farming has been a long term agricultural activity in Kuria Sub-Counties. Most significantly is the fact emerging here that majority of the farmers are new entrants into the activity, that is between 1 and 5 years into the farming activity. This study finds that more youth are joining in tobacco production, which has both economic and cultural effects on them as will be discussed in subsequent sections of this chapter. Further, the nature of tobacco work was investigated and documented below.

Table 2: Nature of tobacco work done

	Frequency	Percent
Heavy	185	87
Average	27	13
Total	212	100

Source: Field Data (2015)

Table 2 above illustrates that the work was heavy, 87 percent (185) of the respondents concurred with this assertion, whereas, 13 percent (27) indicated that the work was average. Majority of the farmers viewed the work as heavy. Both genders concurred in this regard. Hence, farmers had no option but to put in more hours to meet the demands of this cash crop. For instance, below is a photo (Plate 1) of a female farmer in her new tobacco field that is undergoing tobacco season's initial preparations. Such scenarios are common in the region.



Plate 1: A female farmer nurturing her tobacco farm in Kuria Sub-Counties

Source: Field Data (2015) - Photo by Principal Researcher

Plate 1 above shows a female tobacco farmer moving through her new tobacco farm with a machete. There are some stages of the crop husbandry that are considered feminine thereby involving intense female labour input. For instance, in this stage of tending the seed bed soils, women are obliged to do most of the work.

Box 1: Summary of regional excerpts on female versus male headed households in welfare

“Majority of female headed households had welfare selflessness”
“Female headed households benefited more in household welfare”
“Male headed households experienced cash spending dominance over women” “There are some household male desertions during harvesting seasons”

Source: Field Data (2015)

Box 1 above has 4 qualitative summaries of regional excerpts (translated into English from Kuria). The FGD exercise involved both men and women in the discussion cluster and all of them were facilitated and encouraged to participate equally. Welfare essentials came into limelight especially in terms of comparison between male and female headed households. Female headed households emerged to be benefiting more than male headed households in terms of welfare imperatives. Thus, the FGD discussions assert the differentials in welfare aspects between the two types of household heads. It agrees with the previous standpoint. Hence, the two approaches have complimented each other in this sphere.

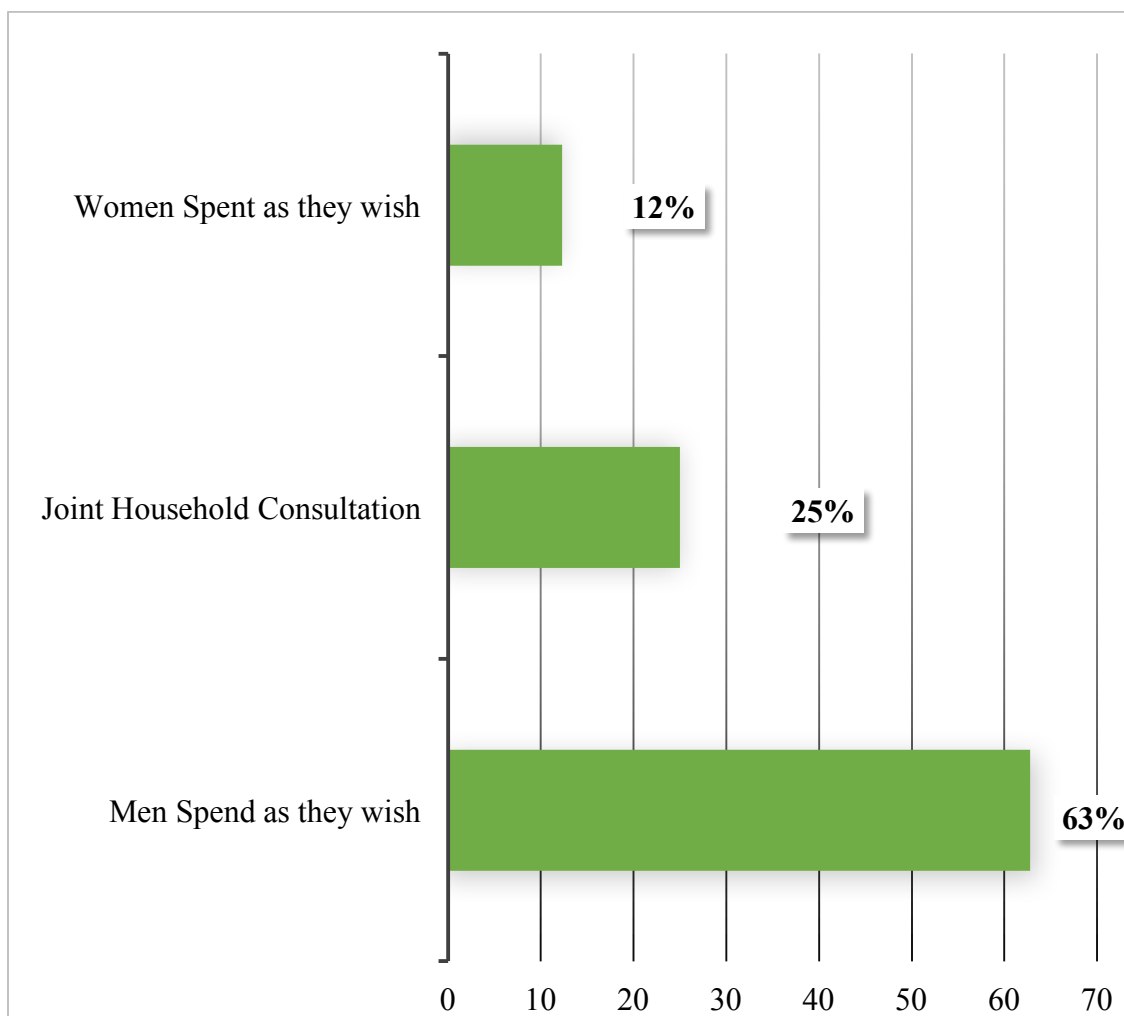


Figure 1: Gender affects distribution of tobacco income
Source: Field Data (2015)

Figure 1 above further illustrates how intensely gender affected the distribution of tobacco income in Kuria Sub-Counties at the household level. 63 percent (133) of the respondents agreed that men spend money as they wished, whereas some 25 percent (53) asserted that the income was spent on joint household consultation and another 12 percent (26) indicated that

women spent money as they wished. Further, tobacco income spending attitude clearly shows that men enjoyed more freedom in this regard. In most scenarios, at the disadvantage of their female partners who give the larger share of labour input during the entire farming season.

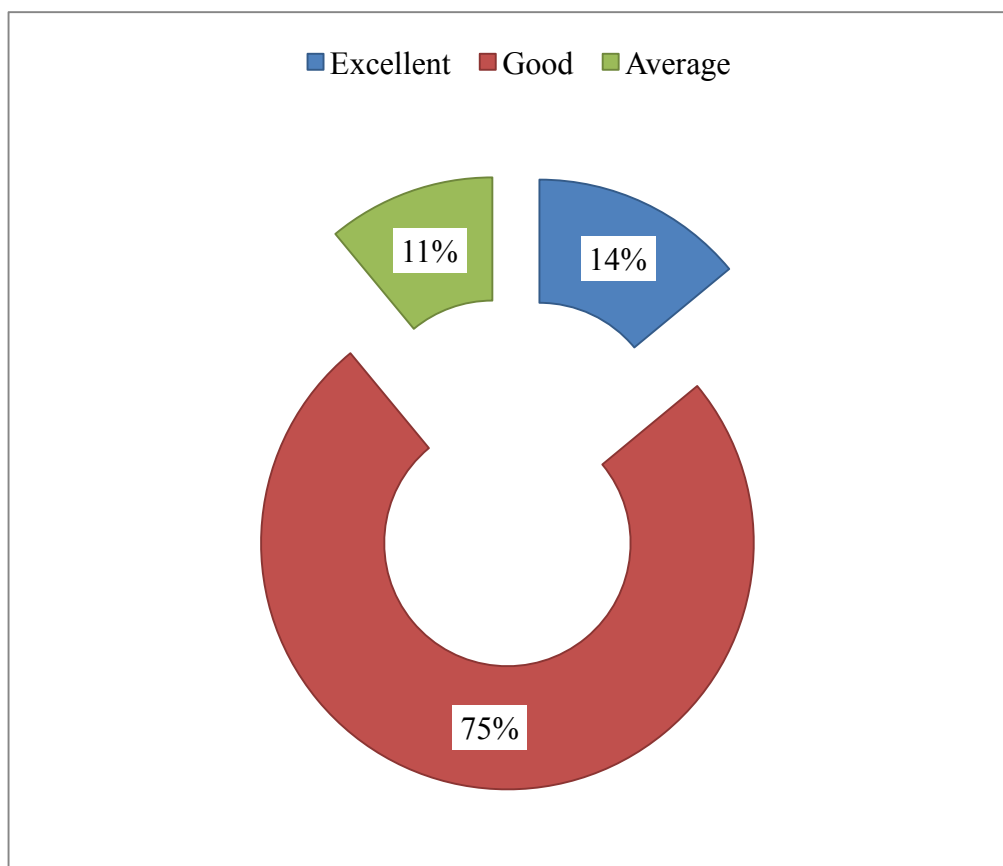


Figure 2: Female headed households' rate of welfare in relation to income
Source: Field Data (2015)

Figure 2 above illustrates the differentials between male and female headed households in welfare, especially in relation to the tobacco income. Majority of the respondents, 75 percent (160) indicated that female headed households had good welfare considerations. Some 11 percent (23) indicated that it was excellent and 14 percent (29) confirmed that household welfare was average. The above illustration indicates that female headed households had better welfare standards. The general picture that emerges in this presentation is that they care for the household welfare more than any other financial priority.

Box 2: Summary of regional excerpts on labour input versus welfare consideration

"Female headed households enjoyed more rationality in regard to labour input and had good welfare parameters"

"Male headed households experienced strict labour controls and less welfare"

"Female headed households were loosely organized in cultural dimensions"

Source: Field Data (2015)

Box 2 above is a collection of qualitative summary of regional excerpts of an FGD exercise (translated into English from Kuria) that sought to compare labour input versus welfare discretion between male and female headed households. In all, 3 responses were obtained which were elicited from both male and female participants in the discussions. In as much as female headed households were loosely organized from a cultural perspective (due to absence of a male head), they were more rational in workload handling and correspondingly better off in welfare dimensions. On the contrary, male headed households were strictly organized and

culturally approved but had less welfare considerations. Therefore, this study has been able to demonstrate that there are significant indifferences between labour input and welfare at the household in Kuria Sub-Counties.



Plate 2: Members of a household sorting tobacco leaves in Kuria Sub-Counties
Source: Field Data (2015) - Photo by Principal Researcher

The above plate 2 illustrates a tobacco sorting activity in which a household of farmers work under a grass thatched shade, next to their grass thatched house in a Kuria Sub-County village. Both adults and children can be seen in the photograph. Scenes like this are quite prevalent in the region.

In a nutshell the economic status of the household especially the access to resources and subsequent welfare imperatives were affected by the gender differentials in Kuria Sub-Counties. Male heads of the households were particularly more active towards the sale seasons of tobacco as opposed to farm work processes itself. They enjoyed great freedom in accessing land resources, spent the income as they wished, most of the time putting their women at a disadvantage, deprivation and alienating them from the income they participated in creating. On the other hand, the study asserts that tobacco farming could be a source of household welfare disparities. Welfare considerations emerged to be strongly differentiated between female and male headed households. The foundations of this rested in the patriarchal ideology in which men dominated and stereotyped women, thereby giving them a raw deal in the access to household resources, income and household welfare.

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No Facebook for Me: Examining the Reasons People Choose Not to be on Facebook

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ABSTRACT

For several years, research has investigated a number of variables associated with behavior on social networking and the proclivity toward its use. The present study explores some of the reasons people choose not to join one social networking site, Facebook (FB). A convenience sample consisting of 91 women and 58 men, none of whom were on FB, responded to a 13-item survey offering possible reasons for their not participating. Responses disclosed four core concerns: privacy, preference for personal interactions, superficiality of FB, and time constraints. For these reasons subjects chose either to leave or not to join FB. Age and gender were analyzed as well, illustrating minimal differences.

Keywords: Negative response to SNS, Facebook Research, SNS fatigue, impression management concern.

INTRODUCTION

Facebook is the most widely used social media. More than 1.45 billion people worldwide engage in daily use on FB; more than 241 million are active users in North America alone (Statistica, 2018). For the past several years, the Facebook Research Group at California State University, Long Beach, has examined variables in FB behaviors (e.g., Dorethy, Fiebert & Warren, 2014; Fiebert, Tilmont & Warren, 2013; Liner & Fiebert, 2017). The present investigation focuses on the reasons why individuals choose NOT to participate in FB.

Some studies have indirectly addressed this question. Two have examined the issue of “social-network fatigue,” which contributes to diminished satisfaction resulting in diminished use. (Ravindran, Kuan, Chua, & Hoe Lian, 2014; Bright, Kleiser, & Grau, 2015). In another study, Feng and Xie (2014) reported that parents’ concerns about privacy reduced their children’s use of SNS. Zhu & Bao (2017) found that subjects reduced their participation on WeChat, a Chinese social network site with more than 800 million monthly users, because of privacy and time concerns and impression management. However, no research has examined reasons why individuals refuse entirely to participate or have abandoned FB.

Data was collected before the public revelations of FB’s breach of tens of millions of their users’ personal information in mid-March, 2018 (Kirkpatrick, 2018). Therefore the information did

not affect the results of this investigation, which, in part, actually confirms at least one reason why individuals chose not to engage in FB.

METHOD

Participants

One hundred and forty-nine individuals, 91 women and 58 men, between 18 and 85 constituted the convenience sample that completed a survey on their reasons for not participating in FB. Eighty-seven subjects were under the age of thirty, twenty were between the ages of thirty and fifty, and forty-two were above the age of fifty. Subjects were obtained from among college students during Fall 2017 and winter 2018, and from among other friends, their families and acquaintances.

Instrument

A survey consisting of thirteen items rated on a seven-point Likert scale was developed to assess a range of reasons individuals might refuse to participate in social media, in this case FB (see Figure 1). Subjects also provided information on their age, gender and, in the case of stopping - the length of participation before cancelling. The survey was completed in approximately ten minutes. With regard to survey reliability, a Cronbach alpha of .708 was obtained indicating acceptable internal-consistency reliability.

RESULTS

Subjects in our sample, male and female, of all ages, chose two items as their top reasons for not participating in FB: Item 12, "I don't need validation of my actions/life with a FB 'like'" (M=6.03, SD=1.61), and item 9, "I prefer to interact with my friends face-to-face or by e-mail and not with FB" (M=5.95, SD=1.54).

The third most reason selected by subjects was, in effect, privacy in item 1, concern that others would have access their personal information (M=5.79, SD=1.69). The fourth reason was how much time FB required. Item 8, "FB is time consuming," (M=5.44, SD=1.54) and item 2, "I am too busy for FB", (M=5.26, SD=1.69).

To assess gender and age differences, a series of one way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were completed. With regard to gender, a significant difference, $F(148)=10.31$, $p=.002$ was found on item 4, which showed men more likely than women to agree with the statement "Facebook's interactions are superficial." Men were also more likely than women to agree on item 10, $F(148)=10.98$, $p=0.001$, that they don't agree with FB's terms and conditions.

With regard to age, a significant difference was found on item 6, with older subjects admitting that they were not entirely comfortable with technology, and item 7 which revealed that more younger subjects use other social media to connect with friends.

DISCUSSION

This study is the first to examine some of the reasons why individuals choose not to be on certain social networking, such as FB. The data collected illustrate individuals are primarily unmotivated toward FB use because 'likes' on social media do not appeal to them. There did not seem to be major differences across genders or ages for most items on the scale, which implies use, or non-use, is somewhat homogenous in nature.

In terms of limitations, obtaining an adequate sample was a major challenge. The initial goal was to select a sample of 200 subjects, 100 women, 100 men, of which at least 100 were above the age of fifty and 100 below the age of thirty. However, only 149 subjects were obtained.

This suggests that most people in Southern California are on FB, or that FB users only know other FB users.

Despite the difficulty in obtaining a broad sample, the data collected show that individuals, of both genders and all ages don't participate because they see FB as superficial, time-consuming, vulnerable to privacy violations, and lack the immediacy of personal interactions. It is unclear whether subjects who reject FB actually engage with their friends in more intimate and meaningful relationships. Some individuals may be social isolates or cultural outliers who reject other means of technological communication. Further study is needed to elucidate this question.

This data set, as previously mentioned, was obtained prior to the revelations of FB's violation of many of their users private information. These revelations most likely did not impact these findings. It is more likely that as technology evolves, so might the preferred method to connect with others and the concerns with doing so.

The significant findings of this study related to gender and age appear to be straightforward and understandable and suggest indirect validity for the scale's ability to assess an individual's motivation for avoiding FB. Further ways to assess the resistance to technological means of connecting to others should be explored.

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APPENDIX

Figure 1. Facebook Research Form

Age _____ Gender M ___ F ___
 Were you ever on Facebook? Yes ___ NO ___ If yes, how long? ___
 I am not on Facebook because: _____

1: Strongly disagree	2: Moderate disagree	3: Slightly disagree	4: Neither	5: Slightly agree	6: Moderately agree	7: Strongly agree
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	Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I do not want others to have access to my personal information.							
2	I am too busy for Facebook.							
3	A third party/authority figure(s) prevents me from being on Facebook.							
4	Facebook interactions are superficial.							
5	I am concerned information about me on Facebook could be misused.							
6	I am not technologically savvy and/or lack resources to access Facebook.							
7	I use other forms of Social media to connect with friends (e.g., Twitter, Snapchat, Instagram, etc.).							
8	Facebook is time consuming.							
9	I prefer to interact with my friends face-to-face or by e-mail and not with Facebook.							
10	I do not agree with Facebook’s terms and conditions.							
11	I am uncomfortable with photographs of myself being posted by others on Facebook.							
12	I do not need validation of my actions/life with a Facebook “like”.							
13	I object to Facebook’s economic and political policies.							

A Review of *Shariah* Auditing Practices in Ensuring Governance in Islamic Financial Institution (IFIs) – A Preliminary Study

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of *shariah* auditing¹ is to embrace the *Maqasid As - Shariah* (Objective of Islamic Principles) as well as to uphold the *shariah* principles in all business processes. *Shariah* auditing goes beyond the usual attestation and assurance for the financial statement, internal control and governance of firms and specified by the Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM) in *Shariah* Governance Framework (SGF, 2010), to be conducted by internal auditors. This paper discusses current practices of *shariah* auditing among Islamic Financial Institutions (IFIs) in Malaysia. Data reported in this paper is obtained through 15 semi-structured interviews conducted with chief internal audit, managers of internal audit department, *shariah* committee, external auditor and academicians. Findings indicated that the practices are still evolving where further developments and improvements are required focusing particularly on standardization of *shariah* audit framework and guidelines to design audit program for *shariah* auditing. In addition a proper design of competency framework for auditors performing *shariah* audit is highly recommended

Keywords : Auditing, Internal auditing, Islamic auditing, Islamic banking and finance, Internal control and Governance.

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of Islamic financial institutions (IFIs) has created a new phenomenon within the global finance arena and particularly in the development of Islamic economics and finance. Considerable attention has been given in the area of Islamic economics and Islamic finance, though much work is still necessary in supporting sustainable practices in Islamic finance, particularly in the areas of accounting and auditing. This needs arise as both of these areas provides underlying support to the development of Islamic financial institutions. Recent studies have shown an emerging concern with the interaction of business activity and Islam

¹ According to *Shariah* Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions” (SGF, 2010) issued by the Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM), defined *shariah* audit as “the periodical assessment conducted from time to time, to provide an independent assessment and objective assurance designed to add value and improve the degree of compliance in relation to the IFI’s business operations, with the main objective of ensuring a sound and effective internal control system for *Shariah* (Islamic) compliance”.

(Abdel Karim, 2001; Alam, 1991; Gambling & Karim, 1986; Hamid et al., 1993; Mirza & Baydoun, 1999). Islam recognized business activities as act of worship and obedience to Allah (*ibadah*) if they are performed in accordance with the commands of Allah and the Islamic code of conduct Ahmad (1988). This can be interpreted from several Quranic verses, in example verses 2:30; 14:32-33 and 31:20.

Recognizing the importance of business in daily human lives, and the needs for compliance with Islamic principles, Islamic banks have been established to assist Muslims and Islamic societies particularly in avoiding the interest which is prohibited in Islam as well as controlling their financial affairs to only covered halal areas. Thus, IFIs attracted their customers by complying with all *shariah* principles in their dealing and business activities. Such confidence however cannot be developed without several important measures which are the, i), disclosures to users (customers) about bank's compliance with *shariah* principles, and ii) independent attestation and assurance that their business complied with all *shariah* principles (Ahmad, 1988). Occurrences of *shariah* non-compliance activities also can tarnish IFIs' reputation and deteriorate reliance of depositors, investors, customers and other stakeholders (Dusuki, Ali, and Hussain, 2012) and Shafii, Supiah, and Syahidawati, 2010). Therefore, having a sound *shariah* auditing processes help IFIs in maintaining their credibility and reputation while reducing the risk of *shariah* non-compliance issues, which can cause great damage and losses if IFIs is subject to legal actions when they fail to address *shariah* non-compliance issues properly.

As such, recent development in the Malaysian context pertaining to *shariah* auditing and *shariah* review have been outlined in the guidelines "Shariah Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions" (SGF) issued by the Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM) on 20 May 2010. The guidelines emphasized that *shariah* auditing be conducted by the Internal auditors from the internal audit department of IFIs and the internal auditor should be competent in terms of *shariah* knowledge and understanding on the *shariah* issues related to Islamic banking products and operations.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

There is no doubt that Islamic finance industry will continue to be an important component of the global financial industry. The continuous progress of the industry will ultimately depend on the ability to successfully promote the concept of Islamic finance and the ability to offer the true benefits and assurance of Islamic finance practices to the market. Having an overview on what constitute the best practice in accordance to *shariah* principle would help IFIs to improve their practices and enhance their stakeholders' confidence. External auditing has a long history in finance, serving as one of the effective mechanisms to provide assurance concerning the reliability of financial transactions and statements. As expected, there is an extensive literature regarding external auditing for public and private sectors. However, in the *shariah* auditing literature, discussion on external auditing mainly takes the perspective of external auditors and *shariah* committee. Being a relatively new financial construct, several criticisms and controversies are inevitable due to the lack of empirical evidence that deals with the real practices of *shariah* auditing among internal auditors in IFIs. Thus, this study fulfills the gaps in *shariah* audit literatures. This study explores existing issues and challenges to gain an in-depth knowledge regarding current *shariah* auditing practices, especially those experienced by the internal auditors themselves.

Thus, the issue of *shariah* compliance is clearly a major challenge to IFIs and the regulators. Abdallah (1994), Alwi (2007) and Abdul Rahman (2008b) , listed two types of *shariah* compliance which are (i) ex-ante compliance and (ii) ex-post compliance. The ex-ante *shariah*

compliance normally has been practiced by IFIs as they have *Shariah* Supervisory Board (SSB) to supervise, monitor and control the task that takes place upon and during implementation of the bank's dealing. The SSB is responsible to ensure that the IFIs comply with the *shariah* rules and guidelines during the designing of the contracts and agreements, during the process of transactions, conclusion and execution of the contract. However, Abdul Rahman (2008b) stated that very few institutions undertake ex-post *shariah* compliance process because it requires thorough and comprehensive *shariah* audit to review and check the transactions that happens after the contracts' execution. Hence, this study is to discuss and identify current practices of internal auditor regarding *shariah* auditing issues especially after the issuance of *Shariah* Governance Framework for IFIs by BNM in terms of scope, objectives, framework, current practices and required knowledge among internal auditors in IFIs in Malaysia.

The study aims to provide descriptive information for standards' setters and regulatory bodies in coming up with relevant standards and *shariah* audit programs. This can only be done after having clear understanding on the concept, principles, objectives and approaches of *shariah* audit. This study also aims to recommends appropriate skills required of the internal auditors before they can conduct *shariah* audit. The basic knowledge for internal auditors of IFIs are ability to apply current auditing standards and procedures, strong knowledge of Islamic Legal Maxims relating to Islamic banking products and operations.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON SHARIAH AUDITING ISSUES

Funkhouser & Greeno (1984) defined auditing as a methodical examination involving analysis, tests and confirmations of local procedures and practices leading to a verification of their compliance with legal requirements, corporate policies and accepted policies. Another similar definition is from Arens & Loebbecke, (1998) which defined auditing as the process by which a competent, independent person accumulates and evaluates evidence about quantifiable information related to a specific economic entity for the purpose of determining and reporting on the degree of the correspondence between the quantifiable information and established criteria. In terms of accounting literature, there were extensive researches that highlight the difference between Western and Muslims business environments where most of the researchers concluded that there must be a system of accounting and reporting because of different objectives and concept in Islamic business practices compared to western practices. Abdul Rahman (2007), (2008a); Gambling and Karim (1986); Hameed (2000); Karim (1995); Mirza and Baydoun (1999); Tag El-Din (2004) and many also viewed that current or conventional accounting cannot be used by the Islamic banks and financial institutions (Adnan & Gaffikin, 1997; Adnan, 1996; Alam, 1991).

However, very limited studies have been devoted to the subject of *shariah* auditing compared to the study done in the area of Islamic accounting and conventional auditing. Most of studies in auditing concentrate on conventional audit which emphasize more on the accuracy and relevancy of financial audit (Khan, 1985).

What actually makes *shariah* audit become crucial in the Islamic banking practices? The answer is because of the result of the phenomenal growth of Islamic banking and finance which the main responsibility of the IFIs is to adhere to *shariah* principles and rules in all its activities. Normally, mind setting of customers and depositors towards IFI has always been proclaimed as an institution that different from conventional banking in many aspects. The first and most significant difference is the abolition of *riba* in all its financial transactions (Dusuki et al., 2012) and *shariah* compliance in all activities. Therefore, the public's confidence towards the industry of Islamic banking is believed to be vital. To build the public's confidence, there are so many approaches which can be done by IFIs. One of the approaches is through

giving assurance and attestation that their operations and their financial products is accordance to the *shariah*. This can only be done through conducting audit on their operations based on the *shariah*, instead of conventional audit (Besar *et al.*, 2009). A particular confidence feature in respect of Islamic financial services is the requirement of conveying to stakeholders that their financial business is conducted in conformity with their religious beliefs Grais and Pellegrini (2006). Abdul Rahman (2008b) agreed that the *shariah* compliance is the cornerstone of Islamic financial products and services, if the customers find that the products that they have in their portfolio are not *shariah* compliant, this would seriously undermine the confidence in the Islamic Financial services industry as a whole. Therefore, according to Abdul Rahman (2008b), the role of regulator in promoting *shariah* audit is important.

In the Malaysian context, the Islamic Banking Act (IBA) 1983 had provided the provision for the establishment of *Shariah* Advisory Board as a requirement of granting license to an IFI. In addition to the IBA (1983), the Malaysian Accounting Standards Board has issued the "Financial Reporting Standards - *i* (FRS - *i*). The purpose of the standard is to provide a guideline which is *shariah* compliant as well as applicable in the Malaysian context in order to address accounting issues and practices in Malaysia (MASB, 2004). Recent development pertaining *shariah* auditing and *shariah* review has been discussed in the guidelines "*Shariah* Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions" (SGF) by the BNM on 20 May 2010 which has superseded the *Shariah* Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions (2005). All the IFI in Malaysia should comply with this new guideline by January 2011. This guideline consists of three main organs i.e. the board, the management and the *shariah* committee. Each of these organs is interdependent in ensuring that the IFI is *Shariah* compliant at all time. These organs are supported by 3 functions namely; (1) a *shariah* risk management control function that is able to identify all possible risk of *shariah* non-compliance and, where appropriate, remedial measures to manage this risk; (2) a *shariah* review function that continuously assesses and monitoring *shariah* compliance of all activities and operations; and (3) a *shariah* audit function that performs annual audits to provide an independent assessment of the adequacy and compliance of the Islamic financial institution with established policies and procedures, this is to ensure that the adequacy of internal control is designed by IFIs and to undergo the access of the adequacy of the *shariah* governance process.

Study done by Kasim *et al.* (2009) indicated that the practice of *shariah* auditing has not seriously given impact to IFIs in Malaysia due to the lack its own *shariah* auditing framework because the practice of *shariah* auditing is still a highly unstructured task. Abdallah (1994) highlighted that, none of the bank and financial institutions perform the ex-post *shariah* audit. According to him, the ex-post *shariah* audit is basically to perform the random samples of completed transaction to ensure that these transactions conform to *shariah* rules and regulation. In fact, Besar *et al.* (2009) also highlighted the same issue as they noted from the *shariah* committee report currently provided by the respective banks *shariah* committee, it lacks the depth of providing such assurance. It is merely an endorsement of the bank's *shariah* compliance in general without any emphasize on the actual operational or conduct of the respective banks.

The role of conventional auditor in the Islamic practices has been widely criticized by many *muslims* scholars. As Khan (1985) argued that the role of conventional auditor in the capitalist framework is solely answerable and provide assurance and attestation to the management and shareholders of the company on particularly on the financial matters while the role of auditor in Islamic economy are totally different as they are responsible to the society at large and to uphold the Islamic principles. Khan (1985) argues that: "*The scope of auditing in Islamic framework is much larger as compared to the scope of traditional auditing. From the traditional*

concept of attest and authority it would expand to report on various social and economic aspects of business organization. This is due to the reason that auditing in Islam has been derived from the basic values of Islamic societies and shariah principles". Therefore, due to the establishment of Islamic economics system and Islamic financial system, the function of auditors and shariah experts need to be revised to suit the requirements of the system (Ahmed and Karim, 2001; Al-Abiji, 1998; Khan, 1985). Al-Abiji (1989) stated that the roles of auditor changes in all its dimensions in accordance with the economic, political and social changes that take place.

Hood & Bucheery (1999) opined that religious auditor is guided by religious beliefs prescribed in *Quran, Sunnah* and *Ijma'* which would be more highly regarded compared to the legal rules and professional code of ethics. While Abdel Karim, (1990) differentiate the roles of shariah auditor and external auditor as he stated that the role of external auditor is focus on the compliance of accounting regulations to ensure that financial reports present fairly the economic situation of the company. While the role of shariah auditor is to focus on an adherence to Islamic precepts to assure its Islamic constituents that the reports reflect a genuine commitment to Islamic business principles. Abdel Karim (1990) further argued that shariah auditor is very much influenced by moral values while the external auditor is largely affected by economic factors. As a conclusion for literature review, by analyzing the existing literature and the current state of auditing for Islamic Banks, it can be concluded that shariah auditing still face many unresolved issues such as establishment of shariah auditing framework and unclear understanding on the auditor's roles while they conducting auditing procedures in Islamic banks.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study employs a series of interviews conducted between 2014-2015 with individuals involved in shariah audit from several backgrounds. The overall aim of the interviews is to discover the current practices of shariah auditing and to elicit the level of understanding and knowledge of those who are involved in shariah auditing. Specifically, the interviews focused on two main themes. First, the interviews focused on the definition of shariah auditing from the individuals perspectives and second theme is focused on investigating current practices of shariah auditing which then divided into seven sub sections namely:

1. Scope and extent of shariah auditing
2. The current framework adopted by the IFIs
3. Relationship with shariah review and shariah committee
4. Governance and reporting line of internal auditor
5. Competency requirement
6. Challenges and limitation

Fifteen (15) in-depth interviews were conducted as follows:

Table 1: List of Respondents' Designation

Respondents	Designation	Respondents	Designation
R 1	Chief internal Auditor	R 9	Manager of internal audit department
R 2	Chief internal Auditor	R 10	Shariah Committee
R 3	Chief internal Auditor	R 11	Shariah Committee
R 4	Head of Shariah audit	R 12	Shariah Committee
R 5	Senior Manager	R 13	Shariah Committee
R 6	Senior Manager	R 14	Shariah Advisor BNM
R 7	Senior Manager	R 15	Executive Director of External Audit
R 8	Manager of internal audit Department		

Diverse participant's background is chosen to ensure that the study gauges the overall practices of *shariah* auditing from top to bottom level. All participants reported having at least 2 years' experience in performing *shariah* auditing. The interviews were tape recorded and each interviews lasted approximately 2 hours. Interviews were conducted at the participant's organization and an interview guideline is sent via email prior to the interview session (see appendix 1 for the interview guideline). The purpose of the interview guideline is to elucidate the information required such as themes or issues that will be discussed during the interview sessions. All participants appeared confident and seemed to have a very good understanding of the organizations background, structures and process of *shariah* auditing.

The interviews were then transcribed and coded using the key themes related to the main research objectives and subsequently re-checked for errors in the classification of themes by reviewing them and reaching a consensus before pre-coding. This practice is adopted from Zain (2005) and Patton (2002). The interview responses were then presented in the form of matrix framework. This is important in order to compare the responses across the fifteen (15) interviews that have been conducted. The matrix format highlights the presence or absence of consistency and consensus across different responses which proven to be useful to identify commonalities and differences in the research themes (Miles and Huberman, 1984 and Martin and Meyerson, 1988) – as quoted in Zain (2005).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Definition of *Shariah* Auditing

All fifteen (15) respondents understood the definition of *shariah* auditing as stated in the *Shariah* Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions (SGF) (2010) issued by the BNM which stipulated that *shariah* auditing is the periodical assessment to validate and give assurance that the internal control of the company is effective and efficient to be preserved and complies with *shariah* principles. All the respondents are also in agreement that, *shariah* auditing function is important for banks to reduce *shariah* non-compliance and other *shariah* risks. Besides that, internal audit department is expected to act as consultants to other departments in setting up a sound and effective internal control aligned to *shariah* principles. Among the responses are:

“shariah auditing is important to perform as it will help to reduce shariah risk. Shariah risk is very essential and important. If we not properly manage shariah risk, it will lead to other risks such as credit risk, operational risk, reputation risk and etc.” [Respondent 1].

“...in our internal audit department, we adopt ERM (Enterprise risk management) and COSO framework to identify our shariah audit risk. Bank have their own policies, so we need to know risk for each of policies and then incorporating to audit procedures. We also audit our systems whether it is any risks in the system” [Respondent 2]

However, a respondent who is an external auditor in one of the big four audit firms in Malaysia expressed an interesting point about the current practices of *shariah* auditing in IFIs which he thinks is not sufficient to reduce risks for banks. He said:

“unclear understanding and approach from the internal audit department in terms of (i) lack of systematic approach and methodology, (ii) lack of link into the work have been done and the end results and (iii) lack of definition on what of the objectives that they try to achieve” [Respondent 15].

When asked about the definition of *shariah* auditing as compared to conventional auditing, majority of the respondents, thirteen (13) of them, suggested that the definition and practices

of *shariah* auditing and conventional auditing is similar except for the main objective of *shariah* auditing is to ensure sound and effective internal control for *shariah* compliance. However, the other two respondents view *shariah* auditing methodology and definitions to be different compared to conventional audits. They said that:

“previously, yes we can say it is similar to conventional or normal audit procedures, but then, at current state, we are moving towards specific shariah auditing objectives, process and approach because we concerns on shariah risk and non-compliance issue” [Respondent 4 and 7].

However, all respondents agreed that the process of *shariah* auditing is more effective and sound if the internal auditor has relevant and adequate knowledge on Fiqh Muamalat and Islamic legal contracts/maxims. The knowledge of these two areas will enhance the process of auditing as the internal auditor will be more appreciative and alert on the issues of *shariah* non-compliance. This knowledge requirement is also a factor which differentiates the *shariah* auditing from conventional. Among the responses are:

“...Most of internal auditors understand their roles and functions, but due to lack of knowledge, some of them still unclear between shariah auditing process and shariah review process. In fact, internal auditors tend to conduct shariah audit only based on audit checklist – which showing that they not really understand the objectives and justifications if shariah non-compliance issues” [Respondent 10]

“... from my observation, many internal audit in IFIs still don't understand shariah auditing functions. Therefore, they still unable to provide an assurance regarding internal control effectiveness and efficiency. This could be due to lack of shariah knowledge and unclear of shariah auditing objective itself” [Respondent 8 and 11].

“...shariah auditing consists of different audit objectives – as it should always target to achieve maqasid of shariah. Therefore, shariah audit should different from normal audit process....internal auditor should have adequate knowledge to contrast the differences” [respondents 4, 10, 12 and 13]

In summary, definition of *shariah* auditing is generally understood by most of the internal auditors. They are also in agreement that, *shariah* auditing's main objective and functions are to reduce *shariah* risk or *shariah* non-compliance risk in IFIs. Nevertheless, all respondents agreed that effectiveness and efficiency of *shariah* audit process and procedure can only be achieved if the internal auditors have good understanding of *shariah* principles and IBF knowledge, which will enable them to comprehend and reasons for any *shariah* non-compliance or issues that arise during *shariah* auditing.

Current Practices of *Shariah* Auditing

This section is a discussion of findings in terms of current practices of *shariah* auditing, and will be divided into six categories of: i- scope and extent; ii- current framework adopted; iii- roles of *shariah* review function and *shariah* committee; iv- governance and reporting line of internal auditors; v-competency and knowledge requirement; vi- challenges and limitations.

Scope and Extent of *Shariah* Auditing

SGF (2010) stipulated that the internal audit department of a bank should play the role of ensuring the compliance with *shariah*. At present, Islamic financial institutions in Malaysia has mushrooming quite significantly including several foreign owned entities and some existing conventional banking institutions, which also established their Islamic banking subsidiaries. Based on the interviews conducted, *shariah* auditing really is performed by the internal audit

department. Only one IFI has a dedicated unit in the internal audit department to specifically perform *shariah* auditing. Majority, fourteen (14), respondents confirmed that all the internal auditors within a department are responsible to perform *shariah* auditing when he or she conducts internal audit on certain Islamic banking operations or products. Majority of the said that even though they do not establish a dedicated unit of *shariah* audit, they have 2-3 internal auditors specialized with *shariah* knowledge relevant to Islamic banking and finance appointed for reference during their *shariah* auditing process. A respondent, which is a regulator said:

"... not many banks have established one dedicated unit of shariah audit. The BNM has also not seen the needs for IFIs industry to establish one specialize unit as it will tighten up the regulatory requirements which at the end will affects the growth of the industry" [Respondent 14].

Respondents also agreed that internal audit department should design their *shariah* auditing program to cover all aspects of IFIs business operation and activities such as the financial statement audit, compliance audit, internal control review, human resources, processes, information technology as well as *shariah* governance review. Respondents' understanding regarding the scope and extent of *shariah* auditing is also in line with SGF (2010). Majority, eight (8), respondents suggested that *shariah* auditing process in their IFIs is either effective or quite effective though their practices are at minimum and have lots of rooms for improvement. However, they agree that *shariah* auditing has only been performed at the surface level. The internal auditors also have difficulties in differentiating the process they need to perform to fulfill conventional versus *shariah* when they perform audit on Islamic products and operations. The internal auditors at times adopts similar processes which is wrong for Islamic banking products and operations which need to be audited in accordance to *shariah* principles. In example, internal auditors has to verify that the *ijarah*² contracts fulfill an *ijarah* contract's conditions according to *shariah* which requires proper evidence of asset's ownership is in place (accounting treatment and claim for capital allowances to local accounting and tax regulations). However, some respondents said that very few internal auditors have good understanding on certain concepts of Islamic banking products and nature of its operation, which caused misinterpretation that lead to *shariah* non-compliance. An external auditor responded:

"... before an internal audit department conduct shariah audit, they should developed a structured methodology in terms of : (i) scoping of shariah audit universe, (ii) shariah risk assessment, shariah audit planning procedures, (iii) audit testing methodology, (iv) reporting and rating methodology, (v) coordination of works performed between shariah review function and lastly, (vi) link between shariah audit opinion and work performed." [Respondent 15]

Three (3), five (5) and three (3) respondents reported that *shariah* auditing practices has been either very effective, effective or quite effective, while only four (4) respondents said that the *shariah* auditing practices at banks is not effective. Generally, the full-fledged Islamic banks have the best practices as evidenced by the respondents which said that *shariah* auditing process is very effective comes from those banks. Majority respondents responded that *shariah* auditing practices have not been implemented effectively because of lack of expertise and short time frame. A respondent said that *shariah* auditing process was not effective due to *"... repetitious of work between shariah audit procedures and shariah review procedures" [respondent 15]*. However, according to one of the respondent which is a regulator from BNM

² *Ijarah* is leasing ; the sale of usufruct of an asset

asserted that the practices of *shariah* auditing process are improving after IFSA 2013 implementation. The response is:

“they are improving...everybody are aware the importance, roles and functions of shariah auditing to reduce shariah non-compliance risks as well as penalty charges for breach of IFSA 2013 , therefore, the practice will improves as new regulatory enforcement – IFSA 2013 was been stipulated to all IFIs.” [Respondent 14].

The Current Framework Adopted by the IFIs

The framework adopted by internal audit department would include standards, audit process, audit program and audit plan. Findings show that internal audit departments generally adopted the International Standards for Professional Practice of Internal Auditing (IPPF) issued by the Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA) and Guidelines on Minimum Audit Standards for Internal Auditor of Financial Institution issued by the BNM. Currently, there are not yet any standards specifically designed for *shariah* auditing. *Shariah* auditing is being performed in all units of business operation, which normally depends on the group internal audit risk assessment and annual internal audit plan conducted by the internal audit department. Eight (8) respondents mentioned that the *shariah* audit uses similar computerized audit program for conventional auditing with only several add on procedures for *shariah* compliance. Only seven (7) respondents stated that their organization has designed a specific *shariah* audit program though improvements are necessary for more systematic procedures and to include standard operating procedures for accounting (MASB, IFSB, etc.), regulatory (BNM) and other requirements.

Meanwhile, in terms of risk assessments, all respondents agreed that their risk assessments are based on group internal audit risk assessment. Given this scenario, an external auditor responded that some issues need to be considered within *shariah* auditing process and risk assessments:

“when internal auditor perform risk assessment in shariah auditing process, the internal auditors need to consider the issues of; compliance checks or risk based audit; how do you define shariah non-compliance risk; who should execute shariah audit? Should IFIs trained Islamic scholar or professional internal auditors trained in Islamic finance?; what is the scope of shariah audit, should encompassing or specifically defined?; should shariah audit be very different that operational audit?; what assurance is shariah audit providing for?; how do you determine the planning and testing methodology, to provide assurance over shariah audit?; and lastly on how do you raise the issues and rate the report?” [Respondent 15]

Respondents were also asked whether it is essential for the IFIs to have its own *shariah* audit framework and program. All respondents noted that the BNM should at least issue a general framework and general list of audit program to be used as a guideline for the IFIs. Having such framework would help IFIs in designing their own *shariah* auditing framework and program specifically catered for their Islamic banking products and operations. However, the SAC BNM's response to this issue is different:

“ I don't think we need to issues a structured shariah audit framework. This is important to ensure the growth and to promote the Islamic banking industry. If regulator is too stringent, the Islamic banking and finance will be too costly and expensive. As such, again it will dampens and condone the Islamic finance industry. For me, continuous education and awareness need to be done aggressively at individual level as well as at management level.” [Respondent 14].

Roles of Shariah Review Function and Shariah Committee in Shariah Auditing

SGF (2010) stipulated that internal auditors may use IFIs *shariah* expertise from *shariah* review department and *shariah* committee for *shariah* audit while not compromising the objectivity and independence. Interviews indicated that the internal auditors have close working relationship with the *shariah* review department especially when confirming *shariah* principles and practices. For instance, when the internal audit department review the *shariah* compliance framework and internal control, they always consulted *shariah* review department. The respondents also clearly understood the needs to assure independence and objectivity as an internal auditor. At present, the *shariah* reviews department usually acts as a referral point for the internal audit department to confirm and clarify *shariah* issues. In addition, all respondents understood the roles of the *shariah* review department which is to ensure *shariah* compliance in all Islamic finance and banking activities. Among the responses received:

"...yes. We do have a close relationship with our shariah review department. They became our referral if we not sure with shariah issue" [respondent 5].

... we work closely with shariah review department. But then we still maintain our independence. They are our auditee"[Respondent 6].

... close relationship with shariah review department and they really clear with their functions. This is important to ensure no repetitious process. Shariah review function is more on monitoring daily function." [Respondent 7].

However, one respondent mentioned that many internal auditors and *shariah* review officers are still unclear about their functions. According to respondent 15;

"...many of them only understand the differences on the conceptual matters, but not clear in terms of operationalized it. I found redundant audit process between shariah audit and shariah review. In practice, they are conducting similar works such as shariah review check legal documents and internal auditor also looking at legal documents. In audit, we more concern on specific matters. Internal auditors conduct shariah audit based on risk based or audit based on checklist?!" [Respondent 15]

Nevertheless, several different practices were found in relating the internal auditor and *shariah* committee. Nine (9) respondents agreed that their internal audit department had a close working relationship with the *shariah* committee, while, two (2) of the respondent stated that they had a quite close working relationship. The other four (4) respondents claimed that the *shariah* committee did not perform an active oversight role on *shariah* audit function. This practice violates the SGF (2010) which stipulates that the *shariah* committee is expected to perform an oversight role on *shariah* matters relating to the institution's business operations and activities which can be done through *shariah* review function and *shariah* audit function. Some of the responses describing this context are:

"...close relationship, but sometimes the SC does not possess sufficient understanding on the whole process of banking activities especially in terms of operational matters. Most of them are only concerns on shariah issues and risk. [Respondent 8]"

"... My observation, shariah committee lacks of understanding on operational matters. They only looks on shariah fatwas on Islamic banking products but at the end of the process, they need to sign shariah audit report which emphasize more on operation of islamic banks whether its comply with shariah or not? I found there is no link and connection between what they have assured in shariah audit report and works that have been performed to ensure their assertion and assurance. [Respondent 9]"

“...they do have close working relationship between internal audit department and shariah committee. But then, I found in some cases, shariah committee itself lack of understanding in terms of banks operational matters” [Respondent 6]

The *shariah* committee's active roles can also be measured through their participation in audit committee meeting. A variance in practices have also been found where two (2) respondents informed that their *shariah* committee is invited to attend the board of directors meeting but not the audit committee meeting. While, another eight (8) respondents stated that their *shariah* committee is invited to attend the audit committee meeting. Two (2) respondents (one of which is from SAC BNM and another is an external auditor) claimed that the *shariah* committee could not play an active role since the management does not understand and refuse to accept the *shariah* committee's roles to assist internal auditors in reviewing the *shariah* auditing process. Therefore, the *shariah* committee was not invited to attend any audit committee meeting or board of directors meeting. One interesting finding from this interview also revealed that in some situations, The *shariah* committee's roles, are denied by the management by limiting and discarding the *shariah* committee active participation in the internal audit department. The following sub - section, reports the the formal reporting channel as practiced by the internal audit department in regard to *shariah* auditing process.

Governance and Reporting Line of Internal Auditor

Interview results show that all IFIs comply with the SGF (2010) guidelines. The internal auditor that audit *shariah* governance and reporting are required to report to their audit committee and *shariah* committee. In addition to that, for *shariah* non - compliance issues, internal audit department would have to also report to the board of directors of the IFIs.

Competency and Knowledge Requirements

All the respondents strongly agreed that Islamic banking and finance (IBF) knowledge, *shariah* knowledge and internal audit knowledge are important to the internal auditors especially when they are to conduct the *shariah* audit. Majority respondents recognized that having the knowledge would help them understand and evaluate the *shariah* issues comprehensively and able to detect and identify violations of *shariah* principles in Islamic banking and finance transactions and operations. Therefore, as postulated in H1 - three(3) most important knowledge required to perform *shariah* audit are Islamic banking and finance knowledge, *shariah* knowledge and internal audit knowledge is supported. SGF (2010) on internal auditor's competency requirement, only outlined general guideline of “the function shall be performed by internal auditors, who have acquired adequate *shariah*-related knowledge and training” (SGF, 2010, Principles 7, Para 7.8). The term “adequate” for knowledge, however, has not been clearly defined by BNM. It is ambiguous as to whether the internal auditors need professional certifications, university qualifications or training hours. Thus, the IFIs industry is still uncertain of their direction on the knowledge requirements for the internal auditors to conduct *shariah* audit. Some responses related to this aspect are captured as follows;

“...Six basics disciplines of knowledge that essential for internal auditors to possess before they can perform shariah auditing effectively are they have to know the Islamic banking operation, shariah muamalat and principles, audit techniques and practices, accounting, commercial law and the whole risk management.[Respondent 14].

“...Exactly! shariah knowledge and Islamic banking and finance knowledge is important to form your justifications and explain for any shariah non-compliance” [Respondent 3].

"...our industry is looking forward or in demand for internal auditors who are expert in IBF and shariah knowledge. However, many of internal auditors are only good in accounting and auditing skills, but lack of IBF knowledge and shariah. Then, if we hire a shariah graduate, we are still need to train and educate them to understand audit and accounting knowledge. Therefore, to get an internal auditor who can understand both disciplines is very challenging. Indeed, they are very demanding!." [Respondent 1].

"..from my observation, many internal auditors still does not understand some of basic shariah principles and IBF knowledge, even though they claimed that their organization have well trained staff. Some of them are still asking me some basic shariah principles, questions. I think, it's good if one research can be conducted to measure competency and knowledge level of internal auditors during shariah auditing process." [Respondent 14].

In addition, an interesting finding from the interviews is that, besides IBF and *shariah* knowledge, spirituality level of internal auditors and IFIs staffs have also been considered as important element for the effectiveness and efficiency of maintaining *shariah* principles in Islamic banking operations. Responses affirming the importance of spirituality in IFIs' operation are:

"...we provide two days of compulsory induction course for our staff. Day one of induction, we teach them about IBF and shariah fundamentals knowledge. Then, on second day of induction course, we emphasize the importance of spirituality. Not so much on muamalat. In fact, sometimes, we as a shariah committee, visited our branch, we called it "usrah" and teach them about spirituality and accountability. As a full fledge of Islamic banks, we should always portray and practice that we preserve our shariah principles." [Respondent 12].

"...For me, shariah knowledge and some other knowledge related to this area such as auditing, accounting, finance and banking are important. However, the principles of the practices still lies within the approach of the individual to understand as their main roles actually is towards God (Allah), accountability to god and their spirituality towards what they believes." [Respondents 13].

On a different note, results from the interviews indicated that the IFIs did not perceive *shariah* knowledge to be important for their staffs. Only three (3) respondents stated that it is compulsory for staffs to attend and participate in Islamic *Fiqh Muamalat*, Islamic Legal Maxims, Islamic accounting and auditing training or workshop. The internal auditors' participation will be evaluated in their key performance indicators (KPI). Meanwhile, another ten (10) respondents stated that their organizations only strongly encourage the staff to attend and enroll in any Islamic banking and finance courses but did not mandate it as a compulsory action that needs to be fulfilled.

Challenges and Limitations

All respondents clearly indicated that their biggest challenge in implementing effective *shariah* auditing is lack of expertise and resources. This would means that many internal auditors have not had adequate *shariah* knowledge and understanding of the Islamic financial system. At the same time, not many *shariah* officers understand the conventional financial system. This makes them more critical when they compared the two streams. The most plausible explanation of this problem is lack of training provided during tertiary education. This also proves the importance of incorporating *shariah* principles in the accounting and finance degree at

universities. Support from management has also found to be a challenge. Majority, eight (8), respondents agreed the vital management need to play in implementing *shariah* auditing practices. While, seven (7) respondents said that management do not perceive *shariah* auditing to be important due to the sentiment that *shariah* auditing is similar to conventional auditing. Among the responses are:

"... Management tends to see shariah audit as a part of conventional, normal audit procedures. They not really appreciate the importance of shariah audit towards shariah compliance process" [Respondent 8].

"... Management still unclear on the roles and functions of shariah review and shariah audit" [Respondent 7].

"I agreed, Management, Shariah Committee and shariah audit department have their own importance role in promoting shariah audit." [Respondent 5].

"... I found a problem of information gap between shariah committee and management. A cooperative management needs to give support. Shariah committee has different objectives and concern. Then, as management's objective is profit maximization. In certain cases, they found shariah committee has limited knowledge on the real operation of the banks. Then, in some cases, shariah auditing findings or shariah reviews findings viewed as not significant issues. Management need to be more transparent. Therefore, internal auditors should play their role in explaining and reporting real situation of the IFIs to both parties especially in terms of lack of internal control and related risk" [Respondent 15].

CONCLUSION

This study provides a descriptive analysis on the actual views of practitioners of the Islamic finance ecosystems with regards to *shariah* auditing. Findings show that IFIs in Malaysia is still working towards establishing an effective *shariah* auditing framework and programs. A study by Kasim et al. (2009) also highlighted that IFIs have to depend on the conventional auditing framework for audit purposes, which is limited in scope, despite the obligation to meet the *shariah* rules. This study also found that *shariah* auditing practices have lots of rooms for improvements in various aspects like (i) improving understanding among the internal auditor, (ii) implementation of *shariah* auditing process and manuals, (iii) fulfilling resources, (iv) *shariah* committee's role, (v) expertise requirement, and (vi) support from management. Then, issues of lack of resource i.e. knowledge, skills are also interesting to ponder. It is also found that generally internal auditors in IFIs are experts for conventional accounting and auditing skills, but lacking in *shariah* and Islamic Banking and Finance knowledge although those knowledge have been recognized as very important by the respondents in performing *shariah* audit. In addition, the present study also found the IFIs should consider to strengthen the intrinsic value among their staffs such as spirituality to be part of their enhancement program which has been found in this study to be an importance factor to improve *shariah* audit process. Such attainment of this intrinsic attribute will be able to guide internal auditors to perform *shariah* audit with deep conviction and zeal, thus improving their *shariah* auditing process. Overall, the empirical findings of this study further enrich the relevant body of knowledge in internal auditing and Islamic banking and finance research. In the present study, only 15 interviews were conducted on a group of internal auditors to provide the qualitative data, which were later analyzed to test one of the research hypotheses. Though the amount of such data may be sufficient for the qualitative analyses used, having additional data may add more credibility to the discussion of the effects of moderating variables. Future research may involve interviews with other groups of IFIs' workforce, such as external auditors and *shariah*

review officers, together with internal auditors, to establish more solid samples. Such samples can provide researchers with sufficient, rich data for relevant statistical analysis, the findings of which will not only be more reliable but generalizable. Furthermore, the involvement of additional groups consisting of external auditors or *shariah* review officers will provide greater insights into the understanding of the current auditing practices based on different perspectives.

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The Comparison Implementation Of Reinventing Policy 2015 AND Tax Amnesty 2016 (Case Study At Kendari Tax Office)

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ABSTRACT

Indonesia in the last two years has implemented the policy of tax pardon in a row that is reinventing policy in 2015 and tax amnesty in 2016. The tax amnesty policy implemented in 2016 is recognized as the most successful tax forgiveness success in the world. This study aims to determine the difference of policy implementation of reinventing policy pardon policy in 2015 and tax amnesty in 2016. The study was conducted qualitatively by using exploratory case study with the aim of knowing the difference of the implementation process of Tax Amnesty policy in 2016 and the policy reinventing policy in 2015. This research was conducted in Primary Service Office (KPP) Pratama Kendari which participate in implementing tax amnesty policy 2016 and reinventing policy policy 2015. The results show there are differences in the implementation of both policies among others from the basic aspects of policy law, the scope of policy and the ease of policy implementation.

Keywords: Tax, Tax Amnesty, Reinventing Policy

INTRODUCTION

Tax forgiveness is actually not new in Indonesia. Recorded this program has been implemented five times. Tax forgiveness program was first implemented in 1964, then continued in 1984. In the reformation era of tax forgiveness program has been done three times the tax forgiveness known as Sunset Policy Volume I of 2008, Sunset Policy Volume II of 2015 or can also be called by reinventing policy and the latest Tax Amnesty Year 2016. The

Target of tax amnesty program acceptance in 2016 is Rp. 165 trillion. Based on the latest data obtained from the realization of tax amnesty program is reached Rp. 135 trillion. It consists of Rp. 114 trillion, payment of initial evidence Rp. 1.75 trillion, and delinquent payments of Rp 18.6 trillion. The total ransom consists of private individuals non-micro, micro, small and medium enterprises (SMEs) of Rp 91.1 trillion, and private individuals of UMKM amounting to Rp 7.73 trillion. Then, the ransom money from business entity UMKM Rp 14.6 trillion, and non-UMKM Rp 656 billion.

The amount of declaration property collected because the tax amnesty program is around Rp. 4.865 trillion. Italian state run the tax amnesty in 2009 is ranked second, obtain the realization

of the declaration of property of Rp. 1.179 trillion and Chile State ranked third on the value of the declaration of property Rp. 263 trillion in 2015. As for the ransom that reached about Rp. 135 trillion is the highest in the world. The State of Indonesia is in the top three countries which receive the greatest ransom from the implementation of tax amnesty policy, Italy ranked second with 0.74% of GDP and Chile State at 0.62% of GDP.

The government in 2015 also issued a policy pardon Sunset Policy Volume II or also known as Reinventing Policy policy. Although the realization of state revenue for the first time in the history of Indonesia through Rp. 1,000 trillion is exactly reaching Rp. 1,055.61 trillion, the target of revenue only touches 81.5% of total revenues of Rp. 1.294.2 trillion expected. From Direktorat Jendral Pajak performance report data of 2016 tax revenue of reinventing policy only reached Rp.10,61 trillion with details of Rp. 8.09 trillion in 2015 and an additional Rp. 2.52 trillion until September of 2016.

Policy of tax forgiveness reinventing policy is considered not optimal in encouraging the entry of state revenues from the tax sector due to unachievable targets. In parallel with it Firdaus (2016) shows the results of his research on the ineffectiveness of the policy reinventing policy pardon policy is that during the year 2015, tax revenue in Indonesia amounted to Rp. 1.055 trillion. The revenue only reached 81.5% of the target set that is Rp. 1,294.26 trillion. With the failure to achieve the tax target, it can be said that the policy implemented by the government in the year of WP 2015 through PMK No. 91 / PMK.03 / 2015 has not been effective. Based on the results of interviews with some of the research informants, the researcher concludes that the factors causing the ineffectiveness of the application of PMK No. 91 / PMK.03 / 2015 include tax amnesty issue, no guarantee of non-examination of WP, time constraints, and negative stigma about the taxation that has developed in society.

Research gap in this study is based on research conducted by Setyaningsih and Okfitasari (2016) and Rahayu et al (2016). Setyaningsih and Okfitasari in his research entitled Why Taxpayers Following Amnesty Tax (Case Study In Solo) try to examine why taxpayers follow the tax amnesty policy. The results stated: first provide empirical evidence in the form of understanding the tax forgiveness program is only little understood participants, the tax remains a form of disturbance and cause fear in the community. Secondly, WP conducts tax forgiveness program in cooperation with outsiders (tax consultants). Thirdly, in the implementation of the program pardon program is difficult to understand and the lack of socialization makes the WP feel the complexity of amnesty tax preparation. High personal / leadership commitments indicate that the WP is actually willing to perform taxation obligations including tax amnesty, but taxpayers expect the certainty of tax amnesty allocation funds, justice for the business world and convenience in carrying out its tax obligations. This study has limitations that have not used comparative case study and limited time of research.

Rahayu et al's research entitled Evaluation Analysis Of Sunset Policy And Reinventing Policy (Case Study: Pratama Tax Office In Depok Cimanggis) is a study that evaluates two tax forgiveness policies namely sunset policy in 2018 and reinventing policy in 2015. The results of this study states that the Sunset Policy Policy succeeded in becoming one of the most influential factors in increasing taxpayer compliance within the scope of the Depok Cimanggis Tax Office area in 2008 and this is due to a number of factors, such as proper preparation and certainty that there is no checks on the participating taxpayers in sunset policy. In contrast, the policy of tax pardons in 2015 failed to increase taxpayer compliance due to poor public communications strategies implemented by the government. Based on this research, the researcher tried to raise the comparison of the two tax amnesty policies with the reinventing policy by evaluating more on the implementation and the factors that influence it.

Based on some of the things described above, the researcher is interested to examine and examine deeper "Why the implementation of the Amnesty Tax policy in 2016 is considered more successful than the Reinventing Policy pardon policy in 2015".

BASIS THEORY

Definition of Tax

Discussing about Tax Amnesty can not be separated from the definition of tax itself, according to Prof. Dr. Rochmat Soemitro, SH in his book *Mardiasmo* (2016: 3):

"Taxes are the contribution of the people to the State's treasury under the law (which can be enforced) with no direct (demonstrable) lead services that are used to pay public expenses."

In Law No. 16 of 2009 concerning the third amendment of Law Number 6 of 1983 namely General Provisions and Tax Procedures in article 1 paragraph 1 stated that tax is a compulsory contribution to a State owed by a Person or a Coercive Body under the Act, by not getting a reward directly and used for the purposes of the state for the greatest prosperity of the people.

Understanding Tax Amnesty

In general, the definition of Tax Amnesty is a government policy granted to taxpayers about forgiveness / forgiveness of taxes, and in return for the pardon the taxpayer is required to pay ransom. Getting a tax pardon means that existing report data has been considered to have been bleached and for some tax debt was also written off.

According to "Law No. 11 of 2016 on Tax Amnesty" the definition of Tax Amnesty is the abolition of taxes that should be payable, not subject to sanctions of tax administration and criminal sanctions in the field of taxation, by disclosing the Property and paying the Ransom as stipulated in this Law. Meanwhile, according to "PMK No. 118 / PMK.03 / 2016" the definition of Tax Amnesty is the abolition of taxes that should be payable, not subject to tax administration sanctions and criminal sanctions in the field of taxation, by revealing the Treasury and paying the Atonement as stipulated in the Act Tax forgiveness.

Implementation of Tax Amnesty

implementation of tax amnesty in terms of Law Number 11 Year 2016 is divided into three periods. The amount of the ransom is stipulated in the tax amnesty law, namely:

1. Ransom of 2% (two percent) for the period in the submission of Statement Letter which is effective since the Tax Forgiveness Law is applied on July 1, 2016 until 30 September 2016 or called the first period.
2. A 3% (three percent) Ransom for the submission period of Statement from 1 October 2016 to 31 December 2016 or so-called second period.
3. A 5% (five per cent) redemption fee for the submission period of Statement from 1 January 2017 to 31 March 2017 or so-called third period.

Understanding Reinventing Policy

Departing from the concept of tax forgiveness, reinventing policy is an attempt to transition to a new phase of the relationship between the Taxpayer and the Tax Authority based on cooperative compliance. Cooperative compliance will be based on mutual trust, mutual understanding, and openness (Darussalam, "Utilize Sanctions Punishment", Inside Tax Issue 31).

Regulation of the Minister of Finance Number 91 of 2015 hereinafter referred to as PMK 91 is a legal instrument used by the Directorate General of Taxation in reinventing policy to regulate

the reduction or elimination of sanctions due to the oversight of the taxpayer or not because of his mistake. Meanwhile, the juridical foundation governing the reinventing policy is Article 36 paragraph (1) sub-paragraph a of the Law of the KUP, where in Article 36 of the Law of KUP paragraph (1) letter a it is mentioned that the Director General of Taxes, due to the taxpayer's position or application, may deduct or eliminate administrative sanctions in the form of interest, penalty, and increment of payable in accordance with the provisions of the taxation legislation in the event that such sanctions are imposed due to the taxpayer's oversight or not by mistake.

Implementation of Reinventing Policy

In order to implement the Taxpayer Year 2015, on April 30, 2015, the Minister of Finance shall issue Regulation of the Minister of Finance No. 91 / PMK.03 / 2015 on Reduction or Elimination of Administrative Sanctions for Delay in the Submission of Notification Letter, Rectification of Notification Letter and Delay of Payment or Tax Deposits. The program is called the Reinventing Policy. The implementation of Reinventing Policy begins on May 4, 2015 and ends at the end of December 2015. Reinventing Policy is expected to encourage Taxpayers to be willing to report tax returns, pay and deposit taxes as required and make SPT repairs. Reinventing Policy refers to the provisions of Article 36 paragraph (2) of Law Number 6 of 1983 as amended most recently by Law Number 16 Year 2009 regarding General Provisions and Tax Procedures.

RESEARCH METHODS

In this research approach is done through qualitative approach with case study. Case study research focuses intensively on a particular object that studies it as a case. Case study intended to intensively study on the background of the problem, the state and the position of an event that is currently underway, as well as certain environmental interactions social unit that is what is given. The specificity of the case study research lies in the nature of the object under investigation. According to Yin (2014) in Gunawan (2016: 122) the case in a case study study is contemporary, still related to the present, both current and completed, but still has an impact still felt during the research.

The use of collective case study types is considered appropriate for this type of research because the number of cases used in more than one research is Reinventing Policy and Tax amnesty. The cases in this collective case study study were chosen because they were seen to improve understanding of something, and perhaps even improve a theory by showing more facts and evidence. This research can focus on one issue or concern and take many cases to explain it. In addition, this study can also use one case (location), but with many issues or attention being studied.

Informant determination was done by using purposive sampling and snowball technique. The selected informants were informants who were involved directly and understood and could provide information on the research topic. In accordance with Asmony's opinion (2015: 84) stating that informants who can provide this required information need to be identified, sought, so that it can not be determined randomly or represented. The informants in this study consisted of employees of KPP Pratama Kendari and taxpayers clearly involved directly in the implementation of tax amnesty pardon policy 2016 and reinventing policy 2015.

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

Conduct of interviews with informants led researchers on some interesting findings about the difference in implementation tax amnesty tax amnesty policy 2016 and Reinventing Policy

2015. This difference Researchers focus on three things: the legal basis of policy, the scope of policy and the ease of policy implementation.

The Legal Basis of Policy

The tax amnesty policy implemented in 2016 uses Law no. 11 Year 2016 is considered stronger in terms of legal basis than the policy reinventing policy of 2015 which uses the Regulation of the Minister of Finance No. 91 of 2015.

"So first the legal basis, if the legal basis of sunset of the FMD alone, while the level of TA is higher .. if from the legal provisions are stronger, then the second is that if the TA is being checked it is stopped immediately if the sunset is not used to it .. the sunset when it is SP2 or checked out .. if the TA is being examined he stopped even no longer be investigated. "

Article 7 paragraph (1) of Law Number 12 Year 2011 concerning the Establishment of Laws and Regulations states that the types and hierarchies of the Laws and Regulations consist of: a. 1945 Constitution of the State of the Republic of Indonesia; b. Decision of the People's Consultative Assembly; c. Law / Government Regulation in Lieu of Law; d. Government regulations; e. Presidential decree; f. Provincial Regulations; and g. Regency / City Regulations.

Ministerial Regulation in Law no. 12/2011 is not stipulated in the provisions of Article paragraph (1). However, this type of regulation is provided for in Article 8 paragraph (1) of Law no. 12/2011, which affirms: "The types of laws and regulations as referred to in Article 7 paragraph (1) include regulations established by the People's Consultative Assembly, the People's Legislative Assembly, the Regional Representative Council, the Supreme Court, the Constitutional Court, the Supreme Audit Board, The Judicial Commission, Bank Indonesia, the Minister, the same body, institution or commission established by law or the Government on the order of the Act, Provincial People's Legislative Assembly, the Governor, the Regency / Municipal People's Representative Council, the Regent / Mayor, Head of Village or equivalent. " Although the above provisions do not expressly state the type of legislation in the form of " Ministerial Regulation ", but the phrase " ... regulations established by ministers .. "above, reflects the existence of Ministerial Regulation as one type of legislation. Thus, the Ministerial Regulation after the coming into effect of Law no. 12/2011 still recognized its existence. The next issue, how is the binding power of the Ministerial Regulation? Article 8 paragraph (2) of Law no. 12/2011 affirms: "The laws and regulations referred to in paragraph (1) are recognized and have binding legal force as long as it is ordered by a higher Legal Regulation or established under the authority."

Ministerial Regulation established on the basis of the order of the law, the law is categorized as a delegate legislation. Thus, in general legislation of delegation is a legislation established on the basis of a higher order of laws and regulations. Since it is not a statutory regulation, policy rules can not be tested by a Supreme Court that has the authority to test statutory regulations under the law against the law. With the provision of Article 8 paragraph (2) of Law no. 12/2011, it is no longer the difference between a Ministerial Regulation which is a legislation with a Ministerial Regulation which is a Policy Rule.

The law discussed and ratified by the People's Legislative Assembly has made an impact on the community becoming more confident and confident in the readiness and strength of Law No.16 of 2016 on tax amnesty tax amnesty policies compared to PMK.91 of 2015 on reinventing policy. Profit and sanction facilities provided are clearly written and legally accountable. This is acknowledged by informants:

The Scope of Policy

The notion of scope in general is limitation. The scope of the policy referred to herein is the limitations of the tax amnesty and reinventing policy tax amnesty policies. This scope, according to the researchers, also led to the magnitude of the difference between the results of both government's tax pardon policies. To make it easier to analyze Researchers categorize into two types of policy content and policy subjects. The following is an explanation:

The Policy

Amnesty Taxor Tax Amendment is a forgiveness program granted by the Government to the Taxpayer covering the abolition of tax payable, the elimination of tax administration sanctions, and the elimination of criminal sanctions in the field of taxation on assets acquired in the year 2015 and earlier that have not been reported in the SPT, by paying off all tax arrears and paying the ransom. Reinventing policy is a program of forgiveness where the government gives the widest opportunity to the Tax Payer to acknowledge mistakes in SPT reporting as well as payment and tax refund. With respect to administrative sanctions due to such errors, the Taxpayer may apply for the reduction or elimination of administrative sanctions.

"If reinventing it is an existing provision and released for sanction alone. If this tax amnesty not baseball, it appears, taxpayer self assessment to express itself. If that's been revealed the term. If this one is revealed, self disclosed by the taxpayer automatically taxpayers will be more interested in this TA. Moreover there is also a bonus also includes reinventing it, paying just the principal on arrears. Really bonus is reinventing if I think that TA .. meaning like this person who follow TA condition is already paying debts, but he just the point. automatically do reinventing in the future if there will be TA. Later will be a bonus. the bonus of reinventing policy means that the TA must follow also. "

What is stated in the policy reinventing policy program is already in the tax amnesty policy program itself. Elimination of sanctions which become the main facility in stretcher by PMK.91 year 2015 also owned by Act No.11 year 2016 because that tax amnesty policy is considered to have a wide scope so that taxpayers become more interested.

Policy Subject

According to Law No.11 of 2016 article 3, paragraph 1 which reads "Every Taxpayer is entitled to Pardon of Taxes", in this sense implies that the right to take advantage of tax amnesty is an Individual Taxpayer, corporate Taxpayer, Taxpayer engaged in the field of Small and Micro Enterprises (SMEs), Private Person or Agency that has not become a Taxpayer. Meanwhile, according to PMK.91 in 2015, the taxpayer who can follow this cert is a Taxpayer who has not reported the SPT, or corrected the reported SPT with the underpayment value becomes greater. Due to the reporting of SPT and / or SPT rectification, if there is an administrative sanction, then the Taxpayer may apply for reduction or elimination of administrative sanctions.

"If I am more inclined to tax amnesty, because if the abolition of sanctions means that he must as a tax payer registered , so yes tax payer was already registered, continue him there is negligence that cause sanctions. But if this tax amnesty is more emphasis on assets that he never declare so right. So the asset that he previously had, he has but never expressed I think cangkupannya wider here so .. and this is the tax amnesty yesterday I think pretty good because I said the time is wider because he is not only to tax payer registered but the new tax payer too.

From the regulation of the law actually can be drawn the conclusion that there is a fundamental difference cangkupan taxpayer where in the Act No.11 of 2016 states that all

people either taxpayers or not entitled to follow the policy of tax forgiveness. As for the reinventing policy is the meaning of taxpayers who actually already have NPWP and even been given sanctions for acts that are considered violated so that he was granted pardons.

The Ease of Policy Implementation

Good policy is a policy that is easy to understand and easy to implement. Between these two tax forgiveness policies, two interesting things from field data are processed by the researcher. In the category of ease of implementation of this policy researchers to be the procedure of policy implementation and law enforcement after the policy.

Policy Implementation Procedure

"Well this is also the meaning why tax amnesty really more booming yes in the law no 11, in the tax amnesty law that has been mentioned the facilities earlier, so first the benefits are more as I was say for the 2015 down will not be checked, which check will be stopped. The second one is the facility of Free Certificate or LCS for which his property has not yet been reversed and the sanctions continue to be clear. When it comes out SKP or STP paid principal only, sanctions are removed. Data secrecy is guaranteed. Whereas if the PMK 91 or reinventing policy that the mechanism can not be out of the KUP law so that when the taxpayer following the reinventing policy will still be issued STP for late pay but later taxpayers still have to file again. "

Stages of the procedure referred to here is the stage when the taxpayer wants to follow the tax forgiveness policy. The tax amnesty policy procedure can be assessed more quickly because it is only through one stage while reinventing the two stages. In tax amnesty policy, the taxpayer only needs to report the property and pay the ransom money while in the tax office while in the policy reinventing policy taxpayers make the filing of tax pardons first, still issued SKP and STP then taxpayers make submissions penalty back.

Post-Policy Enforcement

The striking difference between tax amnesty policy and reinventing policy is in the presence of sanctions that accompany it. In tax amnesty policies sanctions and threats that are given after the policy are implemented are very large while the reinventing policy does not exist, back to the KUP. This large sanction is approved because it takes decisive action to the public especially taxpayers who are still naughty do not want to pay taxes or hide their property. If the government in this case the Directorate General of Taxes does not implement this law enforcement post tax amnesty well it will arise a bad perception on the taxpayer that will impact on other taxation policies that will emerge in the future.

"If I think personally when the tax player has received such a pardon so vast and very profitable tax player that at least stubborn so that it is time we enforce the law so, the tax law should be. That is to say there is a tax player who still hide his property or not obey ya tax law should be enforced. No longer what the term softens. So that DJP power is the term, the tax's authority, do not let our threats "oh if abis sunset this way, it was not done. Ah biasalah so ya right .. just lip service will be there again, there will be more so just waiting for forgiveness deh. So the term is not good habits if I think that too sunset it, it should be just once and familiarize the Indonesian people especially the Indonesian taxpayer is obedient law "

CONCLUSION

This study was conducted in KPP Pratama Kendari by using nine people who directly involved with the implementation of policy amnesty tax amnesty taxes in 2016 and reinventing in 2015.

Data collection was done using interviews, observation, and field documentation. Based on the results of data reduction processed by the researcher shows that:

The fundamental difference in the implementation of tax amnesty policy in 2016 and reinventing policy in 2015 lies in the basis of policy law. The scope of policy and ease of policy implementation. On the legal basis of tax amnesty tax amnesty policy adopting Law No.11 of 2016 is considered to be stronger in terms of legal basis than the policy reinventing policy of 2015 which uses Regulation of the Minister of Finance No. 91 of 2015. This is in accordance with hierarchy Article 7 paragraph (1) in Law Number 12 Year 2011 on the Establishment of Laws and Regulations states that the type and hierarchy of Laws and Regulations. Act. No. 11 is at the level of KUP that overshadows PMK No.91. It is therefore natural that the Act stands alone and has different authority from the KUP.

In the scope of policy researchers divide into two things namely the content of policies and policy subjects. In the tax amnesty policy of existing facilities in the policy reinventing policy was also given. The facility is the elimination of sanctions, so it can be said that the facilities provided tax amnesty more. For subjects within the scope of tax amnesty policy is wider not only the taxpayers who have been registered. An unregistered taxpayer may also participate in the program as long as he owns the asset.

On the ease of implementing tax amnesty policy, tax amnesty policy in reporting procedure is very simple, taxpayers only recognize the property to be reported on the provided form, pay a ransom amount and automatically all the problems are completed. In contrast to the Reinventing Policy which should propose the removal of sanctions first. SKP and STP will remain published, this directly adds the work of both taxpayers and taxpayers themselves. Then the final problem in implementing this policy rests with its law enforcement itself. In the Reinventing Policy policy there is no law enforcement to be done after the policy ends. For tax amnesty law enforcement is considered very difficult to do because the sanctions are very large. This sanction is considered to cause problems in the implementation in the field. Therefore, even now it is not heard in any media law enforcement after tax amnesty policy is done.

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Students' Perceptions Of Synchronous Sessions Within Online Courses In Higher Education

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ABSTRACT

The number of students taking online courses has increased significantly. Helping students be successful in this format is very important. Previous studies have attempted to identify the difficulties that have hindered student academic progress the online environment. Adding a synchronous component to an online course is one method that has been discussed as a way to help students be more successful in online courses. This study sought to answer two research questions: 1. How important do students feel synchronous sessions are to their mastery of online content? and 2. What activities within the synchronous sessions do students feel are the most beneficial? Through email, 200 graduate students in 6 different education programs from a Catholic, Liberal Arts University were invited to participate in an online survey. Participants were asked to rate the importance of online synchronous sessions and their various possible characteristics. Results indicated graduate students found the synchronous online sessions are an important addition to the online course. They also indicated that the content of the sessions was the most important consideration. When structuring synchronous sessions, the participants indicated that instructors should focus on explaining assignments, simplifying content, adding additional content, and supporting group work.

Key Words: Online courses, Synchronous components, Blended learning, Higher education

INTRODUCTION

Higher education courses can be delivered in any of three different formats: traditional or face-to-face, blended, or online. In traditional courses all of the content is delivered in a written or oral format while in a blended course 30 to 79% of the content is delivered online. More than 80% of the content in online courses is delivered digitally [3]. University students can choose from any of these formats, but increasingly students are choosing online courses. The impact of digitally enhanced learning through online courses continues to grow as this course format has become an integral component in most institutions of higher education [5]. The number of students enrolled in online courses at the college and university level continues to grow significantly. Allen and Seaman [1] reported that between 5.5 and 7 million higher education students were enrolled in at least one online course at the graduate or undergraduate level. This figure represents more than a 100% increase from the total just six years previously [2].

Although online courses are offered on both the graduate and undergraduate level, online courses are particularly attractive to graduate students. Students enrolled in graduate programs tend to be older, working professionals rather than traditional college age students. Adult learners indicated that because of time demands, they found the online format more

attractive than those courses offered in the traditional face to face format [9]. These online courses provided adult learners with a more flexible schedule [16] thus allowing them to determine when they want to focus on learning while allowing them to balance family and work obligations by working ahead or using flexibility in completing assignments [18]. Although online courses have made it possible for adult learners to access academic content at their convenience, the need for self-discipline and intrinsic motivation has frequently resulted in high learner attrition rates in the online format [7,8].

Oblender [12] determined that the average online college course dropout rate in the United States was 50% because of these concerns. Many learners want the convenience that online courses offer, but are concerned about losing the support and interaction available in the face to face setting [8]. One possible way to address the attrition rate issue is by including a synchronous component in online courses. By combining the advantages of online instruction with the benefits of a synchronous component, instructors can keep learners motivated and engaged throughout the entirety of a course [8,11].

Conrad [6] described online courses as communities of “like-minded groups of people [gathered] together in the spirit of shared goals” (p. 4). Much of the research has focused on the development of online communities and decreasing the sense of isolation that sometimes accompanies online learning. Conrad’s [6] definition of the community being built on a “shared goal” places the emphasis squarely on reaching the “shared goal” rather than on simply building community. This definition emphasizes the importance of content acquisition and application in online learning. Online students had the shared goal of understanding and being able to apply the instructional content.

Research in the area of online learning at the university level has found that students are generally pleased with their online courses [15, 17]. Barbour, McLaren, and Zhang’s [4] study of online learners found that students expressed greater enjoyment of their online courses than of their courses presented in the typical face-to-face format. Their research found that online learners indicated that teacher preparedness, more learner self-directedness, and more independence were significant factors that impacted students’ enjoyment and content mastery. Additionally, studies by Petrides [14] and Vonderwell [19] determined that adult learners were able to use asynchronous communication tools effectively in their online courses. Learners reported that these tools allowed them to carefully construct meaningful responses and to reflect on their content knowledge and participation. Tunison and Noonan [18] reported that while students were able to use a variety of communication tools, the students indicated these tools were a poor substitute for the kind of interaction that would take place in face to face classroom settings.

Even though online course work has many benefits, it presents some innate challenges as well. In online courses, the learners become responsible for determining ways to expand their content understanding when the concepts are not clearly explained or when the learners are confused by the complexity of the information. This is more likely to occur in the online setting because students are unable to ask questions at the time that the content is presented [10]. In their research Negash, Wilcox, and Emerson [10] identified additional content mastery challenges that existed as a result of students feeling “overburdened by the shift of responsibility and control,” increased anxiety related to content mastery, and difficulty in time management (p. 11).

Adding a synchronous online component may be beneficial, but little research has been done to determine students’ perceptions of what they deemed to be the most useful ways that the tool

should be incorporated into online courses. Consequently, it can be difficult for instructors to know how to use the synchronous component most effectively to increase content mastery. In addition, students' preference as far as frequency of synchronous sessions has not been investigated. This research attempts to fill the gap in the literature by analyzing students' perceptions about using a synchronous online tool to help develop content mastery in online courses.

Research Questions

This research is guided by two research questions.

1. How important do students feel synchronous sessions are to their mastery of online content?
2. What activities within the synchronous sessions do students feel are the most beneficial?

METHOD

Two hundred graduate students enrolled in entirely online courses in the education programs at a small, private, liberal arts institution in the southeastern United States were invited to complete an anonymous online survey. Email invitations were sent to the 200 students enrolled during the 2017 fall semester in the six online graduate education programs: Education Specialist, Exceptional Student Education, Reading, Instructional Leadership, Instructional Design, and Educational Leadership. Only students in graduate programs that were entirely online and used a synchronous component were invited to participate in this study.

The programs included in the study were structured using a similar format. Semesters are divided into two eight-week courses within each program were offered entirely online with the content being provided through textual and video information that was housed in the learning management system. Textbooks and websites supplemented the information located within the course shell in the learning management system. In addition, each course offered one synchronous session each week using conferencing software that allowed for sharing of PowerPoints, videos, discussion, and whiteboard presentations. Participants who attended the synchronous sessions were able to discuss the instructor prepared content with the instructor and their colleagues. The software allowed for the participants to see each other through their cameras. Participants were able to present content or ideas by using their microphone to speak or they could type comments in the chat box. Attendance at these sessions was not required, but the sessions were recorded so that the students were able to listen to the recording at a later time if they chose.

The graduate students in these programs were invited to complete an anonymous online survey containing both qualitative and quantitative questions regarding their perceptions about online synchronous sessions used within the online courses. The convenience sample was composed of responses from 53 students who were enrolled in the graduate education programs at a small private liberal arts institution.

Nominal measurement scale demographic information was collected from each respondent to ascertain the graduate student's gender, age, and program. These demographic data provided the researchers with a rich description of the sample participants. The graduate students ranged in age from 24 to 67 years of age. The average population of the sample was 40.55 years of age. The average age of the 13 male respondents was 51 years of age, while the average age of the 40 female respondents was only 38 years of age. Because of the smaller number of male participants, the responses were not disaggregated by gender. Each of the six

programs was represented in the sample; however, approximately one third of the responses came from students enrolled in the Educational Leadership program.

Next, using an interval Likert scale, the researchers gathered data about students' perceptions related to the use and content of synchronous sessions. The entire 12-question survey is located in Appendix A. Through the use of a Likert survey design in the first 10 questions, the study explored students' perceptions about the use of synchronous online sessions within online courses. The Likert scale ranged from 1-4. Participants chose between 1- Disagree Strongly, 2- Disagree, 3- Agree, and 4- Agree Strongly. Mean scores were then calculated to compare the strength of the preference for each type of activity during the synchronous session. Question 11 asked about the frequency with which the synchronous component should be used. The final question in the survey asked the respondents to identify what they perceived to be the three most important functions of the synchronous sessions.

Axial and open coding methodologies were used to analyze and identify themes based on factors identified by the participants. The qualitative data was coded individually by each researcher to determine inter-rater reliability. All quantitative and qualitative data was corroborated and triangulated to ensure the validity of the results.

FINDINGS

For each closed response question in the survey, participants responded with 1- Disagree Strongly, 2- Disagree, 3- Agree, or 4- Agree Strongly. Mean scores were calculated based upon the responses from the Likert survey. Students indicated that they agreed with the use of a synchronous component (Mean= 2.91836) as an effective tool in supporting learning in the digital environment. This information answers the first research question about how important students perceive the synchronous component to be in the mastery of content in an online course.

Students were then asked to indicate the importance of five different ways that the synchronous session could be used: explain assignments and expectations, scaffold course content, provide additional content, facilitate group work, or answer student questions. Students' mean scores were in the agree range for four of the synchronous functions. Participants indicated that they felt it was most important for the instructor to explain assignments and course expectations during the online sessions. The next three functions were very closely rated in importance: provide an explanation of course content, provide additional information related to the course content, and support group work. Using the synchronous session to answer student questions was perceived as the least desired usage of the synchronous session. This could be because the students felt their questions could be answered more immediately through email or phone contact.

T- and *p*-values were used to compare the means of the possible usages for the synchronous component. Explaining the course content (*t*-value = 4.17085 and *p*-value = .000067), providing additional content (*t*-value = 4.37954 and *p*-value = .00003), explaining assignments (*t*-value = 5.484 and *p*-value <.00001), and supporting group work (*t*-value = -4.14039 and *p*-value = .000075) mean scores were all in the agree area and were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level from the mean score for answering student questions. However, the differences between the means of explaining course content, providing additional content, explaining assignments, and supporting group work were not statistically significant from each other at the $p < .05$ level. Consequently, students seem to view these four activities as equally important functions that should occur within a synchronous session. In contrast, the mean for only

answering student questions was in the disagree range and consequently was not viewed as an important function of synchronous sessions.

Table 1
Mean scores Related to Functions of Synchronous sessions and their Order of Importance

Function of synchronous session	Mean	Standard Deviation
Use of synchronous session in online course	2.91836	0.84
Provide explanation of course content	3.02040 (3)	0.85
Provide additional content	3.04081	0.80
Explain assignment	3.20408	0.76
Only answer student questions	2.28571 (5)	0.87
Support group work	3.00000	0.87

When responses were disaggregated, there were no statistically significant differences between responses based on gender, age, or program. The final question on the survey was an open ended response. Participants were asked to list what they felt were the three most important characteristics of an effective synchronous sessions. Seventy-six responses were recorded for this question. The data was coded and aggregated or organized by themes. The data were then transcribed and classified using open and axial coding methods. Using open coding methodology, the researchers read through the qualitative responses several times to create "chunks" of data seeking meaning that emerged from the data. The researchers also used an inductive reasoning process to generate themes and ideas and employed axial coding methodology to identify relationships from among themes. Each researcher coded the data and reviewed it for inter-rater reliability. During this process, the researchers debriefed to identify any variations in coding and coexistent themes. Following the inter-rater reliability check, the researchers finalized the data results into overarching themes, so as to discern patterns and meanings to "make sense" of the data. Using an analytic inductive reasoning process, data coding and concomitant interpretation, the researchers were able to ascertain the common themes or recurring regularities that emerged from the data [13]. This entailed internal homogeneity or the extent to which data belonged to a certain category or theme. This also entailed external heterogeneity or the extent to which the data did not belong in a category and to identify that the differences between categories was clear [13].

Analysis of these responses generated comments related to 3 major themes: content, length and frequency, and platform format. Between a half and three fourths (48/76 responses) of the responses focused on the content of the synchronous sessions. Nineteen of the comments stressed the importance of having an opportunity to clarify and ask questions of other students and the instructor through collaboration and discussion. The next most frequent response related to content, indicated students' perception of the importance of providing information about upcoming assignments and course content (17/48 responses). The third most frequent theme (10/48 responses) identified the importance of the synchronous sessions in building connections to current events. Other responses about content asked for assignment examples and guest speakers.

Length and frequency were addressed in less than 10% of the responses (6/76 responses). Two respondents indicated the sessions should be short, less than 30 minutes. Two indicated the sessions should be offered at multiple times and on multiple days. In contrast, two other students indicated the synchronous sessions should not be offered weekly, but instead should be less used less frequently. In addition, they indicated that the synchronous sessions should not be mandatory.

Eighteen participants shared observations about the platform and format the synchronous sessions should take (18/76 responses). The most important theme in this category was that ten participants indicated the importance of the synchronous platform being able to display visuals of both the instructor and the students and that the session should be recorded. Participants (3/18 responses) indicated that the recording should be available for review purposes or for students who were unable to attend the session and that it was important that the recording be available for the entire term. Two participants indicated the sessions should not be mandatory, while one student indicated that the sessions should be mandatory. Individual participant's responses indicated the importance of being able to share documents, videos, and use the chat feature.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Graduate students viewed synchronous sessions as an important addition to their online course work. This study provided data that will enable instructors to understand how to effectively structure synchronous sessions to better meet student needs. Graduate students agreed that a synchronous component was important for explaining assignments and content, supporting group work, and providing additional content. However, all three of these activities were viewed as equally important. The data from this study supports the findings of Negash, Wilcox, and Emerson [10] who identified additional content mastery challenges faced by online learners. Synchronous sessions can be used to help to address these challenges. A synchronous session that was structured only as a way to answer student questions was not viewed as positively by the graduate students at this small, private university.

Data also indicated the importance of recording the synchronous session and having this recording available during the entire course. This recording allows online learners more flexibility in accessing content. The graduate students' responses support the findings of Putman, Ford, and Tancock [16] related to the importance of providing adult learners with a more flexible schedule so they can determine when they wanted to focus on learning while allowing adult learners flexibility in balancing family and work obligations.

Data from the final open ended question on the survey revealed that students perceived the content of the session as the most important criteria to consider rather than focusing on the method, frequency, or time length. The most important content theme related to structuring the session to allow for collaboration and discussion between students and the teacher. Students felt that this collaboration allowed for expanding understanding of course content and assignments.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER STUDY

The findings of this study are limited to graduate students in six education programs at a southern, private, liberal arts university. Since the mean age of students in this study was 40.55 years of age, it is unknown whether these findings are representative of a larger cross section of university students at different ages. It is unknown if studies involving a larger cross section of university students will support the findings of this study. Each program was not equally represented in the sample. The sample was more strongly weighted toward Educational Leadership. Because of the small number of respondents from other programs, the data could not be disaggregated by program. It is unknown if different educational programs would have responded differently.

This study examined graduate students' perceptions about the use of a synchronous component within a totally online course. Since effective instructional practices are a topic frequently discussed by university instructors, further study might be helpful to provide

additional insights into the impact of attending synchronous sessions on student achievement within the online course. Because of the advancements being made in the capacity of software to track student participation in various portions of the online course, examining course analytic data for synchronous components housed within the learning management system might be an important next step. By examining student participation data, quantitative studies might be able to provide additional information to help determine if there is a relationship between student grades and participation in online session. Information from this type of a study might help instructors to continue to refine and improve their use of a synchronous session in online courses.

APPENDIX A

Indicate if you: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, or Strongly Agree with each statement.

1. It is beneficial to have a synchronous component in an online course.
2. A synchronous component enables students to develop a better understanding of the course content.
3. Additional course content should be presented through synchronous sessions.
4. Synchronous sessions should only be used to answer student questions.
5. A synchronous component enables students to develop a better understanding of the assignment expectations.
6. A synchronous component helps to develop peer to peer relationships.
7. A synchronous component helps to develop student to teacher relationships.
8. It is too difficult for students taking online courses to participate in synchronous sessions.
9. A synchronous component within the course should be used to support group work.
10. A recording of synchronous sessions should be provided.

In the next question indicate your preferred frequency.

11. With what regularity should synchronous sessions be offered? ____ Never ____ Once a Term ____ Twice a Term ____ Once every other Week ____ Once a Week

Provide a short answer for the next question.

12. The three most important features I would like to see in a synchronous session are:

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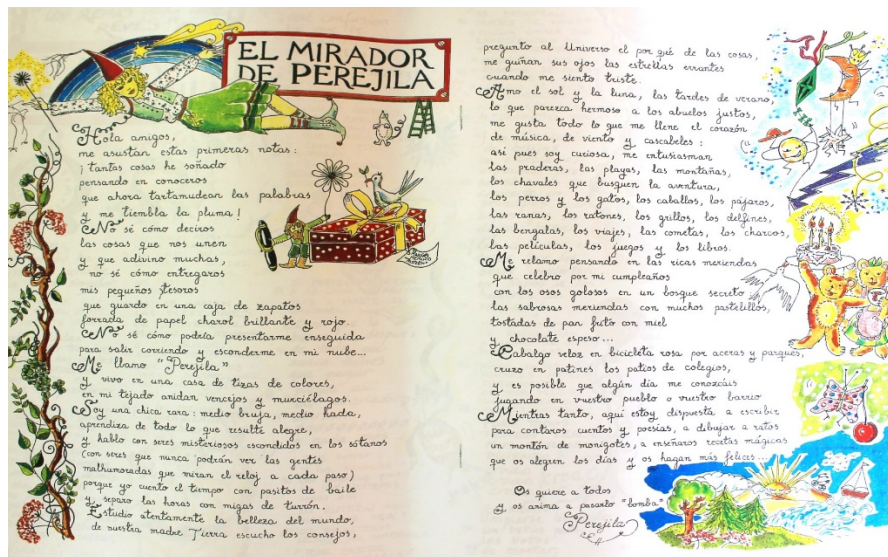
“Bathtubs Teeming with Frogs: Confluence of Form in the Multi-modal Work of Spanish Artist and Poet Margarita Merino”¹

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The title of this article is taken from a line in Margarita Merino’s poem “Mi casa” (“My House”)² in which she describes in humorous yet exasperated poetic language the condition of her home following a city-wide flood and serves to exemplify the spirited disposition that runs throughout her work.

An accomplished poet, with five published collections of poems, Merino is also a dedicated, self-taught visual artist who frequently illustrates her texts. All of the issues of the Spanish children’s magazine *Ardilla*³ (1987-1995), for example, contain her illustrated prose poetry. The poems, centered on a quasi-alter ego character that Merino created, “Perejila,” are included in the series entitled “Perejila’s Vantage Point” (“El Mirador de Perejila”). In her first installment, Perejila introduces herself timidly to her young audience, while at the same time establishing an intimate relationship with the reader in her salutation:



“Hello, Friends.

This first encounter is scaring me.

I have been dreaming about so many things

while planning to meet you

that now I am stuttering and

my pen is trembling.

I don’t know how to tell you

what we have in common,

but my guess is quite a bit.
I don't know how to give you
my little treasures that I keep in a bright red
patent leather covered shoe box.
I don't know how to come out and introduce myself
so that I can run back and hide in my cloud. . . .
My name is Perejila
and I dwell in a house of colored chalk.
Swifts and bats nest in my roof.
I am a strange girl: half witch, half fairy,
a student of everything that turns out happy,
and I speak with mysterious beings hidden in basements,
beings which would never be able to speak with ill-humored people
who constantly check their watches,
because I measure time with little dance steps
and I separate the hours with little pieces of almond candy.
I pay close attention to the beauty of the world,
and I listen to the counsel of our mother Earth.
I ask the Universe why things are the way they are,
and its eyes wink wandering stars at me
when I feel sad."

The dichotomy of fear and courage are evident in this first issue of "Perejila" in the words *stuttering, trembling, run back, hide in my cloud* versus her forthright introduction, "My name is Perejila and I dwell in a house of colored chalk. . . . I am a strange girl," etc. This split between reticence and assertiveness is less evident in other works by this author, however, as she boldly challenges a variety of accepted norms, attitudes and behaviors that she considers censurable. Even in this first installment of the series, she criticizes "ill-humored" and unpoetic adults who too often "check their watches," a foil for the "half witch, half fairy" allure. The narrator's use of fantasy here appeals to young readers who, while observing adult behaviors in their daily lives, cling to their imaginary worlds of play where all things are possible.

Thematically, Merino's work is characterized by her fierce independence, her love of the natural world, her confidence in the young, her abhorrence of inequality, and her unfettered belief in man's ability to improve. Visually, the colorfully illustrated poems of "Perejila's Vantage Point" reflect her themes, enticing the reader to engage with the aesthetic quality and ethical messages of the texts. The initial subliminal messages—that human nature responds positively to beauty and that we have the power to participate in the beautification of our world and the amelioration of hardship worldwide—draw us closer to a self-examination of our individual roles in our universe and in our relationships.

While the following installment of Merino's illustrated poetry in the *Ardilla* magazine, "Moon and the Cookies" ("Luna y las galletas"), demonstrates an increasing sense of self, it nevertheless evinces a visual diffidence, with images that are at times ornamental and decorative, tending to ring the page borders in support of the text. The imagery depicts her imaginative interpretations of objects and symbols that are immediately recognizable—to children, adults, and across cultures—suggested in her poetry and specifically realized in her illustrations. Her central character, Perejila, is clad in elfin-like clothing that quickly assigns her a magical, spirited power, replete with wand. Vines, flowers and birds intertwine with images of the moon and sun, along with children's toys, brightly wrapped gifts, a birthday cake and, finally, an old-style fountain pen, an image that frequents her larger body of visual work.

In interviews, Merino speaks freely and fondly about her early years, her father's writing pens, and the fact that he was the primary force behind her imaginative development.⁴ In these early works, predominantly warm colors are applied over a very thin contour line, allowing the written word to take center stage.



The construction of these early images parallels the timbre of the accompanying text—visual introductions of key characters and apparently concrete settings that only exist in her imagination (*house, basement, beings, and candy*). One senses that this is only the beginning of a longer story that will take form in the telling. The images might be likened to literary or dramatic asides—rough working sketches that explore the visual character of the narrative. They possess both a hesitancy and a simplicity that confirm the idea that Merino is sharing an ongoing visualizing process with the reader/viewer.



In the eighth installment of *Ardilla*, "Let Us Defend the Beauty of the World," Merino provides a highly structured image that represents her ethos. Perejila is at the center of a beachfront parade that moves from the right of the painting at a slight incline down to the left. She is positioned in between two informally symmetrical groupings of four musicians (left) and four

horsemen (right). All are dressed in flowing white garments with traditional accessories. The setting is bright with a slight breeze gently animating the entire scenario. In the distance a sailboat cuts through the lapping water. Perejila herself serves as something of a master of ceremonies for the event, tethered to a floating peace sign (perhaps a kite) and another airborne heart-shaped balloon emblazoned with the word “peace.” Text appears in three vertically oriented rectangular boxes balanced in pictorial weight with a palm tree to the right side of the picture. As noted earlier, these combined elements provide a glimpse into Merino’s worldview as repeatedly expressed in her poetry. Music, dance, poetry, love, theatrical pageantry, recreation and sport, are all prescribed as essential ingredients for peace. The coastal scene conjures up notions of play while acknowledging Spain’s long dependency on the sea.

Merino’s final installment in the *Ardilla* magazine series, “Happiness Workshop,” clearly demonstrates that her characters have come to life. They are significantly larger and more personalized, and the once-dominant text now appears to be competing for space with the bold and animated forms—birds, fish, and a lizard appear to be visiting a sage-like beast in a setting reminiscent of a medieval castle. A unicorn, a teddy bear and butterflies round out Perejila’s visiting entourage, and while these depictions support the text, their more specific characterizations suggest that they are coming into their own, i.e., they are no longer generic symbols, but now personable characters with developing narratives. Following is our translation of “Happiness Workshop”:

“I have come to this faraway land
beyond the place of no return
to learn the secret of happiness.

With the joyful beasts who, too,
have come from other planets,
(the wise chemists, mathematicians,
biologists, alchemists and poets
chosen from among them) I have come
to learn why the living
fall in love in the springtime,
why when we travel through light
the stars sing us romantic ballads,
and important things like these.

Frightened by so much excitement,
I see the animals prepare antidotes
against pollution,
elixirs against bad moods,
explosions of laughter against
the humorless professor and
against parents weary from quarreling,
magnificent ointments that
provoke the urge to dance the
mambo, the su-cu su-cu,
salsa, cha cha cha . . .

They know how to use their cidery recipes
to disarm the hardness of heart which hurts

kind beings and provokes wars.

And if I can't manage to translate
for you the musical language of celestial globes
in my fantastic laboratory, maybe
I will learn to change the flavor of
liver to that of chocolate truffles,
unsettling Mondays to Saturdays,
homework to pop band cd's. . . .

I promise you I'll find the door
that when opened will take us flying
away like Peter Pan.
Don't ever doubt that I will discover
which letter of the keyboard, which channel on the TV,
will suddenly eject us from the sofa
toward the place where adventure is as intense
as a hurricane. . . ."



In a show of remarkable collaboration, Merino places herself on the same intellectual plane as the “joyful beasts” (including scientists, mathematicians and poets) who come together to work on the recipe for happiness. However, we now witness how “the animals / prepare antidotes against pollution, / elixirs against bad moods . . . and they know how to . . . disarm the hardness of heart” that causes unwarranted suffering in the world. The elevated role of the animal in this poem could support María Cruz Rodríguez’s interpretation as Merino’s arrival at the ecological phase of her *weltanschauung*. The message, of course, is that humans have much to learn from animals and from nature in general. According to Rodríguez,

“M. Merino, in her ecological poems, gives voice to Nature and introduces an anti-patriarchal concept that breaks with the man/nature dichotomy. Rejecting the attitude of disdain and the utilitarian concept of the natural world, she considers nature as a teacher of life. Animals, for their part, are the repositories of the values that humans are losing, including fidelity and gratitude. This concept is translated into a language of reverence toward animals, plants, trees, rivers, mountains and the sea” (23-24).

We note, however, that all these elements of the natural world are featured in Merino’s *Ardilla*

poems, and we see less linear development in her celebration of Nature than does Rodríguez. Merino has long insisted that humans must demonstrate both a sensitivity and a sensibility in their pursuit of true harmony with Nature.

Among Merino's personal papers is a single sheet entitled "An Image and a Paragraph on the Creativity of Margarita Merino," written by an anonymous source and describing the poet as "a gladiator in defending the fragile beauty of the world, its peace, its abandoned human beings, and its noble beasts."⁵ Accompanying the text is an illustrated copy of Merino's final poem in her then-unpublished collection *Journey to the Outside* (*Viaje al exterior*), now published as an appendix to Rodríguez's critical essay on Merino's poetic journey. The poem in question, "Entreaty II" (*Súplica II*), emphasizes the ethical and visual worldview of the poet.

Let me bring the flocks of clouds
to graze at their leisure,
the worthless dreams
for the merchants
while I listen to music.
Let me prepare soup
and water my flower pots.
Let me cure the wounds
of these old, worn books,
talk to the children
while I pick berries
and reveal to the birds
what the horses tell me
in secret:
I am just a teacher
in the language of dogs, streams, willows,
wind and dolphins.



Both the text and the images in "Entreaty II" recall those of "Happiness Workshop" in that the poetic voice in each work emphasizes not the patriarchal dominion over animals and nature but rather the lessons that man can receive freely from them. Elements of fantasy (animals who are scientists, poets, mathematicians, as well as whispering horses), and the idea that positive change is the result of interaction with the natural world, are highlighted in both poems. While the tone is more playful and adventuresome in "Happiness Workshop" as opposed to an almost pastoral, bucolic tone in "Entreaty II," the visual images are quite similar, but with the overriding suggestion ("Entreaty II") that humans can affect change, that they are an essential and critical component in realizing this "recipe for happiness."

Looking at both of these works, one can sense the intuited development of the visual composition. At times, key images noted in the text appear deliberate in their placement; other times they appear woven into the larger fabric. While the earlier example ("Let Us Defend the Beauty of the World") suggests that Merino considered text placement prior to the accompanying illustrations, "Workshop" displays a more cooperative relationship between word and image. In both we see visual compositions crowded by a pastiche of characters and symbols that appear less deliberate, more intuitively conceived.

From a more formal perspective, these later works are so dense with imagery that they become, at times, difficult to read. The flattened space is alive with bolder line work and increasingly mixed color. While Merino does create nominal space through overlapped figures, the consistency of color saturation defies the deeper spatial illusion she seems to suggest. In short, her use of color tends to follow a descriptive tradition rather than the more contemporary tendency to animate spatial placement through color, finally resulting in a shallow stage on which her players perform. Another observation is that no character (save that of Perejila herself) seems to be subordinate to another; they are all equally vital and equally critical to the composition, stacked vertically with Perejila consistently near the top of the composition. Other elements, or symbols, tend to fall to the lower regions of the works. Merino's full color illustrations are reminiscent of the works by pre-Renaissance artists Cimabue (Cenni di Pepo) and Giotto (Giotto di Bondone) in whose works space was layered top to bottom with characters sized according to importance with little regard for empirical perspective or figurative foreshortening. In this respect, many of their signature works appear marginally concerned with the natural world. Having spent many years in Madrid, Merino had regular access to artworks by these artists and those working in their ateliers during her regular visits to the Museo del Prado and others. Her Catholic upbringing and education insisted that she familiarize herself with these narratives—the biblical stories they depicted as well as the hierarchy of figurative importance.

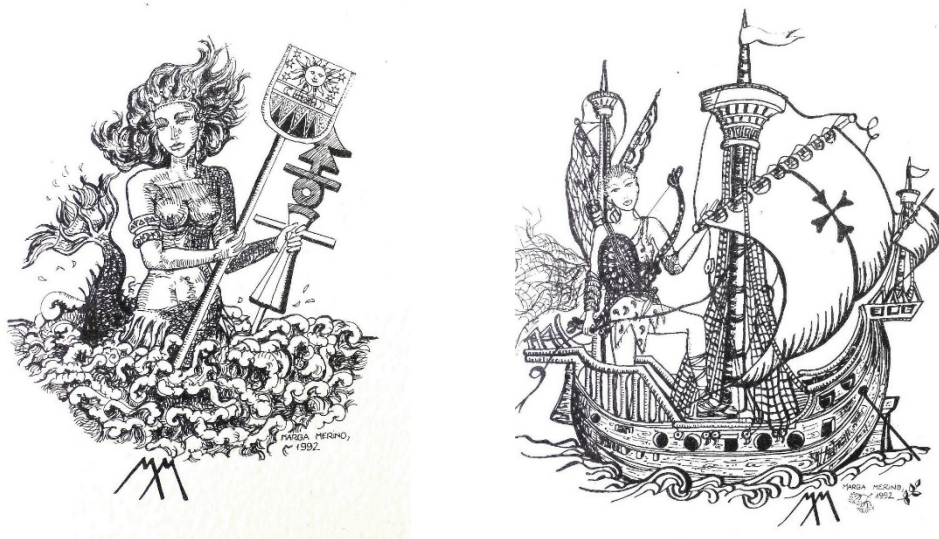


In light of the non-naturalistic use of space in Merino's work, one can read her poem "Mi casa" (fragment below) to see how she has woven a text that needs no visual illumination. She has created a work so image-laden in the reading that it borders on the ekphrastic. Her attention to detail suggests a place that represents her state of mind during a transition from one culture to another, one house to another. She provides us with a concrete description of her world as she views it at the time, subject to whimsy and change at a moment's notice. It is a world full of possibilities and at the same time, quite fragile. If she veers off course for any moment, the house and its imagined inhabitants will claim ownership. One cannot deny the visual upheaval cast in a ludic tone.

"Tired of this mess I surrender,
because someone has changed my house
into a nebula and created utter confusion.
The ghosts have gotten lazy;
they spend all day sleeping without making a sound,
and to top it off, they are wearing my pajamas
and taking over my bed.
The birds, having lost their sweet shyness
which kept them distant, have taken to
nesting in my closet. They think nothing of
filling my favorite clothes
with little breadcrumbs and droppings. . . ."

While writing and illustrating the "Mirador de Perejila" series, Merino published four collections of poems: *Journey to the Interior (Viaje al interior)*, 1986; *Ballads of the Abyss (Baladas de abismo)*, 1989; *Poems of the Cloister (Poemas del claustro)*, in collaboration with Juan Carlos Mestre and Alfonso Ares, 1992; and *Wounded Falcon (Halcón herido)*, 1993. The second edition of *Journey to the Interior* (1998) contains six black ink drawings which correspond thematically to the poetry. The flattened, stacked space of her full-color drawings is consistent with her black ink drawings, although these lack the amplified flatness provided by text imbedded in the colored images. These black and white drawings are precise and easily read. Continuing to dominate the work is a central female figure, clad in costuming that suggests a more iconic male role—the sea god Neptune, a sea-voyager aboard a fifteenth-century Spanish ship, and an Indian faith healer, to name only three. (Given the date of publication of this collection, the role-bending or role-reversed images were more provocative than they would be today.) These crisp contour line drawings are quickly discernible due to the absence of excessive modeling marks and colors that compete for spatial dominance.

The depicted forms and clear spatial definition provide refreshingly lyrical and legible works that equal her poems in their ability to speak independently.



Another series of Merino's works (reminiscent of illustrated manuscripts and bookplates) is distinctive from earlier mentioned works because they appear more responsive to the form and dimensions of books. The early Perejila works—text and image—by comparison seem to be products of intuitive expression, where rendered images appear without prior planning. Additionally, they remind us of personal journals, supported by her use of hand-rendered text—carefully printed while sometimes appearing to simulate specific font styles.



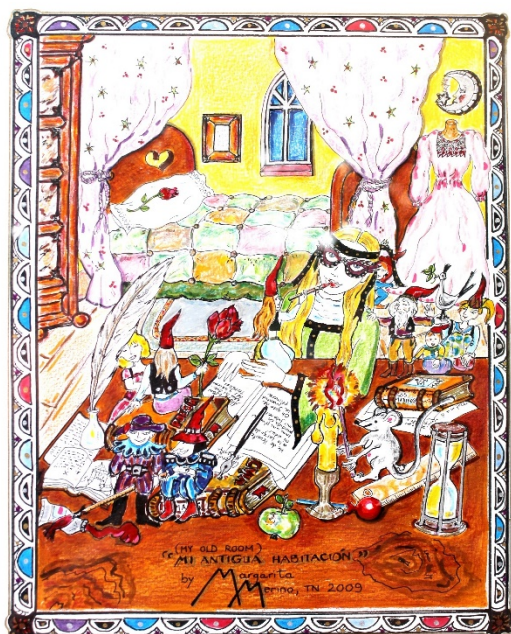
What is interesting is the sense that the figurative elements appear to have been developed after the border was defined or intuited. There is a consistent fraction of whitespace between the interior depiction and the ornately painted border frame. In historic terms, these borders served to reiterate the physical book form (frame within a frame), while providing decorative detail and interest that often suggested prevailing design motifs or allusions to natural elements common to the locale. Placement of the elements seems more deliberate, with text assigned to predetermined spaces. Text is visibly subordinate to the imagery, i.e., significantly diminished in volume, replaced by visual forms that now serve to convey the personal

narratives. The space is clearly and legibly defined, which would suggest that Merino is orchestrating her compositional structure. The worked ornate borders, reminiscent of Christian Books of Hours or illuminated manuscripts, appear to have received the same careful attention as the characters within the frame, suggesting that the iconic reference is central, perhaps critical, to the viewing experience.



While many of Merino's poems are not accompanied by illustrations, they are nevertheless highly visual. In her elegy "Memento," for example, she paints memories of her father who died when she was twenty-one:

"... so much time has my life spent without you,
 so much time that now, without your care, in what was your house,
 the copper coins in the corner,
 the little elephants with raised trunks
 which were said to bring good luck,
 the tiny tin trays,
 the stone turtle,
 the small spare parts and refills for everything,
 the pens and fountain pens,
 the little plastic boxes that held inkwells,
 all have abandoned your armoire.
 Never again will you fall asleep
 in the big armchair that cradled you during your afternoon naps,
 nor will your office again be nourished
 by beautiful editions of treasured books.
 No one replaced the drawing paper in the box,
 and I find no joy in rummaging through the places
 where you used to keep your amazing things,
 things that spoke of
 a man who was kind-hearted and exquisite while he lived."



The relationship between the above text and subsequent image speaks directly to the idea that Merino has found equal and secure footing in both forms. The depiction of her childhood bedroom, replete with deeply personal associations with her father, is deliberately rendered in a simple, child-like, animated fashion, e.g., a floor scattered with carefully chosen playthings and implements critical to associations with her father. These forms seem to tumble out of a soft and nurturing bed billowing with pristine white curtains and comforter and fluffed pillows. As she recounts, Merino's mother attended to and schooled her in the details of domesticity while her father nurtured her creative nature. These two symbiotic worlds are masterfully wedded in this particular image. Additionally, this heavily illustrated work reminds us of the seemingly dense and animated world poetically described in Merino's poem "Mi casa."

As mentioned, Merino is a self-trained visual artist, an illustrator with the bravado that only comes from a lack of fear otherwise imposed by the Academe. Her works communicate a personal account, a vivid feminism, and a commitment to a vivacious embrace of the environment and its precarious populations. Certain poems and images tell a larger story that reads as an ongoing self-portrait fraught with her studied views on human politics and conflict, on nature under siege. Her visual art has evolved from timid, highly decorative illustrational beginnings into a form that is often independent of text and more rigorous and confident in its pictorial design. These later works now rival the intricacy of her poetry and demonstrate a truly cooperative mastery of both forms.

NOTES

¹This article, in its original form, was the basis of a presentation at the 7th International Conference on the Image in Liverpool, England, September 2-4, 2016.

²"Mi casa" is from Merino's first collection of poems, *Viaje al interior (Journey to the Interior)*, 1986.

³*Ardilla*, a magazine for children, was published by the Caja León and Caja España (Bank of León and Bank of Spain) between 1987 and 1995. A total of fifteen issues of *Ardilla* were published.

⁴The authors of this article conducted a series of interviews with Dr. Merino between 1990 and 2016 in the Spanish cities of León and Madrid, as well as in Kentucky and Tennessee.

⁵An anonymous, unpublished document which summarizes Merino's creative work, but which also includes a full-color series of images bordering the text of her poem "Súplica II" ("Entreaty II") from the collection *Viaje al exterior (Journey to the Exterior)*.

⁶Merino, Margarita. *Halcón herido*. Madrid: Ediciones Endymión, 1993, book jacket.

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Levirate in Ancient Israel: Overlapping Frames with Early Indian Practice of Niyoga

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ABSTRACT

Surrogacy was a well-known practice in ancient societies. Its application was rare but mandated when the matter of threatened lineage surfaced. Since very early times and particularly within patriarchal societies, sons were regarded as natural inheritors of property, holders of lineage and on many occasions performers of rites for ancestors. Hence, the absence of a male issue was viewed as a solemn social anomaly. Corrective solutions had to be worked out and many ancient societies came up with their alternative paradigms. In ancient Israel the practice of *yibbum* emerged and ensured lineage continuity. Its ancient Indian counterpart was the practice of *niyoga* that came under what is largely understood as *apaddharma* or the law of exigency. In both societies childless widow/wife was made to cohabit with a man, generally from within the family and the son produced furthered the lineage of her husband. The consent of the widow/wife was not really sought for the practice to get its social sanction. In the paper we shall study the issue from a gendered perspective and explore whether the practices of *Yibbum* and *Niyoga* implied exploitation of women. Further what was the class and caste location of the practice respective cultures and who eventually stood to benefit from it in two different parts of ancient world.

Key words: Levirate, *Niyoga*, *Yibbum*, *Haliza*, Torah, *Dharmashastra*, *Kshetraja*,

Procreation of male child preoccupied complex societies since times immemorial. The emergence of complex set up brought with itself issues of land occupation and inheritance and when this got combined with consolidation of patriarchy demand for a male child converted into an obsession. In any patriarchal set up sons were looked upon as promoters of lineage, inheritors of property [especially land] and performers of ancestral rites. The absence of a male issue was regarded a serious aberration and alternatives were worked out to surmount the problem. One such way was resorting to levirate or what was called the *niyoga* in early India. G.Robina Quale defines levirate as treating the sons sired by the deceased husband's brother as the son of the deceased [1]. The term is also used to describe husband –succession, or having the wife's son by a second husband inherit the estate of the first [sonless] one, as well sharing in the estate of their actual father with any other sons he might have by other wives. The expression is also used for widow inheritance, or merging of the estate of a sonless deceased husband with that of a second kinsman-husband. On the other hand P.V.Kane has defined *niyoga* as the 'appointment of a wife or a widow to procreate a son from the intercourse of with an appointed male'[2]. It clearly came within the fold of *apaddharma* or the law of exigency, something that could be resorted to only in the time of emergency.

The paper intends looking at the practice in two distinct contexts of ancient world; primarily in ancient Israel especially within the context of ancient Judaism and trace parallels in Ancient Indian brahmanical tradition. In Judaism, a levirate marriage (*yibbum*) was mandated by the Torah [Jewish legal system, Deuteronomy 25.5-10] which obliged a brother to marry the

widow of his childless deceased brother, with the first born child being treated as that of the deceased brother. There are several Biblical examples of Levirate. The stories of Tamar and that of Ruth are given a rough date of eight or seventh century BCE. We shall discuss these subsequently. In the Indian early texts, too, such as the Manusmriti and Brhaspatismriti, women were allowed cohabitation with a male relative in case the husband was impotent or dead. Even as the practice was institutionalized in the so called post Vedic period and first reflected in the Dharmasutras, the earliest references to it can be traced back to the earliest of the texts: the Rksamhita. In both these contexts religious texts provided a sort of social and later legal frame for the practice. It may be worth looking at how the institutions evolved in two traditions, their points of commonality and divergences. Our point of enquiry is whether this kind of practice, legalized in the scriptures, ever took a woman's and other participant's point of view into its reckoning? Did it bring them some solace or turn out to be an exploitative way of controlling their sexuality? Did the woman have the right to reject it? Did the practice also have caste and class angles to it? How did men of upper and lower castes view the practice? Who eventually stood to benefit from the practice? Does the practice continue in oblique way even today?

Scholars generally agree that there are at least three common characteristics to all levirate unions; union with husband's kinsmen [although non kinsmen can also become levirs with social approval], the progeny of such unions are considered legitimate and finally the children are considered to be the descendants of the deceased and not the levir [3].

SOCIAL CONTEXT OF THE PRACTICE OF LEVIRATE

Interestingly levirate is also pervasive in contemporary traditional societies. Studies conducted by anthropologists have recorded the occurrence of the practice among groups and tribes of North America, Australia, Africa and the Middle East[4]. These show that the societies that employ levirate tend to have a number of common features which overlap with ancient societies. Apart from the fact that most of the adherents of the custom belong to pastoralist groups or those who practice simple agriculture, the cultures following it are largely patrilocal and patrilineal. A woman is transferred to her husband's family at the time of marriage. She lives among her husband's kin and is under the control of his family. The death of the husband implies a 'reassigning' of the widow whose bride price had been paid. It allows the family to make use of her reproductive faculties and physical labour. This may also allow the widow a comparatively safe future though it does circumscribe her right to explore alternative avenues of existence. Levirate also appears to be closely linked to inheritance, with the surviving brothers 'inheriting' the widow because she has no rights to her husband's estate. Though in most of such cultures a woman is expected to fall in line with her husband's family's demands, there are cultures that give her an option to enter or reject a levirate union.

A childless widow, however, has fewer options. Her husband's property would revert to his family. Her failure to provide an heir would leave her destitute. She would be in a sense without a family and this implied 'disaster in societies where economic rights were based on kinship ties'[5]. A levirate union may then allow her an opportunity to reintegrate herself with the family and enjoy a part of family fortunes. As a result even if she is technically allowed the option of refusing a levirate union she may end up entering it for the absence of viable options. Another factor that could prompt a widow into levirate union could be the fact that it would provide an avenue for legitimate sexual union especially in a set up where any kind of union outside marriage would be frowned upon.

In this paper we are largely concerned with ancient societies of Israel and India. The point of focus is evolution of levirate within ancient Judaism and then a comparison with Indian *Niyoga* practice.

LEVIRATE IN ANCIENT JUDAISM

Ancient Israel featured most of the features described above. The Israelites engaged in simple agriculture based on family labour. Their society was patrilocal and patrilineal. Continuity of family and preservation of family land were important; inheritance was patrilineal, and wives were not recognized as their husband's heirs. The only characteristic absent from ancient Israel was exogamy; while the laws of Leviticus prohibit sexual relationship between various members of extended family, marriage between cousins was permitted. Given the nature of ancient Israelite society evolution of levirate is not difficult to trace.

A levirate marriage (*yibbum*) was mandated by the *Torah* [Jewish legal system, Deuteronomy 25.5-10][6]. which obliged a brother to marry the widow of his childless deceased brother, with the first born child being treated as that of the deceased brother. There are several examples of Levirate in Hebrew Bible. The Hebrew Bible is one of the primary sources of discussions about the family in ancient Israel. While the legal aspect of the institution is spelt out in Deuteronomy 25.5-10, the narrative substantiation comes from Genesis.38. The stories of Tamar and that of Ruth are given a rough date of eight or seventh century BCE [7]. These stories deal with the issue of levirate that have been doubted, questioned or debated upon. One can sight double standards in operation. The law was formulated from the vantage of men. It informs us what a man can do if he sought to wriggle out of the relationship but we do not get to know what a woman could do if she was uncomfortable with the arrangement. The stories address only the former situation, 'in two permutations: the problem of the man who refused the levirate and the problem of the woman who has to deal with such a man' [8].

The story in Genesis 38, is an account of the widow Tamar whose brother-in-law reneges on his levirate duty to sire children on her in his brother's name. Tamar is then compelled to seduce her father-in-law, Judah, by cunning, in order to discharge her procreative duty towards her husband's family. In the first part of the story, Tamar marries Er, Judah's first born son. When Er dies Judah orders his next son Onan, 'Lie with your brother's wife and fulfill your duty as a brother-in-law, providing seed for your brother'. But Onan, knowing that the child born of his seed would not let his seed go waste in the ground whenever he lies with his brother's wife. This displeases God, who takes Onan's life too. When Judah keeps postponing Tamar's marriage to his third son, Shelah, Tamar takes matters into his own hand. She takes off her widow's garments, covers her face, pretends to be a harlot [*Zona*] and waits by the road to lure Judah. Judah, who had lost his wife Rachel and was in a state of sexual readiness, mistakes her to be a cult priestess [*qedesa*] and persuades her to sleep with him. Tamar, takes away his possessions [seal and cord and staff] as a pledge which she reproduces when her pregnancy is confirmed to gain social legitimacy for her act of cheating her father-in-law. The Jewish law calls such an act a sin. The Leviticus [18.15, 20.12] prohibits the father from entering into an incestuous relationship with his daughter and adds, 'If any man lies with his daughter-in-law, both of them would be put to death'. However, Middle Assyrian law gives a father-in-law the right to beget children from his son's dead widow. Judah knew that the deed that he did was evil and he condemned himself for that. But Judah was forced to adopt the Assyrian view on it because recognized the merit of her argument as he had himself postponed the marriage of his third son to her, which by Jewish law was her legitimate right.

Judah had made a double error; not only could he not recognize his daughter-in-law, and taking her for a whore and not a cult priestess which could have accorded her greater

respectability as *qedesas* were distinct personas and often associated with temple priestess. He does pay for it by granting social legitimacy to the children born but for Tamar, the situation is far from being unproblematic. She truly witnessed numerous shifts in her social position. As Mieke Bal sums up her shifting status, 'She starts as a virgin, becomes, but ambiguously a wife, only to be widowed immediately, she then acts as ritual prostitute, and is considered a whore—a significant error—and ends up a mother without a husband. Her sexuality is clearly rendered problematic by the men in her life'[9]. The story, however, is a fairly complex one. Even when the emphasis is always given to a woman's need to have sons to secure her future, we would find on a closer examination of Judah's story that he needed Tamar as much as needed him. She actually healed his barrenness by giving him sons/ grandsons that he otherwise could not have. He had tried to protect his third son by postponing his marriage to Tamar. However, in doing that he made him as powerless as his other two sons. His own lineage was clearly threatened. His act which was luminally poised between incest and quasi levirate actually helped achieve an attractive symmetry. He had lost two sons and now the twins were born—'a sign that Judah had been forgiven' and possibly Tamar too.

The other significant example of Jewish levirate is the *Book of Ruth*, in which the eponymous widowed heroine is given in marriage by her mother-in-law to a distant kinsman [10]. When Ruth was left a childless widow, the nearest kinsman was unable to redeem her land and marry her. So drawing of his shoe [a ritual that frees her to marry someone else] he left her free to marry a richer and more distant relative, Boaz, who bought the land left by the father-in law and married Ruth to raise up the name of the dead upon his inheritance so that the name of the dead be not cut off from among his brethren and from the gates of his place'[11]. Scholars disagree whether the events described in Ruth 4 relate to levirate. While according to Boaz in Ruth 4.10, the 'marriage will perpetuate the name of the deceased upon his estate', the marriage between Ruth and Boaz does not seem mandated by Deuteronomy 25.5-10, nor does the genealogy in Ruth 4 credit Ruth's son on her deceased husband's line [12]. In some ways the transaction described resembled the redemption process of property outlined in Leviticus 25. However, there is no indication in Leviticus that a relative who redeems the property should marry the widow of the deceased kinsmen to whom the property belonged. Yet it may be worthwhile to scrutinize the passages as even if it were not a case of a recognized levirate, it did appear to be its modified version. In fact, in the Book of Ruth, marriage is seen to be a solution to two problems; a dead man's lack of offspring and support provided to two widows. It seems interesting that the former motivation is voiced by a man and the latter concern by a woman. Naomi, Ruth's mother-in-law, promotes her daughter-in-law's marriage to Boaz so that Ruth could have a home and 'be happy'. She may have been concerned about providing an heir for the family, she does not mention so. Naomi is portrayed as having concern different from Tamar whose primary aim was to procure a son. It was Boaz who claims that acquisition of Ruth along with the family's estate reflects the need to perpetuate Mahlon's [Ruth's husband] lineage and 'that the name of the deceased might not disappear from among the kinsmen and his hometown'. As in Genesis 38, there is reluctance on the part of the preferred surrogate to fulfill his responsibilities to the deceased. The closest relative of her dead husband is willing to redeem her dead husband property but not willing to marry her as 'it could threaten his own estates'. In the mind of the relative, marriage to Ruth, would perpetuate her husband's lineage but somehow threaten his own inheritance because despite being the genitor, the child would belong to someone else. Boaz may have married her because of his previous dealings with her and because of his esteem for her. Moreover, the child born of the union was recognized not just Ruth's son but Naomi's redeemer as well.

The story of Judah and Tamar served to emphasize the importance of levirate marriages in the days when the Jews were a family kinship group. Levirate marriages were practiced in a strong

clan structure wherein exogamous marriages were restricted. However, Ruth's story does demonstrate that the practice could be opened up to a wider kinship group if the brothers were unavailable. As mentioned above in both cases the genitors were reluctant to enter into the relationship but the Bible does not condone their unwillingness. While acknowledging their reluctance, the Bible offers support for the unions, suggesting that the fears of men regarding this custom were baseless. Interestingly, even as the children were supposed to carry on the name of their mother's legal and dead husband, the fact remained that within the Bible itself no one is allowed to forget who the real father is.

RATIONALE OF LEVIRATE

What could be the logic behind the levirate alliance? Levirate marriage served to protect the widow, ensure the continuation of the family line and preserve property. By and large it appeared that in ancient Jewish traditions where levirate was largely mandated only after the death of a husband that had produced no son, the device of levirate was utilized to preserve a man's property by providing him an heir posthumously. However, Naomi's words in Ruth's story also make it evident that the welfare of widow was equally important in making her remarry.

There are certain points of convergence and differences between the Hebrew and early Indian traditions of levirate and *niyoga*. The utilization of a woman's [widow's] procreative capacity by working out a relationship with the brother-in-law and subsequently ensuring the succession of lineage and preservation of property appeared to be common to both the cultures.

LEVIRATE (NIYOGA) IN ANCIENT INDIA

As was the case in ancient Israel, ancient Indian brahmanical societies cited the brother-in-law as the most preferred surrogate. *Gautama Dharmasutra*, a text of the post Vedic period informs us, 'A woman whose husband is dead and who desires offspring may secure a son from her brother-in-law [*devara*]. She should obtain permission of the elders and have intercourse only during the menstrual period [excluding the first four days- *nartumatiyat*]...' [13]. *Asvalayana Grhyasutra* also states that at the time of the death of a man, the mourning wife should be placed in charge of her brother-in-law or a close relative, 'Her brother-in-law, being a representative of her husband, or a pupil [of her husband], or an aged servant, should cause her to rise [from that place] with verse, 'Arise, o Wife, to the world of life' [*Riksamhita*, X.18.8] [14]. But on non-availability of the brother-in-law, the search for levir could extend to extended family, clan or even a Brahman! The *Dharmasutras* inform us that a surrogate could also be a *sapinda* [a kinsman], *sagotra* [of the same lineage] or a *sapravara* [exogamous kinship grouping] or one who belongs to the same caste, if the brother in law is not available [15]. *Gautama Dharmasutra* does allow a woman to cohabit with other kinsmen but also states that '[declare that she shall co habit] with no body but a brother-in-law [16]. Some texts such as *Visnumrit*, a work not earlier than third or fourth century CE, contain an innovation which is not found in the sutras of Gautama and Vasistha viz the '*ksetraja* [the son born of *niyoga* union] is the one who is procreated on the appointed wife or a widow by a *sapinda* of the husband or by a brahman. Brahmans presumably stood in for kshatriya rulers in the *niyoga* assignments described in the *Mahabharata*.

Another issue worth considering is whether the alliance was sought as a security measure for the woman concerned. The alliance could provide a certain kind of security to the woman but it could also amount to denial of autonomy and restraint on life. Both the cultures did not provide the woman the right to exercise her free will in the choice of her mate. However, there are some significant differences here. The instances of actual marriage between the widow and

the brother-in-law are rare in early Indian context. *Riksamhita* does allude to one such case where the brother-in-law takes away the sorrowing widow from the husband's pyre, presumably to marry her [17]. This does appear to be a rare example. Generally speaking the early normative literature envisaged a short-term relationship just till the progeny had to be secured, especially as *niyoga* could be practiced even when the husband was alive. His impotency was an acknowledged rationale for the practice in the early Indian context. The relationship between the woman and her levir was supposed to be very clinical and dispassionate, without emotions creeping in and to be terminated once the purpose of the alliance was achieved that is once the son was born.

The welfare of the widow did not seem to be the prime concern for early Indian norm-setters. Marriage of the daughter was something that was envisaged as an event that happened only once. Manu stated, 'The settlement of the inheritance happens once; they say a promise is made once and the daughter is given in marriage only once. These three things must occur but once [18]. On the other hand, ancient Jewish tradition purposely sought to reintegrate the widow into the family out of concern apart from the need to utilize her procreative faculties. Naomi was concerned about Ruth's welfare on demise of her son. The status of the Early Indian widow was certainly on decline as patriarchy consolidated and aspersions were cast on her multiple sexual relations which *niyoga* had allowed. Incidentally there was another point of divergence in the two traditions. Within the Jewish tradition, there was a provision of *Haliza* [19] within *Torah* that allowed the brother-in-law to get out of his responsibility of marrying the widow of his brother and allow her then the right to marry again.

As it happened in the case of early Indian socio-religious context, the practice of levirate also came to be condemned within the later Jewish tradition. In the later Talmudic literature levirate was considered objectionable as many a times the marriage between a brother-in-law and the widow happened for reasons other than that of 'establishing the name unto his brother'. The Talmud is the record of rabbinical pertainings to Jewish laws, biblical interpretations, ethics customs and history. There were Jewish religious heads that began equating it with incest and allowed levirate only under dire circumstances. Differences of opinion occurred among later legal authorities such as the Alfazi, Maimonids and the Spanish school on the issue of upholding of the custom. Gradually *Haliza* was encouraged more than *Yibbum*. The judges and councillors encouraged the brother-in-law not to marry the widow and to, 'look for a wife suitable for him and not bring trouble in the house'. The advice is directed at the levir and couched in terms of his happiness. It is beyond the purview of the paper to discuss the rationale in detail but could the questioning on the issue be related to the breakdown of close clan relation in an expanding agrarian society where inheritance of land became family issue? Let us look at the parallels in the early Indian situation.

From the beginning of the Common Era, there was a gradual decline in the practice of *niyoga* in India especially among upper caste women and this seemed to be connected to changes in the material milieu. The 'post Mauryan' [c.200BCE- c. 300CE] period was an age of agrarian expansion, enhanced artisanal activities, commercial extension at both local as well as global levels, along with growth of money economy. Many more areas had come under tillage and resource collection increased and even allowed urban expansion. Therefore, the picture that emerged around this time was one of relative prosperity.

GENDER RELATIONS AND LEVIRATE

How did it translate in the context of gender relations within the upper castes? Did greater availability of resources imply a concomitant growth of a woman's control over her sexuality? That was not the case. On the other hand, we detect a greater social control over a woman's

sexuality. Notions of virginity and chastity gained grounds with men being advised to make their women 'dependent day and night, and keep them firmly under their control'[20].ⁱ The practice of *niyoga* came to be associated with problems at both social and individual levels. Socially speaking it had once sought to provide a solution to the problem of faltering lineages but changed material and social environment implied its turning into a social and a moral problem for a new patriarchal set up. The inheritance rules acquired new meaning with the availability of landed property and so did the issue of paternity. Access to procurement and distribution of resources by men of upper castes and their need to confirm the paternity of progeny implied that their women be removed from productive activities and public spaces and confined to home with the ostensible occupation of reproduction only. Even within the framework of reproduction norms, some changes appeared. Relative stability in population growth implied that some women could be spared an optimum utilization of their reproductive functions; something that *niyoga* had primarily aimed at. Some wombs could, now be dispensed with, especially when these ceased to be of a wife. The death or impotency of the husband among such social groups could then actually spell out social death for widows. Somewhere the principle of *niyoga* that allowed women multiple sexual partners came to be gradually contrasted to the concept of monogamy and chastity.

It appears that both in ancient Israel and in ancient India practices akin to levirate had their genesis in a particular kind of social formation largely pastoral or practicing simple agricultural where women were considered significant productive and reproductive units to be controlled by the marital family. Both their labour and ability to reproduce had significance in a set up where there may have been the need to preserve family and family land through production of son who could inherit the land. However, as the situation might have become more stable both in terms of availability of food supply and population growth and early agrarian societies would have given way to more complex set up with emerging legal delineations and growing patriarchy, the practice may have lost its primary worth especially in the minds of custodians of society and they found ways to proscribe it; an act they were not entirely successful at.

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School Management and Technical Support to Teachers and Students in the Integration of ICT in Teaching/Learning English Language

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ABSTRACT

Information Communication and Technology (ICT) has been used in almost all fields of life. In Kenya, ICT has become so essential that the Kenya government has invested substantially in providing the requisite resources in schools. The utilization of ICT in education has recently started to appeal to the potential and significant progress in education. The process of integrating ICT into teaching and learning is an intricate process and its success or failure depends on a number of factors. These could mainly be teacher and institutional related. This study sought to investigate the use of ICT in the teaching of English language in Bungoma secondary schools in Kenya. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The target population comprised 51 secondary schools, out of which 11 that have had computers for some time were selected. Combinations of stratified, random and purposive sampling procedures were used. The samples comprised 11 secondary school principals, 48 teachers of English, and 385 form three students: 190 girls and 195 boys. Data were collected using questionnaires, a lesson observation schedule and an interview schedule. A pilot study was carried out to determine the reliability and validity of the research instruments as well as the feasibility of the study. Data collected in the main study were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. Descriptive statistics comprising frequency counts, means and percentages were utilised in the analysis of the gathered data. The main findings of the study indicated: management and technical support were moderate, mainly in the provision of some ICT facilities and employment of computer teachers. The use of ICT in lesson delivery was low due to a number of factors: inadequate facilities and time to access computers, lack of appropriate ICT skills, teachers' unwillingness to advance their computer skills, and preference of use of traditional methods, among others. Some school managers and education stakeholders had not provided requisite facilities and equipment like computers, digital and video cameras, which are key in successful implementation of technology-based lessons. Continuous professional development programs should be developed to build teachers' capacity in ICT integration into their teaching. Finally, feasible ICT school policies should be put in place to spear head uptake into classroom instruction.

Index Terms: Emergent issues, Digitalization, Integration, Technology-based

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Language is one of the most important human resources in everyday living as it is a medium of communication. It enables human beings to express their thoughts, ideas, feelings and attitudes, between and amongst themselves (Kimemia, 2002). For some time now, Information Communication and Technologies (ICTs) have had effects on how people communicate or see

the world. In education, use of ICTs has had effect on teaching and learning as teaching methods have transformed classroom communication. According to Sharndama (2013), teaching and learning have become more interactive and collaborative unlike before when traditional methods (chalk and talk) were used. Use of ICT is also ideal in teaching large classes like those found in many developing countries. In developed countries, teachers of English use a variety of ICTs to teach almost every aspect of English.

Having understood the benefits of using ICT and other multimedia, the researchers in this study conducted a study using qualitative approach, to find out how ICTs were being used in Kenyan secondary schools, to facilitate the teaching and learning of English language. in large classes. It has also pointed out the how the internet technologies (email and websites) can be utilized in teaching learning English in Large classes. Therefore, in spite of large class sizes, the teacher can still perform well as in small classes, with the aid of technologies.

In Kenya, English language is the medium of instruction from primary class four, upwards. It also plays a pivotal role in national affairs since it is the country's official language used in the executive, judiciary and exchequer. It is also an international language of wider communication.

In this regard, learners are expected to demonstrate knowledge, mastery of all aspects of language, and good communicative skills by the end of secondary school cycle (Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) report, 2010). The national Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) English language examinations (given after four years of secondary schooling), assess functional skills, reading comprehension, grammar, creative writing, literary appreciation, and essays based on set literary texts.

Students' performance in English in secondary school national examinations has usually been low as shown by KNEC performance analyses reports year after year, since 2012. This scenario has not improved. From the reports, the overall performance has been fluctuating with slight improvement one year, then downward trend the subsequent years. For example, in 2013, the overall mean score went as low as 27.5%. The low performance in English has had a negative effect on the performance of other subjects taught in English.

This low performance has partly been attributed to traditional teaching methods generally preferred by most teachers of English language. They include: a one-way communication mode where the teacher is the provider of knowledge and students are passive recipients of that knowledge, with occasional answering of a few teacher's questions. (Gathumbi and Masembe, 2008). Although, lecture method enables the teacher to cover more content within a shorter duration of time, it is not suitable for learning a language which requires students' practice to gain proficiency (Twoli et al. 2007).

ICT integration, which entails use of digital content and equipment in many aspects of teaching and learning, has been introduced in Kenyan schools, both primary and secondary. The government through the Ministry of education, sees this as an innovation that is expected to improve performance, not only in English but also in other school subjects. This mode of learning is expected to equip learners with the necessary expertise and information that is key in the 21st century. The Government of Kenya (GoK) has taken cognizance of this and adopted strategies to improve quality of learning.

Firstly, the government has put in place an ICT policy to improve quality of teaching and learning, through the usage of ICT in schools and institutions of higher learning. Secondly, in

conjunction with the Ministry of Education and the private sector, the government has provided computers to many schools throughout the country. Thirdly, the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD), (the national curriculum development body), has developed and made available to secondary schools digitalized materials especially on the literature set books (Ratemo, 2009). This content, is available in the form of Digital Versatile Disks (DVDs). Finally, the government has facilitated the training of all school principals on the use of ICT in school management and classroom instruction, through Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI).

Although the country has made strides in accelerating ICT uptake in educational institutions, there are concerns over how the ICTs are being integrated in the teaching and learning. A case in point is Bungoma sub-county where low performance in KCSE English language examinations has been witnessed. This is one of the main factors that forced the investigators to choose this locale for the study. A broad-based study carried out by Mukwa, (2011) focused on use of technology in teaching and learning all subjects in the secondary school curriculum. This study, therefore, narrowed down the focus to concentrate on ICT integration into teaching and learning of English language, which is the language of instruction in Kenya.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study was guided by the following objectives: To find out the availability of ICT facilities and equipment, investigate ICT integration in teaching and learning, establish the attitude of school principals, teachers and students towards the use of ICT in teaching and learning, examine the extent of support from school management in using ICT and lastly, find out availability and capacity of technical support in school. These objectives directed the formulation of research questions.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study was based on the Diffusion of Innovation Theory (DoI). The ICT use in teaching and learning is a fairly novel innovation in Kenya and in particular, Bungoma South sub-county, which lies in the western side of Kenya. According to Rogers (1995), one of the features that determine the level of adoption of any innovation in a given social system is its feasibility. In carrying out this study, the adoption analysis approach was used to examine the factors that influence ICT use in teaching and learning of English language. The focus was on the school as a social system with the school principals, teachers and students as members of the system.

This study isolated school and teachers as the main factors that may influence ICT integration in teaching and learning (Becta, 2004). Teacher related factors are: teacher's knowledge, skills, attitudes toward teaching using ICT, and experience among others. School factors include: management roles, technical support, motivation, school and government policies. These were viewed as the intervening variables. The figure below shows the variables in a conceptual framework.

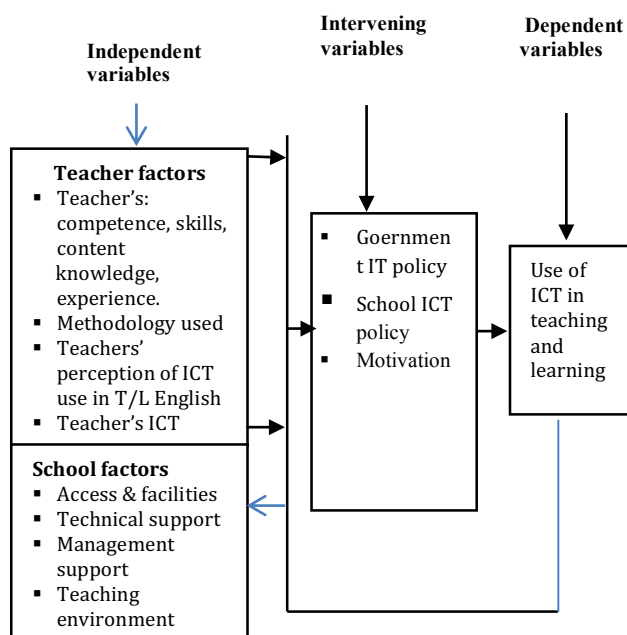


Figure 1: Conceptual framework. Source: Adapted from Maithya R. and Ndebu S. (2011)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Use of ICT in teaching and learning of English should embrace the functions of planning and preparation of suitable learning activities, and their implementation in the classroom. In this case planning for teaching entails preparation of ICT integrated schemes of work and lesson plans, identification and trying out of learning activities, teaching notes, equipment among others. A PowerPoint projector and a computer could be used to present information visually in the classroom. To allow a teaching/learning environment, students should collectively source for relevant items/ideas they consider important within their own life experiences. They then can construct understanding of their meanings and appropriate use from known to unknown. This mode of learning provides the basis for a communicative perspective on the process of teaching and learning. Communicative approach has particular value and relevance for understanding how teachers and learners can work together using computers (Laura, 2000).

There are teacher and institutional related factors that affect the use of ICT in teaching and learning (Maithya and Ndebu, 2011). Teacher factors include: educational level, gender, teacher attitudes towards use of ICT, teaching experience, ability to integrate technology in teaching, computer use competence and methodology used, all of which can influence an individual's adoption of innovation (Rodgers, 1995). These factors determine to a great extent the success or failure of ICT integration in education (Newhouse, 2002; Pelgrum, 2001; Mukwa and Wanjala, 2011; Drent and Meelissen, 2007). Institutional factors that determine the success of ICT integration in teaching and learning are associated with support given to teachers and students by the school management (Empirica, 2009 and Gomes, 2005). Motivation is a major factor in determining if stakeholders are going to embrace an innovation or not.

Data Collection

This study adopted a descriptive survey design. Data collection instruments were: an interview schedule, observation schedule, document analysis matrix and questionnaires. These are suitable instruments for collecting survey data (Orodho, 2003). The schools targeted were all government schools. The target population comprised 51 public secondary schools,

which were the total number of schools in the sub-county. The sample comprised eleven (11) schools that had had computers for at least three years. This represents 21.6% of the total number of schools. The schools were selected using a combination of purposive, stratified and random sampling techniques. Three hundred and eighty five (385) form three students (3rd grade in high school), 48 teachers and 11 school principals participated in the study.

It was imperative to avoid interrupting the normal running of the school during data collection. The researchers interviewed the school principal and administered a questionnaire to the teachers of English. Later they carried out document analyses which involved assessing: schemes of work, lesson plans and work books. The documents were inspected to find out if the teachers planned for teaching with ICT integration in mind. In addition, the department of Technical and applied subjects was also visited to assess and gather data on availability, condition and use of ICT facilities by teachers of English. It was also important to find out the role of ICT support staff.

The researchers then observed a live English language lesson, using the observation schedule. A questionnaire was administered to the students after the lesson. This procedure was followed in all the 11 sampled schools.

Data analyses

Data analyses started by analysing questionnaire data. The items had been designed to elicit information that would be used to respond to a given research objective. Data from interview schedule, observation and teaching documents were analysed, firstly, quantitatively then descriptively. data were coded and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. Descriptive statistics including percentages, means, and frequency counts were employed in the analysis. These are the most commonly used methods of analysing data in qualitative research.

Research findings

Teacher **gender** was a variable to be investigated. Does gender influence choice of resources in teaching? Research results indicated that the number of female teachers of English is slightly lower (44%) than that of males (56%).

Teachers' **professional qualifications** indicate that all teachers of English in the sampled schools are professionally qualified, with 75% having Bachelor in Education (B.Ed.) degree and 18.8% having a Master of Education (M.Ed.) degree. Popoola (2014) states that higher education qualifications positively influence the tendency to wish to use ICT facilities in the language classrooms.

Teachers' teaching **experience** was of interest in this study. There was need to find out if experience had an influence in accepting an innovation. Five years were considered enough experience for teachers.

The results showed that the majority of teachers (68.75%) had experiences of more than 5 years. Long experience of teaching a particular subject is important because it normally gives teachers confidence and contributes to good mastery of the content. This variable was of interest in this study.

Teachers were asked to indicate their experience in **use of computers** in one form or another. The findings are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Teachers' experience in using computers

Experience	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative %
None	10	21	21
One year	3	6	27
1-2 years	4	8	35
3 to 4 years	8	17	52
5 years and above	23	48	100
Total	48	100	100

The above data shows that although all the sampled schools have computers, some of the teachers (21%) have not used them for educational purposes. However, the majority (48%) had interacted with computers for five or more years. There was need to identify the nature of the interaction.

To be able to use computers for educational purposes, there is need for **training** on their usage. Skills development is considered important, for teachers to feel confident in integrating technology in teaching. Information on whether or not teachers have had some training on computer use was sought. The findings indicated that a sizeable proportion (75%) of the teachers in the sampled schools have been trained on use of computers. However, the main interest was training specifically in **ICT integration**. Such training is said to be effective if teachers are able to use ICT in the classroom to teach English. The study showed that only a small proportion (29%) of teachers have been trained on how to integrate ICT in the teaching and learning of English, as compared to 71% that has not. This is due to the fact that there is no structured continuous professional development programme for teachers of English language.

The study also wanted to get **views from students** on use of ICT in teaching English. Form three was the main focus as it is the level just before the final year I (Form 4) when students sit for the final national examinations that determine those who qualify to go to the university. A total of 385 students from 11 secondary schools took part in the study. Out of these, 190 (49%) were girls and 195 (51%) were boys. This proportion, which reflects the population of form three students by gender in the sub-county, suggests that there is almost gender parity among students enrolled in secondary schools. There was also need to find out **students' experiences** in terms of the number of hours they used computers for various reasons. Data showed that 79% of the students have used computers as compared to only 21.0% that have never. A small percentage (11%) indicated that they have used computers for more than five years. This could mean that they began interacting with computers even before joining secondary school, probably at home or cybercafé for those who can afford. The fact that 21% of the students have never handled computers could mean lack of proper policies in some schools that should ensure access to computers by every student.

In relation to use of computers, the issue of using the **internet** for educational purposes was also of interest. Internet is one of the inventions that has completely revolutionized communication, access to information and entertainment. The students were required to indicate how long they have been using the internet for whatever purpose. The findings indicate that slightly above half (59%) of the students have used internet while the rest have not. This proportion is lower than that of those who have interacted with computers (79%). This means there are a few computers available for use by students but internet connectivity is lacking. This scenario indicates that many facilities are not accessible to students and are mainly for use by teachers and administrators of the school.

The study was also interested in the **roles school principals** play in the promotion of ICT integration in teaching and learning. To establish the support given to teachers and students of English, information was sought from eleven school principals through face-to-face interviews. **Gender** difference was of interest in getting diverse views. Out of the 11 principals who participated in the study, six were female and five were male. This suggests that there is almost equal gender equality when it comes to headship of secondary schools.

Effectiveness and efficiency of a school principal in managing a school depend to a large extent on his or her **work experience**, as leadership skills are gained over time. With regard to this, each Principal was asked to indicate years of service. The study showed that 81.8% of them had working experience of 5 years or more. Long working experience is good especially where difficult decisions have to be made, and in articulating education policies.

The principals were also required to state whether or not they had attended any formal **training** in computer and ICT use. This is considered important because a principal who is computer literate could easily use knowledge and skills gained to guide teachers on the same. The findings showed that a large proportion of principals: 9 out of 11 (82%) had been trained. The training was conducted by different institutions that included: Kenya Education Management Institute and Center for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in Africa. The remaining 18% of the teachers have learned how to use computers, through their own initiatives, albeit with difficulties.

Management support refers to the assistance given by the school principal and the entire administration to teachers and students. It is important because it is at this level where decisions on implementation of new policies such as adopting new educational innovations are made. **Technical support** is the assistance that should be given to both teachers and students to make teaching and learning easy. This support is equally important in order to address technical challenges that may occur during teaching.

Information on school management and technical support was sought through interviewing the Principal, and student's questionnaire. Teachers and students were required to indicate the extent to which they experienced certain challenges with regard to use of ICT in the teaching/learning of English. In addition, they were required to state the hours per week they could access the computers.

There was need to find out the **number of hours** staff and students were able to access the computer. The more time allowed the better the exposure and experience. In turn it could affect positively the adoption rate of ICT in the schools. Most of the students (52.73%), just like the teachers (56.3%) access computers for less than one hour per week, i.e. during one of the 40 minutes English language lessons. In addition, 33.3% and 32.47% of teachers and students respectively have no access to the few computers available. This clearly indicated that a serious challenge existed, that could affect ICT uptake in schools. According to Sicilia (2005), teachers take much more time to design projects that include the use of ICT technology, than when they prepare traditional lessons. Probably, the extra effort required to integrate technology in teaching had acted as a hindrance in having many more teachers embrace use of technology.

A previous survey was carried out from 1998 to 1999, which assessed the World Links schools' programme. The biggest barriers to the use of computers identified by teachers participating in the survey were: lack of time in their classes, and in their own schedules for planning (Kozma et al., 2004). A sizeable proportion (33%) of the teachers hardly accessed computers.

This means, either they were not interested or the schools had not put in place mechanisms to mainstream ICT integration in teaching and learning.

In this study, it was found out that there was inadequate equipment for each individual. For example, the ratio at which students shared computers was 1:3. This meant it was difficult for the teacher to give student's individual attention to address personal challenges. Other challenges were: inadequate ICT accompanying tools like printers. There was also slow internet access, which was found in designated hot spots.

The study also revealed that the majority of the teachers (95.8%) teach between 20 and 24 lessons per week. This is below the 27 lessons per week recommended by their employer: Teachers Service Commission (TSC). This work load was considered moderate according to Kenyan standards. Teachers would, therefore, be expected to take advantage of a lighter workload to learn ICT skills and plan for integration. However, this was not the case, which may be attributed to lack of interest or inadequate ICT facilities or lack of skills to integrate ICT in the teaching among other reasons.

Information on **support** given to teachers and students by school principals in their endeavor to use ICT, was obtained through face-to-face interviews. A total of eleven (11) school principals were interviewed. The results showed that all the school principals (100%) had made an effort to provide ICT resources although the facilities were still inadequate. A sizeable proportion of school principals (46%) have put mechanisms in place to allow teachers and students who are not taking computer studies as a subject, to access ICT facilities. The majority of the school principals (91%) had computer teachers employed by either TSC or Board of the school management. Computer teachers come in handy in assisting other teachers on technical issues. Only 18% of the school principals had personally taken some initiative to have their teachers trained on how to integrate ICT in teaching. From these findings, one can conclude that the principals are making quite an effort to promote ICT in general and its integration in the teaching of English language, despite the challenges schools experience.

CONCLUSIONS

Alfred Mercier said, "What we learn with pleasure, we never forget," when he was giving a lecture at the British school in Tokyo in November 2011. Using ICTs is expected to be pleasurable, which means what is learnt has a higher chance of retention. In today's world of emerging trends in technology, everything is flexible, especially the teaching of English language. Methods of teaching English have developed rapidly over the past thirty years. So it is important that language teachers and learners adopt and understand the various current techniques of language teaching and upgrade themselves of the same. Teachers of English at various grade levels must also be able to adapt themselves to the needs of the young minds and how this in turn will help to bring about drastic changes in the society.

This study revealed the following: ICT was mainly used for producing lesson planning tools such as lesson plans and schemes of work. ICT use during lesson delivery was minimal, partly due to lack of ICT skills since most teachers had no or minimal knowledge on how to integrate ICT in teaching and learning. Use of technology has been seen to be more beneficial to both the learners and teachers, when it is made use of during lesson planning, lesson delivery and in assessment. School's management support to the teachers and students in use of ICT was moderate. Most school principals made an effort of acquiring some ICT tools. However, it turned out that they were inadequate and their usage was limited. Others like video and digital cameras were missing in some cases. Internet access was missing in some cases and where available, access was sometimes intermittent, and yet, all these are important in facilitating ICT

integration. For ICT to be successfully integrated in teaching/learning, there should be total support by the school principal and the entire administration (Yee, 2000).

The findings of this study are significant as they inform education stakeholders the status of ICT integration in schools, which is a recommendation by the government. With such information, they would be able to make informed decisions on provision and maintenance of such facilities. The findings would also help schools management to formulate policies to address the challenges.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study recommends that school managers and other stakeholders should provide more facilities especially computers, Internet, LCD projectors, digital and video cameras that are key in successful implementation of technology-based lessons. Internet access is vital in this endeavor. There should be structured continuous professional development programs to build capacity of teachers of English in ICT integration into their teaching. Feasible ICT school policies should be put in place to spearhead ICT uptake into classroom instruction. The Ministry of Education should step in and ensure the required equipment, facilities and skills are present in the schools.

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Using COHA to Explore the Usage of Accounting

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ABSTRACT

Accounting is a significant discipline in social science. This paper sets out to investigate the matching strings of *accounting* by examining a 400-million-word Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), enabling us to have better understanding about how *accounting* has gone through three processes and evolved into a discipline. The results show that 1) the frequency of *accounting* follows an upward but a little fluctuating trend from 1810s to 2000s; 2) in 1810s-1890s, *accounting* was in its infancy, the major searching results of COHA reveals a high frequency of the expression “accounting for”, which has little connection with a discipline; 3) in 1900s-1940s, the usage of *accounting* has become enriched, with a large number of diversified expressions like “the system of accounting, the accounting division, the accounting department, financial accounting” are quite common in COHA; 4) in 1950s-2000s, *accounting* has gradually been regarded as a discipline: students start to learn accounting lessons or major in accounting.

Keywords: Accounting, Matching string, the Corpus of Historical American English (COHA)

INTRODUCTION

Different organizations or textbooks define accounting in a slightly different ways: “Accounting is an information system that measures, processes, and communicates financial information about a business.” (Needles, Powers & Crosson 2012: 2). International Accounting Standard (IAS) defines *accounting* in more detail, that as “a service activity, whose function is to provide quantitative information, primarily financial in nature, about economic entities that is intended to be useful in making economic decisions, in making reasoned choices among alternative courses of action”.

Even though the modern field of *accounting* was established by the Italian mathematician Luca Pacioli in 1494, *accounting* has gone through a lot to transform into a discipline of social science we are now familiar today. The time when George O. May and his team dedicated to their Institute-sponsored “Search for Accounting Principles” in the early 1930s in the United States, which is described by Storey (1964), and Bell (2010: 343) even commented that “In a sense these men were early seekers of a conceptual framework for accounting.”, from which we can infer that the accounting system was not been well built in 1930s.

In view of the significance of *accounting* as a discipline and driven by the curiosity of finding out the usage changes of *accounting*, this paper thus aims to explore the usage of *accounting* by using authentic data from the Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), containing 400 million words in more than 100,000 texts which date from the 1810s to the 2000s.

RELATED STUDIES

“Accounting history is a growing and influential field of studying.” (Carnegie & Potter 2000:178)

Miller, Hopper & Laughlin (1991: 395) discusses the significant change of accounting history over the last decade, entailing both a pluralization of the methodologies and a change in the position of history within the discipline of *accounting*, which entitle us to speak of the “new accounting history” as a loose assemblage of diverse research questions and issues.

The study of Carnegie & Porter (2000) not only surveys publishing patterns in the three specialists, inter-nationally refereed, accounting history journals in the English language during the period 1996 to 1999, but also provides a promising guide for scholars working on accounting history, i.e., “1) perform a similar analysis on a larger sample that would also capture the discipline in general accounting journals, as well as in sociological, interpretative, and critical journals; 2) research might elucidate why historical researchers located in different countries are prone to publish their outputs in locally based journals and whether this inclination is, in any way, linked to perceptions of journal quality; 3) delve further into the reasons for a broad focus in accounting history on the 19th and 20th centuries, and why certain categories of research remain totally or virtually ignored.” (Carnegie & Potter 2000:196-197), which has stimulated numerous studies:

“The prestige of individual journals (using peer review and citation indices to produce rankings of leading journals); analysis of contributors, to measure individual and institutional productivity; quality of doctoral programmes; factors contributing to published research; measures of research productivity; time-delay in doctoral productivity; bibliometric distributions; promotion; realistic research expectations; origin of research, data and journal; and finance professors’ research standards.” are the themes in prior studies of the general accounting literature summarized by Jones & Roberts (2000: 1) .

Concerning the researchers of major accounting history researches, Carmona (2002: 3) shares a unique cut-in perspective and points out straightly, “everyone knows that Anglo-Saxon scholars dominate research published in ‘international’ journals.” Meanwhile, Carmona (2002: 1) strongly appeals that “accounting history research would gain in strength if other scholars, settings, and periods of study were added to those regularly reflected in ‘international’ journals. I contend that such broadening of the discipline represents the most important challenge for accounting historians in the years to come.”

The development of accounting as a discipline is a tough process. Unlike Whittington (1986) has recently likened accounting thought historically to layers of geological strata and surveyed these strata, category by category, Bell (2010: 340) views the strata as a whole—“in the way they mesh together, and how the resulting land can be made more useful to society as a source of minerals and timber and as a place for back-packing.” Driven by such perception, Bell (2010: 343) regards the team searching for accounting principles in the early 1930s as, “early seekers of a conceptual framework for accounting” and summarizes two ways establishing accounting principles of May’s team: 1) an approach wherein principles would be based on “what is”—on simply codifying existing practice, which is termed an “empirical inductive approach” by Whittington (1986); 2) a more dramatic deductive approach to the establishment of principles, based on finding, through logic and right reason, a set of fundamental truths for accounting - notions that would not evolve with time.

“The year 1968 can be thought of as an important dividing year in accounting thought” (Bell 2010: 346), as three significant studies help guide new orientation of accounting:

Feltham (1968) is the first of the three revolutionary studies, pointing to the need for broadening the information context of accounting and for developing a rigorous notion of Information Theory toward this end if accounting was to be useful in the decision making process. Moreover, the evaluation function of information, particularly in the managerial

sphere, is highly emphasized. One of the two new categories of information Feltham saw as being needed was anticipatory data, as opposed to data in the past. Building on the study of Feltham, Beaver, Kennelly & Voss (1968) goes deeper: They believe that accounting must concern itself primarily with *ex ante* information which is useful for purposes of prediction. "Only then can accounting serve decision making needs, since decisions are inevitably based on estimates about the future. The emphasis was on prediction *per se*, rather than on forecasts and evaluation of those forecasts." (Bell 2010: 347) And the third crucial study is Ball & Brown (1968), suggesting that the usefulness of accounting information might be empirically determined by ascertaining whether security markets reacted to publication of the data.

Even though abundant studies focusing on the history of accounting and how *accounting* gradually develops into a discipline of social science have been well conducted, there's still a lack of researches using corpus methods to explore the matching strings of *accounting*, which turns out to be the aim of this study, identify *accounting* in COHA to find out the changes of *accounting* from authentic data.

METHOD

Corpus Data: COHA

The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA) contains 400 million words in more than 100,000 texts which date from the 1810s to the 2000s. The corpus contains texts from fiction, popular magazines, newspapers and non-fiction books, and is balanced by genre from decade to decade. It has been carefully lemmatized and tagged for part-of-speech, and uses the same architecture as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), BYU-BNC, the TIME Corpus and other corpora. What's more, COHA allows for a wide range of research on changes in lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics, and American culture and society (as viewed through language change), in ways that are probably not possible with any text archive (e.g., Google Books) or any other corpus of historical American English. (Davies 2012: 121)

Davies (2012: 122) points out that "COHA differs from all other corpora of historical English in that it is quite large – 100 times larger than any other structured corpus. But it is also well balanced by genre and sub-genre in each decade, and it has been carefully lemmatized and tagged for part-of-speech. As we will see, the unique balance of size, genre and corpus architecture with COHA results in a resource that allows us to carry out research on many types of language change – lexical, morphological, syntax and semantic – that could not be studied otherwise. As a result, it significantly expands our horizons about what can be done with historical corpora, when we no longer operate within the artificial constraints of small one- to five-million word corpora."

Analytical Procedure

The present study follows three steps: search the word *accounting* in COHA (Step 1); interpret the searching result of *accounting* in COHA (Step 2).

Firstly, to search the word of *accounting* in COHA, we need to click the "List" button as Figure 1 indicates.

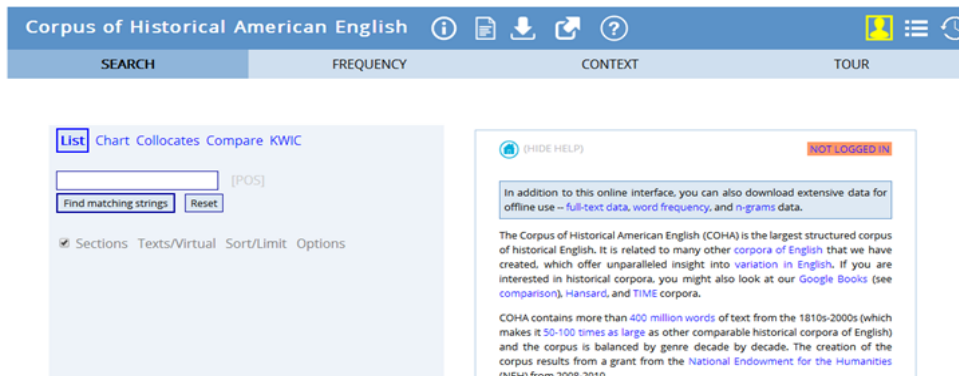


Figure 1. Enter the page of searching for “List”

After entering the page of searching for list, input *accounting* and click on “Find matching strings” as Figure 2 indicates.

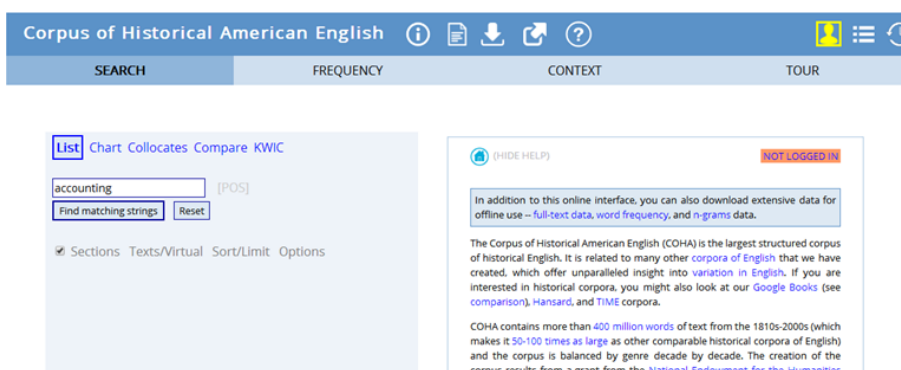


Figure 2. Input *accounting* and find matching strings

The results will be shown as Figure 3 presents.

SEE CONTEXT: CLICK ON WORD (ALL SECTIONS), NUMBER (ONE SECTION), OR [CONTEXT] (SELECT) [HELP..]																						
	CONTEXT	ALL	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
1	ACCOUNTING	3303		30	37	40	49	27	45	55	50	73	106	144	324	138	191	215	320	432	434	593

Figure 3. Output of the matching strings of *accounting*

Secondly, interpret the searching results of the matching strings of *accounting* from Figure 3. The table heading represents time, from 1810s to 2000s, and the content shown below each year is the frequency of *accounting*. “ALL” refers to the total frequency of *accounting* in COHA is 3,303, and there shows zero frequency in 1810s.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Frequency Trend of Accounting in COHA

Figure 4 reveals a frequency trend of *accounting* in COHA:

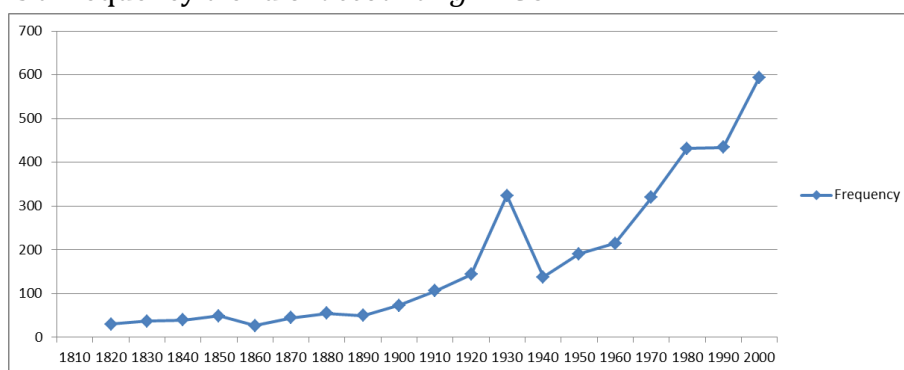


Figure 4. Trend of frequency of *accounting* in COHA

Figure 4 shows the frequency of *accounting* follows an upward but a little fluctuating trend from 1810s to 2000s, the year 1930 seems to be a dividing year, as George O. May and his team dedicated to their Institute-sponsored “Search for Accounting Principles” in the early 1930s in the United States, which is described by Storey (1964), and Bell (2010: 343) even commented that “In a sense these men were early seekers of a conceptual framework for accounting.”

The First Stage of the Usage of Accounting: 1810s-1890s

When *accounting* first occurred in 1820s, it was mostly collocated with “for”, making up the phrase of “accounting for”, which has nothing to do with the *accounting* as a disciplinary we now understand (example 1-2). Whilst in the contexts of 1830s, “accounting officer” has been mentioned for several times, which usually stands for the financial executive of government in USA, whose right is just lower-grade than that of mayor. Another thing is also worth our attention: even though the expression of accounting officer is scratched from the contexts of 1830s, accounting officer appeared earlier than 1830s, as “But from this sum, ascertained and admitted to be due by the United States, the accounting officers of the Treasury deducted the sum of one million of livres, with interest from the 10th of June, 1776.” this piece of information indicates. Nonetheless, whenever this profession appeared for the very first time, the usage of *accounting* is still a little far from our perception today.

- (1) To-day the course of the river has been a little south of west: its windings are very frequent and sudden, fully *accounting for* the apparent heights of the floods, of which marks were observed about thirty-six feet above the level of the stream. At six o'clock the boats had not arrived; and as I had given directions on no account to attempt to proceed after dark, I ceased to expect them this evening. (COHA_1820_NF_Journals of Two Expeditions into the Interior of New South Wales)
- (2) There is indeed another way of *accounting for* this blind and deceptive statement we have been examining. (COHA_1827_NF_Journals of Two Expeditions into the Interior of New South Wales)
- (3) The United States, by their *accounting officers*, then acknowledged a balance due to the estate of Caron de Beaumarchais of two million seven hundred thousand livres, or about half a million of dollars. This debt was for the supplies furnished by Beaumarchais, and admitted never to have been paid for, by the United States. But from this sum, ascertained and admitted to be due by the United States, the *accounting officers* of the Treasury deducted the sum of one million of livres, with interest from the 10th of June, 1776. (COHA_1831_MAG_Diplomatic Correspondence of the Revolution)

Even though the frequency of *accounting* has shown an increasing trend from 1820s-1850s, the *accounting* shown in the context of these years did not reveal any sign of getting closer to today's *accounting*, some even reflects going backwards, as example (4) indicates. Moreover, example (5) and (6) hold the same expression as the example (3).

- (4) That catalogue doubtless we all have memoriter. I leave out the Philistine phalanx of editors, *accounting* them rather our debtors than creditors. (COHA_1846_FIC_The miscellaneous writings)
- (5) They never remit their exertions, and never despair; for experience has taught them, that some time or other, chance, management or good fortune will befriend them; and that a new Secretary, a new *accounting officer*, or a new Congress, a thin House, or a last night's Session, will at length reward their labor and perseverance. Like the King of England, a claim never dies. (COHA_1850_MAG_Military Presidents)
- (6) An adroit system of accountability was established by which no property return, abstract of issues, account current, or voucher, was understood to mean what it expressed upon its face, so that no *accounting officer* possessing a clew to the policy adopted could be deceived by the figures. (COHA_1861_MAG_Coast Rangers of California)

From 1870s to 1890s, the main matching strings of *accounting* remain almost the same as that of 1850s-1860s, as example (7) to (9) presents.

- (7) The story of Butler's perfidy and the manner in which it was disclosed form an interesting narrative which has hitherto been untold. The suit of Messrs. Childs and Southern, which has resulted in making public the facts connected with Butler's venality, was begun in the Supreme Court in this City for the purpose of having an *accounting* in regard to the venture in South Carolina bonds which has been referred to. (COHA_1878_NEWS_NYT-Reg)
- (8) The result of this not infrequent clash of authority between the administrative and the *accounting officers* is that the Agent or his bondsmen suffer. The Agent, being advised of the disallowance at the Treasury of items in his accounts which had been fully authorized by his superiors, very naturally ignores the demand of the *Accounting Officers* that he deposit money to make his accounts good. (COHA_1887_MAG_Administrative Difficulties of the Indian Problem)
- (9) As matter of general law, it is believed that, within the United States, even where the sale of lottery tickets is not made a criminal offense, it is at least an act not sanctioned; and lottery managers could not support against each other an action for *an accounting* in respect to their demoralizing gains any more than could thimble-riggers or associated prostitutes. (COHA_1892_MAG_Federal Taxation of Lotteries)

The Second Stage of the Usage of Accounting: 1900s-1940s

When entering 1900s, the usage of *accounting* has shown great changes. These expressions, including the system of accounting, the accounting division, the accounting department, and major branches as financial accounting have been well-established as example (10)-(15) displays. Moreover, people even start to have troubles if without daily accounting (example 16).

- (10) The new president finds also that nearly every detail of administration must be submitted to his faculty for its approval. If the manager of a railroad desires to increase the speed of his trains or to make other changes in the time schedule, or change a curve or establish new grades, or improve the rolling stock, or set new requirements for entering the service of the company or for continuing in the same, or improve *the system of accounting*, he very properly consults those who are most directly interested in the particular matter in hand; but he is not bound by the advice given, much less is he

compelled to call a mass meeting of all employees and abide by a majority vote. (COHA_1900_MAG_Federal Taxation of Lotteries)

- (11) Theoretically, every intelligent farmer believes in the value of a good system of *bookkeeping and accounting*, but nine out of ten of these same intelligent farmers find it an extremely difficult thing to do. Why not put accounts on a community basis? The community accountant might be an employee of a local bank or the business agent of the local cooperative system, or a farmer's daughter who has the training and the time. Rules safeguarding the privacy of accounts could easily be made. (COHA_1919_NF_The Farmer and the New Day)
- (12) Its *accounting division*, in particular, ought now to be laying securely the foundations of the future rate structure, but it will not be allowed to do so if its work is transferred to untrained accountants outside the commission, as was proposed in the notorious confidential memorandum of last summer and as has been urged by the commission's executive secretary. (COHA_1929_MAG_Editorial Paragraphs)
- (13) Mr. Smith, a mild-mannered man with thinning hair who works in the *accounting department*, got together with Stanley for a drink after banking hours and told him about the corporation. (COHA_1939_MAG_Talk of the Town)
- (14) Soon they began to demand a *financial accounting* from Dean Russell, charging that the college had saddled their school with excessive "service" charges, had compelled it to provide free tuition for T. C. faculty members' children, had thus created an artificial deficit. Horace Mann, they reminded Dr. Russell, was a year older than T. C. itself, had in fact fathered the college. (COHA_1940_NEWS_“Murder!”)
- (15) This is quite in agreement with the spirit of the Czechoslovak nationalization law which aims at the creation of economically sound units based on the principles of *business accounting*. (COHA_1946_NEWS_Letters)
- (16) Why, in one 14-month period, had Roy E. Livingston, union treasurer, been paid \$4,400 and Irving \$3,800 for "overtime"? Why, in approximately the same period, had \$16,762 been paid to "cash" without *accounting*? Why had the union's bank balance dropped by \$37,000 in five months? (COHA_1949_MAG_Trouble at Home)

The Third Stage of the Usage of Accounting: 1950s-2000s

The concept of *accounting* goes stable gradually. *Accounting* has been regarded as a discipline: many students begin to major in accounting, or learn accounting lessons and when they graduate, they choose to be an accountant and thus work in the accounting firm (example 17-25). *Accounting* has been a term with almost fixed meaning, "Accounting is an information system that measures, processes, and communicates financial information about a business." (Needles, Powers & Crosson 2012: 2)

- (17) Lucky I took the course in *accounting* at college. It was something to which to hold tight. I had to work or I would have been dropped from the class. I was determined to be trained for a job in case the bottom fell out of the oil holdings completely. (COHA_1950_FIC_To love and to honor)
- (18) He must learn *accounting* and management as well as marketing. He must learn the geography of the country until he knew it as he knew the palm of his own hands, so that he could see what harvests could be expected from every part of it. (COHA_1951_FIC_God's Men)
- (19) "I understand *Accounting* is going to bill you for the prorated extra labor cost on those four banged-up jobs," the quality-control man said. (COHA_1957_FIC_On the Line)
- (20) After a lively term as dean of social sciences at the University of Chicago from 1931 to 1933. Ruml became treasurer of Macy's, overhauled its *accounting* system. (COHA_1960_MAG_[Milestones])

- (21) The Communications Act of 1934 does give the commission considerable indirect regulatory influence within state jurisdictions by enabling it to establish *accounting* procedures and to allocate for rate-making purposes capital and costs involving both interstate and intrastate service. (COHA_1967_MAG_Who Will Bell the Colossus?)
- (22) The study, conducted by the *accounting* firm of Arthur Andersen, was a significant measure of the actual financial impact of regulation as experienced by companies. (COHA_1979_MAG_Expensive Rules)
- (23) In the cold blast of air that accompanied Michael's departure, Martin emptied the last of the whiskey. He didn't understand the high *accounting* of a professional. (COHA_1989_FIC_ Fine Line)
- (24) The General *Accounting* Office and Congressional Budget Office suggest one or more of the three programs could safely be delayed or canceled without any damage to U.S. security. (COHA_1998_MAG_First, the bad news)
- (25) At the time, I couldn't imagine saying good-bye to Toby, to my friends at the *accounting firm* where I worked, to our fieldstone house overlooking the lake, to the small, Wisconsin town where I'd been raised. (COHA_2006_FIC_Blue water)

CONCLUSION

So far, we have studied the matching strings of *accounting* in COHA. The changing process of *accounting* from a phrase appearing in the form of “accounting for” to today’s discipline can be summarized as Table 1 displays.

Table 1. Accounting in COHA from 1810s to 2000s

Time	Process	Examples
1810s-1890s	infancy	accounting for, accounting officer
1900s-1940s	growth	the system of accounting, the accounting division, the accounting department, financial accounting
1950s-2000s	maturity	major in Accounting; work in an accounting firm

As Table 1 suggests, in 1810s-1890s, *accounting* was in its infancy, the major searching results of COHA shows high frequency of the expression “accounting for”, which has nothing to do with a discipline. While in 1900s-1940s, the usage of *accounting* has enriched greatly, expressions like “the system of accounting, the accounting division, the accounting department, financial accounting” are quite common in COHA. When entering 1950s, *accounting* has gradually been regarded as a discipline: as students has started to take accounting lessons and even majored in accounting.

Accounting is a significant discipline in social science. This paper has set out to investigate the matching strings of *accounting* by examining a 400-million-word Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), enabling us to have better understanding about how *accounting* has gone through three processes and evolved into a discipline.

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Rural Development Strategies Through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* Policy (A Study In Cimrutu Village Cilacap Regency)

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ABSTRACT

Village is a benchmark point of national development, both physical development and the whole human development. It also prevails for regional government of Cilacap Regency in order to regional development that is conducted through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* (proud to build the village) policy where regional development starts from the villages. The existence of Cimrutu Village, which is the youngest village in Patimuan Sub-district Cilacap Regency, makes the regional government of Cilacap Regency to be more sensitive in preparing rural development strategies since, in reality, the villagers of Cimrutu Village just felt the development in 2016-2017. The study was conducted to find out the rural development strategies through Regent Regulation No. 76/2011 on *Bangga Mbangun Desa*. The strategy had been implemented since 2011 but the basic development in the village was felt by the villagers only in early 2017. Through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, the research aimed to analyze rural development strategies of Cimrutu Village that impacted the rural community self-reliance and gave stimulants to facilitate the community to be independent. Methodology used was descriptive with qualitative approach. Data collection methods used were observation, interview, and documentation. The research result indicates that rural development village in Cimrutu Village had a very slow development direction. *First*, regarding education pillar, villagers of Cimrutu Village had low awareness on the importance of education. It was proven by the small amount of the villagers aged 18-30 who completed secondary level education (senior high school). *Second*, regarding economic pillar, there was less competitiveness in local economic products and less optimal of agricultural infrastructures and facilities for the villagers. *Third*, regarding health pillar, it had directed to a better percentage in national health level due to the adequate health facility level and the low maternal and children mortality. However, in terms of clean water availability, the management was less optimal. *Fourth*, regarding socio-cultural environmental pillar, there were many infrastructures that were in bad condition either district roads or villager roads.

Keywords: Rural Development Strategies, *Bangga Mbangun Desa* Policy, Community

INTRODUCTION

Village is the pioneer of political community and government establishment in Indonesia long before the state is established. Village-like social structure, traditional community and so on become a social institution that has a very important position (Widjaja, 2003:4). However, despite the important position, village had been disappointed since it was not recognized and

respected, and its existence was weakened as stated in Law No. 5/1979. However, there is good news for the village with the issuance of Law No. 22/1999 since village restoration became the central issue in village study and advocacy. Currently, as mandated in Law No. 6/2014 on village, it has directed to improve the prosperity and life quality of rural community¹ to support the survival of the village community through village autonomy. Through village autonomy, the government gives vast space in a more real development planning and the community is no longer burdened by working programs from institutions or the government.

It has been stated previously in the dynamics of legal basis change about village that in order to develop a village, the central government as well as regional government need only to prioritize the basic needs of rural community, remove social gap in village level, and not abandoning the original and upheld values. In regional development, each region has different development priorities. Cilacap Regency Government, however, starts their area development from the villages. Central government programs of PNPM (National Program for Community Empowerment) of rural areas and KSBM (community-based social order) are the realization form of the regional government as the representative of central government. The programs are made as the priority programs by the Cilacap Regency government as the form of government attention to the societies so that they could be independent without migrating to the cities.

Cilacap Regency has an amazing potential to be developed in agricultural, plantation, marine, and tourism sectors. Surely it will need the right breakthroughs and strategies to develop the existing potential thus it able to increase the welfare of Cilacap Regency community² Todaro and Smith explained that in local development, village community could rely on the available natural resources in a thoughtful way thus self-reliance can be achieved without changing the real condition of the village, the life pattern of the rural community, and its environment (in Lincoln et al., 2011:14). Regent Regulation No. 76/2011 on *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy explains that village is the priority in the development to improve service in education, and health, as well as village facilities and infrastructures: regional revenue increased stands with the community and people's economy empowerment³.

Cilacap Regency government policies as well as the government of Central Java Province slogan are the government efforts to reduce gap between rural and urban areas. Further, the acceleration of self-reliance village development is conducted as well as the development of local economic linkage between rural and urban areas through rural area development. *Bangga Mbangun Desa* movement has priorities of 4 (four) main pillars, namely: a) Education, b) Health, c) Economy, and d) Socio-cultural environment. With hard working, the Cilacap Regency government is optimistic that the policies can be applied in the villages, especially underdeveloped villages. The big project in *Bangga Mbangun Desa* (BMD) policy is realizing rural community welfare. In addition, there should be cooperation between villages in Cilacap Regency. The cooperation is "cooperation between villages to improve public services, and development effectiveness and efficiency and fight for common interest among the villages towards the "village upper level" government (Kusumantono, 2011:140).

¹ See in Article 2-4 Law no. 06/2014 on Village, it explains in detail the interpretation of village development, village arrangement, and village community welfare.

² Sukardi, Karsim. 2017. "Analysis of Coconut Sugar Business in Karang Sari Village Adipala Sub-district Cilacap Regency". Wijayakusuma University, Purwokerto. *Majalah Ilmiah Ekonomi* Vol 20 Nomor 1.

³ In Regent Regulation No. 76/2011 on *Bangga Mbangun Desa* Policy

Development strategy in Cimrutu Village could be studied through 5 (five) elements, as stated by Todaro and Smith, namely: Need Oriented; Endogenous in nature; self-reliance; ecologically-sound; Structural Transformation (Lincoln, dkk. 2011: 13-14).

Referring to inter-villages cooperation, village development strategy offered by the Cilacap Regency government will be quickly realized. In reality, however, *Bangga Mbangun Desa* (BMD) policy is still not felt by the village community in Cilacap Regency. In addition to the community, the low education level, and less optimal health care, there are various issues occurred in Cilacap Regency, especially those related to the four main pillars: a) Education, b) Health, c) Economy, and d) Socio-cultural environment. In the concept or notion level, the policy seems easy to implement.

However, in its development, the concept becomes important to be followed up with the government development strategy concept in regional up to the village levels. It is because, so far, various issues occur in the implementation of *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy in Cimrutu Village, especially related to the four pillars. First, related to Basic Need Oriented element, there are several issues, such as, less distributed clean water and a small amount of rice field irrigation in Cemrutu Village. In 2016, up to 500 (five hundred) rice field plots were not cultivated since there was no water irrigation supply⁴. *Second*, endogenous in nature, which is the activities in rural development strategies occur in the soul of the rural community itself. If we look at the Cimrutu villagers condition, they are less responsive towards problems occurred in their village. In this case, BMD (village council) should direct and supervise the endogenous activities for the society. Therefore, in principle, BMD plays role as a supervisor only. *Third*, self-reliance element of development strategy, in this case the villagers rely on environment, natural condition, and pure social adaptation. Dualism regulation should no longer exist in regional government level to village government level; therefore, there will be no differences in treatment to the villagers. It can be seen in the village fund allocation (Alokasi Dana Desa/ADD) for each village where other regulations seem meaningless and regional government pays less attention on the needs of rural community who still rely on pure natural condition. *Fourth*, based on Ecologically-sound element, as stated by Cilacap Regent, *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy is a policy oriented to the fostering of all natural potentials in the villages. For Cimrutu Village itself, they are relying on agriculture only. However, not all farmers could have two harvest periods. It is related to the limited freshwater supply to neutralize the rice field and to prevent rice plants death due to high salinity. *Fifth*, regarding the structural-transformation element in development strategy offered by the district head through Regent Regulation No. 76/2011, the Regent was very optimistic with the program. The regent is targeting young generation; however, many of them have no awareness on the program, especially those related to the young people in Cemrutu Village. There are many young people in the village conduct urbanization and even participate in transmigration program.

Based on the background, rural development strategy is an urgent need and it should be addressed and realized immediately through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy. It means that, rural development strategy through the policy is not just a theory and concept, in which it is understandable in regional government level but cannot be realized in the village. In other words, the strategy is understood by the region and Cilacap Regency's SKPD (regional work

⁴ "The coordination result of field extension officers in Patimuan Subdistrict stated that limited irrigation channel is an obstacle in brackish water rice development not only in Cemrutu Village but also in other villages, such as Bulupayung, Rawa Apu dan Purwodadi" quoted from <https://kompas.com//jawa>

unit) and realized in its rank but the community has no awareness regarding rural development strategy implemented by the regional government.

The writing is not trying to explore regional government roles in policy making but to analyze how rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy with its five elements as stated by Todaro and Smith in local-based development strategy requirements: 1. Basic Need Oriented 2. Endogenous in nature 3. Self-reliance 4. Ecologically-sound and 5. Structural-transformation can be successful along with the support from regional government and the participation of Desa Cimrutu villagers in village development that able to fulfill their basic needs.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY THROUGH *BANGGA MBANGUN DESA* POLICY

Village build or village development has no legal protection since it is not part of national agenda in *Rencana Pemerintah Jangka Menengah Nasional (RPJMN)* (National Medium-Term Development Plan); however, the program enters to the village through community empowerment program. Village is a state miniature. If a country wants to move forward, they need to regulate the village first. Therefore, the government should give attention, time, expertise and enough funds to conduct the development in all fields (Siagan, 198170). It means encouraging rural development by providing space for the region and developing rural government's local potentials by learning from old era villages. Further, if village building concept runs properly, potentials and challenges occur that need to be faced by the village, either as a government sub-system or as social sub-system. It is in line with Saragi stating that the predominate challenges for village institution are:

1. Support to generate community-based local institution
2. Develop new leaders
3. Strongly put villages as an integral part of national political development
4. Whether or not democratization is needed in regional autonomy (in Khasan Effendy, 2001: 36)

If in rural institution the challenges are able to build, rural autonomy could open opportunities and active participation in all rural community elements. If the three above elements are balanced, aligned and harmony and not interfering with each other and not weaker than others then check and balance can be created. Becoming a social sub-culture village community that is developed and has no temptation to pursue power and wealth thus being capable to govern well and trust.

Government means a government that has human object with functional power setting. Government and administration has different position. In administration conception there is the meaning of who govern and to be governed. It is inseparable from the function of government that has power where administration should work according to its functions. According to Rosenbloom in Labolo (2006:22), a country will be led by a leader who has power. Explaining the existence of government is inseparable from government function. There are various opinions regarding government functions. Theoretically, government can be described in three main functions: shelter, service and empowerment (Rasyid in FariedAli, 2015:36). The points could explain the implementation of relationship function between those who govern and to be governed or leader and people to create peace and welfare.

There is an inseparable relationship between society and government. One of requirements for the state formation is the existence of the people. It is in line with statement from Franklin D. Roosevelt that if you want to know about a community, look at the government (in Rasyid, 1998:38). It clearly describes that people is the object of government function executor and

they remain in one government bond to realize power that will be used as a basic of the government functional relationship. Further, the government substances are fixed in nature and undergo no changes. This is seen since royal government era to the current democratic government. In the implementation, however, it is characterized by power used as the relationship base between government and its people.

On the other side, government should issue development strategies both in the context of central government and regional government. Every regional government has different strategies in succeeding the regional development. It is differed to the government of Cilacap Regency that starts their development strategy from the villages. Therefore, regional government, through the regent, issues *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy to succeed local-based development strategy. In local government perspective, development is a movement leading to modernity. Modernity, in this case, means a new and better life style. However, the government's main goal in rural development is to fulfill the basic needs through government programs to improve rural community's welfare and life quality. Therefore, government steps in overcoming poverty can be achieved and supported by rural facilities and infrastructures to boost local economy and the capability to sustainably utilize natural resources for rural community needs. Global development strategy has correlation between growth, modernization and cultural structure change (Adrian Leftwich in Budi Winarno, 2013: 41-42). However, the opinion can be re-narrowed in the scope of rural-based development strategy. According to Lincoln, there are at least three basic dimensions: politic, economic and, social dimensions. Detail description of the dimensions is illustrated in the following figure:

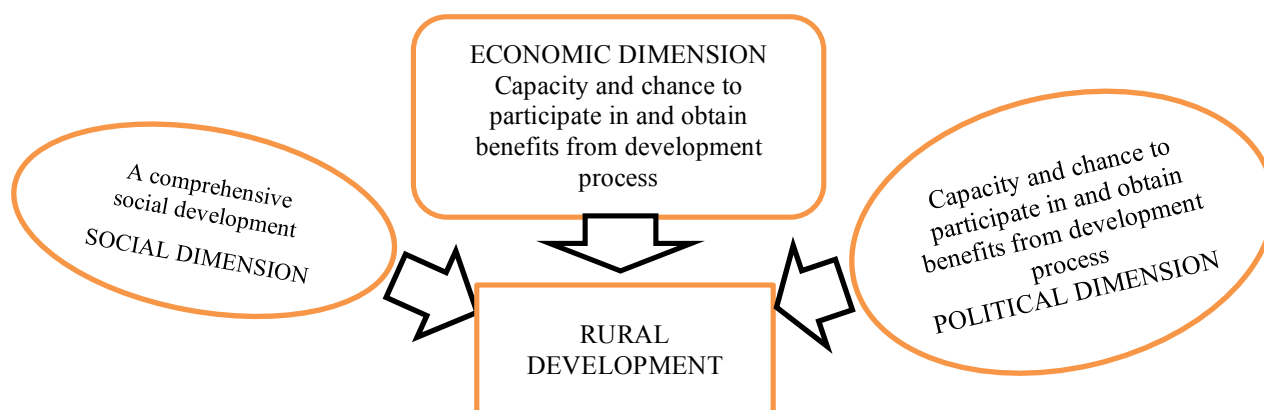


Figure: Flow of Basic Dimensions in Rural-Based Development Strategy

In the paradigm, regional development strategy has a significant influence in rural development. It is in line with Van der Ploeg (quoted in Lincoln, 2011:14) stated that the new local development model should followed by theoretical change. It means that village should emphasize that there is a need in a new local development. Therefore, they could explain how to create new basic resources and how the invaluable old resources become valuable as well as how to combine them with other resources indicated by innovative, perspective, and new desires. Further, one of local development elements is endogenous property. The indicator explains that endogenous development focuses more on basic characteristics for development in rural context. As stated by Lowe et al., i.e.: *First*, the first principle uses rural resources (natural, human, and cultural resources) more as the basic key in development. *Second*, dynamic power is part of local initiative and local company. *Third*, rural area function is the main subject of economy with various services. *Fourth*, the main rural development issues are area's capacity limitation and social group to participate in economic and development activities. *Fifth*, it consists of rural development focus, capacity building development (skill, institution, and infrastructure), and social alignment problem reduction (in Lincoln, 2011:17).

According to the above explanation, the development strategy course in developing country context can further describe in several process stages in each decade. Todaro and Smith stated that development strategy consists of basic need oriented, endogenous in nature, self-reliance, ecologically-sound, and structural-transformation.

Based on the above theoretical review on local-based development strategy, the researcher interested in adopting Todaro and Smith theory and connecting the empirical elements, namely, the principal pillars of *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, which are education pillar, health pillar, economic pillar, and socio-cultural environment pillar into conceptual element. Therefore, it is appropriate to use the theory.

RESEARCH METHOD

Method used was in accordance with the research purpose, which is to study and analysis rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy and it focused on Cimrutu Vilage, Patimun Sub-district, Cilacap Regency. Therefore, the research was a qualitative descriptive research. According to Sarantakos (19937), descriptive design is fit to be used to explain a system, relation, and social event occurs in a structure and process. Qualitative descriptive research focuses on various dimensions in rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy to deeply explain the system, relation, and event and connect them to the studied phenomenon. In addition, a research that uses qualitative method also involves the author as the key instrument in the research; therefore, information and data related to the studied phenomenon, in this context, rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, can be obtained from author's direct interaction with the participants in the research process. Thus, information from participants and research data obtained by the authors are in accordance with what is happening in the field without data manipulation.

In the perspective of social research world, the research can be assumed that "the researcher always tries to be as close as possible with the participants who are the research object" (Creswell, 2013:26). Therefore, it is important to conduct field study where the participants are alive and doing some activities. The subjectivity meaning believed by the researcher related to situation and condition in local development strategy was developed by looking for other comparison to describe and sharpen the phenomenon in the situation. To describe the local-based development strategy, the researcher would ask some general questions to the participants thus they would scientifically construct the meaning intended by the researcher. Thus, the scientific given by the participants would give information on rural development strategy not in form of theoretical assessment or empirical form of a phenomenon. It was expected that due to the direct interaction between informants and researcher, the research purposes to study and analyze rural development strategy through policies of Cilacap Regency government on *Bangga Mbangun Desa* can be achieved.

In this writing, qualitative data collection was done to obtain the required information to achieve the research purposes. The research purposes were in form of hypothesis, which is a temporary answer for research question that need to be tested empirically. Through validation process, the validity of data that mostly statistical data can be tested thus the processed data can be trusted. Qualitative research is basically an effort to improve trust degree of data. Data then refine using data validation process with triangulation. According to Moleong (2012:33), triangulation is a data validity inspection technique that uses other than data to check or as a comparison with the data. It is conducted by comparing what a person state in public and what the informant states personally, comparing informant interview result with research data from a related documents or archives, and comparing a condition with one's perspective with

various opinions and views on rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy in Cimrutu Village, Patimuan Subdistrict.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY THROUGH FIVE STRATEGY ELEMENTS TO SUCCEED *BANGGA MBANGUN DESA* POLICY

Development is human orientation without any limitation to continue to innovate. Therefore, the government should pay attention on and set various policies, time, expertise, and adequate fund to conduct development in all fields (Siagan, 1982:70). The success of a government policy can be seen from various addressed problems in regional development. However, in reality, the government has lots of homework to overcome regional development problems, especially in the main pillars of *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, namely: education pillar, health pillar, economic pillar, and socio-cultural environment pillar. The unhandled problems by regional government proved that regional government development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* was not optimally applied.

However, based on the success benchmark of a policy, regional government should be able to fulfill the Basic Need Oriented that will create welfare and improve rural community's life quality. The implementation of *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy in Cilacap Regency was still lacking in the consistency of program implementation and in recognizing rural village needs. Cimrutu Village, especially, received less attention from regional government. Regarding the development strategy initiated by Cilacap Regency regional government, the condition in Cimrutu Village was different to those in other villages in Cilacap Regency.

Rural development strategy concept can be done with the following steps:

First, Need-oriented

Rural development strategy should be directed to the development in the activities of real sector, community empowerment sector, and superior economy sector referring to development area unit. Rural-based development is expected to reduce rural disparities as well as capable in cluster-based development and in creating new jobs that in reality could reduce unemployment. Development strategy to rural-based development equity still not evenly distributed in Cilacap Regency. In fact, in Cimrutu Village, basic development was just recently conducted, namely, road construction, watercourse revitalization, and Apur River and Ciberem River normalization. Theoretically, *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy aimed at optimally improve community welfare and encourage rural community spirit oriented more to a comprehensive rural development in education, health, economic and socio-cultural environmental fields without abandoning urban development with a principle of from, by, and for the community⁵. If the policy purposes fulfilled, the regional government development strategy of Cilacap Regency in fulfilling village basic needs orientation fulfilled. However, in reality, the current condition in Cimrutu Village was in the development process of socio-cultural environment pillar, as explained above. The main road that connecting Cimrutu Village and Purwodadi Village was being repair as well as the connecting road between Cimrutu Village and Bulupayung Village. The change due to road construction was just felt by the community in early 2017. In this context, however, the community was very grateful to the village government since their village condition started to get attention.

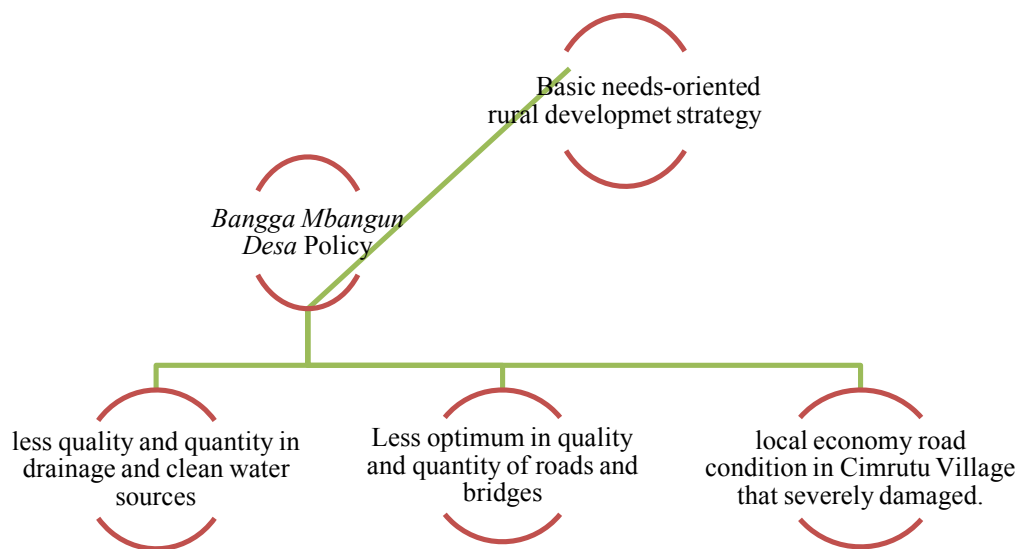
The prospect of Cimrutu Village development was still slow compare to other villages, either in sub-district level or regency level. In addition to difficult road access, street lighting in village

⁵ Details can be seen in Cilacap Regent Regulation No 76/2011 on *Bangga Mbangun Desa* Policy

main road was minimal. It made communities outside the village hesitated to visit. The development activities were still in the process of river, irrigation, and water ditch revitalization, for example. Those activities were related to the community's primary need of clean water. The village received *Perusahaan Daerah Air Minum* (PDAM) (local water supply utility) services longer than other villages because it was the priority of the government. It was related to the poor well water condition in the village or there was lots of brackish water (*air tieng*) in the area. Although the service was available, most villagers could not afford the service and pay the monthly bill. In addition, the small water pipes hampered the PDAM water to flow into the villagers' house.

Back to the basic problems in Cimrutu Village, all programs and efforts conducted by Cilacap Regency government to facilitate the program were not in line with the villagers' expectation. The government had good intention by creating policy strategy but the implementation was not maximal.

Figure: Field condition of rural development implementation through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* in Cimrutu Village



Second, Endogenous in nature

In addition, in rural development strategy context, endogenous property focuses on community. It means that there is an emerging trait from each village community that reflects the existing values in their area. The logical consequence of sovereignty values in community village is that the regional government should follow their (village community) way in order to sketch village development strategy. In this case, the government serves as a protector, servant, and empowerment (Rasyid in Faried Ali, 2015: 36) and region is a residential place, government services, social services, and local economic transaction activities. Regarding the endogenous property element, it will be related to economic development in the village, which is the integral part and nonnegotiable in national economic development frame.

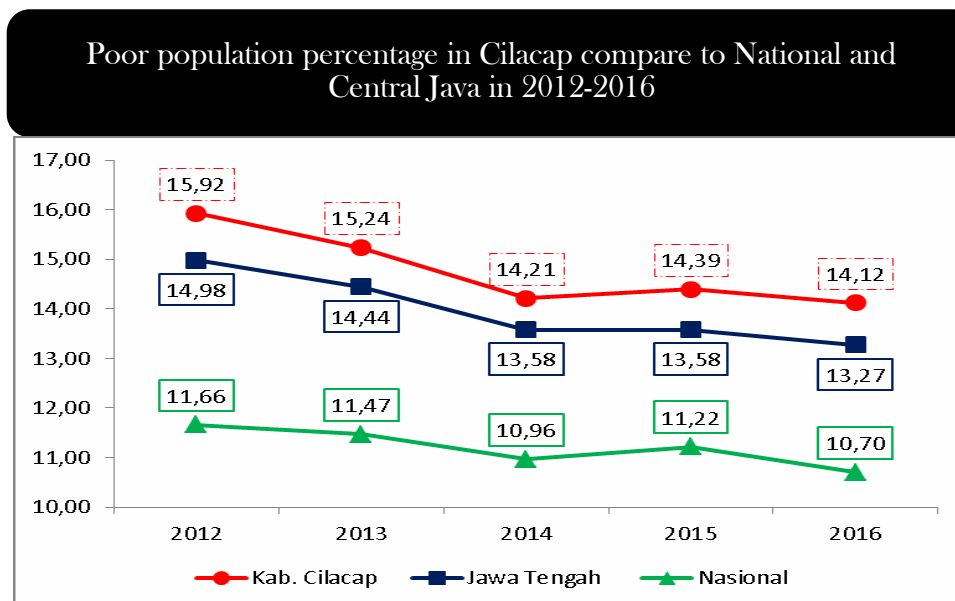
Related to the endogenous property element, the element explains the traits that emerge from local community soul without abandoning their sovereignty values. The native of rural area experiences an increase every year due to urbanization. It does not, however, automatically have implication on a better village function in order to improve its community's welfare. In fact, the rural community stills struggle with the basic issue of poverty and it tends to increase. It is in the economic pillar and it has not resolved yet due to the large number of newcomers that creates a tight competition between the newcomers and local communities. The

consequence is that many local communities turned into worker in their own land. In terms of rice field area quantity, Cimrutu Village had larger area than other villages in Cilacap Regency, such as Purwodadi, Cinyawang, and Sidamukti Villages. In terms of indigenous ownership, however, the village had about 30% of rice field and the remaining areas were outside the village, the sub-district and even outside the regency areas. Regarding the most important factor in the economy towards villagers' survival, which is income among the local communities, the trait occurred from the community's soul itself.

Problem faced by villagers in Cimrutu Village was, among other, crop failure causes by natural phenomenon. Steps needed to overcome the problem should not abandoning the local community sovereignty values and capable to create awareness among the villagers to maintain their surrounding environment. Regarding the issue, sub-district government made an initiative for all villages in Patimun Sub-district area to start planting earlier than other areas, such as Kedungreja and Sidareja Sub-districts. It was especially for Cimrutu Village that had soil texture unsuitable for cultivation. Economic disparity level in Cimrutu Village was high. Despite many programs created by Cilacap Regency government for poverty alleviation, the preparation of local-based development strategy by Cilacap Regent must be balanced with endogenous development since in rural endogenous development process social aspect integrates with economic aspect. If the socio-cultural aspect implementation is not even, it will affect the economic aspect. For Cimrutu Village, socio-cultural aspect was the village head's homework since infrastructure development was ongoing and the local development came to affect since early 2017.

Rural development problems became important in this discussion since poverty phenomenon is a crucial thing to discuss in rural development strategy. Local-based development through endogenous property focuses more on territoriality approach since economic growth process and structural change powered by local community and it used local potential for rural development to improve local population's standard of living (Massay in Linclin, 2011:16).

Economic pillar in *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy was a crucial problem, especially in underdeveloped area since it will impact the increasing poverty number. Cilacap Regency is within the red zone regarding the number of poor and very poor population in Central Java Province. It can be seen from the percentage of poor population in this pillar that became a strategic issue as well as homework for the region leaders.

Figure Economic growth percentage of Cilacap Regency in 2012-2016

Source: Strategic Plan of Cilacap Regenc in 2017-2022

Local-based development strategy planned by the Cilacap Regent must be balanced with endogenous development since in rural endogenous development process social aspect integrates with economic aspect. Whereas, in socio-cultural environment aspect, if its implementation is not even, it will affect the economic aspect. For Cimrutu Village, socio-cultural aspect is still the village head homework since infrastructure development is ongoing and the local development comes to affect since early 2017 up to now.

Third, Self-Reliance

In development strategy formulation, regional government should aware that there is a need in rural development paradigms by creating new basic resources and combining the old resources with the new one aimed at new needs, perspectives, and desires. Problems in rural development are interconnected with each other thus the Cilacap Regency government summarizes the problems into four main pillars of *Bangga Mbangun Desa*. In self-reliance, the community uses and relies more on their own resources (community, environment, and local culture). Therefore, if human resources-related problems become unhandled crucial issues for the Cilacap Regency government, they will be an obstacle. Those problems include population pressure and employment problems. Human resources problem relates to the natural growth level, health level, education level, low productivity level, and high unemployment level in rural areas. However, self-reliance element emphasizes that rural community will rely more on their own resources.

Regarding Cimrutu Village, human resources related problems were due to the low education level among its people. In this context, the regional government should create a strategy to prepare a human development program to empower rural community and in turn, it will develop local economy. Education pillar and economic pillar were mutually sustainable and they will be the fortress for the village. Rural development strategy aimed to stabilize local economic condition in a long term. However, the requirement for local economic improvement is the fulfillment of education and health sectors, which is agreed to be the key requirement for poverty alleviation since both pillars are the main requirement for sustainable development. Theoretically, education and health pillars are two main determinant factors for the creation of human capital that directly related to production factor.

Rural development strategy through self-reliance element asks the rural community to build their own village by relying on the existing resources in their area. However, to build the village, it will require labors that will determine the local economic fundamental, especially in the long term and it will influence the rural community's interest in education. From local economic development perspective, economic factors influence education and in a long term, it will influence the future of rural community (Broomhall and Johnson, 1994). In the theory, it requires the active role of regional government in human development strategy, especially for Cimrutu Village that has low interest in school among its people. It is based on informants' statement that education level among productive age of 20-65 years was not graduated from Junior High School (SMP) and it is the biggest challenge for the regional government. However, after road infrastructure improvement, interest in school among the villagers improved where some of the villagers went to Senior High School (SMA).

Fourth, Ecologically-Sound

Local-based development strategy uses natural resources (SDA) rationally and wisely. As stated by Cilacap Regent that *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy is a policy oriented to the growth of natural potentials in the villages. Development strategy through rural potential development using the approach is not only limited to the conventional potentials such as natural resources or human resources availability but it towards more to the linkage between natural resources and human resources that need each other. If human are able to use natural resources rationally then local tradition, value system and behavior, customs, social structure, and culture automatically become the main potential drivers in rural development process dynamics. In this element, there are no poor and rich areas. All are the same due to the existence of feed and properties; for example, an area that rich in natural resources but poor in human resources and social capital, and vice versa. Thus, the working concept here is how to actualize the existing potential in the village. Referring to the understanding and relating back to the occurring phenomenon in Cimrutu Village, the village was far from the implementation of the element. However, in order to encourage rural development and self-reliance of Cimrutu Village community, the community should receive the same treatment as other villages from Cilacap Regency government in order to succeed the *Bangga Mbangun Desa* aiming at local-based development equity.

Fifth, Structural-Transformation

With the fulfillment of the above four elements in rural development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, this last element emphasizes on the village head who will be replaced in the future. It is related to whether or not the policy will be continued by the next village head since the policy is formulated by Cilacap Regent when he was the acting regent in 2010. If rural problems are overcome and the need and local demand are fulfilled, the rural community should not worry about policy change since they are capable in fulfilling the basic needs using the existing resources in their area and skillful human resources expertise. They only go through active participation in development process for a long term.

In reality, however, the phenomenon occurred in Cimrutu Village was used as an important point in this element that the weak policy from Cilacap Regency Government in rural development is understandable. The point here is that the village was far from adequate in terms of basic needs to support its community welfare. Nevertheless, the village government conducted various efforts to equalize the social status of Cimrutu Village with other villages in Cilacap Regency that had already advanced. In this case, they were advanced in terms of the fulfillment of basic needs such as: easy access to clean water, good drainage, smooth flow irrigation, and twice harvest in a year with a good quality and price competitive. Surely, the village government along with the sub-district government put their efforts to realize the goals

of Cimrutu Village community. Due to the village condition, however, the rural government strategy is likely achieved in a long term.

Meanwhile, the research also found the fifth rural development strategies, namely: need oriented, endogenous in nature, self-reliance, ecologically-sound, and structural-transformation in the implementation of *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy, which is the focus of the research. The author also found that the first requirement in rural development, which is need oriented, unfulfilled. It was evidenced by the large number of Cimrutu Village people who consumed *balong* (ditch) water, which is dirty water, due to the lack efforts from Cilacap Regency government to fix and arrange the village maximally. Therefore, if the phenomenon is not thoroughly and wisely understood by the government, it is likely that the trust level of the village community regarding the government performance was questioned.

CONCLUSION

Rural development strategy with five elements, namely: need oriented, endogenous in nature, self-reliance, ecologically-sound and, structural transformation was implemented through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* with its four main policy pillars. Cimrutu Village government deeply relied on the help of Cilacap Regency government. Cilacap Regency government held responsible for policies taken towards development strategy through *Bangga Mbangun Desa* policy. Through the policy, the Cilacap Regency government directed to four (4) main pillars, namely: education, health, economy, and socio-cultural environment. However, the condition in Cimrutu Village caused the development strategy, especially the four pillars, cannot run as expected.

Based on need orientation, the element was conducted for rural basic development equity, such as, infrastructure, irrigation, crop failure, and clean water availability that are hard to find in Cimrutu Village. Based on the elements of endogenous in nature, self-reliance, and ecologically sound, the three elements emphasize more on the community. How the community is capable in utilizing resources and developing the village potentials. Community access to natural resources (SDA) will influence the existing economic, social and political systems. However, it was found that many of Cimrutu Village community held low education level; thus, the government strategy in preparing human development program in rural level was hampered in the development of local economy.

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Rural Out-Migration: A Catalyst For Agricultural Development And Environment Regeneration In Bekwarra, Cross River State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

The rate, frequency and intensity of migration are increasing across the globe with dire consequences to source and receiving areas, however, out-migration can be a catalyst for development and natural resources conservation. Hence, the study examined the impacts of rural out-migration on agricultural development in Bekwarra, Cross River State, Nigeria. Specifically, the study: i. determines the impacts of out migration on agricultural and natural environment ii. the extent to which remittance from out migrants influence agricultural development in Bekwarra, Cross River State. One hypothesis was formulated and tested at 0.05 confidence limit. A survey design was adopted for the study using purposive and simple random sampling technique to elicit responses from three hundred and eighty (380) respondents drawn from the total number of farmers in the area. Findings revealed that out-migration has induced extended fallow time in some instance thereby allowing agricultural land to regain its fertility. Also reduce labour has informed changes from a more diverse cropping system to less intensive non-diverse cropping systems that has implications for the environment and food security of households. Chi-square statistical tool was used to test the stated hypothesis and the findings revealed remittances from migrants have a significant impact on agricultural development. It was recommended among other things that government should provide more social amenities and employment opportunity to curtail the exponential exodus of the youths from the area to other cities.

Key words: Agricultural development, Migration, Remittance, Environment, Regeneration

INTRODUCTION

Migration has become of cardinal concern globally. Migration is masterminded by the marked differences in the concentration of social and infrastructural facilities between rural and urban areas. The spatial differences initiate the exodus of people particularly from rural to urban areas in the search for employment opportunity, educational pursuit and improved living standard. This phenomenon according to Omonigho and Olaniyan (2013) has affected both the source and destination areas. While it increases the population size, energy consumption and demand for social amenities in urban areas, it reduces the population size, agricultural productivity and the rate of social development in the rural communities.

Rural-urban migration has retarded drastically the development of the various sectors of rural systems ranging from agricultural to infrastructural development (Mgbakor, Uzendu & Usifo, 2014). In the agrarian sector the labour supply is greatly reduced and this consequently

reduces the output because agrarian output in developing countries with low technology is human labour dependent amongst other things such as land and capital. Migration can be inter-regional or intra-regional (Eni & Abua, 2006). The inter-regional migration is simply the movement of people between two or more geopolitical regions. The intra-regional migration on the other hand refers to the change in residence of people within a given country. Rural-urban migration is the most common form of intra-regional migration experienced globally today. This pattern of movement was predominant in the advanced countries about a century ago. This is because the advent of industrial revolution of the 18th century led to the emergence of large local centers which absorbed parts of the excess rural population (Ebong & Ananimashaun, 2006). Currently, this phenomenon has greatly been reduced in advanced countries due to the reduction in spatial differences between rural and urban areas in the developed countries. In contrast, the developing countries of the world are witnessing a rapid increase of rural-urban migration and this has been considered as occurring at an alarming proportion.

Increased in the agricultural output is dependent upon soil, climate, capital, and above all, labour. The agricultural sector in Nigeria contributed about 80 percent to the economy of Nigeria in the early 1960s and this was possible because about 75 percent of the population lived in rural areas and obtained their means of livelihood from agriculture. Ironically, this sector of the economy has been doing very badly in the past few decades. For instance, in 1965, agricultural export accounted for as much as 76 percent of Nigerian foreign earning, 43 percent in 1970 while the contribution falls to about 6 percent in 1976, 3.9 percent in 1989 and 1.4 percent in 1992 (Mgbakor, Uzendu & Usifo, 2014). This decline in the agricultural sector production has been adduce to the exodus of people agricultural labour force from the rural from farm communities.

The literature is replete with the contributions of rural-urban migration to the inefficiency in agricultural productivity. What is missing is how rural-urban migration serve as a push for natural environment regeneration and that is the focus of this study.

Aim and objectives of the study

The aim of this study was to assess the impacts of migration on agricultural development and environment regeneration in Bekwarra Local Government Area of Cross River State with the following specific objectives:

- i. Ascertain the impact of out-migration on agricultural practices in Bekwarra, Cross River State.
- ii. Determine the extent to which remittances from out-migrants influence investment in agricultural development and environment regeneration in Bekwarra, Cross River State.

We therefore hypothesize that:

- i. Remittances from out-migrants do not have a significant impact on agricultural development in Bekwarra Local Government Area of Cross River State.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

The literature on rural-urban migration is robust in Nigeria with respect to depletion of agricultural labour force. For Instance, Ekong (2003) is one of the proponents who hold that rural out migration negatively affects the agricultural potentials of the rural communities. This according to him is true in that the major factor of agriculture (i.e labour) is greatly reduced and this consequently reduces agricultural productivity. This claim is further elaborated by Adams and Adams (2007) who stressed the role of human labour in all the production phases, especially in developing countries where mechanized agriculture is still at infancy. They

conclude that until a reduction in rural out migration is given a due consideration; farmers' output will continue to decrease.

To Nwachukwu (2003), agricultural productivity increases with an increase in labour supply. According to the Submissions of Food and Agricultural Organization (2001), United Nations Food Emergency Council (2001), and Aid American Development Agency (2000), rural-urban migration is a major factor responsible for the acute labour shortage experienced in rural communities particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. This labour shortage thus reduces the capability of such regions to produce adequate foods for its population. In the views of Fred (2001), Bassey and Essien (2003) agricultural productivity is directly related to labour supply in that an increase in labour supply increases agricultural output and vice versa. This goes to show that a country with an inadequate supply of labour to effectively sustain its agricultural production will hardly achieve her food security objectives (Didden & Person, 2004). To Knight and Sang (2003), farm requires adequate labour supply which in Nigeria is usually supplied by able young rural dwellers. They however concluded that the continuous movement of this sect from rural communities is accompanied by a sharp decline in the quantity of food which is a major derivative of agriculture.

These views are however in contrast with other scholars who believe that rural-urban migration greatly favours agricultural productivity. In a research carried out at Nyamira District of Kenya, Nyamieri (2011) discovered that rural-urban migration is a livelihood strategy for both the migrants and their families left behind. According to her, rural-rural migration is a part of income diversification strategy where remittances are being sent back to the farming households to help reduce the risk incurred in both the subsistence and commercial agricultural activities. Atu and Iwuanyanwu (2017) in their study on the socioeconomic implication of labour migration in Akpabuyo Cross River State found out the migrants contribute significantly to their destination regions. Ajaero and Onokala (2003) in "the effects of rural-urban migration on rural communities in southern Nigeria" posit that rural-urban migration is a survival strategy utilized by the poor especially the rural dwellers. This is because, the rural-urban migrants sent remittances to their relatives in the rural areas and this remittance-receiving households use the remittances for various purposes including agriculture. In a similar view, Ekong (2003) maintained that migration offers migrants ample opportunities to acquire new skills and broaden their horizons. He further pointed out that the returned migrants bring cultural innovation and technological changes to their homes. According to him, the early adopters of rice cultivation in Abakiliki area of southeast Nigeria were migrant farmers who brought rice with themselves from other areas.

The literature has shown what occurred in the agricultural sector with reduced labour, and how remittance can offset the absence of family labour, but what has not been captured is what happened to the land in the absence of surplus labour or how farmers mitigate the shortage of labour. That is the focus of this research.

METHODOLOGY

Study area

Bekwarra Local Government Area is located in the Northern axis of Cross River State between longitudes 8° 05' 38" and 8° 59' 0" and latitude 6° 41' 45" and 7° 02' 10" north of the equator east of the Greenwich meridian. It is bounded in the north by Benue State, east by Obudu Local Government Area, south by Ogoja Local Government Area and west by Yala Local Government Area. The region has a total land area of about 306km² (118sq miles) with an average elevation of 129 meters (423 feet) above the sea level. According to the 2006 census, Bekwarra Local Government Area has a total population of over 105,822 people with a density of 346 persons

per square kilometer. Given the population growth rate of 2.9%, the population of the study area is expected to double itself by 2031. Bekwarra Local Government Area has its administrative headquarter at Abouchiche. The area is divided into ten council wards and these include Ugboro, Ibiaragidi, Ukpah, Abouchiche, Nyanya, Beten, Otukpuri, Gakem, Afrike 1 and Afrike II. The region consists of a rich cultural heritage with each village having a unique dancing group and compose songs in the local languages. Christianity is the major religious practice.

Bekwarra is situated within the tropical climate and experiences two distinct seasons namely; dry and rainy seasons. According to Ogar (2009), the rainy season extends from April to October while the dry season spans from November to March. Soil types found in the area include peat (swamp), sandy and loamy soils. These climatic and soil conditions enhance agricultural activities. The people are strongly involved in subsistence and commercial agriculture. Infact, agriculture contributes about 80% of the income of the people. This is either derived from crop cultivation or animal husbandry and in some cases from both. Crops cultivated include rice (*Oryza sativa*), yam (*Discorea spp*), maize (*Zea mays*), groundnut (*Arachis hypogeal*), cassava (*Manihot spp*), sweet potatoes (*Ipeomea batatas*), oil palm (*Elais guinea*), cowpea (*Vigna ugniculata*), okra (*Abelnoscus exculentus*), water leaf (*Talinum triangulare*) etc. Besides, the presence of large undulating grassland in the area favours the rearing of animals such as goats, sheep, cattle and pigs. Poultry is common in every household.

Sources of data

Data used in this study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data source was the questionnaires distributed to registered farmers in the study area. The secondary data on the other hand were obtained from National Population Census Publications, journals and textbooks and farmers cooperatives in each study community.

Population

8000 farmers are registered across the communities and the Taro Yarmane's minimal sample was adopted in drawing out sample for the study. The formular is given as:

$$\frac{N}{1 + N (e)^2}$$

Where: N = population size, e = level of confidence (taken as 0.05) and 1 = constant. Hence, 380 were distributed. Therefore, 380 samples were drawn for the study.

Sampling

The simple random sampling technique and purposive sampling technique were adopted for this study. The purposive sampling was used to choose 15 out of the 38 communities in Bekwarra LGA and the simple random sampling was used to administer the questionnaire. The communities and sample sizes are depicted on Table 1.

Table 3.1: Sampled communities and sample size

Communities	Identified farmers	Sample size
Utukwe	900	43
Ibiaragidi	700	33
Ugboro	480	23
Bewo	400	19
Ochagbe	450	21
Beten	350	17
Gakem	1000	48
Akwurinyi	400	19
Achibang	300	14
Ukpada	100	48
Ikanda	470	22
Utugbor	600	28
Ijibor	300	14
Ikparikobo-Iye	150	7
Alumonye	500	24
Total	8000	380

Source: Researchers Field Work.

Analysis

Percentages, means and frequency distribution were the descriptive means of analysis. These tools were used to present data about the age, sex, educational qualification, occupation among other socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. The chi-square (χ^2) statistical tool was however used to test the stated hypotheses set for this study. The chi-square statistics is given as:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

Where:

X^2 = Chi-square

\sum = Summation

O= Observed frequency

E= Expected

The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 confidence limit with the degree freedom given as (r-1) (c-1). Where r = number of rows, c = number of columns and 1 = constant.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Source of farm labour

results on Table 2 shows over 67 of farmers source labour from family members, 13.16 percent use labour from their farmers' associations and other organization and only 5.56 percent of the farmers employ the use of machines for labour. This result has implication for agricultural labour force as findings on Table 3 show that 68 percent of the agricultural household have their source of labour out-migrated from the study area and only 32 percent have their entire family labour residing and working on the farms.

Table 2: Sources of agricultural labour force in Bekwarra

Sources	Frequency	Percentage
Associations	50	13.16
Hired	40	10.52
Family	255	67.11
Machinery	20	5.26
Others	15	3.95
Total	380	100

Table 3: Level of out-migration of family labour force

Location	Frequency	Percentage
Home residents	120	32
Other towns	260	68
Total	380	100

To determine how reduce migration influence agricultural development and the natural environment the respondents were asked how the offset the labour needs of their farm activities. Responses collated on Table 3 illustrate that 22 percent of the farmers have reduced their extend of farm holding, 5. 30 percent have changed the species of crops cultivated mostly to better yielding crops, 21.05 percent have reduced the diversity of crops cultivated, fallow time has been extended and reduced by 13 and 10 percent respectively, while 3.0 percent make use of hired labour and labour efficient machinery.

Out-migrants remittance to source family is high (70 percent) Table 5 and supported by results of the tested hypothesis but, this does not translate to hiring of enhance labour efficient tools for production as only 3 percent of the farmers utilize machinery for the farm activities

Table: 4: Impacts of out-migration on agriculture and environment

	Frequency	Percentage
Reduction in area tillage	82	22.00
Change in crop species	20	5.30
Reduced diversity of crops	85	21.05
Change in crop types	50	13.20
One crop cultivation	34	9.00
Extended fallow	50	13.20
Reduced fallow	39	10.30
Use of improved machinery	10	3.00
Hired labour	10	3.00
Total	380	100

Table 5: Investment of out-migrants remittance on agricultural development

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	267	70
No	113	30
Total	380	100

Test of Hypothesis

H₀: Remittances to rural farmers do not have a significant impact on agricultural development in Bekwarra Local Government Area.

To test hypothesis II, the question number 16 which states that “does the financial assistance from migrants increase your agricultural output? was used. The responses are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Contingency table showing the impact of remittances on agricultural development

	Male	Female	Total
Yes	98 (a)	169 (c)	267
No	74 (b)	39 (d)	113
Total	172	208	380

Before computing the chi-square value, the expected frequencies must be obtained and these are calculated using the formula:

$$\frac{\text{Row total} \times \text{column total}}{\text{Grand total}}$$

$$\text{Cell a} = \frac{172 \times 267}{380} = 120.8$$

$$\text{Cell b} = \frac{172 \times 113}{380} = 51.1$$

$$\text{Cell c} = \frac{208 \times 267}{380} = 146.1$$

$$\text{Cell d} = \frac{208 \times 113}{380} = 61.8$$

Table 7: Computation of chi-square

Cell	Fo	Fe	fo-fe	(fo-fe) ²	$\frac{(\text{fo-fe})^2}{\text{Fe}}$
A	169	146	23	529	3.6
B	39	61	-22	484	7.9
C	98	120	-22	484	4
D	74	51	23	529	10.3
Total	380				25.8

Therefore, $X^2 = 25.8$

$$\text{Degree of freedom (df)} = (r-1)(c-1) \\ = (2-1)(2-1)$$

1 under the confidence limit of 0.05 = 3.841.

Since the calculated chi-square (x^2) value (25.8) is greater than the table value (3.841), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected but the alternate hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, remittances to rural farmers have a significant impact on agricultural development in Bekwarra Local Government Area of Cross River State.

DISCUSSION

The findings reveal that out-migration has a significantly reduced the extend of land in cultivation, the fallow years in distant farms have also been increased while farms close to the settlements are cultivated intensively. This result has implications for the environment as prior

degraded forest are allowed to regenerate while nearby surroundings are degraded. Also the farmers are forced to try out new crop varieties which is a welcome development in the study area that is a traditional setting with set ideas on the types of crops to cultivate. But, the abandonment of labour intensive crops such as yams and cassava that require high labour to prepare the mounds and stake as in the case of yams has food security implication in the vicinity as the shortfall in the food needs is met by buying from neighbouring states and community. Little wonder the remittance from out-migrants cannot be plowed into the farm activities as it is employed in meeting the immediate food needs of the family. However, the replacement of these crops with ground and cowpea is significant for the soils as these crops are known to add nutrients (nitrogen) to the soils. This result is in tandem with the findings of (Ekong, 2003; Adams & Adams 2007) who believed that the movement of people away rural-urban migration reduce agricultural labour leading to a decline of agricultural output. Furthermore, (Fred 2001; Bassey and Essien 2003), studies demonstrate that agricultural productivity is directly related to labour supply in that an increase in labour supply increases agricultural output and vice versa. To Didden and Person (2004), a region with an inadequate supply of labour to effectively sustain its agricultural production will hardly achieve her food security objectives. Besides, Knight and Sang (2003) opined that the continuous movement of the active population away from an area is accompanied by a sharp decline in the agricultural output of the inhabitants.

The significance of the out-migrant remittance in the study in affording the families to meet the shortfall of their household needs by buying from the larger market rather than in enhancing their own productivity. This finding is in harmony with existing studies (Nyamieri 2011; Ajaero & Onokala 2013 & Ekong 2003) that show that rural-urban migration is a livelihood strategy wherein remittances are sent back to the farming households so as to help them reduce the risk incurred in both subsistence and commercial agricultural activities.

CONCLUSION

Migration has a significant impact on agricultural development because as able labour force move out with no requisite technology to moderate low labour input farmers are forced to adopt more efficient farm practice as changing to higher yielding crops, elongating fallow years thereby regenerating the fertility of the soil that would enhance future farm enterprise. On the other hand, changing cropping pattern from a more divers cropping systems to single crop systems has implications for the environment and household food security as evidence by the study. Also, remittance, to source family is not invested on labour equipment but is used to pay for hired human labour. Therefore, the study recommends that rather than abandoning diversity in cropping systems and cultivation of energy intensive crops like tuber crops, the home remittance should be utilized by the farmers to acquire modern tools to aid their enterprise.

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Community-Based State Forest Management (*Social Forestry*) In Purworejo Regency Of Central Java Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted in Purworejo Regency, Central Java Province, with the aim to know the factors influencing the state forest management by community approach. The analysis unit is the community that manages the forest together in the institution of Community Joint Forest Management (PHBM) which is determined as the research objective. Purworejo Regency is located in Purworejo Forest Management Unit (KPH). Repressive approach towards the society around the forest caused society's reaction to the area, disruption to the forestry crops are frequent, and deforestation becomes evidence of dissonance between society and the manager of forest area in Bogowonto River Flow Territory. In the region there are 261 villages in Purworejo Regency, 168 among them are located in Bogowonto DAS, and are managed by 269 forestry farmer groups. Participant farmers' participation with score of 70.33 (71.04%) and community's participation in PHBM of 0.831 are categorized in very strong closeness level. From the significance test (t-test) is obtained $t_{count} = 12.232$ is higher than $t_{0.05} = 2.000$ at the significance level of 5% meaning the relationship between education and participation in forest management. The farmers' income from the PHBM activity earned from the output sharing of forestry products is ranging from Rp. 450,000 - Rp. 12,400,000, with the average is amounted to Rp. 6,370,290 per year. From the research result is found that the PHBM participant farmers have income amounted to Rp. 450,000 - Rp. 4,433,333 with total is 11 people (15.94%), the income Rp. 4,433,334 - Rp. 8,416,667 with total is 43 people (62.32%) and those who have income amounted to Rp. 8,416,668 - Rp. 12,400,000 with total is 15 people (21.74%).

Keywords: State Forest, Forestry Community, PHBM, Social Forestry, management

INTRODUCTION

Forest is not only a group of trees but also has ecological, economical and political meaning. During this time, forest is the arena where various importance scrapping. In this context, the state formulates various policies that sometimes be in contradiction in one forest area. It

reflects that the state is a dynamic entity that has various different interests, policies and control method of forest management. The difference in policies of the forest management is not only the policy inter-department but also inter-government and inter-society.

The conflict of natural resource management at the local level cannot be separated from the influence of bigger entity such as state policy, global market or colonial tradition influence in the natural resource management. To understand holistically the situation of forest management at local level, the framework of ecology political approach is used. This approach is used by analyzing the empirical case study in local context linked with the wider analysis of politic economy structure at the regional, national and global level. With this framework, the case of society-based forest management is understood by comprehending the interaction inter-stakeholder at local level and how the correlation with the wide politic economy context. The above problem is also reflected in the case of society joint forest management (PHBM), which has been appreciated by the forest management that becomes the authority of Bogowonto DAS manager in forest management. Since 1999, the PHBM program has been initiated collaboratively by various stakeholders that open wider chance for society's participation in forest management at the regency level. After the release of the decentralization policy by the publication of Decree No.22/1999 of the local government (revised by Decree 34/2004), this effort becomes important in encouraging the growth of good forest governance at the regency level.

Problem Identification

Participative approach in forest management is articulated differently by various parties through various terms such as community forestry, social forestry and society-based forest management. Community forestry was widely known after the World Forestry Congress in Jakarta in 1978 that brought central theme that was "Forest for People".

Some drawbacks are found in society forestry program: First, the implementation needs data collection and registration requirement that can intensify the government control upon the society's activity in the forest (Raharjo, 1999, pp. 78-95). Second, the zone determination for community forestry depends on the Forestry Department's decision and involves the complex regulation of bureaucracy. Third, this policy makes society form uniform local organization through farmer cooperation with particular structure.

The government, in 2007, released new policies that is Governmental Regulation No. 6/2007 of Forestry System and Planning Arrangement of Forest Management, and the Forest Utilization. According to Kartodihardjo (2007, pp. 126-135), the regulation revision is fostered to increase the investment (pro investment) and overcome the poverty (pro poor).

Research Objective and Usefulness

The objective of this research is to know the relationship between farmers' internal and external factors and the society's participation level in the activity of society joint forest management. The result of this research is expected to give contribution in form of information and recommendation for the wisdom in the development of forestry resources management, whether for the farmers, society and all related instances.

Thinking Renewal

The government policy in community forest management (forest for people) brings the mission of eternal, fair and democratic forest management. In the fair and democratic forest management, there is implied a new fostered paradigm that is community forestry paradigm or social forestry. Widely, the paradigm is also known as Community Based Natural Resources

Management. So that the rural society's poverty around the forest can be handled since they afford the access into the forest and new income by the pattern of outcome sharing. Outcome sharing is in form of wood sale result or the income from non-wood product.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Forest Resources Management

Community-based forest management has been done by State Forestry General Company by doing several community involvement experimentation in the state forest management. In the form of *Mantri Lurah (MALU)* program and the Forestry Rural Community Development (PMDH). In the early of 1970's, the State Forestry General Company initiated the social forestry program and in 1980 this state enterprise had commitment to allocate 5 percent of clean area of the enterprise per year to support the social forestry program (Peluso, 1992, pp. 79-112).

According to Santoso (2000, pp. 79-83) and Restiana (2003, pp. 123-136), Society Joint Forest Management is a system of forestry resources management carried out by State Forestry General Company together with the society or a group of society and other organization who have interest in the forestry resources by being supported by the principle of such a sharing so that each party's interest can be carried out optimally and proportionally. Furthermore, Santoso (2000, pp. 112-126) said that community-based forest management can be interpreted in the way of building some agreements democratically with the society, not about the done conception.

The basic principle that animates the system of community-based forest management is: the presence of participative planning, the presence of joint learning, the presence of General Company of facilitator DAS Manager, the presence of society's economic empowerment, the presence of institutional cooperation, the presence of professional justice through role division, the presence of production input-process-output in a way space-time-activity, the presence of clarity of right and duty, the presence of openness, and the presence of simple procedure and mechanism. The fundamental goal from the project is to control the society's access to the forest by reducing the local community's dependence towards the forest.

Community's Participation in Forestry Resource Management

Mardikanto (1988, pp. 176-187) proposed a definition of participation as one's or group's involvement in an activity. Bornby (1974, *in* Mardikanto, 1988, p. 158) defined participation as the act to "take a part" that is the activity or statement to take a part from an activity with the intention to get the benefit. Theodorson (1969, *in* Mardikanto, 1988, p. 169) also proposed that participation is one's involvement in a social group to take a part from the community's activity, outside of his own job or profession.

According to Tony (2004, pp. 136-148), he proposed that the level of society's participation in the program of Community-Based Forest Management is measured on each stage that is as follows:

1. The stage of planning is the stage of the activity arrangement of the employment contract, the crop species determination, the contribution land distribution, the determination of KTH (forestry farmers group) and the determination of output sharing.
2. The stage of program implementation consists of the activity of planting, cultivating and protecting the forest. The three activities are seen from the farmers' frequency to the land of Community-Based Forest Management.
3. The third stage is the stage of output utilization seen from the result/effect received by the participant of Community-Based Forest Management.

4. The last stage is the stage of evaluation consisting of the activity of monitoring and the activity evaluation held once in a year.

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Location and Time

The research was conducted in Purworejo Regency located in the Forestry Management Unit (KPH) of West Purworejo, at the Bogowonto River Flow Territory (DAS). The primary data was the data obtained directly through the field survey with questionnaire, whether using the question list, interview and observation. The secondary data was obtained from the result of literature review and documentation review, included the performance reports of Regional Device Work Unit. The research location determination was done purposively with the consideration of the forestry farmers group and cooperating with the DAS manager.

Research Method

The kind of research used in this study is Explanatory Survey Method. The Explanatory Survey Method includes the theoretical research type for the non-exact science. It means the explanation or anything related to explaining, whether explaining the present event or situation, or explaining future event or situation (prediction). Therefore, such research method is also called the causality research (Rusidi, 1999: V-3).

The Explanatory Survey Method was used in this research since the data to be collected was originated from the sample from the community around the forest and spread over the villages in the outskirts of forest in Purworejo Regency. While the research data resources were: 1). the distribution of questionnaire set to the managing farmers of community forest. 2). Interview with the related official in the governmental environment. 3). Focus Group Discussion (FGD), through interactive discussion that involved the stakeholders.

Population and Sample

Population in this research is all farmers who join in the forestry farmer group and come from 13 Subdistrict in Purworejo Regency. The sample collection technique used Stratified random Sampling where the community at rural level became the starting point taken from 3 villagers in each Subdistrict. From 168 villages in Bogowonto DAS managed by 269 forestry farmer groups, there was purposively determined 135 research sample villages. The total respondents were 449 people consisting of the manager of forestry farmer group, the apparatus of village and Subdistrict, community figure and all the stakeholders.

Analysis Method

The approach of the research was done descriptively through the case study in Kuningan Regency. The data and information collection technique was done by observation, interview, and questionnaire. The data analysis method used included Internal Factor Evaluation (IFE) analysis, External Factor Evaluation (EFE) analysis, Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) analysis, and strategy selection using Quantitative Strategic Planning Matrix (QSPM) analysis (David FR, 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Participation of Participant Farmers in PHBM Activity

The participation of participant farmers in PHBM activity is the farmers' involvement in the planning, implementation, output utilization and the evaluation and monitoring activity in the Community Joint Forestry Resources Management activity. The participation in PHBM activity in Purworejo Regency in Bogowonto DAS was categorized high enough with the average score

of participant farmers' participation amounted to 70.33 (71.04%). The analysis result is as follows:

Table 1. Participation of Participant Farmers in PHBM

No.	Component of PHBM Participation	Score		Percentage (%)	Category
		Expectation	Reality		
1.	Planning	21	15.12	71.98	High Enough
2.	Implementation	33	26.07	79.01	High
3.	Output Utilization	33	22.06	66.84	High Enough
4.	Evaluation	12	7.09	59.06	High Enough
	Total	99	70.33	71.04	High Enough

The Table 1 above shows that the farmer's participation in PHBM planning is in high enough category with participation score of 15.12 (71.98%). Farmer's participation in PHBM management implementation is in high category with score of 26.07 (79.01%). Farmer's participation in PHBM management is in high enough category with score of 22.06 (66.84%). Farmer's participation in PHBM evaluation is in high enough category with score of 7.09 (59.00%). The classification of participation can be seen as follows:

Table 2. Classification of Participant Farmer's Participation Level in PHBM Activity

No.	Participation Level	Total (people)	Percentage (%)
1.	Low (33.33% - 55.56%)	6	8.70
2.	High Enough (55.57% - 77.78%)	47	68.11
3.	High (77.79% - 100%)	16	23.19
	Total	69	100.00

From the Table 2 above is seen that participant farmer's participation in PHBM activity is categorized low that is only 6 people (8.70%), the high enough participant farmers are 47 people (68.11%), and the remains of participant farmers categorized high are 6 people (23.19%).

Internal and External Factor of Participation in PHBM

Participative approach in forest management is articulated differently with various terms such as community forestry and (social forestry). Community forestry is widely known after the World Forestry Congress in Jakarta in 1978 which brought the central theme that was Forest for People. Based on the Decree of Forestry Minister number 677/kpts-11/1998, then revised with 867/Kpts-11/1999 and last revised with 31/Kpts-11/2001, it specifically regulates the community forestry and permission giving of forest management to the community group. Until 2001, there were about 252,410.55 ha of state forest spread over 18 provinces in Indonesia became the area of community forestry implementation. In the following is explained the closeness of relationship between community's participation in PHBM with the farmers' internal factor.

From the calculation of statistical test is obtained the value of $r = 0.831$. It means that the relationship between education and community participation in PHBM is 0.831, categorized as very strong closeness level. From the significance test (t-test) is obtained $t_{count} = 12.232$ is higher than $t_{0.05} = 2.000$ at the significance level of 5% meaning the relationship between education and participation.

The farmers' income from the output of forest management based on the result of Spearman statistical test is obtained the value of $r = 0.352$. It means that the relationship between the

income and the community's participation in PHBM is 0.352 and categorized in weak (low) closeness level. From the result of significance test (t-test) is obtained $t_{\text{count}} = 3.078$ higher than $t_{0.05} = 2.000$ at the significance level of 5%, it means that there is real relationship between farmers' income and participant farmers' participation in PHBM.

The width of forestry land managed by community, based on the result of statistical test, is obtained the value of $r = 0.559$. It means that the relationship between land width and community participation in PHBM is 0.559 and categorized in medium closeness level. From the result of significance test (t-test) is obtained $t_{\text{count}} = 5.518$ higher than $t_{0.05} = 2.000$ at significance level of 5%, it means that there is real relationship between land width and participant farmers' participation in PHBM.

The same comprehension of employment contract between community and Bogowonto DAS manager shows that from the result of statistical test calculation is obtained the value of $r = 0.679$. It means that the relationship between the comprehension of cooperation contract and participation in PHBM is 0.679 and categorized in strong closeness level. From the result of significance test (t-test) is obtained $t_{\text{count}} = 7.568$ higher than $t_{0.05} = 2.000$ at significance level of 5%, it means that there is real relationship between the comprehension of employment contract and the participant farmers' participation in PHBM.

Evaluation Result of Internal and External Strategic Factor

The calculation result of IFAS matrix (internal strategic factors analysis summary) by the weighting using paired comparison method to the strength, weakness, opportunity and threat factors. So there is categorization of three levels based on the interval gained by reducing the highest weight value with the lowest weight value, further is divided three to get interest level interval.

Strategic factor of the strength has value that is important enough starts from the weight of 0.040 to the weight of 0.082, important starts from the weight of 0.083 to the weight of 0.125, and very important starts from the weight of 0.126 to the weight of 0.168. Meanwhile, for the strategic factor of weakness, the value that is important enough starts from the weight of 0.043 to the weight of 0.077, important starts from the weight of 0.078 to the weight of 0.113, and very important starts from the weight of 0.114 to the weight of 0.148. In the value of influence level to the internal strategic factor, the rating level is valued 1 to 4. The value 1 represents the major weakness, value 2 represents the minor weakness, value 3 represents the minor strength and value 4 represents the major strength.

According to Bungin (2010, p. 243), the result of SWOT analysis can be used to give an alternative that can be done in the implementation of community forestry policy. The previous alternative becomes new suggestion for some alternatives that have been done previously. The SWOT analysis is also used to analyze the condition of policy prevailing to get a picture of whether the policy is proper to be implemented or not. However, SWOT can also be done when the policy can be continued, changed its strategy, or even stopped at all. The result of SWOT analysis can be made as matrix as follows:

Tabel 3. SWOT Matrix of Identification of Alternative Strategy of PHBM Management in Bogowonto DAS

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin: 5px auto;">INTERNAL FACTOR</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin: 5px auto;">EXTERNAL FACTOR</div>	STRENGTHS-S	WEAKNESSES-W
	1. Government policy in supporting the PHBM program	1. Development of cooperation in forestry crops marketing
	2. Solidarity of apparatus and stakeholders	2. Monitoring and evaluation
	3. Quality and quantity of resources	3. Fund allocation for activity
	4. medium and infrastructure in DAS area	4. Performance of apparatus' service to the society
	5. Lack of fund for organization activity of forestry farmer groups	5. Delay of cashing down the activity fund
OPPORTUNITIES-O	STRATEGY SO	STRATEGY WO
1. Congruence of land and climate	1. Optimization of land and empowerment of forestry farmer group	1. Cooperation development of forestry crops marketing with partner
2. Organization of forestry farmer group	2. Betterment of cultivation quality in forestry land	2. Development effort of financial cooperation with financial institution
3. Business partner with financial institution that provides credit	3. Simplifying the access requirement to banking world	3. Making MOU about credit with bank
4. Demand of forestry and agro-forestry crops	4. Restraining excessive deforestation and doing selective logging	4. Monitoring and controlling and the discipline of wood logging
5. Central governmental policy to social forestry	5. Creating cooperation agreement and comprehension and management of social forestry	5. Treaty letter of cooperation and joint agreement about management and output sharing
THREATS-T	STRATEGY ST	STRATEGY WT
1. Farmers' education level and young generation's interest in forestry sector	1. Consistency and interest growing of young generation in forestry sector increase	1. The increase of product selling price and guarantee of forestry product price
2. Authority granting of	2. Increasing the ability of forestry and agro-	2. MOU of the management and output sharing

forest management	forestry management	system
3. System of raw product sale	3. Program of pick-process and sell	3. Opportunity granting of processed product
4. Attack of plant-disturbing organism	4. Holding pest controlling movement especially wild boar and ape	4. Holding cooperation of pest controlling especially wild boar and ape

The result of weighting value of forestry development program is shown by the weight values both are 0.168 and 0.163. The rating score gained by the two factors is 4, it means very strong. So that the regency government policy in supporting the community forestry program has score 0.670 and 0.650. It means that the two factors are very important and have very strong influence in increasing community forestry. Meanwhile the internal strategic factor for weakness that needs to get regency government's attention is the cooperation development in marketing the product at field level, monitoring and evaluation, and fund allocation for counseling activity which are shown by the weight value of 0.148, 0.143 and 0.115. The three factors gain rating score 3, which means strong enough.

Cooperation development in marketing the product at the field level, monitoring and evaluation, and fund allocation for counseling activity each has score of 0.443, 0.428 and 0.345. It means that the three factors are very important and parts whose weaknesses are rather strong in the effort of maintaining the community forestry in Purworejo Regency.

Yet the total score of internal strategic factor based on the calculation result of IFAS matrix is 2.883 and indicates that the internal strategic factor is categorized "strong" (David, 2000). It shows that the internal position of district government in the community forestry program is able to exploit the available strength factors to overcome the weakness factors. The calculation result of EFAS matrix (external strategic factors analysis summary) after the weighting is done and the rating score is gained.

Strategic factor of the opportunity has value that is important enough starts from the weight of 0.036 to the weight of 0.059, important starts from the weight of 0.060 to the weight of 0.083, and very important starts from the weight of 0.084 to the weight of 0.108. Meanwhile, for the strategic factor of threat, the value that is important enough starts from the weight of 0.030 to the weight of 0.062, important starts from the weight of 0.078 to the weight of 0.113, and very important starts from the weight of 0.114 to the weight of 0.148.

In the value of influence level to the internal strategic factor, the rating level is valued 1 to 4. The value 1 means that the regency government's ability to respond the available opportunity is bad, value 2 means that the ability to respond is good enough, value 3 means that the ability to respond is good and value 4 means that the ability to respond is very good. For the external strategic factor of threat, the value 1 represents the major weakness, value 2 represents the minor weakness, value 3 represents the minor strength and value 4 represents the major strength.

The weighting result of opportunity factor shows that the main opportunity owned by the government in Purworejo regency in increasing the community forestry program is the land and climate congruence, and the presence of forestry farmer group organization which is shown by the weight value each of 0.108 and 0.105. The rating value gained by the two factors is 3, it means that the ability to respond is good. It shows that the opportunity factor is very

important and the district government is able to respond the opportunity is good. Meanwhile the external strategic factor of threat that needs to be anticipated by the district government is the farmers' education level and the young generation's interest in the forestry farm sector, and the land width that is managed with the weight value of 0.115 and 0.130. The two factors gained rating value of 3 meaning rather strong. Thus, the farmer's education level and young generation's interest in forestry farm sector and the land width have score 0.345 and 0.390. It means that the two factors are very important in the effort of increasing the community forestry program.

The next threatening factor is the slashing system that causes the grain at the farmers' level to be low with the weight value is 0.100. The rating value of this factor is 2 meaning rather weak. So that the slashing system that causes the forestry product price at the farmers' level to be low has score of 0.200. It means that the slashing system factor that causes the forestry product price at the farmers' level to be low is very important and threatening but with the rather weak level in maintaining the community forestry program.

The total score of external strategic factor based on the calculation result of EFAS matrix is 2.359. According to David (2000), the value is under the average number (2.5), which means that the external strategic factor is categorized "weak". It shows that the external position of government of Purworejo Regency in increasing the community forestry program is not able to exploit the opportunity and overcome the available threat.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion

1. The collaboration process in community joint forestry management is not a process that can produce an impact wanted in short time so that it needs long term commitment and various stakeholders involved in the initiative. One of the fundamental elements and collaborative process is belief (trust) among the parties to support the community joint forestry management program.
2. Although the community has gotten the acknowledgment upon the accessing right and also the participation in the policy making related to the forestry management poured in the Regent Decree or by the understanding memorandum between Regent and State Forestry General Company through the PHBM program. The participant farmers' participation in Community Joint Forestry Resource Management is good enough, with the participation score is 71.01%. Yet the minimum space for the local community's participation in the policy making at the national level makes the community's accessing right to the forest unsafe.
3. There is real relationship between the farmer's internal factors (education, farmers' income, land width and understanding of employment contract) with the community's participation in the activity of community joint forestry resources management, but the strength/closeness of the influence is different for each factor. Education level has very strong relationship, land width has medium relationship, farmers' income level has weak relationship, and understanding of employment contract strong relationship.

Recommendation

1. Formulating various policies in the forest management cannot be separated from the context of politic and economy situation and the discourse change of forest management at the national and global level. Therefore, the community empowerment in the activity of forestry resources management needs to be followed by the comprehension of the same interest. The dynamic alliance, policy and the forest

management controlling method need to be continuously increased by sitting down together through the non-formal education, such as PHBM technical training.

2. The status change of forest area to be joint management area influences much on the community's accessing level to the forest and all kind of forestry product they can exploit so that the understanding of all interest manager in PHBM activity that impinges the cooperation aspect under an obvious legal protection. Therefore, the community has continuous certainty and is continuously increased through development and empowerment.

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Knowledge-Sharing In Rural And Suburban Community

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ABSTRACT

This research is a cross sectional comparative study to know the difference of knowledge-sharing in Jelegong community which lives in a suburban area and Arjasari community which lives in a rural area in Bandung regency.

The variables of this study are:

1. Knowledge-sharing Intention
2. The joy of knowledge-sharing
3. Knowledge-sharing support
4. ICT ability in knowledge-sharing
5. Giving knowledge
6. Mutual trust in knowledge-sharing
7. Relationship built from knowledge-sharing
8. Knowledge-sharing contribution
9. Opportunistic behavior

The analysis unit of this study are community leaders. The number of respondents in this study are 67 community leaders in Jelegong and 67 community leaders in Arjasari. The sampling technique was conducted using cluster sampling. The data obtained were processed using t-test to know the difference of knowledge-sharing in Jelegong community and Arjasari community.

The result of this research shows that there are 6 variables that have significant difference between Jelegong and Arjasari, they are: knowledge-sharing intention, the joy of knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing support, ICT ability in knowledge-sharing, giving knowledge, mutual trust in knowledge-sharing. While variables that do not differ significantly are: relationship built from knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing contribution, opportunistic behavior.

Keywords: knowledge-sharing, suburban area, rural area

FOREWORD

Indonesia currently has quite a lot of poor people. On September 2017, the number of poor people (people with expenditure per capita per month below the Poverty Line) in Indonesia has reached 26.58 million people (10.12 percent). The percentage of poor people in urban areas amounted to 7.26 percent in September 2017. While the percentage of poor people in rural areas amounted to 13.47 percent in September 2017.

Poverty in Indonesia is suspected to occur due to Indonesian human potentials that have not been developed very well. The unfortunate psychological condition of poor people in Indonesia might also inflict a lack of appreciation from others, that might cause them to have less chance of potential development to solve problems.

Padjadjaran University as one of the largest state university in West Java has some development areas, among others are Jelekong and Arjasari in Bandung regency. Jelekong is a suburban development area that located on the border between Bandung city and Bandung regency, while Arjasari is a village development area in Bandung regency. Padjadjaran University conducts various activities in the area, such as research and community service, as a form of significant contribution to support the nation's development. This is expected to be one of the contributions provided by Padjadjaran University to alleviate poverty.

One research conducted in Jelekong and Arjasari is a research about Community Development in Achieving Psychological and Social Wellbeing, which is a research funded by Padjadjaran University in Academic Leadership Grant scheme. This research will assess or measure the community condition of the development areas. The assessment is conducted to measure the community's level of psychology and social wellbeing that can describes the human resource condition. Based on the measurement, intervention will be given as an effort to increase the wellbeing level of the village community.

One of variables to be measured in this research is knowledge-sharing. Knowledge is defined as the whole set of cognition and skill used by human to solve problems. Or in short, the capacity to do things effectively. In this era of change, human capitals such as individual knowledge and abilities are much more valuable than the physical capital. So today's era of change is also called as the era of knowledge. The era of knowledge offers unlimited resources because the individual capacity to generate knowledge is also unlimited. Knowledge grows and develops when it is shared with others.

Knowledge is a result of individual learning which accumulated into organizational knowledge, in both formal and non-formal organization. The knowledge acquired by individuals would not be exactly the same, thus the combination of individual knowledge in the organization would also yield a different organizational knowledge.

Generally, there are two kinds of knowledge, "tacit knowledge" and "explicit knowledge". Tacit knowledge is a knowledge that exists inside the human brain. Explicit knowledge is a knowledge that exists in a document or in other forms outside the human brain. Explicit knowledge can be stored or embedded in a facility, product, service and system.

In a simple term, knowledge management is about converting tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge and knowledge-sharing in an organization. In a more technical and accurate term, knowledge management is a process where organizations generate values from intellectual asset and knowledge-based asset. The scope of knowledge management is more emphasized on a certain organization environment and aims to explore a certain employee's tacit knowledge and convert it into explicit knowledge, so the knowledge can be shared to other employees and become an asset for the organization. However, knowledge management for a bigger and global environment is not limited only as a conversion effort from tacit to explicit, but must look upon the goal, that is "to share" and "to produce added value".

Knowledge-sharing is one of the methods or one of the steps in the cycle of Knowledge Management that is utilized to provide members of a group, formal and non formal organization, institution, or company, a chance to share their knowledge to other members. Knowledge-sharing can only be done when each member of the group has a wide opportunity to express their opinion, ideas, critics, and comments to other members. This is where the role of knowledge-sharing among group members became very important to increase their skill, so they are capable to think in a way that is expected to produce a form of innovation.

Knowledge-sharing behavior is an exchange of knowledge between two or more individuals, where one party communicates own knowledge and other party assimilate the knowledge so together they create a new knowledge (Paulin and Suneson, 2012; Van den Hoff and de Ridder, 2004). Cabrera and Cabrera (2005) stated that knowledge-sharing behavior is affected by a few things like social ties, interaction patterns and frequency among individuals, the use of the same language (shared language) that bonds one individual with the others, interpersonal trust, the norms that support knowledge-sharing behavior, common identification between individuals as a group (group identification), a perception of reward and punishment, self-efficacy, and expectation of reciprocity. Furthermore, Riege (2003) explained that knowledge-sharing behavior is affected by internal motivation which is someone's certainty that the shared knowledge would give benefits to other people. This can be seen as a stronger drive than extrinsic motivation such as an expectation of getting a reward in a form of money or positive appraisal. Bock and Kim (2002) see that individuals who are certain that their relationship with other people can be broader and deeper through knowledge-sharing behavior, have a positive attitude towards knowledge-sharing. Whereas apprehension of other's evaluation (evaluation apprehension) or anxiety for fear of being negatively judged by others is a kind of behavior that inhibit knowledge-sharing.

It is expected that the ability to share knowledge among other group members can overcome various problems in the group. By having a good knowledge-sharing ability, the community is expected to be able to overcome different problems and would have a better psychological and social well-being in the long run.

Based on the explanation, the formulation of the problem in this research is: How is the difference of knowledge-sharing between Jelesong community and Arjasari community in Bandung Regency?

Based on the result of this research, we will be able to start planning a precise intervention program for the next stage, to increase knowledge-sharing ability as one aspect to escalate psychological and social well-being of the community

METHODS

This research is a cross sectional comparative study to know the difference of knowledge-sharing between Jelesong and Arjasari community in Bandung regency. The research variables are:

1. Knowledge-sharing intention
2. The joy of knowledge-sharing
3. Knowledge-sharing support
4. ICT ability in knowledge-sharing
5. Giving knowledge
6. Mutual trust in knowledge-sharing
7. Relationship built from knowledge-sharing
8. Knowledge-sharing contribution
9. Opportunistic behavior

The variables are measured using a questionnaire by applying a scoring scale as follows: 1 = Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Agree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree

In this research, the analysis unit are the community leaders, formally and non-formally, that live in Jelesong and Arjasari of Bandung Regency. The number of respondents in this research

is 67 people of community leaders in Jelekong and 67 people of community leaders in Arjasari. The sampling technique is using a cluster sampling.

The data is processed using t-test to know the difference of knowledge-sharing between Jelekong and Arjasari community.

RESULT

Calculating the reliability of the measuring instrument using Alpha Cronbach gives the result $\alpha = 0.911$. It can be concluded that the knowledge sharing instrument is a reliable instrument with good items.

Calculating the validity of the measuring instrument using confirmatory factor analysis gives the following results:

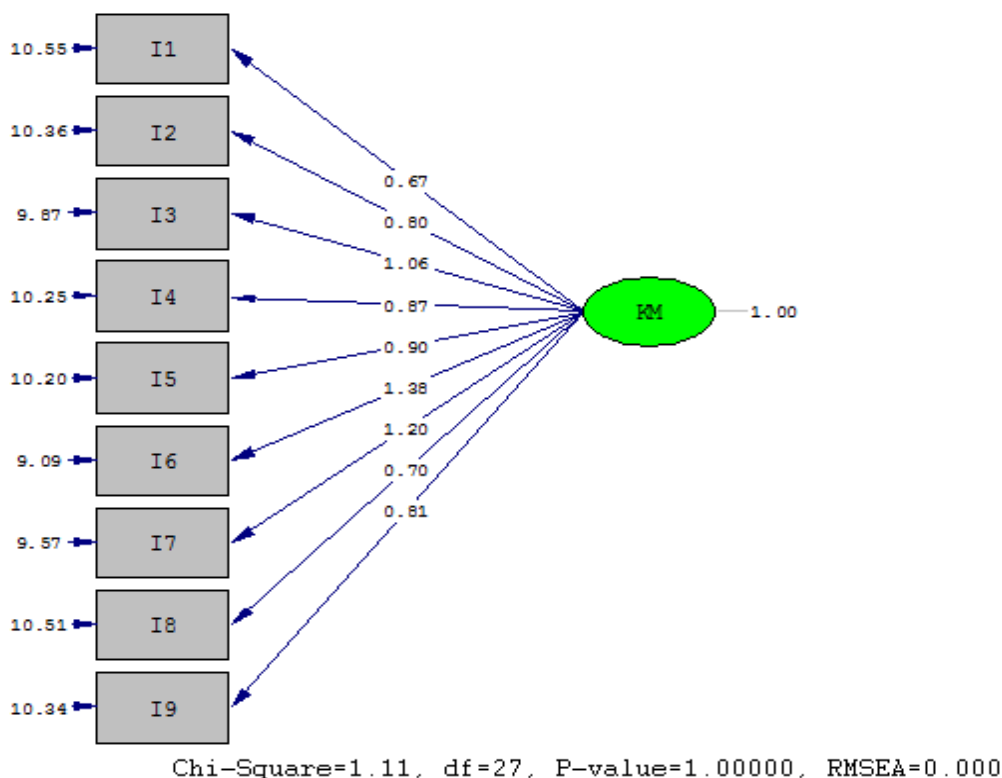


Figure 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Knowledge Sharing Measures

Based on the picture above, it can be seen that the knowledge management measurement is a valid measuring instrument with the value of $p = 1$ and $RSMEA = 0$.

The result of data processing can be seen on Picture 1 and Table 1 as follows:

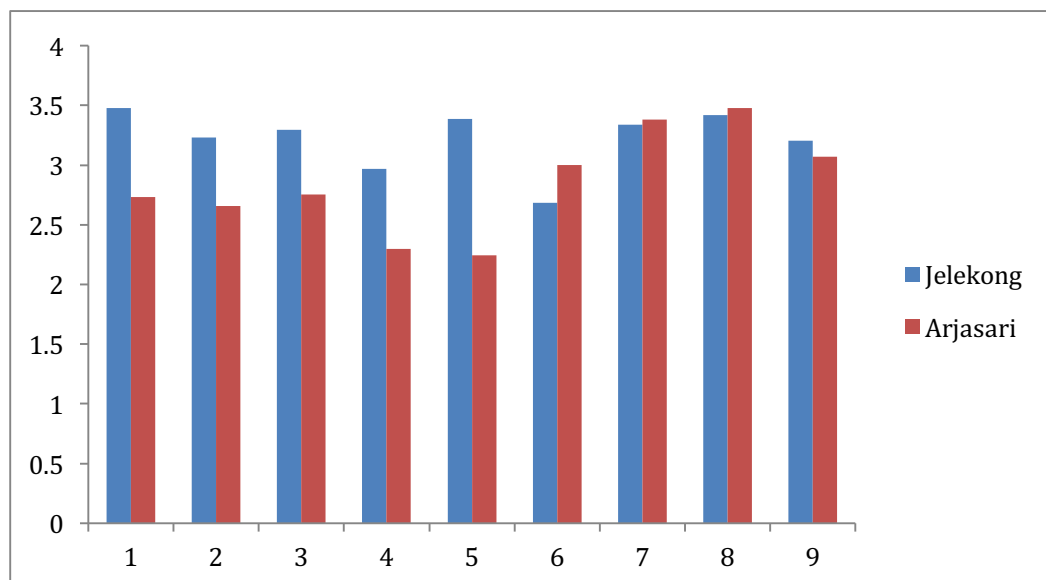


Figure 2
A Description of Knowledge-sharing in Jelekong and Arjasari

Table 1
The Difference of Knowledge-sharing between Jelekong and Arjasari community

Variables	Mean		Standard Deviation		t	p
	Jelekong	Arjasari	Jelekong	Arjasari		
1. Knowledge-sharing Intention	3.4762	2.7335	.13621	.28668	19.154	0.000*
2. The joy of knowledge-sharing	3.2313	2.6567	.56795	.45609	6.457	0.000*
3. Knowledge-sharing support	3.2935	2.7512	.59323	.48320	5.801	0.000*
4. ICT ability in knowledge-sharing	2.9701	2.2985	.82057	.63996	5.801	0.000*
5. Giving knowledge	3.3881	2.2463	.52815	.53917	12.383	0.000*
6. Mutual trust in knowledge-sharing	2.6866	3.0000	.43793	.49831	-3.867	0.000*
7. Relationship built from knowledge-sharing	3.3383	3.3831	.43613	.47231	-.570	0.570
8. Knowledge-sharing contribution	3.4179	3.4776	.40449	.51074	-.750	0.455
9. Opportunistic behavior	3.2040	3.0697	.53483	.62101	1.342	0.182

*: $P < 0.01$

According to the result as presented on Table 1, we can see that there are 6 variables that are significantly different between Jelekong and Arjasari, they are: knowledge-sharing intention, the joy of knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing support, ICT ability in knowledge-sharing, giving knowledge, mutual trust in knowledge-sharing. While variables that do not differ significantly are: relationship built from knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing contribution, opportunistic behaviour

DISCUSSION

Knowledge-sharing intention, the joy of knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing support, ICT ability in knowledge-sharing, and giving knowledge in Jelesong community are significantly higher than Arjasari community. The suburban condition of Jelesong community which is near the city is assumed to be the reason why Jelesong community is getting used to knowledge-sharing activities in increasing their wellbeing. This is supported by a far better ICT ability found in Jelesong community than Arjasari community that lives in the rural area. The suburban community with a more rational and professional mindset brings out an interaction that is based on a common interest. The relationship with other community in the suburban area is done openly in an atmosphere that is influencing one another. Furthermore, there is a strong trust on technology knowledge as a mean to increase the community wellbeing.

The research result also shows that mutual trust in knowledge-sharing in Arjasari community is significantly lower than in Jelesong community. The community in rural area possesses a kinship character, high sense of solidarity and mutual cooperation, which is assumed to be the cause of high mutual trust in their community as compared to those in the suburbs.

The result of this research will be used to provide intervention to the rural community so they will be able to share knowledge to solve various problems to increase their wellbeing. The variables that can be intervened are: knowledge-sharing intention, the joy of knowledge-sharing, knowledge-sharing support, ICT ability in knowledge-sharing, and giving knowledge. Whereas in suburban community, the variables that need to be intervened are the mutual trust in knowledge-sharing, because with a better mutual trust the community can solve many problems easier.

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Rethinking The Concept Of Entrepreneurial Emergence: A Perspective Of The Individual As The Focus

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ABSTRACT

The paper explores the concept of entrepreneurial emergence in the context of pre-organization event and located the core focus of entrepreneurial emergence in the individual thought process. It takes a radical departure from existing views to develop a new meaning of the concept and refers to this as the relevant interpretation. It identifies that entrepreneurial emergence is not the same as the coming to being of an enterprise but the budding of entrepreneurial mind in an individual. The coming to being of an enterprise is essentially an organizational emergence separate from entrepreneurial emergence. Entrepreneurial orientation and intention are the core components of entrepreneurial emergence. Fundamentally, the paper presents a platform for identifying why and how people become entrepreneurs and uses the concept to capture the initialization stage of becoming an entrepreneur. The perspective presented in the paper represents the birth of a new thought about the concept of entrepreneurial emergence which is expected to stimulate deeper examination of the contending views and theories.

Keywords: Rethinking; Entrepreneurial emergence; Organizational emergence; Entrepreneurship;

INTRODUCTION

The need for entrepreneurship development has been greatly emphasized in all nations particularly in the developing countries which have great experiences of economic hardship and mass poverty. Government at all levels are now implementing policies to facilitate business venturing and encouraging entrepreneurial spirits of the members of their societies.

The concept of entrepreneurial emergence has increasingly become an important area of focus in entrepreneurship research. This is evident in the various research efforts on the forces of entrepreneurial emergence and in the studies of entrepreneurial behaviour and processes that lead to the emergence of new firms. Some of the research efforts in this area include Reynolds (2000); Gartner, Shaver, Carter and Reynolds (2004); Carter, Gartner and Reynolds (1996); Saravasthy (2001); Hunt and Aldrich (1998); Van de Ven and Garud (1989), Ogundele (2012) and Chiles, Meyer and Hench (2004). This increasing interest in the area of entrepreneurial emergence has been necessitated by the need to facilitate business venturing based on the identified importance of entrepreneurship and business organizations in economic growth and development, on one hand, and on the other hand, the low level of interest by people in many societies to engage in entrepreneurial ventures.

Although studies on entrepreneurial emergence have only been emphasized recently, the concept of emergence in itself is not new in science. A lot of studies have been carried out in science on the nature of emergence which provide a useful framework for studying emergence in entrepreneurship. Much of the ideas on emergence in entrepreneurship are borrowed from emergence events in science. Thus the concept and definitions of entrepreneurial emergence

are tailored towards the views about “emergence” in the field of science. From the perspective of general science, “emergence is an “embodied” process that leads to the generation of something new” (Fletcher, 2003). However, in the various views it is apparent that emergence in entrepreneurship is linked to three related phenomena, as reported by Lichtenstein (2008). These include: the creation of new industries (Aldrich and Fiol, 1994), start-up i.e. coming into being of new firms (Gartner, 1985), and the discovery and exploitation of economic opportunities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Entrepreneurial Emergence has therefore been discussed at these three levels with each context constituting a distinct literature on entrepreneurial emergence (Lichtenstein, 2008). This paper presents theoretical departure from existing contexts by situating entrepreneurial emergence in the psychological rebirth of an individual to have an inner desire to engage in a personal productive activity that meet the needs of society and to believe in himself as having the capability to be successful; rather than situating it in the establishment of a new venture itself. It presents entrepreneurial emergence as the thought process leading to the event of a new venture establishment rather the event itself. It views entrepreneurial emergence as connected with the individual attitudinal change and the birth of a new mindset that favours ownership of one’s own business; rather than coming to existence of the organization itself. Essentially, the paper presents a basis for rethinking and redefining the concept of entrepreneurial emergence in a way that allows for the development of entrepreneurial personality through the modification of individuals’ thought processes.

METHODOLOGY

The paper is purely conceptual and relies on views in the existing literature on entrepreneurial emergence and business formation. The discussion was based on the information generated from the review of the literature on entrepreneurial process. The paper generates a new thinking on entrepreneurial emergence based on a structured survey of scholarly works on the theories of entrepreneurial emergence by filtration and synthetic approach in harmonizing the existing views and theoretical patterns. The discussion is therefore a collation of arguments from different perspectives by scholars of entrepreneurship development and observed individuals’ current behavioural patterns and attitudes of individuals who have become business owners, as well as those with intentions to establish business enterprises. In specific terms, the paper is product of a mono-method qualitative analysis with the use of secondary data.

REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

The various contexts of emergence in entrepreneurship reflects the fact that entrepreneurship is a complex process that occurs on multiple levels of analysis including society, individual organization and industry (Low and MacMillan, 1988; Aldrich,1999, both cited by Lichtenstein, 2008).

At the level of industry and society entrepreneurial emergence is used to describe the introduction of a new pattern of production by exploiting a new technology, and recognizing and re-creating an industry (Tushman and Anderson, 1986 cited in Lichtenstein, 2008) as well as creating entirely new communities of organizations as a result of major technological discovery or breakthrough (Hunt and Aldrich, 1998). Essentially, entrepreneurial emergence at the industry level (i.e. new industry emergence) have been explained by number of factors as cited by Lichtenstein (Ibid). These include technological breakthroughs (Hunt and Aldrich, Ibid); “Cognitive and socio-political legitimacy necessary to gain critical resources (Andrich and Fiol, 1994); endogenous processes that impact firm founding rates in an industry (Carroll,1985); the emergence of a dominant design that facilitates yet constrains further

innovation(Suarez and Utterback,1995); and contextual factors that can expand entrepreneurial events in entire regions (spilling, 1996; Lichtenstein, 2001)”

The organization level of entrepreneurial emergence analysis has its origin in Gartner's (1985) explanation of the process of new venture creation which he described as “the organizing of new organizations” (Lichtenstein, 2008). The definition of an emerging organization in creation, i.e. being formed.(Kartz and Gartner, 1988 cited in Lichtenstein, Ibid). At this level of the analysis of entrepreneurial emergence, the major research challenge has been to identify the origins of new firms and how a venture initially emerge i.e. come into being (Lichtenstein, Ibid). Unfortunately, the task only emphasizes the “how” but never includes why new firms come into being. The phenomenon of organizational emergence only reveal that new firms creation results through entrepreneurial organizing, a process which span over a period. This organizational emergence (entrepreneurial organizing) process has been named differently by different researchers such as Kartz and Gartner (1988), Hensen and Wortman (1989), Vesper (1990) and McMullan and Long (1990) as pre organization, the organization in -vitro, start-up, and pre-lunch respectively. But a more recent view by Lumpkin and Dess (1996) described organizational emergence as “new entry”, which they explained as the act of launching a new venture either by a start-up firm, through an existing firm, or via internal corporate venturing” (Lichtenstein, 2008). This view apparently represents a broader perspective of the concept of organizational emergence. Apparently, this approach to viewing organizational emergence derives from the concept of entrepreneurship as “ the coming into being of products or services for markets that do not yet exist”(Lichtenstein, 2008).

Other researchers have attempted to examine organizational emergence from the perspective of the entrepreneurial organizing behaviours that result in emergence of organization. They defined entrepreneurial organizing as the sequence of start- up behaviours (Reynolds and Miller, 1982). However no studies so far have found a consistent sequence of behaviours that correlates with organizational emergence or successful start-up (Lichtenstein, 2008). Evidently, the analysis on entrepreneurial emergence both in concept and process is quite robust. It has been viewed from different perspectives and at different levels. However, there seem to be an over concentration, whether consciously or unconsciously, on the organizational level to the exclusion of the level of the individual, the agent by whom the organization comes to being. Furthermore, in many of the analyses, organizational emergence has been unthoughtfully confused with entrepreneurial emergence. While in some cases they have been viewed as the same and therefore studied using the same framework, in some other cases analysts have tried to save the situation by distinguishing entrepreneurial emergence in levels and viewing organizational emergence as one level of entrepreneurial emergence among other levels, and the individual, in this approach occupies the rudimentary level.

THE NEW THOUGHT

In this paper, the author views entrepreneurial emergence as different and separate concept from organizational emergence. Entrepreneurial emergence is a phenomenon in itself which given other factors result in or causes organizational emergence. Entrepreneurial emergence is located in the individual i.e. it is associated with an individual.

Entrepreneurial emergence is a situation at a point in time when an individual begins to have new thought about himself in favour of business ownership. The entrepreneur emerges when the individual begins to desire business ownership, and to think and believe in himself that he can do it. Thus entrepreneurial emergence reflects a state of self realization of one's abilities to own and operate an enterprise. In other words, it is a state of new identity of the an individual which he develops upon a realization of his abilities. At this point the individual's attitude

begins to reflect his desire for entrepreneurship. It is a state of ignition yet to enter into motion. Here the latent capabilities of the individual are ignited. This is different from the point when the individual starts or establishes the business to actualize his burning desire and capabilities. It is this business establishment phenomenon that refers to organizational emergence and is defined as entrepreneurial entry. Essentially, the individual first emerges as a potential entrepreneur and then enters into entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial emergence is the threshold for organizational emergence with the start-up process as the thresh-line between them. There can be some argument about the relationship between entrepreneurial emergence and entrepreneurial orientation. We contend that they are closely related but yet different. Entrepreneurial orientation is the final stage of entrepreneurial emergence when the process of developing interest in entrepreneurship, building entrepreneurial attitude and confidence in one's capabilities to bring together and manage business resources is complete. It is simply an entrepreneurial emergence at maturity. Entrepreneurial orientation is located between entrepreneurial emergence and organizational emergence.

Emergence in general, include the creation of a "new level" of reality. The summary of previous reviews of emergence in sociology and management presented by Mihata (1997) informed that "in the doctrine of emergence, the combination of elements with one another brings with it something that was not there before" (Lichtenstein, 2008). In entrepreneurial emergence that "something that was not there before" is the desire for entrepreneurship, motivation, willingness and intention to engage in business ownership. Thus in the context of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial emergence occurs when an individual begins to experience the reality about his ability and capacity to own a business, being confronted with the reality of his circumstance. Essentially, what "emerges" in entrepreneurial emergence is the desire for entrepreneurship and positive disposition towards business ownership and management (entrepreneurial intention), all of which culminate into what has been known as entrepreneurial orientation/attitude. The new born is referred to as "entrepreneurial personality" that is capable of creating vision to connect possibilities.

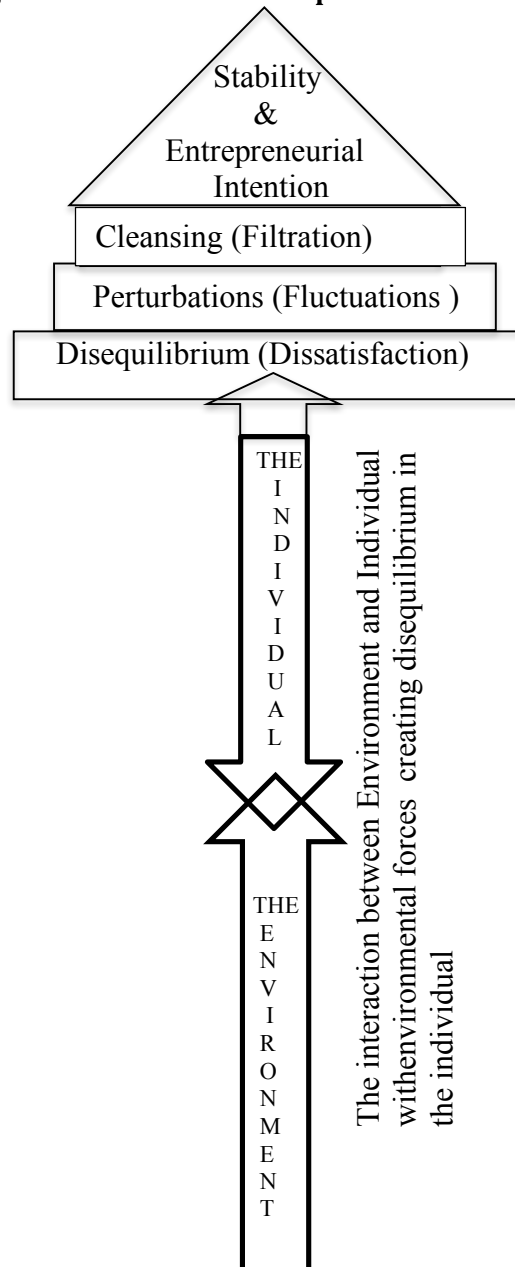
On the other hand, what "emerges" in organizational emergence is a structure called the enterprise or venture. This is what McKelvey and Lichtenstein (2007) referred to as a network of structure of interaction that defines more adaptive versus less adaptive combinations of attributes (Lichtenstein, 2008). It is in organizational emergence that vision created at entrepreneurial emergence moves from vague to clear state to take form and meaning, resulting in new venture. Here, the value associated with the new reality is being discovered and exploited. This process involves "the entrepreneur's perception of opportunity structures, or gaps in the market, that are met by acquisition and management of resources and information networks" (Gartner and Carter, 2004). A critical element in organizational emergence which distinguishes it from entrepreneurial emergence is organizing. Organizing essentially, "makes vision real through an ongoing iteration between the enactment of the entrepreneur – specific actions that 'test' the landscape, 'effectuate' an idea, 'create' an opportunity – and the responses from the environment which give clues to astute organizer of which behaviours to select and drive forward".

However, the process of entrepreneurial emergence is similar to that of organizational emergence even though the former is less visible. The process starts at the state of disequilibrium, that is when the individual has been pushed into a far-from- equilibrium state. At this state the individual is dissatisfied about his present condition and he experiences frustration in his attempt to achieve his socio-economic goals under the existing conditions, he is therefore inwardly dissatisfied. He sees a gap which he needs to fill.

The second stage of the process is that of “fluctuations” or “perturbations” when the individual becomes highly perturbed and disturbed by his condition, and he is confused as to what to do to overcome the situation (i.e. to fill the gap). He finds himself in a precarious situation of survival and tries to assess all the options for survival considering the characteristics (merits and demerits) of each scenario and the implications of his choice or decision. Critically he is faced with uncertainty about the feasibility of his decision and the outcome. At this stage he exhibits fear and lack of confidence in himself. This stage is similar to that of alternative investment/project ideas generation in organizational emergence.

The third stage is that of thought cleansing and re-organization stage where the individual fights against the fear of failure, filters out thought of failure, builds confidence in himself and overcomes or conquers all fears. At this stage the individual creates new perception and develops new orientation about entrepreneurship. The last stage is that of stability where the individual becomes stable in his thought and perception about entrepreneurship. He becomes sure of himself and now has confidence that he can do it. At this stage he is convinced that entrepreneurship engagement is the means to overcome and better his present socio-economic condition. This naturally brings the willingness by him to engage in business venturing reflected by a final decision to own a business. This stage includes the search for opportunities for investment (i.e. the type of business that will meet his needs and objectives) by the individual having made his decision to own a business. This four stage entrepreneurial emergence process is represented in the model below:

Figure 1: Four Stage Individual focal Entrepreneurial Emergence Model



Source: Author

We shift the context of entrepreneurial emergence based on complexity theory from the perspective of “a co-evolutionary process of the emergence of order in a system arising from the interaction between heterogeneous agents in the system” as presented by earlier theorist, (e.g. Holland,1998; Lichtenstein, 2000; Fuller, et.al, 2006) to an individual’s internal evolutionary process arising from the interaction of the individual and his environment. We agree with Holland (1998) and others that emergence is “a product of coupled, context dependent interactions.” However, we contend that what interact in entrepreneurial emergence are not the stages and events (processual interaction) leading to the establishment of an organization as suggested by current theory, but instead what interact are the person’s environment and his needs (both economic and social needs). For example, the interaction between the person’s socio-economic condition of unemployment and abject poverty, and his need for better economic wellbeing and survival would result in new thought about existence and what to do (economic engagement) in the circumstance. Thus critically, the use of complexity theory in conceptualizing and explaining entrepreneurial emergence is relevant

only to the extent that it explores the complex interactional relationships between the various environmental forces and the various needs of the individual to give understanding of how entrepreneurial intention is built in the individual. The complexity phenomenon in this context is used to reflect the large volume of factors or forces which affect and influence the individual's potential for survival; as well as the several needs of the individual which must be satisfied; and the multitude of ways that the environmental forces relate and interact with the individual needs, jointly and singularly, to generate such needs or to provide means to satisfy them.

Entrepreneurship is a process which depends on personal attitude, lifestyle, beliefs, values and motivation which may be inherent or cultivated overtime as a result of influence of the individual's external environment such as his socio-economic conditions, which initializes a new way of thinking about life and the need for achievement. This initialization of the new path (thinking) toward achievement routed in entrepreneurship or business ownership is what is called entrepreneurial emergence. It is on the basis of this that it can be argued that entrepreneurs are made. Who makes them? They make themselves by attitudinal change through the influence of their environment. Their personal socio-economic experience forces them to reconstruct their thought towards being entrepreneurs. Thus technically, entrepreneurship is the product of the interaction between the individual and the environment.

CONCLUSION

In this paper the context of focus is the individual and we have isolated entrepreneurial emergence to the initial realization of the need to become an entrepreneur by an individual. We identified and suggested that what has been largely interpreted in the literature as entrepreneurial emergence is in fact organizational emergence which is the natural outcome of entrepreneurial emergence. While we appreciate the adaptation of the complexity theory of emergence which forms the background of the theorization of entrepreneurial emergence, we contend that entrepreneurial emergence is an event or occurrence of reconditioning the mind from its previous order of thinking to a new order pre-occupied by a desire for entrepreneurship. We contend that it is not at the point of establishing the business or the business itself that constitutes entrepreneurial emergence but the realization of the need for entrepreneurship and the burning desire to convert available opportunities. In our thought, entrepreneurial emergence is located in the individual but influenced by his/her interactions with society. This aligns with the views that suggest that entrepreneurship is an intrinsically driven phenomenon. We also implied that the phenomenon is not related to existing entrepreneurs who are already business owners who may want to establish other new businesses, but essentially to only those who had never been business owners. Thus, we have separated two concepts of emergence in entrepreneurship, viz, entrepreneurial emergence and organizational emergence. It is hoped that conceptualizing entrepreneurial emergence in this context would help to develop an effective framework for entrepreneurial motivation and the making of entrepreneurs in a society. As Fuller, et.al.(2006) observed, the discussions on entrepreneurial emergence indicate how valuable the concept has been in entrepreneurship theorization, however, the discussions have left gaps which require scholarly attention. One of such gaps is the inability and failure to recognize that the transformation of the mind of the individual as the core element of entrepreneurial emergence. This paper fills that gap and serves as a platform for rethinking the concept of entrepreneurial emergence.

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Assessment Of Teachers' Implementation Of Continuous Assessment In Senior Secondary Schools In Delta Central Senatorial District.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the Assessment of Teachers' Implementation of Continuous Assessment in Senior Secondary School in Delta Central Senatorial District. To guide the study, six research questions were raised and six null hypotheses were formulated. The ex-post-facto research design was used in the study. The population of the study consisted of 6405 teachers from Public Senior Secondary School in Delta Central Senatorial District. 1024 teachers out of the total population of 6405 were selected through a proportionate stratified sampling technique. A 30-item questionnaire was used to collect data from the selected schools. Mean was used to answer the research questions, while t-test was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significant. Result of the findings include the following: there was no significant difference between male and female teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools; there was no significant difference between rural and urban teachers' on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools; there was no significant difference between high and low socio-economic background of teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools; there was no significant difference between single and mixed school teachers' on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools; there was no significant difference between teachers' below 30 and 30 years above on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools; there was no significant difference between B.Ed and M.Ed teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools. The study contributed to knowledge because it provides data relating to continuous assessment of teachers for the benefit of educational management; the study has opened a new route about teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment which could be of great help in the management of continuous assessment practices in schools.

Keywords: Assessment, Implementation, Teachers', Continuous Assessment

INTRODUCTION

In order to reform the educational system, the Federal Government of Nigeria in 2004, reviewed the national policy on education. One of the high points in the policy instrument was the emphasis laid on continuous assessment in the various level of education. Since one of the functions of a school is the certification of the individual learner under its embrace (Idowu & Esere, 2009), to effectively carryout this role, assessment of one kind or the other is a prerequisite. Assessment is a means where by the teacher obtains information about knowledge gains, behavioural changes and other aspects of the development of learners (Oguneye, 2002). It involves the deliberate effort of the teacher to measure the effect of the

instructional process as well as the overall effect of school learning on the behaviour of students.

Continuous assessment was introduced in schools following the adoption of 6-3-3-4 system of education. The intention was to make assessment of the learner more reliable, valid, objective and comprehensive. Since the emphasis is now on the all-round development of the learner, it becomes necessary to involve the use of assessment that will consider all aspects of learning. Before continuous assessment was introduced in secondary school, the old system of assessment was summative, that is, examination was done only at the end of the term's work. In some cases, Students were not examined on what they have been taught until the end of term or session. The summative system of assessment only made use of class test, while take home assignment and project were hardly used in assessing the learner. In the old system only the cognitive domain was assessed, that is, only the intellectual ability was examined. The affective domain (interest, attitude, feeling, emotions) and the psychomotor domain of the learners were ignored in the assessment. The old system had no feedback mechanism that reported on the pupil's area of weakness. More so, it gave scanty information in form of terminal report sheets to parents which did not really portray the child's overall performance and it usually led to examination malpractice as strong emphasis was laid on passing to promote.

In Nigeria, Educational Planners and Administrators seem to be more conscious than ever before on their role in the nationwide scheme of curriculum innovation. Not only have new courses been introduced and new contents injected into existing subjects, a fundamental change in the system of assessment of students performance has also emerged through the formalization of continuous assessment as a major component of evaluation process (Oyesola, 1986; Idowu & Esere, 2009).

In order to assess the new educational system, one policy that cuts across all educational levels throughout Nigeria is that of continuous assessment. In Section 1 of the National policy of Education (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004), which deals with the philosophy and goals of education in Nigeria, paragraph 9 (g) states that "educational assessment and evaluation shall be liberalized by their being based in whole or in part of continuous assessment of the progress of the individual" (p8). This statement is well amplified in subsequent sections of the document dealing with primary Education (section 4), Secondary Education (section 5), Tertiary Education and finally in Section 12 which deals with planning, Administration and supervision of Education.

The repeated emphasis being placed on continuous assessment is a clear evidence of its importance. The national Steering Committee on Continuous Assessment led by Professor Yoloye regards continuous assessment as a method of ascertaining what a student gains from schooling in terms of knowledge, industry and character development taking into account all his / her performances in tests, assignments, projects and other educational activities during a given period of term, year, or during the entire period of an educational level (Ipaye, 1995). According to Ezewu and Okoye (1986), continuous assessment refers to a systematic and objective process of determining the extent of a student's performance in all the expected changes in his behaviour, from the day he enters upon a course of study and judicious accumulation of all pieces of information derived from this purpose with a view to using them to guide and shape the student and to serve as a basis for making important decision about the child. In other words, continuous assessment should be systematic, comprehensive, cumulative and guidance oriented.

Similarly, the official handbook of the Federal Ministry of Education (1985), viewed continuous assessment as a method of finding out what the student has gained from learning activities in terms of knowledge, thinking and reasoning, character development and industry (Education Evaluation Unit, 1980). This new appraisal technique is designed to systematically cover all students performance in class tests, home assignment, projects, interviews, questionnaires and other school activities, weekly, monthly or periodically – throughout the entire duration of the students course. The handbook also stipulates among other things, that the accurate records of these data should be kept for further use for aiding the student's further development, finding necessary information to parents and guardians and for the general guidance purposes.

Effective continuous assessment reduces such incidences as do-or-die affair. Owing to the fact that assessment has been summative, learners are tempted to do everything within their reach to ensure their promotion to the next class thereby increasing the rate of examination malpractice. Continuous assessment lays more emphasis on comprehensive information on the cognitive, affective and psychomotor measures of an individual, if well implemented. This will also make learning more meaningful to the children and essentially for independent living and meaningful contribution of effective life of the society.

Teachers implement continuous assessment in a variety of ways such as tests, questionnaire, observation technique, interview, sociometric technique, project technique etc. to allow them to observe multiple tasks and to collect information about what students know, understand and can do. Teaching experience determines teachers' level of understanding of continuous assessment in schools. Dosumu (2002) observed that the more experienced a teacher is, the more he begins to understand and appreciate some important test construction skills. Therefore, Implementation of continuous assessment may be sensitive to years of experience. Location is a factor in teachers' perception of continuous assessment. The school location comprises urban and rural schools where the teachers live or operate from. These are the geographic area (urban and rural) that the school is located.

One of the most powerful factors related to school performance is socioeconomic status (SES), the combination of income, occupation, and level of education that describes a family or individual. A family's SES provides a sense of their standing in a community; how much flexibility they have in where they live or what they buy, how much influence they have on political decision making, and the educational opportunities their children have. Teachers' SES could directly affect their work. Thompson (2006) as cited in Werang (2014) , low pay teachers' mixed with increasing costs of living and the fear of losing their jobs, has been a significant factor in the overall decrease in implementation of continuous assessment. The low pay has also affected people that are considering becoming teachers in the future, by convincing them to train for higher paying professions.

In spite of the seemingly widely acceptance of continuous assessment as a tool for improving education, it is disappointing to note that more than twenty years after its introduction in Nigerian schools, output still remains the same, as found in schools. A major contributing factor to this prevailing condition is lack of good quality teachers who would have enhanced meaningful teaching, Okeke (2001). Fasasi (2006) observed that as far back as 2004/2005, 25.65% of teachers in Nigerian schools were not professionally qualified. As a result, despite the teachers' understanding of the need for continuous assessment, their quality of teaching and application of continuous assessment are likely to be low. Consequently, this educational attainment of the teachers either B.Ed or M.Ed will have adverse effects on the learners. It is expected that the more qualified the staff members are, the more concerned and more responsible they become in the implementation of continuous assessment.

Gender as a nature of teachers of either males or females plays a significant role on teachers' level of implementation of continuous assessment. Nzewi (2010) observed that Science and Technology were seen as male domain. As a result, the females' upbringing tended to shape them away from Science and Technology. The calculations involved in continuous assessment would likely make female teachers uncomfortable because of the wrong societal expectation that calculations are not meant for women.

School type includes single sex school type and mixed school type. Oyebola (2014) indicated that teachers were given the same training irrespective of the type of schools they are working whether single sex or mixed sex school type. Teachers are given the same opportunity to conduct continuous assessment for their students and they are aware of the importance of continuous assessment to their students' progress and success in education. Since teachers are key stakeholders in the reform of educational system, their age has an important role to play in the education of the student. A study carried out in Turkey by Martin and Smith (1990), teachers were grouped in three levels – young age, middle age and old age.

Despite these heavy responsibilities necessitated by the teaching professions, teachers are expected to be physically, mentally and professionally prepared to be accepted in operating the system (Greg, 1997). The old system of assessment was single, and teachers never encouraged the implementation of continuous assessment because to them they feel it is burdensome and time consuming. Also, there is the problem of unqualified personnel to implement and operate the continuous assessment method. Judging from general comment from parent and society, it is apparent that continuous assessment has some factors that affect its implementation. Therefore, in order to have an effective implementation of continuous assessment, teachers should acquire skills and utilize the results of such assessment in improving school curriculum. Teachers must be knowledgeable in interpreting the scores and grades awarded to students using the various measuring instruments, demonstrate competence in the construction of tests, questionnaire, checklists and rating scales etc. for assessing the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains or learning outcome. Nwana, (1979); Ipaya, (1982); Nkpa, (1984) among others.

The success of implementation of continuous assessment programme depends on factors such as the provision of materials and equipments to schools, particularly in the issuance of the senior secondary school certificate, the junior secondary school certificate even the primary six leaving certificate by head masters and principals.

From the researcher's personal experiences and observations from teachers, it was noticed that there are poor assessment practices among teachers. For example, many teachers conduct weekly or monthly tests and the results of such tests were never incorporated in the final grading for any purpose. This has been traced to the cognitive aspect of the student learning to the neglect of the manipulative skills, attitude and values which the student must have acquire during the period of learning. Teachers appear to give less attention to the implementation of continuous assessment. Hence, the researcher wants to make investigation into the problem that might be responsible for teachers' lack of interest in effective implementation of continuous assessment in schools. This apparent lack of interest in the implementation of continuous assessment prompted the need for this research to determine the extent of the implementation of continuous assessment in Senior Secondary School in Delta Central Senatorial District.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Assessment

While many educators are highly focused on the tests, it is important to consider that over the year, teachers can build in many opportunities to assess how students are learning and use this information to make beneficial changes in institution. Assessment involves two major types of activities; collecting information about how much knowledge and skill students have learned (measurement) and making judgments about the adequacy or acceptability of each student's level of learning (evaluation). To determine how much learning has occurred, teachers can for example, have students take exams, respond to oral questions, do home work exercises, write papers, solve problems, and make oral presentations. Teachers can then evaluate the scores from those activities by comparing them either to one another or to an absolute standard.

Huba and Freed (2000), viewed assessment as the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and divers' sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences. Assessment should center on the learner and learning process. It is as processes that identify, collect, and prepared data to evaluate the attainment of student's outcomes and program/unit objectives. Huba and Freed (2000), explained that there are four elements in assessment. They are; formulating statement of intending learning outcomes, developing or selecting assessment measures, creating experiences leading to outcomes, discussing and using assessment results to improving learning.

Linn and Miller (2005) considered assessment as any of a variety of procedures used to obtain information about student performance; it is the full range of information gathered and synthesized by teachers about their students and their classrooms. Effective assessment uses relevant, direct, indirect, quantitative and qualitative measures as appropriate to the objective or outcomes being measured. Appropriate sampling methods may be used as part of an assessment process.

Black and Wiliam (1998) defined assessment broadly to include all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning. Under this definition, assessment encompasses teacher observation, classroom discussion, and analysis of student work, including home work and tests. Assessment become formative when the information is used to adopt teaching and learning to meet student needs. Allen (2004) opines that assessment involves the use of empirical data on student learning to refine programs and improve student learning. When teachers know how students are progressing and where they are having trouble, they can use this information to make necessary instructional adjustments, such as re-teaching, trying alternative instructional approaches or offering more opportunities for practice. These activities can be lead to improved student success. Boston and Carol (2002), identified various types of assessment which includes; formative assessment, summative assessment, placement assessment, screening assessment, performance assessment etc.

Formative Assessment

This is the process of evaluation of student learning that are typically administered multiple times during a unit, course, or academic program. The general purpose of formative assessment is to give educators in- process feedback about what students are learning or not learning so that instructional approaches, teaching materials and academic support can modified accordingly. It can take the form of diagnostic, standardized tests, quizzes, oral question, and class discussions with students. It tends to see if the students understand the instruction before doing a summative assessment.

Summative Assessment

This is used to evaluate student learning at the conclusion of a specific instructional period – typically at the end of a unit, course, semester, program, or school year. Summative assessment are typically scored and graded tests, assignments, or project, that are used to determine whether students have learned what they were expected to learn during the defined instructional period. In order words, it is made to summarize what the students have learned, to know if they understand well.

Diagnostic Assessment

Diagnostic assessment deals with the whole difficulties at the end that occurs during the learning process.

Placement Assessment

It is used to place students into a course level, or academic program. It is administered before a course or program begins, and the basic intent is to match students with appropriate learning experiences that address their district learning needs.

Concept of Continuous Assessment

In modern society, education is viewed as the primary means of solving social, economic and political problems. Indeed, the future welfare of a child has been placed on the shoulders of the schools. Today, assessment has become a critical composition of education reform. Policy makers, educational administrators, families and employers often view assessment scores to hold schools accountable for teachers' performance.

The national policy on Education dated back to 1969 curriculum development conference in a paper presented by National Education Research Council (NERC). The National policy on Education (1981) stated that "ultimately, there will be no formal examination at the end of the first six years of primary education; certificate will be based on continuous assessment. At the end of the first three years following primary education, the junior secondary school certificates will be based on final examination and continuous assessment method. The certificate will be issued by the head of the institution. At the end of the three years course (senior secondary), a formal examination will be given but the performance during the three years will be weighted and taken in account for certificate purpose. The university and other institution of higher learning will also be required to explore ways of introducing and element of continuous assessment of their students. Continuous assessment refers to the mode of evaluation and certification of learning that takes into account the learners' performances in the area of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain of educational objectives.

Continuous assessment is a classroom strategy implemented by teachers to ascertain knowledge, understanding, skills and attitude attained by students. In line with the above assertions, Reece and Walker (2003) defined assessment as the process of obtaining information about how much the student knows. That is, continuous assessment is a process and is much more than an examination of pupil's achievement. The Trent of using tests and examinations at the end of a semester / a year as a mode of assessment does not by itself prove the learners excellence in different aspects. In this respect, onetime final examination or test does not bring a complete or true picture of students' performance including the higher order thinking skills. To overcome this, it will be much more helpful if the assessment is employed on a continuous basis using different strategies Shumetie (2015).

Continuous assessment according to Onuka, 2006; Burhanua, 2003; in Alex (2015) is a process of listening closely to student, observing student as they are engaged with materials and trying

to understand what they understand. It is a function for building up cumulative judgment about a student learning activities in term of knowledge, thinking and reasoning behaviours or character development and industry. Going by these definitions, continuous assessment, according to national policy on education (2004) continuous assessment is defined as a mechanism whereby the final grading of a student in cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains take account of all his performances in a schooling period.

Nitko (2004) described continuous assessment as an on – going process of decisions about what to teach and how well students have learned. According to the Cambridge learner Dictionary (2002), the word assessment comes from the root word assess which means to judge, or decide or determine the importance, size, or value of something. It is a process used in collecting information on events, objects, but particularly on human behaviour which is used to evaluate the quality of work done. When assessment is applied to education, it is an all embracing term covering any of the situations in which some aspects of pupils' education are measured by the teacher and the success of their instructional practices. Some of the problem of continuous assessment that could be associated with the teacher include their skill in test construction (Alausa, 2006; Abiy, 2013) in Ale (2015) content that like using the table of specification before test construction and their attitude towards the continuous assessment approach and record keeping. Teacher should be able to measure the learner cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain.

Adebowale and Alao (2008) sees continuous assessment as an ongoing process of gathering and interpreting information about student learning that is used in making decision about what to teach and how well students have learned. To the contrary, the broad definition sees continuous as related to and beyond classroom instruction. For example, Asabe (2007) envisaged it as a decision making tool that teachers utilize about students, curriculum programs, and educational policy. Many however agree that it is a process of collecting, interpreting and synthesizing information to aid decision making.

Continuous assessment occurs recurrently during the school years, and serves as a part of teacher – student interaction. It serves as a means of increasing students' achievement, and is used as an alternative or supplemental to high stake testing (USAID, 2003). As divergent from summative tests, continuous assessment is formative in that, it enable both teachers and students to be aware of the knowledge base and level of students, and indicates both teachers and students the gap to be filled and the higher level to deal with.

In their definition, Okpala, Onacha and Oyedeji 1993, in Ayodele (2015) viewed continuous assessment as a system of assessment which is carried out at pre – determined intervals for the purpose of monitoring and improving the overall performance of student and of the teaching learning environment. The predetermined interval means there is a plan of operation which is uniform for all schools in the educational system. For such plan to work effectively, the steps and activities it contains should be implemented in a systematic fashion to ensure uniformity and comparability. More also Osadebe (2013) defined continuous assessment as the frequent use of valid and reliable instruments or techniques such as test, observation, questionnaire, interview among others to obtain information about students behaviour upon which judgment is made. These include cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain.

Webb and Briars (1990) argued that assessment must be an interaction between the teacher and students, with the teacher continually seeking to understand what a student can do and how a student is able to do it. Yoloye (1999) also pointed out that continuous assessment is only a part of the educational evaluation. He further argues that continuous assessment is a

method of evaluating the progress and achievement of students' educational institutions. This means that continuous assessment could be used to predict future pupils' performance in the final examinations and the possible success of the work place or on a particular job. Many teachers seem not to understand the meaning, purpose and practice continuous assessment. Oguneye (1992) noted that majority of teachers in our school do not understand why they have to give continuous assessment tests, mark and analyze the results of such tests. He argued that some teachers because of their ignorance of the meaning and purpose of continuous assessment see it as an introduction capable of wasting their time, energy and materials. In such situation, what would one expect from such teachers? How valid and reliable are the scores generated?

Concept of Implementation

Implementation is the carrying out, execution or practice of a plan, a method or any design, idea, model, specification standard or policy for doing something. As such, implementation is the action that must follow any preliminary thinking in order for something to actually happen Rouse (2000).

In line with the new national policy on education (2014), the practical task of implementing new curriculum at school level requires continuous assessment as part of the curriculum in general and the instructional process in particular. This shows that enough attention is given towards the implementation of continuous assessment, since it's a classroom strategy implemented by the teachers to ascertain knowledge, understanding, skills and attitude attained by students.

Implementation is defined according to winter and Squalanski (2001) as a specific set of activities designed to put into practice and activity or program of know dimensions. According to this definition, implementation processes are purposeful and are described in sufficient detail such independent observers can detect the presence and strength of the specific set of activities. In addition, the activities or program being implemented is described in sufficient detail so that its presence and strength. Implementation is a continuous process that includes a set of activities designed to put a program or activity into practice. It is a process of turning formal plan – often very detailed conceptual plans that will affect many into reality Grant, Morris and Wooding (2011).

Continuous assessment is one of the innovations introduced into Nigerian Education by the National Policy on Education (2004). The basis for continuous assessment implementation in schools is that one short examination, which was the main mode of examination was inadequate, hence the introduction of continuous assessment. Continuous assessment is a verifiable tool in assessment in that, it is comprehensive, systematic, cumulative and guidance oriented. Modupe (2015). Many schools have since embarked on the implementation of continuous assessment. It is not surprising therefore to find teachers testing their pupils weekly, at the end of each unit or module.

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on Sex of Teacher

Continuous assessment is a classroom strategy implemented by teachers to ascertain the knowledge, understanding, and skills attained by pupils. Teachers administer assessments in a variety of ways over time to allow them to observe multiple tasks and to collect information about what pupils know, understanding and can do. Continuous assessment occurs frequently during the school year and is part of regular teacher – pupil interactions. Pupils receive feedback from teachers based on their performance that allows them to focus on what they have not mastered (Mkpa, 2003).

In the study carried out by Byichipi, Partrick and Akpokiniovo (2007) about gender and qualification differentials in the implementation of continuous assessment. There is a variation in the implementation of continuous assessment with respect to gender. The implication to their observation therefore is that, in terms of implementation of continuous assessment, the female teachers put in more effort to this regard. This may have risen from that fact that women who are natural home keepers may have brought their God given attribute to play by properly monitoring the children who have been put under their care. To them, female teachers, were greater in the teaching services in the implementation of continuous assessment.

The extent to which teacher assess students' behaviour needs to be determined. Assessment would help to determined whether or not teachers are fully practicing continuous assessment in line with the Federal Government recommendations as in the Handbook of continuous assessment. A situation where teachers do not properly implement a country's educational policy, it poses a serious problem to educational development Osadebe (2015).

Adeneye, and Babajide (2013) as sited in Nneji (2012) investigated the attitude of 305 Science Technology and Mathematics (STM) teachers towards assessment practices in Nigeria. Their investigation shows that gender, teaching experience and professional training might be factors in STM teachers' attitude toward assessment practices.

The investigation carried out by Osadebe (2015) shows that there was no effect between male and female practice of continuous assessment by school teachers in line with the educational policy in Nigeria. Also, the result was similar to that of Omole, (2007); Osadebe, (20014); Odubenu, (2015) who carried out their study on continuous assessment and found low implementation by teachers.

The attainment of a functional education in Nigeria is in the hands of school teacher and successful implementation of continuous assessment while gender has a significant influence on the implementation of continuous assessment and other educational policies by teachers. Nzewi (2010) sited by Okeke and Nkiru (2012), observed that science and technology were seen as male domain. As a result, the females' upbringing tended to shape them away from Science and Technology. The calculation involved in continuous assessment would likely make female teachers uncomfortable because of the wrong societal expectation that calculations are not reserve for women.

The result of an investigation by Adetayo (2014) reveals that teachers do not differ significantly in the implementation of continuous assessment practice across schools by teachers' gender. This may be due to the fact every teacher irrespective of sex is given the same opportunity to conduct continuous assessment for their pupils and they are aware of the importance of continuous assessment to their pupil progress and success in education. Both male and female teachers at one point or the other were also trained in the rudiment of continuous assessment in tertiary institutions.

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on Location of Teacher

The National Policy recognizes that Government is aware that the administration of continuous assessment within schools will pose certain significant problems to both teachers and the educational system itself. The policy further advocated training programmes for teachers who will be central to the achievement of continuous assessment and other objectives of school evaluation programme. There is the need to design an operational plan so that uniformity in both standards and record keeping across and within schools will be maintained. Such model is

necessary so as to facilitate the transfer of students records from school – to – school without much distortion to his / her previous records. Omebe (2014).

As teachers assess their own students, one cannot guarantee that the standards are the same across schools. This is because, the assessment instruments may focus on different topics and grading system which may vary from one location to another (urban and rural) based on the individual teacher. Ifiofokobong (2015).

The investigation carryout by Osadebe (2015) reveal that there was no difference between rural and urban school teachers on the practice of continuous assessment in line with educational policy in Nigeria. The result was also similar to that of Omole, (2007); Osadebe, (2014); Odubenu (2015) who carried out their studies on continuous assessment and found low implementation by teachers. The low practice was at variance with Federal Government of Nigeria (1981, 1998, & 2004) policy on continuous assessment and Federal Ministry of Education Science and Technology (1985) Handbook on Continuous assessment, who supported high practice of continuous assessment. They emphasized that continuous assessment should be practice by teachers in line with the educational policy of Nigeria.

A study carried out by Kauts and Kaur (2013) on perception and attitude of teacher from rural and urban towards continuous comprehensive evaluation at secondary school reveal that there was no difference between the rural and urban teachers, and urban teacher teachers have a slightly more favourable attitude than rural teachers toward implementation of continuous comprehensive evaluation at secondary school level. It was further investigated in a study by Anita (2013) that urban teachers were more positive than rural teacher about factors contributing to success in their respective schools.

Rahman (2003) expressed that school authorities are always busy to get money for themselves and they give concentration rarely to school welfare. It is one of the main challenges of implementing continuous assessment at rural a school for which teachers cannot use effective methodology in classroom and that is liable performance in rural areas.

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on Socio – Economic Status of Teachers

Socio – economic status (SES) is a measure of class standing, combination of education, income and occupation. It is commonly conceptualized as the social standing or class of an individual or group. When viewed through a social class, privilege, power, and control are emphasized.

Santrock (2004) defines socio – economic status as the grouping of people with similar occupational, educational, and economic characteristics. There are three levels of SES. Low, moderate, and high to describe the three areas a family or an individual may fall into. When placing a family or individual into one of these categories, any or all of the three variables (income, education, and occupation) can be assessed. Education in higher socio – economic families is typically stressed as much more important, both within the household as well as the local community.

Woolfolk (2007) call SES the relative standing in society based on income, power, background and prestige. Teacher's socio – economic status, according to Burden and Byrd (1999) as a measure of a family's relative position in a community, determined by a combination of parents' income, occupation and level of education. Similarly, America Psychological Association (APA) stated that, socio – economic status (SES) is often measured as a

combination of education, income, and occupation. It is commonly conceptualized as the social standing or class of an individual or group.

Teachers SES could directly affect teachers work. Nichols (2006) stated that "teachers suffer from low – pay – high cost – of – living gap. Werang (2014) as sited in Thompson (2006) low pay mixed with increasing costs of living and the fear of losing their jobs, has been a significant factor in the overall decrease in the teachers implementation of continuous assessment. The low pay has also affected people that are considering becoming teachers in the future, by convincing them to train for higher paying professions.

Eggen and Kauchak (2004) viewed SES as the most powerful factor related to school performance. The combination of income, occupation and level of education describes a family or individual. A family's SES, provides a sense of their standing in a community, how much flexibility they have in where they live and what they do and the educational opportunities their wards have. In connection of with the above facts. Bailius (2014) see teachers' performance as an integrative part of school performance and is affected by their socio economic. Teachers in high socio – economic status are not only able to provide an adequate of learning facilities at home to developing his or her capabilities and their children's capability as well.

Wollfolk (1993) was on the opinion that teachers in high economic status are even able to provide a more special time for learning, preparing materials and media needed in tomorrow's teaching – learning process, checking and assessing students work. On this contrary, teachers in low socio – economic status are not only able to provide their family's basic needs but also are not able to provide time and facilities at home to develop their knowledge and skills needed to deal with assessment challenges.

Quoted kummerer (1990), Werang (2010) wrote "teachers' have no time at home to design teaching learning process and to provide all the needed materials to increase students understanding. Teachers even have no enough time to assess students work due to the fact that they are so busy to earn money for the need of family's life by teaching in other schools, farming, and trading. Teachers in low socio – economic status some time even present in school as a very exhausted person. Their mind is occupied with the fact that they are not able to provide all the basic needs of the family. This fact is directly affect teachers work and the classroom performance.

The result of the investigation carried out by Werang (2012) shows that SES of teachers could enhance teachers job performance which could greatly affect teachers involvement on the implementation of continuous assessment. This is also in line with Eggen and Kaychak (2004) as sited by Basilius (2014), found that one of the most powerful factors related to school performance is socio – economic status (SES), the combination of income, occupation, and level of education that describes a family or individual. This result was also similar to Kummerer (1990) and Werang (2010). Findings that teachers have no time to assess their students work due to the fact that they are so occupied with other activities in order to meet up with their family needs.

The best assessment practices exhibited by teachers are not influenced by socio – economic status. Standards could also be due to excess teachers' workload or even the diversion of efforts to personal issues like focusing attention on how to meet up with family demands instead of teaching Bassey, William, Akpama & Ayang (2013).

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on type of School

Single-sex school, also known as single gender education, is a practice of conducting education where male and female students attend separate class or in separate buildings or schools. The practice was common before the nineteenth century, particularly in secondary education and higher education. Single school in many cultures is advocated on the basis of tradition as well as religion, and is practiced in many parts of the world. Recently there has been a surge of interest and establishment of single-sex schools due to educational research.

Mixed-sex school also known as mixed-gender education where males and females are educated together. Mixed – sex school has since become a standard in many cultures, particularly in western countries. Teachers are critical components in challenging gender bias in schooling, but they also can be major contributors to it as well, through assessment practices, curriculum choices, and assessment strategies. Kathryn (2009).

A common response from teacher when asked about gender inequality in classroom (mixed or single) is that they treat all their students the same. Elaine (2013). There are two problems with this statement, first, students are diverse and have different learning issues, thus treating all students in the same way means that some students will be assess better than their peers. Secondly, teachers may be ignoring their unconscious gender bias towards their students, their schools and them, if ignored, these gender biases which may have developed from culture norms, may have developed from cultural norms and may lead to bias in class room assessment.

Scanlebury (2009) indicated that there is a strong gender role stereotype for masculinity and feminity. Students who do not match them can encounter problems with teachers and with their peers. For example, the expectation is that boys naturally exhibit boisterous, unruly behaviour, are academically able, rational, and socially uncommunicative, where as girls are quite, polite and studious. Girls, who present discipline problems for teachers, or quite, studious boys, may encounter a lack of understanding from teachers and teachers' classroom assessment.

Teachers' uses gender expectations as a means of maintaining classroom control. Teachers will seat undisciplined boys next to girls as a classroom management. Teachers' uses the gendered expectation that girls nurturing characteristics still lead them to place other needs before their own. In other words, it is more challenging in implementing continuous assessment or assessing mixed school than single school in the areas of their cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain. Baker (2007), Boys and Girls have different educative experiences in classroom. Most students prefer to learn in groups, using hands – on activities. Mixed sex schools can engage students and teachers monitor the interactions between students in those groups to ensure all students are being assess equally, compared to single – sex school where teachers, for example girls are often relegated to passive roles in class and in performance based assessment (Scantlebury & Baker 2007)

The result of the research carried out by Oyebola (2014) reveal that teachers do not differ significantly in conducting continuous assessment practices across schools whether mixed sex school type or single sex school type. This may be due to the fact that every teacher irrespective of the type of schools is given the same opportunity to conduct continuous assessment for their students and they are aware of the importance of continuous assessment to their students' progress and success in education.

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on Qualification of Teachers

Since assessment is a means whereby the teacher obtains information about knowledge gains, behavioural changes and other aspects of the development of learners (Oguneye, 2002). It involves the deliberate effort of the instructional process as well as the overall effect of school learning on the behaviour students. The quality of assessments and their consequences on teaching and learning depends on teachers' competence and knowledge in the educational assessment (Alkharusi & Al - musawai 2011). Along this line, Gronlund (2006) proposes that a well grounded educational assessment requires a clear articulation of all planned learning outcomes of the instruction and diverse assessment methods that are related to the instruction, adequate to sample student performance, and fair to everyone.

The America Federation of Teachers (AFT), the National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME) and the National Education Association (NEA) (1990) stated that teachers should be competently be able to chose and develop assessment methods appropriate for instructional decisions, administer, score, and interpret results of externally produced and teacher assessment, use assessment results when making educational decisions, develop valid grading procedures, communicate assessment result to various audiences, and recognize unethical, illegal, and inappropriate methods and uses of assessment. For instance, in a survey of 555 in – service teachers in the United States, Plake and Impara (1992) developed and instrument titled the “Teacher Assessment Literacy Questionnaire (TALQ)” consisting of 35 items to measure teachers' knowledge in educational assessment based on the AFT, NCME, and NEA (1990). The findings showed that the teachers were not well prepared to assess students learning as indicated in their studies and hence teacher assessment literacy requires more examination.

With respect to Egwu, Elewa and shinto (2009) observed that poor experience / qualification of mathematics teachers in Benue and Ondo States adversely affected implementation of continuous assessment. Complementing this finding, Ipaye (2007) pointed out that most teachers do not have the right qualification and training in educational measurement in post primary schools situation that greeted the effective implementation of continuous assessment in our schools.

Susuwele-Banda (2005) contended in their studied that teacher colleges and ministry of Education should consider classroom assessment issues more in training programmes and that collaboration between teacher colleges and ministry of Education should be increased to better understand the challenges and reality of the classroom assessment experienced by the teachers.

Ogan-Bekiroglu (2009) argued that teachers' knowledge and attitudes in educational assessment should be considered when making reforms in the educational systems. Results of both studies by Susuwele – Banda (2005) and Ogan – Bekiroglu (2009) implies that teachers assessment practices might be a combination of many factors including teachers personal knowledge and characteristics of the school context.

In a study of educational assessment literacy, Deluca and Klinger (2010) found those teachers who were enrolled in an educational assessment cause had higher levels of confidence in educational assessment literacy than those who did not have formal instruction in assessment. Koloj and Koaites (2012) surveyed 691 primary and secondary school teacher in Botswana about their classroom assessment practices. Result indicated factors related to teachers educational level, teaching experience, and assessment training contributed positively to beliefs, skills, and uses of desirable classroom assessment practice.

Likewise, in a study of assessment knowledge, skills, and attitude of 217 in – service teachers in Oman, Alkharusi et al (2011) found that teachers who had pre – service course in educational assessment demonstrated an average a higher level of educational assessment knowledge than those who did not have a pre – service assessment course. Stiggins (1994) indicated that teaching load and educational assessment training may play a critical role in teachers' attitude, competence, knowledge and practice in educational assessment.

Implementation of Continuous Assessment Based on Age of Teacher

In continuous assessment, teachers assess the curriculum as implemented in that classroom, it allows teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching strategies relative to the curriculum, and to change those strategies as dedicated by the needs of their students Ayodele (2015). According to Sloan and Kelly (2003), most developed countries such as America do not care about the age of a teacher. A study on teachers' age carried out in Turkey by Martin & Smith (1990), teachers were grouped in three levels – young age, middle age, and old age. The study revealed that middle age teachers were perceived by learners to be more effective in classroom assessment, organization and competence.

The importance of teachers in the educational process has been demonstrated by many empirical studies such as; Hattie, 2003; Sanders and Rivers, 1996; Rockoff, 2004; Harushek, 1992. Teachers are key stakeholders in the reform because efforts are essential in the implementation process Tumova (2012). A study carried out in Tanzanian secondary school teachers' perception of continuous assessment practice by Ndalichako (2013) indicated that age as a variable has no significant effect on teachers continuous assessment practice.

Burhanu (2004) conducted a research on teachers' assessment of student performance with emphasis on continuous assessment at high school level. Moreover, Delsalegn (2001) carried out a research on the evaluation of adequacy of the syllabus training institutes in preparing trainees to implement continuous assessment in circle secondary school. In addition, Tamene (2007) conducted a research on factors affecting the implementation of continuous assessment at college level. Getachew (2008) also conducted a research on the status of continuous assessment and factors affecting its implementation in technical education and training at college level. Similarly, Hassen (1998) conducted a research in continuous assessment in general framework and implementation strategy. In their findings irrespective of teachers' age, has no effect on the continuous assessment practice in schools.

On the contrary, a studied investigated by Metin (2010), reveal that teachers under the age of 25 years have more positive attitude towards performance assessment in the classroom level. This is also in line with Kanatli (2009) that teachers between age 21 – 25 have more positive attitude toward assessment practices than older teachers. This is to say that, young teachers have more positive attitude on assessment practice than older teachers. Implementation of continuous assessment practices is very new in educational system. It was though, that this condition was the result from young teachers who graduated recent years had well taught and practiced on measurement and assessment mentality by academicians in higher institutions. On the other hand, the older teacher who graduated in past years may be lack of theoretical background on newly adopted assessment practice. Metin (2010).

REVIEWED OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

From the work of Osadebe (2015) which focused on the assessment of teachers' continuous assessment practice in line with Educational policy in primary schools in which 1000 school teachers was randomly selected using proportionate stratified random sampling technique based on sex and location of teachers. The data collected were analyzed, using Mean and Z-test

to answer research questions and hypotheses. The result of his findings showed that there was no significant difference between male and female as well as rural and urban school teachers on the practice of continuous assessment in line with the educational policy in Nigeria.

Based on the investigation carried out by Okeke and Nkiru (2012) on the teachers' perception of continuous assessment: A mechanism for Quality Assurance. The study adopted descriptive research design. The research sample size was 4604. Twelve-item structured questionnaire was developed by the researcher. The data collected were analyzed using Mean and frequency scores to answer the research questions while chi-square, Z-test and ANOVA were used to answered the hypotheses. From their reveal, it showed that there is a significant difference in the responses of male and female primary school teachers on their perception of continuous assessment. According to them, it could be as result of sex-role stereotype which would have arrogated things deal with science and technology to the masculine gender. This is similar to Nzewi (2010) which observed that science and technology were seen as male domain. As a result, the females' upbringing tended to shape them away from science and technology. The calculations involved in continuous assessment would likely make female teachers uncomfortable because of the wrong societal expectation that calculations are not reserved for women.

From the work of Kauts and Kaur (2013) on the perception and attitude of teachers from rural and Urban towards continuous and comprehensive evaluation at secondary schools in which 100 teachers, 50 from rural and 50 from urban schools were randomly selected. Scale of Attitude and Scale of Perception towards continuous comprehensive evaluation were administered to the selected school teachers. The data collected were analyzed using Mean, standard deviation and t-test at 0.05 level of significance. From their findings, it shows that there was no difference between rural and urban teachers toward implementation of continuous comprehensive assessment in secondary level.

The study investigated by Adeneye and Babajide (2013) which deals with examining attitude towards continuous assessment practices among Nigeria pre-service STM Teachers. 156 pre-service teachers out of the total population of 339 were selected for the study. These include 83 males and 73 females. A four point likert scale questionnaire was used for the study. The data were analyzed using means and Anova to answer the research questions and hypotheses. Their result shows that gender and age had no statistically significant effect on pre-service STM teachers' attitude toward continuous assessment

From the work of Mordecai (2013) which focused on socio-demographic characteristics as correlates of teachers continuous assessment practices in senior secondary school. The study adopted correlation design. 600 teachers were randomly selected through a non-proportionate stratified sampling technique. 200 teachers were sampled; questionnaire was used to collect data. Regression was used to analyze the data. From his findings, it was revealed that there was no significant difference between B.Ed and M.Ed teachers in implementing continuous assessment programme. This is also in line with Edgebe (2002) and Egbule (2002).

Based on the work of Adetayo (2014) on an appraisal of the perception of the continuous assessment practice among school teachers. 200 teachers were randomly sampled for the study. A questionnaire instrument was used for the study, descriptive research design was adopted. Data collected were analyzed using t-test at 0.05 level of significance. The results from his findings revealed that teachers do not differ significantly in conducting continuous assessment across schools by school type. This may be due to the fact that every teacher irrespective of sex, socio-economic status and school type is given the same opportunity to

conduct continuous assessment for their students since they are aware of the importance of continuous assessment to the students progress and success in education. And all teachers were trained in the rudiment of continuous assessment in tertiary institution.

Based on the research carried out by Werang (2012) on Teachers socio-economic status and its relationship with teachers work morale and teachers job performance in schools. 118 teachers were sampled for the study; questionnaire was used as a method of data collection. In his findings, it was revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers SES and teachers' job performance.

From the work of Ndalichako (2015) on Secondary School Teachers' Perceptions of Assessment, total populations of 4160 Tanzanian teachers were involved in the study. A five point likert scale questionnaire was used to collect data. Mean, standard deviation and t-test were used to analyze the data. Form her investigation; it was revealed that age as a variable has no significant effect on teachers, assessment practice. The findings also support the work of Adeneye and Babajide (2013), their study revealed that gender and age of teachers had no statistically significant effect toward continuous assessment.

The work of Metin(2011) on the examination of teachers attitude towards performance assessment with respect to difference variables such as gender, age. 566 teachers were selected for the study; a survey method was used in the study, questionnaire was used as a method of data collection. In the study, T-test, one-way analysis variance (ANOVA) was used to clarify the significant of the difference on means. Also a scheffe test was used in order to determine the means difference in the ANOVA. According to him, there are significant differences in performance assessment attitudes between age and genders of teachers. Teachers under the age of 25 years have more positive attitude toward performance assessment in the classroom level.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions;

- 1) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by male and female teachers in senior secondary schools?
- 2) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by urban and rural teachers in senior secondary schools?
- 3) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by high and low socio-economic status of teachers in senior secondary schools?
- 4) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by single and mixed school teachers in senior secondary schools?
- 5) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years in senior secondary schools?
- 6) What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment between teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed in senior secondary schools?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated for the study:

- 1) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by male and female teachers in schools.
- 2) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by urban and rural teachers in schools.

- 3) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by high and low socio-economic status of teachers in schools.
- 4) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by mixed and single teachers in schools.
- 5) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years of age in schools.
- 6) There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment between teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed teachers in schools.

METHOD

Design of the Study

The researcher employed *ex post – facto* design because the study is descriptive in outlook. This design was chosen because it is not always possible to select, control and manipulate the factors necessary for the study.

Population of the Study

The population of this study is limited to all teachers of public senior secondary schools in Delta Central Senatorial Districts. The population constitutes both male and female teachers of 6405 from senior secondary schools in Delta Central Senatorial Districts. The 6405 teachers are made up of 2058 male teachers and 4347 female teachers respectively. Source: Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (Delta State Post – Primary Education Board).

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The schools were chosen through simple random sampling by balloting. The 51 schools from the total numbers of 156 public senior secondary schools in Delta Central Senatorial Districts were selected for the study.

The sample size consists of 16% of the total population of teachers which was selected through proportionate stratified sampling technique. A 16% of the total number of male is equal 329, while 16% of the total number of female is equal 695. Therefore, the total sample size for the study is 1024.

Research Instrument

A 30-item questionnaire was constructed. Some of the items were broken down into different components. The questionnaire was grouped into sections A and B. Section A contains bio-data information, this is to elicit data based on qualification, gender, location, age, school type, and socio – economic status.

Apart from the breakdown information, section B consists of questions constructed on four-point point likert scale viz; Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD). Where SA=4, A=3, D=2, SD=1.

Validity of the Instrument

The instrument had face and constructs validities. The instrument was validated by the researcher supervisor and other lecturers who are specialist in Measurement and Evaluation, in the Faculty of Education, Delta State University Abraka. Based on the proper scrutiny, identification of problem areas and further modifications made, final instrument for the study was drawn up.

Reliability of the Instrument

The method used in establishing the reliability of the instrument was cronbach alpha method. The instrument was administered to thirty (30) teachers and cronbach alpha reliability was obtained from the instrument of cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Thus a reliability coefficient of 0.94 was obtained for the whole instrument while the subsection of cognitive is 0.85, affective is 0.85 and psychomotor is 0.96 as a measure of internal consistency.

Method of Data Collection

The instrument was administered personally by the researcher during school hours. Research assistants assisted to collect data in the schools where the study was conducted; this helped to avoid consultations among teachers before making their responses. The questionnaire was completed by the respondents.

Method of Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed in line with the researcher questions and hypotheses. Mean was used to answer the research questions, while t-test was used to test each hypothesis. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by male and female teachers in senior secondary schools?

Table 1: Mean rating of male and female teachers in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools

Gender	N	Mean	SD
Male	440	2.38	0.23
Female	513	2.38	0.22
Total	953	2.38	0.22

Table 1 above showed that the mean rating of male teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools is the same (2.38). The result showed that male and female teachers are not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools.

Research Question 2 What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by urban and rural teachers in senior secondary schools?

Table 2: Mean rating of rural and urban teachers in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools.

Location	N	Mean	SD
Rural	354	2.40	0.23
Urban	599	2.37	0.22
Total	953	2.39	0.22

The result of table 2 above showed that teachers from rural and urban schools are slightly different by 0.02 in their implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools. However, the different is of no statistical significant.

Research Question 3: What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by high and low socio-economic status of teachers in senior secondary schools?

Table 3: Mean rating of teachers from high and low socio-economic status in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools.

Socio-Economic Background	N	Mean	SD
High	422	2.38	0.23
Low	531	2.39	0.22
Total	953	2.39	0.22

From the result of table 3, it can be concluded that there is no difference between teachers from high and low socio-economic background in their implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools. The mean rating of teachers from high socio-economic background is 2.38, while that of teachers from low socio-economic background is 2.39, with just a difference of 0.01.

Research Question 4: What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by single and mixed school teachers in senior secondary schools?

Table 4: Mean rating of teachers from single and mixed schools in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools

Type of School	N	Mean	SD
Mixed	530	2.38	0.22
Single	423	2.38	0.23
Total	953	2.38	0.22

The table 4 above showed that the mean rating for teachers from mixed schools is 2.38 and that of teachers from single schools is also 2.38, which is the same. Hence, teachers from mixed and single schools are not different in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools.

Research Question 5: What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment between teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed in senior secondary schools?

Table 5: Mean rating of teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools

Education Qualification	N	Mean	SD
B.Ed	576	2.38	0.23
M.Ed	423	2.39	0.21
Total	953	2.38	0.22

The result of table 5 above showed that teachers with B.Ed degree had a mean score of 2.38 while teachers with M.Ed degree got a mean score of 2.39. The difference is just 0.01, hence there is no difference in their implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools.

Research Question 6: What is the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years of age in senior secondary schools?

Table 6: Mean rating of teachers who are below 30years of age and those who are above 30 years of age in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools

Age	N	Mean	SD
Below 30 years	576	2.37	0.22
Above 30 years	423	2.40	0.23
Total	953	2.39	0.22

The above table 6 revealed that while teachers that are below the age of 30 had a mean score of 2.37, teachers above the age of 30 scored 2.40 with 0.03 differences. However, because the difference is not too significant, it can be deduced that they do not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in senior secondary schools.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by male and female teachers in schools.

Table 7: Analysis of the difference in the mean level of male and female teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools

Gender	N	Mean	SD	T	P	Decision
Male	440	2.38	0.23	0.41	0.68	Not Significant
Female	513	2.38	0.22			

Table 7 showed an independent sample t-test run to determine the differences in the implementation of continuous assessment in schools among male and female teachers. The result showed the p-value (0.68) to be greater than our 0.05 level of significance. Because this is so, the null hypothesis is therefore accepted. This means that there is no significant difference in male and female teachers in their implementation of continuous assessment.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by urban and rural teachers in schools.

Table 8: Analysis of the difference in the mean level of rural and urban teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools

Location	N	Mean	SD	T	P	Decision
Rural	354	2.40	0.23	1.84	0.07	Not Significant
Urban	599	2.37	0.22			

The result of table 8 showed that there is no significant difference in teachers from urban and rural schools in their implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools. This is because, the p-value is greater than 0.05 ($t=1.84$, $p>0.05$).

Hypothesis 3 There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by high and low socio-economic status of teachers in schools.

Table 9: Analysis of the difference in mean level of high and low socio-economic status of teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools

Socio-Economic Status	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Decision
High	422	2.38	0.23	0.57	0.57	Not Significant
Low	531	2.39	0.22			

As indicated in table 8 above, the independent sample t-test revealed that $t=0.57$, $p>0.05$. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means there is no significant difference in the implementation of continuous assessment among teachers from high and low socio-economic status.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by mixed and single teachers in schools.

Table 10: Analysis of the difference in mean level of mixed and single school teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools

School Type	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Decision
Mixed	530	2.38	0.22	0.36	0.72	Not Significant
Single	423	2.38	0.23			

Table 10 above showed the result of an independent sample t-test which was run to examine the difference in the implementation of continuous assessment among teachers from mixed and single secondary schools. The result revealed the t-value to be 0.36, $p>0.05$. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. This means that there is no significant difference in the implementation of continuous assessment among teachers from mixed and single schools.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years of age in schools.

Table 11: Analysis of the difference in mean level of teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years of age on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools.

Age	N	Mean	SD	t	P	Decision
Below 30 years	485	2.37	0.22	1.90	0.06	Not Significant
Above 30 years	468	2.40	0.22			

The table 11 above showed a non-significant difference between teachers with teaching experience below 30 years and above 30 years on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools. This is because the p-value (0.06) is greater than 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment between teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed in schools.

Table 12: Analysis of the difference in mean level of teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed on the implementation of continuous assessment in schools.

Educational Qualification	N	Mean	SD	T	P	Decision
B.Ed	576	2.38	0.23	0.57	0.57	Not Significant
M.Ed	377	2.39	0.21			

Table 12 above showed an analysis of the difference between teachers who had B.Ed and those who had M.Ed degree in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools. The result revealed that $t=0.057$ and $p>0.05$. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, indicating a non significant difference.

DISCUSSION

The result from the research questions shows that gender, Location, School type. Socio-economic status, Age and Educational Qualification contribute to teachers' implementation of continuous assessment in schools.

The result on hypothesis one revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by male and female teachers in secondary schools. This means that both male and female teachers implement continuous assessment. This finding is in line with Osadebe (2015) whose study showed that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers on the practice of continuous assessment in line with the educational policy in Nigeria. This could be as a result that male and female teachers' implement continuous assessment in their various schools irrespective of their gender, because both teachers' in their various schools carried out continuous assessment. It also supports Adeneye and Babajide (2013) in their study revealed that gender and age of teachers' had no statistically significant effects toward continuous assessment.

The findings on hypothesis two showed that there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by urban and rural teachers in secondary schools. This finding was similar to the study carried out by Kauts and Kaur (2013) on perception and attitude of teacher from rural and urban towards continuous comprehensive assessment as secondary school. They find out that there was no difference between rural and urban teachers toward implementation of continuous comprehensive assessment in secondary level. This also in line with that of Osadebe (2015) which state that there was no significant difference between rural and urban teachers on the implementation of continuous assessment in secondary schools. But on the contrary, Anita (2013) revealed that urban teachers were more positive than rural teachers about factors contributing to success in their respective schools.

The finding in hypothesis three showed that there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by high and low socio-economic status of teachers in secondary schools. Adetayo (2014) was in the support that irrespective of teachers' sex, socio-economic background is given the same opportunity to conduct continuous assessment for their students. All teachers were trained in the rudiment of continuous assessment in tertiary institutions. On the contrary to the work of Werang (2012) whose study revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' socio-economic status and teachers' job performance.

The fourth hypothesis revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by mixed and single school teachers in secondary schools. This result indicates that equal opportunities are being given to both teachers either mixed or single schools to implement continuous assessment. This finding was similar to the work of Adetayo (2014) which revealed that teacher don not differ significantly in conducting continuous assessment across schools whether mixed sex school type or single sex school type. This may be due to the fact that every teacher irrespective of the school type is given the same opportunity to conduct continuous assessment for their students and they are aware of the importance of continuous assessment to their students' progress in education.

The result on hypothesis five showed there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment by teachers who are below 30 years of age and those who are above 30 years of age in secondary schools. The result indicates that age of teachers has nothing to do with implementation of continuous assessment. This finding was in line with Ndalichako (2013) whose study indicated that age as a variable has no significant effect on teacher assessment practice. Also Getachew (2008), Hassen (1998), in their findings, irrespective of teachers' age, has no effect on the continuous assessment practice in secondary schools. The findings also support the work of Adeneye and Babajide (2013), in their study revealed that gender and age of teachers had no statistically significant effect toward continuous assessment.

The sixth hypothesis revealed there was no significant difference in the mean level of implementation of continuous assessment between teachers with B.Ed and teachers with M.Ed teachers in secondary schools. This finding is in agreement with Edgebe (2002), Egbule (2002), as cited by Modercai (2013) which state that there was no significant difference between the professional and non – professional teachers in implementing the continuous assessment programme. Teachers' qualifications are of fundamental importance for the effective teaching and efficient teaching in the secondary schools.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings above, the following conclusions are hereby made;

1. Gender of teacher does not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools.
2. Location of teacher does not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools.
3. School type does not differ in the implementation of continuous assessment in schools.
4. Socio – economic status of teacher does not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools.
5. Age of teacher does not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools.
6. Teachers' qualification does not differ in their implementation of continuous assessment in schools.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the various findings from the study, the following recommendations are offered for considerations.

1. Experienced teachers' who have been trained in education should be employed in schools by the government.
2. Adequate continuous assessment materials should be provided by the government to all schools both the urban and rural to enable teachers' carry out continuous assessment effectively.

3. It is also recommended that only qualified teachers' with educational qualification such as B.Ed, M.Ed.
4. Experts should be selected by the ministry of Education to organize Conferences, Seminars, Workshops, and In-service training for teachers' so that they can understand the new dimensions and current strategies, skills and techniques on how to implement continuous assessment.
5. There should be a coordinating committee in each school, in each district or local government area and each state should be inspected, supervise and monitor by the ministry of education to know what is going on in their area of jurisdiction to ensure maintenance of approved standards and procedures in continuous assessment.

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The Dynamics of the Change Emerged on the Civilian-Military Relations in Turkey Since the 2000s

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ABSTRACT

In the era we live in, the concept of globalization emerges as the determining factor in all areas of political and social life and changes the traditional structure of the countries. When we consider this topic from the perspective of Turkey, the concept of the army, which is one of the founding components of the Republic established under nation-state structure, refers in the 2000s to an era where the boundaries were abolished suffering from erosion, and the fields of power and puissance were redefined through the re-construction of the description of security. In a period where these transformations were experiencing, it is unthinkable that civilian-military relations stay unaffected from this change. At this point, re-establishing the balance between the soldiers and civilians, who share the power and puissance since the end of 1940s, in terms of the share of power but establishing this balance in a democratic way in accordance with the requirements of the age and at the same time in a way that won't pose any problem in the survival of the country has a vital importance.

Keywords: Civilian-military relations; Military Intervention; Turkish military; July 15 Coup Attempt.

INTRODUCTION

The army, which was the founder and protector of nation-state structure since the foundation stage of the Republic of Turkey, kept its status of the tutelar of both the nation and the regime until the 2000s. The review of the core of nationalism in Turkey reveals that the concept of "army nation" occupied an important place in the structure of Turkish society. In the "Turkish History Thesis" developed in 1930s, military is sited in a privileged position among cultural and racial characteristics as an extension of Turkish culture and with "Every Turk is born as soldier" discourse it has become a cultural feature carried with pride [1].

However, this position that the military was brought to/undertaken was subject to change in the 2000s. This process was emerged with both the anti-democratic voices rising from within the army, and the conversion emerged with the integration into the global world, and the fictional litigations which were recently realized that their discourse and construction were made by FETO and it gained greater momentum after the July 15 coup attempt.

In the Ottoman Empire, which is the bureaucratic and social ancestor of modern Turkey, the basic dynamics of modernization, called as "apologetic", emerged as a result of the efforts of defending Islam against the war of Western culture and civilization. In 19th century the main concern of Ottoman Empire was the survival of the state and pragmatic-minded bureaucrats

have launched urgent reforms for the survival of the Empire in the accelerating and changing concept of history. The transformations that would take a long time to emerge under normal circumstances have been attempted to be realized in a short period with the urge of survivability in the face of a deadly competition [2].

The driving force of this change/modernization in the Empire has been consisted of the modern army and its modern-trained officers, who can be tracked until the abolition of janissaries and the efforts of the establishment of a modern army emerged in the beginning of 1800s, the periods of Selim the 3rd and Mahmut the 2nd. The officers, who had received Western education and in this sense whose philosophy of life had been broken from the traditional Ottoman Islamic structure, have not restricted themselves with the attempt of modifying the manner of ruling of Ottoman Empire for the survival of the state; during the Independence War they have also formed the intellectual and military corner stone of the Turkish nation, which has been tried to be buried into the depths of history at the end of World War I.

But since 1950s until today, the concepts symbolized by the military in the political and social areas have been transumed and has begun to take place among the top factors that are considered as obstacles in the development of democracy in Turkey. The interventions that the soldiers have made in the political and social spheres (coup, memorandum, etc.) and its existence over the heads of politicians like a sword, revealed the significance of the necessity that political authority should provide control and supervision over the army on behalf of democratic and modern gubernation. The political powers that run the country, always perceived the army as a threat against their existence [3]. However, elected politicians did not refrain themselves from inviting the soldiers into duty during the periods where they lost control over people's movements, they were unable to stop terror and anarchy and they snatched away the reins of the economy.

In the era that we live in, globalization and the economical, legal and commercial alliances emerged with its influence has led to the abolishment of the boundaries and an increase on the importance of the concepts such as democracy, human rights, etc. As a result of the deformation of nation-state structure, ideas and cultures are becoming the borders that separate the states not the frontiers. This change, which is observed around the whole world as well as in Turkey, has caused changes in the traditional nation-state structure, and it has created the necessity of change for those who held the power, either themselves or their ideas. This article examines the concept of army-nation in Turkey and the civilian-soldier relations within the historical process beginning with the foundation of the republic until today, under the light of international theories; the reasons of the conversion, the challenges encountered at this point and the impacts of the change both on the civilians and the soldiers will be analyzed as well.

THE CHANGE ON THE THEORETICAL APPROACH IN CIVILIAN-MILITARY RELATIONS

Samuel Huntington's Approach:

The concept of civilian control emerges as a concept associated with the relative powers of civilians and soldiers against each other, as well soldiers'/civilians' authority role lines not violating the autonomous zone of the other. However, when we talk about the establishment of democracy in civilian-military relations, the existence of civilian control is established as the power of soldiers in strategic-political area decreases. Anyway, the problem with the concept of civilian control in a country is emerging as how to bring "the political power of the soldiers" to the minimum level [4].

The establishment of civilian control on the military can be achieved through executing objective and subjective civil control. Objective civil control includes the maximization of military professionalism; the acceptance of military's autonomous areas and the recognition and protection of their autonomous structures in these areas. The soldiers, in return, must show absolute obedience to the political will and authority on political and strategic issues.

Huntington suggested that civilians should establish an objective control mechanism on the soldiers, not a subjective one while separating of civil and military zones. The objectivity of civilian control mechanism is determined by whether the planning of military activity targets is performed by the civilians or not. After the determination of the targets by civil government, the way of reaching these targets should be left to the military authority. Legislative and constitutional regulations have significant importance on the establishment of this control mechanism. Harrington's organizational approach is based on an approach that gives autonomy to the military area, except decision making, for the formation of an effective and efficient military power. In this context, civilian-military relations should be arranged via law [5].

Making a separation between civil and military areas is indispensable for the continuation of the relations in a healthy manner. Political will recognizes the autonomous structure of the soldiers and autonomy of the tactical fields, hence the integrity of specialization and interest areas; on the other hand, officers, who are the determining factor in military structure, stay politically neutral and accept the determinative position of elected politicians and their political guidance on the soldiers. According to Huntington, the changes on the civilian-military relations emerge when this balance disappears [4].

While making the objective definition of the civil control, it should be admitted that the formation of a unique concrete civil control standard for the army, which is politically neutral and which can be accepted by all social classes, is a necessary and important characteristic for preventing a certain group in the country to benefit the power of the army and to obtain personal interest. This characteristic downgrade the power of the military to a lower level than all other civil groups and at the same time it increases security provision potential of the military to the maximum level.

In the countries where the armies are organized as the protector of the regime and political process, a relation where the state can be threatened by the army may emerge, even it was shaped democratically. The army, which is responsible for eliminating external threats and internal threats with the deployment of the political will in liberal ideologies, may become a power that monitors and controls social and political developments in the country, independent of the political authority [4].

Janowitz's School

Unlike Huntington who argues that to be effective the army should be in a structure different than civilians, there is an approach suggesting that the awareness for the use of force should be based on legitimate reasons was increased in the international structure after the cold war; and advocating that in the post-modern world structure the way of the army being able to be active goes through the convergence to civil values and procedures [6]. Janowitz, defining internal security duties within the area of responsibility of military, explains them with the changing role of the armies with postmodern structuring. In Turkey there are discussions about whether the issues of internal security and the fight against terrorism should fall into the army's remit or not [7].

With the switch to post-modern armies, technology expertness and administrative roles were added on the new model of military in the world, which reduced the difference between soldiers and civilians. The convergence of the civilians and soldiers is a positive and necessary development, because this convergence approaches the soldiers to the civil and social values that they live in; and since the military culture is affected by both the cultural structure of the society and its own internal dynamics, the changes on the social culture affects military culture as well. Although this convergence and social changes affect military culture and military missions, the execution of an actual act of war requires certain expertise, thus there should be a limit on the civilization of the military [7].

The experiences lived in the world history reveal that even the armies, which were accepted as professional according to international criteria, interfere the political arena including military coups as well [7]. Therefore, it is acceptable to admit that the professionalization of the military may not be effective in assuring civilian control and keeping soldiers away from the political area. Especially the radical changes that soldiers have been exposed after World War II were originated from the social changes of the societies. As a result of this effect, the soldiers won a new mission and have experienced changes in their organization style and even in their system of values. The most effective of these changes was realized in the form of penetration of the soldiers and civil society to each other [6]. In short, for Janowitz, civilian control, is something that can only be understood and can be shaped around social values. What is essential in terms of civil control is the integration of the soldiers with social structure and values.

THE CHANGE IN THE STRUCTURE OF THE TURKISH ARMY IN TERMS OF CIVILIAN-SOLDIER RELATIONS

until the 2000s

In Turkey, the Republican model was founded on three basic principles, which are;

- A structure that state sovereignty is the basis and the state is set as the dominant subject
- The unity of nation-society, and
- The understanding that the nation exists for the state.

In accordance with these three principles, the community's vision has been set by bureaucratic and political elites which were acting as the determinant of public interest and the State, the existence of the citizen was described through debts and liabilities [8].

In the first years of the Republic of Turkey, which has been shaped around this understanding, the uniformed soldiers were not effective on the political power in terms of being at the helm of the governance or setting the direction of the political power [9]. After the war of independence, with the establishment of the Republic the army was kept out of politics and this fact led to the emergence of an army formation isolated from the society. In order to keep this isolation, military students were even prohibited from reading daily newspaper, no other course that the military ones have been taught in military schools [7]. However, during the implementation of Republican reforms the power of the army has been felt as a power that has been used/ready to be used, it constituted the driving force of the modernization in Turkish modernization and in top-down construction of the state and society. As underlined by Savaş Biçer, the uniformed soldiers have been kept out of politics during the period of Atatürk in spite of their unique role on the foundation of Turkish Republic and on the implementation of modernizing changes, and even the voting rights of the soldiers were taken away in order to ensure this [10].

Although the soldiers seem to have no impact on the politics in the period between the foundation of the republic and the multi-party era, the absolute control of the politicians with military origin, including Ataturk and Inonu, over the government, the bureaucracy and the regime is a fact that cannot be ignored. In this regard, keeping the military under control by employing Fevzi Çakmak, who had an absolute power on the army, in the position of Chief of the General Staff from the foundation of the republic until 1944 and then by binding this position to the president, in addition the retirement of the dissenting leading commanders of the independence war from the army and banning them from politics can be seen as the efforts towards the prevention of the potential of the army to create a rival power. Taking such measures in the political area reveals that the political power with military origin perceived the army as a threat to themselves [7].

As mentioned above, the soldier in uniform was totally isolated from political life in Turkey before the passage to multi-party period. The soldier has been brought to an honorable position in the Republic with these applications but at the same time it has been turned into a tool of one party state by putting away of the country's social and political life. The army, which always made feel its presence as an alternative to the political power after the passage to the multi-party life, came to light with the entry of the country to NATO. The changes emerged in the army at this era, with a cadre of young officers beginning to improve themselves and the restructuring of the army that began with foreign aids and external supports, were combined with ideological reasons and have formed the tissue that made 1960s revolutions [9].

A political system with two heads has been created in the country with the Constitution of 1961 and the Constitutional amendments in 1971. In this system, the Council of Ministers was in the same status with NSC, the military justice system coexisted independently next to the civil justice system [11]. Though the regulations performed after 12 March Memorandum, the phenomenon of the political system was fortified against the phenomenon of the state, NSC and military justice was strengthened. In 1973, State Security Court, which is a military punishment system within the civilian jurisdiction was established with the constitution; it was assigned to the jurisdiction of the crimes committed against the unitary structure of the state, free democratic order and the Republic according to the qualifications specified in the Constitution and the crimes directly related to the security of the state [11].

The constitution prepared in 1982, after the military coup on 12 September 1980, was the reversing of 1960's constitutional improvements in many aspects. The ruling was concentrated in the hands of the Execution, the powers of the President and the National Security Council have been increased. Freedom of the press, Trade Union freedom, rights and interests of the individual were restricted. Fundamental rights and freedoms could be cancelled, suspended and restricted on the grounds of national interest, public order, national security, a threat toward the Republic and public health reasons. The parties were banned from establishing youth and women branches, opening offices at the villages and developing relation with trade unions, hence finding a base in the community has been blocked [11].

After 1960 revolution until the 2000s, the presence of the armed forces that continuously intervene in the political field as a shadow government (rather than coming to the power) is remarkable [7]. In this structure, which is defined as "Praetorian State" by Huntington, the army is becoming a power, which monitors and controls social and political developments within the country, independent of the political authorities. In this model, the army identifies itself with the interests of the state, it acts as an autonomous entity independent of political and social processes, it occasionally intervenes in the democratic process for protecting the regime, it redesigns the politics and returns back to the barracks [12].

THE CHANGE IN CIVILIAN-MILITARY PARADIGM OF TURKEY, LIVED IN THE LIGHT OF GLOBAL AND POSTMODERN APPROACHES OF THE 2000S

The regulations that Turkey has made concerning the efforts for the integration to global words caused diversity in the understanding of democracy and the perception that was possessed by the majority of the society has begun to be transumed. With this transformation, the understanding advocating that the intervention of the army in the political sphere should be considered as “natural” began to disappear; the idea that we should not remain silent in the face of such attempts has become widespread. This transformation has strengthened the hand of the civil government regarding the request of reform in the army.

The followings should be considered while defining the base on which civilian-military relations are built during the process beginning with the passage to multi-party system to the 2000s.

- *Security-based structure with historical continuity:* In Turkey, the whole legal system that regulates the society, starting with the constitution, is based on the perception of security. On the other hand, the extension and scope of the definition of security can be enlarged or narrowed depending on the characteristic of existing political structure.
- *Military tutelage model:* Since the military jurisdiction is configured to cover the political area outside of the military zone (its original area), the political field can expand in favor of the military. As a result, the relation among the bodies of decision making, execution and control was reversed concerning the issues related to the security (open-ended) and the army became controller rather than being controlled.
- *Autonomous and excessively centralized in-house organization:* With the autonomous and privileged position, the army had an internal organization which is largely closed to civilian orientation, uncontrollable and isolated [13].

The review of the civilian-military relations experienced from the end of 1940s until the 2000s revealed that the soldiers affected political field in an increasing continuity with the anti-democratic regulations made after military coups and memorandums, while staying out of the civilian control with the autonomous structure that they have. After 1960 military coup, the members of NUC (National Unity Committee) had seats in the legislature, which is one of the regulations serving this direction. In addition, during this period, Military Jurisdiction and the Court of Military Appeals have been brought to the position of Constitutional institution and military bureaucracy get a privileged position in the execution. After the 12 March, 1971 Memorandum, soldiers have expanded the area of military jurisdiction by penetrating more into the political area. The judicial control of the administrative actions and transactions associated with the soldiers, which has been carried out by the State Council, was transferred to the new created Supreme Military Administrative Court. In addition, the control of the government properties that are in the hand of the army, by civil bureaucracy was abandoned. TAF were excluded from the scope of the Court of Auditors control [14].

This structure, where the elected politicians are positioned at the bottom and appointed elites are positioned at the top of the government hierarchy, has formed an area where invariable definitions determine unchangeable factors and the national security policy document, in which official policies were built, was created. In this structure, the task of the elected politicians was the execution of these unchangeable and security-based principles. This security field gets closed to the political debate by adding secularism, education, terrorism, foreign policy and other topics into it and positioning it out of the political discussion. In short, in the civilian-military relations of this period the soldiers had the absolute autonomy, they didn't allow the politicians to control the army, but they constantly kept political field under control [15].

The transformation of military-civilian relations from the elite bureaucrat and military-based antidemocratic structure to the democratic structure where politician became the only decision-makers in the political area began with the will that elected politicians demonstrated for executing this change. Regarding the formation of military coups in Turkey, it can be said that they occurred in the periods of crisis, when the majority of the society, especially the elites in the government believe that military governance is the starting point of solving this situation and they almost invited the soldiers to take over the governance. In addition, the support taken from foreign countries is considered to be another point that the soldiers get strength [9].

The review of the transformation emerged in civilian-military relations at the beginning of the 2000s, in other words the conversions that led to the attitude change of the governing elites and foreign countries, reveals that the attempt of Turkey for adapting global change and taking part in regional and global alliances has been emerged as an important factor. After the European Council meet in Helsinki granted Turkey the status of candidate country in 1999, the coalition government of this period, formed by Democratic Left Party, Nationalist Movement Party and the Motherland Party, and afterwards the government of Justice and Development Party (AKP) have formed the first signs of change on civilian-military relations. In addition, this wick that was fired in the political and administrative area has led to a change of perception in the society about the role of the soldiers in the politics [16].

The reform processes that were performed for the alignment with EU acquis during Turkey's European Union accession process were used as a tool in the changes that began in civilian-military relations. Regarding the reforms performed in EU harmonization process, the aspects that oriented civilian-military relation to a democratic way can be outlined as below:

- *The army was removed out of the political area by diminishing its activity on the determination of security politics.*
- *The structure of auditing institutions was rearranged for the financial control of TAF.*
- *Anti-democratic plurivocality was ended by eliminating autonomous structure of the military judication.*
- *The political powers of the soldiers were transferred to civilian authorities in the area of Homeland Security [13].*

When we look at how this conversion was executed, the beginning of the democratization process in civilians-military relations can be accepted as the amendments related to National Security Council (NSC), performed in the beginning of the 2000s. The reason of the amendments in the structure of NSC can be interpreted as eliminating the dominant position that the soldiers had, as well as stopping NSC from being a tool used by the military in political intervention. With the 2001 Constitutional Amendments, the number of civil members in NSC was increased and "it will be subject to priority treatment by the Council of Ministers" statement was replaced with "perused" (Amendment on 1982 Constitution, dated 03 October 2001). With the amendments made in 2003, the responsibility for the "coordination and follow-up" of the executions of NSC decisions were transferred to the prime minister, Board meetings were decided to be done every two months instead of every month and Secretary-General of NSC was allowed to be selected among civilians (7th EU Harmonization Package dated 30 July 2003). In accordance with this modification, civilians were assigned as NSC's Secretary-General, chief advisor and some of the department chiefs.

After the military memorandum, the auditing of the Court of Accounts on armed Forces has been terminated with the changes made in 1971. But one of the conversion realized in the reforms of alignment with the EU acquis (7th EU Harmonization Package dated 30 July 2003)

within the scope of civilian-military relations, was the amendment of the act of Court of Accounts. As a result of the enactment of the new law, a Security Sector Auditing Group was created within the body of Court of Accounts and the audit of military cantinas, officer's club and officers' mess began in August, 2011 as the first step [17].

Some significant regulations within the scope of civilian-military relations on the way of democratization can be outlined as follows: a civil bureaucrat was assigned as the Secretary of Defense Industry and high-budget weapon purchases, which have been conducted by a military bureaucrat before, were also transferred to the responsibility of this Secretary. The memberships of the military in the Radio and Television Supreme Council and the Higher Education Institution were terminated, with the amendment dated 2006, the judicial proceedings of the civilians that are subject to Military Criminal Law were accepted to be judged in ordinary justice in times of peace [13].

In 2007 a process has been emerged, starting with Ergenekon investigation and continued with Balyoz, Internet Andıcı, Poyrazköy, Military Spying lawsuits, in which many retired and active-duty personnel of the TAF, including commanders-in-chief of armed forces, were prosecuted. This process, has found expression as a showdown of the tension in Turkey's civilian-military relations over the jurisdiction. These lawsuits have eliminated the untouchable position of TAF since the foundation of the republic and caused a change in the political/social culture of the society that justifies the actions of the soldiers in the political field. On the other hand, many developments occurred during the trials, such as the content of the cases, the investigation stage issues, inconsistencies with the evidences, revealed that the jurisdiction is highly politized and FETO has completed the parallel structuring in the jurisdiction, as understood at the end of July 15 process. Ömer Diken, the old President of Istanbul 10th Criminal Court who ruled Balyoz lawsuit, is under custody in Izmir within the scope of FETO investigation for "being member of an armed terrorist organization" and his trial has begun with the sentence of imprisonment up to 15 years. In addition to numerous judges and prosecutors, whose trial related to FETO and PDY are being continued, more than 4,000 judges and prosecutors have been dismissed from the profession with decree-law.

The amendments of the constitutional reform package, which has been offered to referendum in 2010, that directly affect civilian-military relations are outlined below:

- *Military Jurisdiction*: Article 145 of the Constitution was amended; the jurisdiction realm of authority of military courts were bounded with military crimes committed by military personnel related to their military service and duties and crimes against the constitutional order shall be processed by the courts of law. Similarly, with the amendment of Article 156, the "requirements of military service" statement was removed from the principles related to the establishment of Military Supreme Court, its operation, its personnel's discipline and personnel affairs.
- *High Council*: With the amendment of Article 148, Commander of the Turkish Armed Forces, Commanders-in-chief of Armed Forces and the Commander of the Turkish Gendarmerie Forces were included among the people that can be judged by the Constitutional Court under the title of High Council.
- *Supreme Military Council (SMC)*: With the amendment of Article 125, the application to jurisdiction for the promotion procedures of SMC and for dismissal decisions except the retirement due to lack of cadre was allowed, however other decisions of SMC were left out of the jurisdiction control.

Regarding civilian-military relations, keeping article 35 of Internal Service Act unchanged was one of the topic that has been constantly criticized in the progression reports published by

European Union between 2004 and 2009. According to EU, these articles mentioned in the act define national security in a very broad manner and enlarge the assigned position of the soldiers too much [18]. The mission of TAF has been used to be “to protect and preserve Turkish homeland and the Turkish Republic that has been appointed through the constitution” as stated in the Article 35 of Internal Service Act, before the amendment made in 2013. The soldiers were performing his mission of watchmen of the regime by taking power and responsibility from this statement. In every cases that they believe that politicians act against the foundational principles of the state, they were executing a series of application varying from warning though press releases and oral statements to the accusations made against civil wing during the meetings of National Security Council and finally going up to seizing control of the government [10].

The definition of the military mission, which was interpreted to be an opportunity for military intervention and which was constantly criticized in EU progress reports, was amended as “The mission of Armed Forces is defending the Turkish homeland against threats and dangers from abroad, ensuring the preservation and improvement of military power to promote deterrence, performing the tasks abroad given by the decision of the Parliament and assisting the establishment of the international peace” (13.7.2013-6496/18 md). It should be noted that with this amendment, the mission of the soldiers was limited to the threads coming from abroad, a domestic perception of threat does not exist.

THE CHANGE OCCURRED AS A RESULT OF JULY 15 RISING CONCERNING CIVILIAN-MILITARY RELATION

After the treasonist coup attempt lived in July 15, the government announced state of emergency and realized various measures and regulations for the sake of normalization and reestablishment of the deranged order. The regulations that are significant in terms of civilian-military relation are as follows.

- Military personnel identified as a member FETO have been removed from the institution with the dismissals from the profession in TAF cadres.
- In order to prevent the concentration of the power of TAF in one hand, Force Commands (land, sea, air) were bound to the Ministry of National Defense, whereas Gendarmery General Command and Coast Guard were taken from the constitution of TAF and were bound to Ministry of Internal Affairs. (Decree-law no 668, dated 27 July 2016).
- The structure of Supreme Military Council was changed and Deputy Prime Minister, Justice Minister, Foreign Minister, and Internal Affair Minister were added to SMC. In addition, the council memberships of the Gendarmerie General Commander, the Navy Commander and the Commanders of the Army and other full generals and full admirals were cancelled, hence the soldier-dominant structure of the council were transferred to the civilian will and the secretariat of SMC was taken from the General Staff and included within the constitution of MND (Decree-law no 669, dated 31 July 2016).
- Military High Schools and Military Academies, which had a significant functionality on the formation of soldiers' existing mentality and military culture, and having completely autonomous structure, operation and curriculum, were closed. In this regard, National Defense University was established, Military High Schools and Noncommissioned High Schools were bound to it, whereas the education of Military Academy began within the constitution of National Defense University (Act no 5756, dated 9.11.2016).
- The military dimension of Gülhane Military Medical Academy was abolished and it was put into service as a civilian institution within the Ministry of Health and all military health institutions were moved to the constitution of the Ministry of Health (Decree-law no 669, dated 31 July 2016).

- The independence of military jurisdiction was abolished.
- All military shipyards and plants were taken away from the constitution of TAF and bound to the General Management office built within the constitution of MND. In addition, the cadres of MND were removed from the constitution of the General Staff and the determination right of whether a soldier or civilian will be appointed for a certain position was left to MND. (Decree-law no 669, dated 31 July 2016).
- Instead of an MND headquarter structure, in which the soldiers are the decision-makers, a new organizational structure was established all over the ministry and the civilians were appointed to these cadres, starting with MND undersecretary.
- The power to appoint officers and noncommissioned officers were taken from Force Commands, the appointments became subject to the approval of the Minister of National Defense, based on the proposal of the Force Commands.
- The barracks located within the big cities, which have played a critical role in every coup executed by the soldiers, were removed out of the city.
- The regulations for the ceremonies and the celebrations that will be executed in national and official holidays and local independence days, Ataturk days and historically significant days were modified and "Garrison Command" expression was removed.

There are issues that have been introduced in this process, but could not be completed yet. We can specify the ongoing changes as follows:

- The development of the command-control, personnel, operation, intelligence, logistic functions between the General Staff and MND in a way that it will create maximum benefit and the realization of the sharing where civilian power will be dominant in civilian-military relations.
- Redesigning MND organization such that MND structure will be strengthened in terms of personnel management (assignment and appointment) and military consultancy (support for decision). In this way, MND will continue to be dominant on command-control, operations and military intelligence matters, while being kept out of the training, recruiting, procurement, and budgeting issues.

The issues that were requested to be performed in this process, but could not be realized yet can be listed as follows:

- Resolving the uncertainty on the status of the General Staff,
- The professionalization and downsizing of TAF,
- Establishing the commonality between Force Commands,
- Establishing the organization enabling the control of defense expenditures,
- Establishing the "civil capacity" formation in Defense/Security field and the recruitment of necessary trained personnel [19].

A BRIEF ANALYSIS OF CIVILIAN-MILITARY RELATION IN TURKEY FROM BEFORE 2000S TO TODAY

Huntington, who set the principles of civilian-military relations before 2000, has stated in the last paragraph of his work *"The soldier and the State"* as "Yet today America can learn more from West Point than West Point from America. Upon the soldiers, the defenders of the order, rests a heavy responsibility. The greatest service they can render is to remain true to themselves, to serve with silence and courage in the military way. If they abjure the military spirit, they destroy themselves first and their nation ultimately" [4]. In the civilian-military relation before 2000, we can observe that within the context of praetorian state, soldiers have undertaken the survival of the Republic of Turkey, which is a very heavy load; have set the military culture that they have formed through alienating themselves from the society from which they aroused as their base; and attempted to bring the society and the politicians to

their own values. Soldiers have extended their autonomous zone after each intervention made in the democratic political area, as a result, civilians were placed in a position where they can express their power in the political area only with their preference about how to carry the country to the targets set by the soldiers.

Since the beginning of the 2000s, the reaction of the society against the interventions of the soldiers in the political area began to change. In previous years, the community preferred to stay silent against the interventions of the soldiers, even though they don't support this situation. At the same time, in the moment of political, economical and social crisis, a significant portion of political wing as well as the people from all parts of the society have invited the soldiers for fulfilling their duties, and they were considering the execution of this mission democratically positive. But the social and political changes that recently occurred in the country and the transformation emerged as a result of the global integration efforts have ended the traditional legitimacy that military interventions had. This transformation had a dual effect; it affected the perception within the army and it strengthened the hand of the civilian power on the reform process [20].

The radical transformations that Western armies have experienced especially after World War II, were the result of the social changes that had significant impact on the profession of military. This impact was not limited to giving new missions to the soldiers. At the same time, it caused a transformation in the manner of organization and even in the values that are adequate for the institution. Most importantly it includes the process of convergence of the soldiers to the structures and norms of the civil society, in other words the penetration of military institutions and civil society into each other. The followings occurred through the change in civilian-military relations lived in Western societies after World War II:

- The layout of the authority has been changed, switching from authoritarian ruling to the manipulation, persuasion, and group consensus. It involves a transition from insisting on strict discipline, to a combination of authorization, motivation and initiative.
- The skill differences between military and civilian elites have been reduced. New assignments of the armies require professional officer to develop more skills and orientations that are common to civil administrators and civil leaders.
- It involves a transition to a more comprehensive status in officer's employment, based on a relatively high status that is more representative of the people [6].

The review of the civilian-military relation lived in Turkey until the 2000s reveals that the only modes of execution were; soldiers dismissed elected political power from the governance by force (coup) or threatened them with dismissal (memorandum). Because of the recent examples of these concepts, it may not seem to be an unfair bias. In the countries, except advanced Western countries, whose democracies did not integrate with the society by destroying traditional patrimonial (paternalistic, traditional) structures and agonizing from democratization process, soldiers lead modernization and they are accepted as the driving power of the change. As a result of it, soldiers may be effective while taking political and economic decisions with the political power that they have.

Another concept pair that is tightly attached to the phenomenon of patrimonialism, which has been dominant in Ottoman state structure, is "center-periphery" relationship. The basic argument here is a consensus-based agreement, which is mandatory in the West, has never been realized between the state and the society as happened in the West. The state/society relationship that can be explained through the concepts such as advisory, alliance and coordination in the West, have been organized in the form of the absolute control and supervision of the center on the periphery in Ottomans. After the Ottomans, the modernizing

elites of the Republic of Turkey have imposed their own projects to the society and they reproduced the center-periphery tension of the Ottoman [21].

It should be noted that until the 2000s, the civilian-military structure existing in Turkey was in line with the praetorian state structure. By building the structure in this manner, the understanding of the military, whose mission should be limited to defend and deter the country against the attacks coming from outside, as an armed democratic institution bound to an elected political authority was eliminated and armed forces are positioned as a threat against democratic social order. Soldiers play the role of a formation that is over the government, independent of the political authority, which monitor, supervise and, when necessary, intervene in social and political developments of the country. Until the 2000s, the army has intervened to democratic process for the sake of defending the regime and the ideology with a praetorian state approach, rebuilt the politics and turned back to its barracks. But after each intervention, it executed some changes that would reinforce its autonomous structure. The main problem of this approach is the soldier identifies the interests of the state with its own interests and became an entity independent of the political and social processes [12].

We see that the reforms performed in civil-military relations after the coup attempt of July 15, are at the level of revolution. The conversion of the civilian-military relations starting with the EU harmonization process in 2000s, continued in a rapid and radical way after the rising by the initiatives of the politicians and through the use of the power of decree law. The presence of FETO members (a religious, anti-secular organization) in the army (although they were very few in number), which is the driving force of Turkish modernization, had a significant impact in the implementation of this radical transformation. The value system of the army is completely opposite to the value system symbolized by FETÖ, however they were at the same side in the above-mentioned rising, which led to the emergence of this phenomenon. Although soldiers have intervened in the political area and seized the control many times since 1950s, they have not used weapons against the society from which they aroused and have not positioned the society as an enemy. Taking the action with the approach of “despite the community” and organizing arising caused the soldiers to lose their prestige and trust significantly.

The review of the works of the thinkers such as Samuel Huntington and Morris Janowitz, who made analysis on civilian-military relations, showed that for the protection of democracy in a country, the army should be under the control of the civilian authority, in other words the government, and at the same time the army should possess professional autonomy and political impartiality. But there is no consensus on how to keep the army's autonomy and impartiality and the type of the civilian supervision that will be executed for achieving it.

Regarding the changes emerging and continued in civilian-military relations, we can argue that in Turkey there is a shift from Huntington's approach to Janowitz's approach. As explained above, Huntington's approach was emerged as a concept associated with the relative powers of civilian and military groups against each other and at the same time military's-civilian's authority role lines do not violate each other's autonomous zone. As a result of this layout, civilians and military emerge as formations autonomously operating is separate zones. Even though Huntington argues that soldiers can be taken under control within their autonomous zone through the establishment of objective civil control on them, in the countries that defines itself as an “army nation” like Turkey with apraetorian state formation, the soldiers and bureaucratic elites have taken politicians under their control after each intervention of the soldiers in the political process, as shown by the experiences of 1960 and aftermath.

If soldiers approach to civilian values and procedures, they will be integrated with the civilian and social values that they live in, thus the most effective civilian control for the country will be possible only by forcing soldiers to accept civilian values. The soldiers can have an organizationally autonomous and superior position only by believing the superiority of the civilian power (politicians) not in just words but at hearth and in practice.

The footprints of the switch from Huntington's approach to Janowitz's approach in civilian-military relations can be found in the changes lived after July 15 process. The most noticeable aspect of these changes is the attempt of ending the autonomous structure of the military in Turkey and tend to leave the decision-making mechanisms to elected politicians in all areas. For example:

- As mentioned above, with a decree-law Land, Sea and Air Force commands were bound to the Ministry of National Defense, whereas Gendarmery General Command and Coast Guard were bound to Ministry of Internal Affairs. In this way the concentration of military power in one hand was prevented. In addition, a rule was issued assuring that the president and prime minister can get direct information from the Commanders-in-chief of Armed Forces and his subordinates and can give them direct order if needed. In the decree law it was stated that "Orders are carried out without receiving prior approval from any authority", thus for the Commanders-in-chief of Armed Forces, the necessity of getting the approval of Commander of the Turkish Armed Forces to execute an order given by the President was abolished.
- Regarding the new regulation related to SMC members, the number of the council members was increased to 10 whereas the number of military member was decreased to four, hence the domination of the SMC has passed to the politicians.
- Military High Schools that form the main source of officer cadre, which form the basis of soldier concept, were closed; students graduated from all kind of high schools are allowed to enter National Defense University, thus the difference between the military culture (acquired from the attended military high school) and social culture, which was causing the alienation of the officer from the society from which he has aroused, was attempted to be eliminated. This change can be seen as an example of the practice suggested by Janowitz's "Professional Soldier" theory, pretending that the provision of the officers from different sources will create an officer profile with different world vision and different ideas, thus it will create a kind of control and equilibrium mechanism.
- Autonomous health system of the soldiers was ended by transferring military health system to the Ministry of Health, therefore a dependence between institutions was created.
- Military courts, except disciplinary courts, were abolished; military courts can only be established in war periods for judging the crimes of the soldiers about their duties; thus, the dicephaly of the jurisdiction and the formation of different court practices were eliminated. In this way the jurisdictional autonomy of the soldiers was ended.
- MND cadres, in which the soldiers were occupying decision-making points, were replaced; the cadres were civilized starting from the undersecretary; hence, the decisions and plans concerning the soldiers will be performed by the civilians. In addition, the authority of assigning military personnel who serve in commands force was taken away from Commanders-in-chief of Armed Forces and transferred to MND, eliminating the activity of any factor/power within the army.
- The presence of the garrison command was taken away from the ceremonies, the present status of the soldier in the eye of the society was set at the position of a state officer.

CONCLUSION

In Western societies, as a result of changes lived in civilian-military relations, the activity of the soldiers within the state structure was taken under control, thus civilian politicians could establish civilian control on the soldiers. Consequently, the development of the state structures was more democratic and civilian-based. The period following the World War II, where the foundation of the transition to the concept of democracy in civilian-military relations has been established, was resulted with a totally different formation in Turkey. As mentioned above, with the military aid that America has provided after Truman doctrine and Turkey's entry into NATO, the period after the 1940s corresponds to the period where soldiers have come to the sun from shadow and entered into the pursuit of power.

The reasons of this contradiction are seen as:

- Turkey has been brought into the position of an outpost against the USSR, which was the source of communist fear, by the West,
- The expectation of the West from Turkey was just defense-centered,
- Instead of democratic institutions, the army was aroused as the institution to be strengthened.

As a natural outcome of this, the military has been supported and strengthened in Turkey and has become a partner of the ruling while it was losing its power in the West.

However, at the end of 1990s, the bipolar world order was changed and the fear of communism and USSR was replaced with the clash of civilizations as suggested by Huntington; the Turkish army, which has been supported as an outpost, began to be seen as the main power preventing Western civilization to realize its requests on Middle East and they attempted to isolate it from the community and from the power that it possessed within the state. With the years 2000, the cards of power distribution were dealt again.

In Turkey, after reaching a new point in the power and governance equilibrium between civilians and soldiers, the need of a strong officer identity and consequently the presence of a military structure that has penetrated into the political zone as much as possible disappeared, and the position of the soldier has begun to be reversed. As explained above, TAF has been taken under strict control by the civilians. Radical changes occurred on the fundamental features of the profession of military as a result of the transformations lived after 15 July 2016 coup attempt, which affected the values considered to be vital for armed forces. Naturally, values like honor, loyalty or duty will not disappear in this conversion process, but they will have different weight on the future profile of the profession of military.

After July 15 rising, the main purpose of the changes made concerning civilian-military relations was interpreted as the abolishment of the autonomous zone that the soldiers had and the structures leading to the alienation of the soldiers from the society from which they have aroused. But it should be remembered that the essential factor in the formation of the army, which will sacrifice his life for its people in the war, is the system of merit. It should be considered that the promotion of political and ideological preferences in the creation of officer cadres and general cadres instead of the merit system may bring a new Balkan war defeat to the country.

It is clear that the Republic of Turkey should not be weak, both politically and militarily, in any period and under no circumstances in the region that it belongs. Especially regarding the recent developments in the Middle East and the point achieved at the fight against terrorism, the Republic of Turkey, which should move the security frame beyond the boundaries and

which is subject to use hard power for this purpose, is introduced to a process where the Armed Forces are most needed to be strong. Turkish Armed Forces will shake off the recent nuisances with the power that it gets from its people; it is in a transformation for executing the needed restructuring with a contemporary understanding and in a way that it will be completely supplied by national resources. The common sense and supreme confidence to the Armed Forces, which will facilitate the transformation of civilian-military relations, have a very strong and deep-rooted history that could not be abraded.

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Assessing EFL Textbooks for Indonesian High School Students

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ABSTRACT

This study assesses the EFL textbooks used for Indonesian high school students. It is aimed at assessing whether the textbooks meet the criteria of a good EFL textbook. For this purpose, an approach to content or document analysis was employed. The data were collected from an EFL textbook “Pathway to English”. The assessment was based on eight dimensions of textbook criteria including layout and design, subject and content, objective, types of texts, language skills, activities and tasks, grammar and vocabulary, and teachers’ book. The results of the assessment showed that the textbook mostly meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, some items in dimensions one, two, three, four, six, and seven were not fulfilled. Moreover, the teacher’s book was not provided. This implies that the EFL textbook may be used for high school students with some revisions.

Keywords: assessment, EFL textbooks, good EFL textbook, textbooks for high school students

INTRODUCTION

This study attempts to assess the EFL textbooks used for high school students whether the textbook meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. Assessing the EFL textbooks is significant, particularly for teachers of English to select a good EFL textbook prior to being used for their students in high schools, and generally for textbook writers and publishing companies to apply the criteria of a good EFL textbook before writing and publishing the EFL textbooks for high school students.

Over the past years, a number of studies have been conducted to evaluate the content of EFL textbooks. Gordani (2010) of the Iranian Shiraz University conducted an assessment of the EFL textbooks used at Iranian Guidance Schools to explore different types of learning objectives inherent in Iranian guidance school English textbooks from the viewpoint of Bloom's taxonomy. The primary data in this study were the English textbooks taught in Iranian guidance schools at the present time. The results of this research could serve as a guide to educational decision-makers, syllabus designers, and textbook developers who wish to modify their practice and materials in such a way as to achieve higher levels of learning objectives. Chaisongkram (2011) of the Language Institute, Thammasat University, Thailand, carried out an assessment of an English textbook aimed at finding out whether the textbook was suitable for learners in Mattayom One schools in Thailand. A checklist of textbook assessment criteria by Cunningsworth (1995) and Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) was used to analyse the textbook consisting of the general information on the textbook and the textbook analysis' questions, including eight criteria: aims, design and organization, skills, topics, vocabulary and structure, phonology, illustrations and physical make-up. The results showed that MegaGoal

One was compatible with the English education program proposed by the Thai Ministry of Education (2008).

Aftab (2011) of School of English, Drama and American & Canadian Studies College of Arts and Law, University of Birmingham, conducted a multidimensional study comprehensively to explore the English language textbook situation in Pakistan in five stages utilizing mixed methods approach. Two preliminary stages were small scale – a survey of the English language requirements and interviews of the officials involved in sanctioning and publishing textbooks. The main stages were the critical examination of the English curricula and syllabi, the survey of the views of the textbook users, and the detailed coursebook assessment. The assessment criteria checklists and questionnaires employed during these stages were mainly based on the materials development, 'needs analysis' and curriculum design literature. The research highlighted shortcomings in the overall educational arena and these weaknesses are assumed to be indirectly responsible for the poor standard of English prevailing in the country. The curriculum and textbook policies were found to be inadequate. Generally the teachers/administrators lacked critical, in-depth and practical understanding of language learning objectives, teaching techniques, syllabus design, and materials. By and large, the course books overwhelmingly relied on controlled and artificial activities to teach English. In conclusion, suggested improvements in the curriculum development process, teachers and textbook writers training programmes and, importantly, the prescribed coursebooks can in the long run assist in facilitating English language acquisition in the Pakistani learners.

Nguyen (2015) of the Department of English Language and Linguistics, the University of Sheffield assessed the *English 6*, an official textbook used for grade 6 pupils in all secondary schools all over Vietnam, in the teaching and learning context of the Mekong Delta. The research was conducted in two stages, consisting of a theoretical assessment and an empirical assessment. The theoretical assessment was based on the researcher's experience, expertise, and the literature on textbook assessment. The empirical assessment was based on data collected from 22 teachers and 313 pupils at eight different secondary schools in four different provinces in the Mekong Delta in the form of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, documents and classroom observation. The assessment sought to find out the users' views on the textbook, its impact on users and the users' recommendations for improvement. The results of the assessment show that the textbook suits the teaching and learning context and culture, gives much help to both teachers and pupils, and receives positive responses from teachers and pupils. On the other hand, the textbook needs to be improved in the following ways. For instance, more varied types of activities, especially ones which help pupils practice using the target language communicatively, should be added to the textbook content. Free practice activities should be added after the controlled ones to help pupils practice speaking and writing creatively. The textbook should be supplemented with language material from different resources such as picture stories, comic strips, and the like. The supporting resources need to be more widely available and better, both in terms of physical appearance and quality. The findings also indicate that textbook writers should carry out learner needs analysis before writing new textbooks to make sure that they meet learners' needs.

The first study was conducted to explore different types of learning objectives from the viewpoint of Bloom's taxonomy. The second study was aimed at assessing the suitability of the EFL textbook for learners, using a checklist of textbook assessment criteria by Cunningsworth and Daoud and Celce-Murcia, including eight criteria: aims, design and organization, skills, topics, vocabulary and structure, phonology, illustrations and physical make-up. The third research was undertaken to assess the relevance of the English textbook for high schools to the EFL textbook assessment criteria, using Jahangard's criteria and a criteria checklist as the

instrument. The fourth study was undertaken to assess the English language textbook situation in five stages with a mixed method approach, using assessment criteria checklists and questionnaires as the instruments. The fifth research was to find out the users' views on the textbook, its impact on users and the users' recommendations for improvement, which was conducted in two stages, consisting of a theoretical assessment and an empirical assessment. The theoretical assessment was based on the researcher's experience, expertise, and the literature on textbook assessment. The empirical assessment was based on data collected from teachers and students. The instruments used were in the form of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, documents and classroom observation.

This present study, however, elaborates more detailed dimensions of holistic criteria of good EFL textbooks including layout and design, subject and content, objective, types of texts, language skills, activities and tasks, grammar and vocabulary, and teachers' book.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

EFL Textbook

According to Newmark (1998), a textbook can be defined as an informative function. It involves the external situation, the facts of topics, reality outside the language, and the reported ideas or theories. Nunan (1991) defined textbook as a commercially produced material. It is an important element within a curriculum, and is often the most tangible and visible aspect of the textbook. Tarigan (1986) stated that textbooks are books of lesson in a certain field of study as a standard book arranged by the experts of field for instructional purposes and compiled by harmonious teaching media and easily understood by the users in schools and colleges to receive teaching programs. Buckingham (1985) in Tarigan (1993) said that textbook is a book which is usually used by teachers to support the teaching and learning processes in schools and universities. Teaching and learning process is an interaction between teachers and students ended by a process of assessing the learning results. Teaching and learning process is also a process of interaction between students and teachers in the efforts of achieving the learning objectives, which takes place in a certain location and in a certain period of time. Bacon (1935) in Tarigan (1986) also expressed that textbooks are books which are designed to be used in the class accurately compiled and prepared by the experts or experts of the field and compiled with appropriate teaching tools. Finally, Sheldon (1987) stated that a textbook can be referred to as a published book specially designed to help the language learners improve their linguistic and communicative abilities. It is a book which is published with a specific design used to assist people in learning a language with a view to improving their linguistic and communication skills.

A conclusion can be drawn that textbooks are printed materials specifically designed to be used in the class with the objective of facilitating the teaching and learning processes in schools to improve students' language skills.

A Standardized EFL Textbook

The basic characteristics of a standardized textbook for teaching language are suggested by Tomlinson (in Richards, 2002). According to Tomlinson, materials in the textbook should achieve impacts, help learners to feel at ease, help to develop confidence, and should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful and learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught from the materials. Moreover, materials should require and facilitate learners' self-investment; provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes; take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed as well as take into account that learners have different learning styles. Furthermore, materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes; permit a silent

period at the beginning of instruction and not rely too much on controlled practice. At last, materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

Based on Crawford's opinion (Richards & Renandya, 2002), materials obviously reflect the writer's view of language and learning, and teachers (and student as well) will give a response in accordance with how well these match their own beliefs and expectations. Crawford proposed several points to be taken into account in providing effective materials. For example, the language should be functional and contextualized. Language development requires learners' engagement in purposeful use of language. The language use should be realistic and authentic. In addition, classroom materials will usually seek to include audio visual and contextual differences. To be specific, the second language learners need to develop the ability to deal with the written and spoken genres. As a result, effective teaching materials may foster learners' autonomy and engage them effectively and cognitively.

In terms of using a course book, Ur (2009) summarized the notes as framework, syllabus, ready-made texts and tasks, economy, convenience, guidance, and autonomy. Related to the framework, a course book should provide a clear framework, in the sense that teachers and learners know where they are going and what is coming next, so as to result in a sense of structure and progress.

In regard to syllabus, in many places a course book serves as a syllabus if it is followed systematically. A careful planned and balanced selection of language content will be covered. With respect to the ready-made texts and tasks, the course book should provide texts and learning tasks which are likely to be appropriate level for most of the class. It certainly saves the times for the teachers who will otherwise have to prepare their own texts and tasks. In relation to the economy, a book should be the cheapest way of providing the learning materials for each learner. Several alternatives, such as kits, sets of photocopied papers or computer software are likely to be more expensive depending on the number of the materials provided. Regarding the convenience, a book is the convenient package. It is bound, so that its components stick and stay in order. It is light and small enough to carry around easily. It is of a shape that is easily packed and stacked. For its use, the book does not depend on the hardware supply of electricity. Relating to the guidance, a course book should have a guide book for teachers who are inexperienced or occasionally unsure of their knowledge of the language. The course book may provide useful guidance and support. Finally, relating to the economy, the learners can use the course book to learn new materials, review, and monitor the progress with a certain degree of autonomy. A learner without a course book is more teacher-dependent.

Assessing EFL Textbook

When a textbook is published, it should be thoroughly assessed to ensure that the material is suitable for the school setting. Textbook assessment is conducted to analyse the content of the textbook whether it is relevant and meets the criteria of a good textbook (Fredriksson and Olsson, 2006).

A Guidance to Assess EFL Textbooks

According to Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004), assessing materials is an activity which involves measuring the values (or potential values) of a set of learning materials by making judgments about the effects of the materials on the people using them. Assessing materials seeks to gauge, among others, (1) the appeals of the materials to the learners, (2) the validity of the materials, (3) the ability of the materials to interest the learners, (4) the potential learning values of the

materials, (5) the assistance given to the teachers in terms of the preparation, delivery, and assessment, and (6) the flexibility of the materials.

Garinger (2002) provided the teachers with the way to assess a textbook when they open a page in their textbook. They have to decide if they should use the lesson on that page with their class. If the language, content, and sequencing of the textbook are appropriate, the teachers may want to go ahead and use the textbook. However, if something wrong is found with the textbook, the teachers have to decide what to do next.

Subsequently, Garinger suggested four steps in the process of selecting a textbook. They consist of (1) matching the textbook to the program and the course that can be undertaken prior to selecting a textbook, (2) reviewing the skills presented in the textbook with the purpose of improving the learners' language skills, (3) reviewing exercises and activities in the textbook that can be carried out when assessing the quality of the exercises and activities of a textbook, and (4) weighing practical concerns of the textbook.

Deciding a good textbook should be made by teachers. Harmer (2007) suggested four alternatives for teachers to decide if the part of a coursebook or a textbook is not appropriate. First alternative is that teachers might simply decide to omit the lesson from the textbook, or teachers may replace the coursebook lesson with one of the teachers' own. Teachers may also add and adapt what is in the book. This means that if the reading text deals with a boring or uncreative way, an invitation sequence is too predictable or teachers simply want to deal with the materials in their own way, the teachers may adapt the lesson of the textbook. Teachers may adapt the materials by rewriting parts of them, replacing some of the activities, reordering the activities or reducing the number of activities in the sequence. The teachers' activities have led the students on teachers' beliefs, perceptions and understandings about the textbook.

As cited in Richard (2002), Cunningsworth proposed four criteria for assessing a textbook, particularly a course book. According to him, a textbook should (1) correspond to learners' need and match the aims and objectives of the language learning program, (2) reflect the uses (present and future) that the students will make of language and help equip the students the language effectively for their own purposes. (3) take into account students' need as learners and facilitate their learning process, without dogmatically imposing a rigid method, and (4) have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, it should mediate between the target language and the learner. In addition, as cited by Brown (2001), Cunningsworth presented the textbook assessment and selection by the following categories (1) aims and approaches, (2) design and organization, (3) language content, (4) skills, (5) topics, (6) methodology, (7) teachers' books, and (8) practical consideration.

Ur (2008) suggested the criteria for the coursebook assessment from the importance to less importance. According to him, a textbook should have (1) objectives explicitly laid out in an introduction, and implemented in the material; (2) approach educationally and socially acceptable to target community; (3) clear attractive layout, print easy to read; (4) appropriate visual materials available; (5) interesting topics and tasks; (6) varied topics and tasks so as to provide different learner levels, learning styles, interest, etc.; (7) clear instructions; (8) systematic coverage syllabus; (9) contents clearly organized and graded (sequenced by difficulty); (10) periodic review and test sections; (11) plenty of authentic language; (12) good pronunciation explanation and practice; (13) fluency practice in all four skills; (14) encouragement for learners to develop their own strategies and to become independent in their learning; (15) adequate guidance for the teachers, not too heavy preparation load; (16) audio cassettes; and (17) readily-available locally.

Finally, Callow (2013) also suggested several principles for selecting texts and activities in the textbook to be used in the classroom. According to Callow, every literary theme and feature should have the theme (as the central message of a story), plot (as a basic generic narrative structure), characterization or characters whether people, animals or things that populate the created story world, point of view, the narrator of the text, and the setting that is the particular time and place of the story.

Dimensions of an EFL Textbook

Based on the textbook assessment criteria, several features of EFL textbooks should be deemed as important dimensions to be assessed and analyzed in order to know the quality of the textbook. There were eight dimension, including layout and design, subject and content, objectives, types of texts, language skills, activities and tasks, grammar and vocabulary, and teachers' book.

Layout and Design

Layout and organization of textbooks has a great influence on learning of the basic information in the texts. Teaching materials with clear layout and structure have a noticeable effect on leaning. Learners' curiosity and attention are attracted when the material is visually attractive and well organized. Besides, learners feel more comfort with materials with lots of white space and attractive colours. Sheldon (1988) pointed that "textbooks are physical artefacts, and the author needs to recognize that layout, format, typography and graphics are also essential for a successful coursebook". Cunningsworth (1984) claimed that "what we should look for is a good balance between visual material and written text, so that each supports the other". Nunan (1991) showed that, "The way materials are organized and presented, as well as the types of content and activities, will help to shape the learner's view of language."

Sheldon (1988) argued that the book should have an optimum density and mix of text and graphical material on each page. Needless to say, the pictures must be attractive, catchy and thought provoking, but on the other hand, the pictures cannot be offensive for the students. Furthermore, the pictures should be clear enough and they should serve their aims. In general, the layout of the book must help both the teacher and the students to use the texts and visual materials in an efficient way. McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggested that "some textbook are very well researched and written but are so cluttered with information on every page that teachers/learners find them practically unusable'. Hartley (1985) suggested that illustrations may accomplish one or more of the following roles in instructional text; an affective role-enhancing interest and motivation; an attention role-attracting and directing attention; a didactic role- facilitating learning by showing rather than telling and by providing additional information; a supportive role-enhancing the learning of less able readers and a retention role-facilitating long term recall.

In addition, "there has been a tendency to use glossy prints in some materials to try and make the book appear more attractive" (McDonough and Shaw, 2003). Illustrations must be an integral part of the textbook, and must complement the text and make a real contribution to learning outcomes. There are two basic types of illustration. Firstly, line drawings - which can either be in colour or simply in black only. Secondly, photographs - which again can be in black and white or in full colour.

Based on the above description, the layout and design to be assessed include (1) the quality of paper and binding of the textbook which is durable, (2) the size of the textbook which is convenient for students to handle, (3) the cover of the textbook which is appealing, (4) the main headings and sub-headings which are well-organized, (5) the units which are well-organized

and offering easy progression, (6) enough pictures, diagrams, tables etc. which help the students understand the printed texts, (7) illustrations, tables, figures, graphs, etc. which are relevant and functional, (8) an adequate vocabulary list or glossary included, (9) the instructions written in a simple and clear language, (10) the material containing adequate indices and appendices, and (11) necessary audio-visual aids which help students learn the four skills in an integrated way.

Subject and Content

Textbooks have to be authentic, inspiring and catching the students' interest. If textbooks fail to convey these aspects, neither teachers nor students will have enough strength or energy to work with these textbooks.

Cunningsworth (1995) claimed that textbooks should correspond to learners' needs; help to equip learners to use language effectively for their own purposes; facilitate students' learning process and have a clear role in mediating the target language and the learner. Celce-Murcia (2001) argued that textbooks are for students. To meet their needs, the textbooks must have not just the English language or communication skills content demanded by the curriculum, but they must also fit the needs of students as learners of English. Cunningsworth (1995) explained that by engaging students' interests and challenging their intellect, coursebooks can provide much of the stimulation which will motivate them to become more independent in their learning and in their use of English. He maintained that this could be done by including interesting and stimulating topics and encouraging learners to think for themselves around these topics and to discuss them with others. Sheldon (1988) argued that flexibility should be one of the features of a good foreign language textbook. The materials should be easy to modify or adapt to the practical constraints with which the teacher has to deal in different teaching situations. Language textbooks should have clarity. There should be a linkage of materials, which means that the textbook should be organized in such a way that the units and exercises connect in terms of theme, situation, topic, pattern of skills development, or progression in grammar and lexis.

The materials should be organized in such a way that it is easy for both the teacher and the students to find a relevant piece of information in the textbook. Besides, there should be clear and conspicuous section headings, indexes, vocabulary lists, etc.

Textbooks should depict authentic, interesting, absorbing, entertaining and modern topics. It is important that the textbook covers different proficiency levels since the textbook will be used in many different classes and programs at the school which is also the most economic solution. Though no single subject will be interesting to all students, the content of English textbooks is required to be meaningful and interesting for students.

The aspects of subject and content to be assessed include (1) an appropriate table of contents, (2) the content not conflicting with students' social beliefs, (3) the content not conflicting with students' background, (4) most language skills, (5) the subject matter presented either topically or functionally in a logical, organized manner, (6) sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook, (7) the content promoting students' autonomy, (8) the content containing real-life issues that challenge the readers to think critically about his/her worldview, (9) the topics familiar to the learners, (10) the content of the material which is interesting and motivating, (11) the content which promotes students' involvement, (12) The content which is appropriate for the learners' level, (13) the materials which encourage a positive attitude towards gender (e.g. stereotyping occupation or use of gender bias words like

chairman instead of chairperson), (14) the materials which encourage a positive attitude towards environmental issues, and (15) the self-check progress report.

Objectives

In assessing textbooks, the most important dimension to be treated is to check the presence of objectives in the textbooks and to examine their quality and appropriate to the students' level. Hyland (2007) stated that objectives are important to ensure that appropriate learning is achieved. Just as syllabus objectives specify the knowledge and skills students will acquire at the end of a course, lesson and unit objectives describe the observable behaviours learners will display at the end of the unit. Teaching materials need to address clearly stated objectives. When students know why and what they are learning, it makes the activities and tasks more purposeful and meaningful. Cunningsworth (1995) suggested that "the aims and objectives of a learning/teaching program should determine which course materials are used, and not vice versa, reflecting the principle that coursebooks are better servants than masters". Well-written textbooks should help learners attain the determined objectives.

To be a good EFL textbook, the textbook should have objectives. The objectives of the textbook should be (1) clear and precise for the learners, (2) gradual in difficulty, (3) realistic, (4) corresponding to the needs of the learners, (5) demonstrating various levels of Bloom's taxonomy, (6) recognizing individual differences, (7) suitable with the level of the learners, and (8) able to be covered within the time allocated. These aspects will be analyzed to know whether the textbook meets the criteria of a good English textbook in terms of the objectives.

Types of Texts

The types of texts are a significant thing to be mastered by students as they will be the students' references to what kind of message to be conveyed to the audience (in both speech and writing). Anderson & Anderson (2002) divided the types of text into literary and factual. Literary texts correlate to human emotions and imagination (for instance fairy tales, plays, novels, songs, lyrics, mimes, and soap opera). On the other hand, factual texts present information or ideas and aim to show, tell or persuade the audience (for example advertisements, announcements, internet websites, current affairs shows, debates, recipes, reports, and instructions). Gerot & Wignell (1995), Anderson & Anderson (2003), Derewianka (2004), Butt *et al.* (2006), Thai (2009), Droga & Humphrey (2011), and Humphrey *at al.* (2012) categorized the types of texts. The categories of the types of texts suggested to the students include description (factual and literary), information report, procedure, procedural, factual recount, literary recount, discussion, explanation, analytical and hortatory exposition, narrative, and response.

Integrated Language Skills

Language is integrated and consists of different skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Appropriate textbooks should look for a balance of skills. In many cases, the learning situation requires the use of many different skills at the same time. McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggested that materials should enable the learners to see how the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) can be used effectively in appropriate contexts. They added that as integrated skills materials are likely to involve learners in authentic and realistic tasks, their motivation level will increase as they perceive a clear rationale behind what they are being asked to do. According to Brown (1994), Oxford (1991) and Suherdi (2012), an integrated language skill in a textbook is sometimes organized by listening, speaking, reading and writing. These skills are intended to find out the differences and interrelationship among these four primary modes of language skill performance.

Oxford (1991) also suggested to apply direct and indirect strategies in the four integrated language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). The assumption is based on the importance of the four language skills and these skills deserve a special attention and actions. In addition, learning strategies help students develop each of the skills. In terms of the direct strategy, it involves memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, while the indirect strategy relates to metacognitive, affective and social strategies. These strategies of the integrated language skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing, as well as vocabulary and grammar.

Activities and Tasks

Good textbooks should be supplied with various activities and tasks that engage learners in the use of skills and processes related to specific language teaching objectives. The textbooks should also include a variety of exercises that provide students with opportunities to practice and extend their language skills.

Tomlinson (1998) related tasks with learners' self-confidence. He adds that learners develop confidence through variety of activities which try to push learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency by engaging them in tasks which are stimulating and problematic but achievable too. Similarly, Richards (2001) elaborated that the tasks in the textbooks should be flexible and appeal to different styles and strategies, and should not favor one type of learner over another. In addition, good textbooks should have variety of exercises and tasks that enhance cooperative learning.

Related to the the activities and tasks to be assessed, the textbook should have (1) a variety of activities, (2) sufficient instructions in the material, (3) clear instructions in the material, (4) instructions to explain how the exercise should be done, (5) sufficient number of activities, (6) interactive activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate, (7) activities which facilitate the students to use grammatical rules by creating situations in which these rules are needed, (8) communicative exercises which enable learners to carry out their communicative tasks in real-life situations, (9) a balance between the activities for language and activities for skills, and (10) an adequate set of assessment quizzes or testing suggestions.

Grammar and Vocabulary

Good textbooks should have a good grammar and vocabulary which plays an important part of the textbooks. There are several aspects to be analysed relating to the grammar and vocabulary. A good textbook should provide grammatical rules which are presented in a logical way and in an increasing order of difficulty. New grammar or structure should be integrated in a variety of contexts and situations. Further, the textbook should have grammatical points presented in short and easy examples and explanations and repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement. In regards to vocabulary, the load of vocabulary of the textbook should be reasonable for the learners' level. The vocabulary should be functional, thematic, authentic and practical. The progression of the vocabulary should be appropriate. In addition, a good textbook should be provided with sufficient practice of grammatical concepts that lead to communicative use of the language.

The grammar and vocabulary to be assessed are related to (1) grammatical rules presented in a logical manner and in increasing order of difficulty, (2) new structure integrated in varying contexts and situations, (3) grammatical points presented in brief and easy examples and explanations, (4) vocabulary load reasonable for the level of the learners, (5) sufficient written practice of the grammatical concepts that lead to communicative use of the language, (6) progression of vocabulary items which is appropriate, (7) new structure repeated in

subsequent lessons for reinforcement, and (8) vocabulary which is functional, thematic, authentic, and practical.

Teacher's Book

According to Brown (2001), Arnold, and Rixon in Tomlinson (2008) and Masuhara in Tomlinson (1998), the crucial pair of student's book is a teacher's book. Teacher's book, which is also called as a teacher's guide, teacher's support, teacher's edition, teacher's manual, etc., is a means of consulting and using as many as of its suggestion as teachers feel appropriate. This book has to cover with methodological guidance; alternative and supplementary exercises, suitability for non-native speaking teachers; and answer key. Based on the result of the questionnaire and need analysis proposed by Arnold and Rixon in Tomlinson (2008) in Masuhara in Tomlinson (1998), the respondents of teachers demonstrate that the teacher's book is very important to produce. For the inexperienced teachers, teacher's book is supposed to provide detailed instructions and suggestions on the teaching methods. While for the experienced teachers, teacher's book is preferred to supply a lot of different optional activities or interesting raw materials to be exploited. To a great extent, Watson *et al* (2003) explained that teacher's book is intended to provide supplementary activities which can easily be slotted into the school syllabus and can be adapted very simple for the use of other topics and structures, as well as with a broad range of age and ability levels

RESEARCH METHOD

Source of the Data

The data of this research were the content of the EFL textbook entitled "*Pathway to English*" used for high School students". The textbook was selected as the source of the data as it has been developed under the 2013 Curriculum and widely used by high school students in Indonesia. In addition, this textbook has been stated suitable by the Government through the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia No. 148/P/2016, dated 1 July 2016 regarding the "Stipulation on the Title of Textbook for High School/Islamic High School".

Data Collection and Analysis

Procedures for collecting data were undertaken by several steps, including thoroughly reading the content of the EFL textbook; carefully identifying the textbook's dimensions in accordance with the criteria of a good EFL textbook; appropriately categorizing the textbook's dimensions suitable with the criteria of a good EFL textbook; carefully assessing by summarizing, sorting and selecting, and categorizing the data obtained; carefully judging the textbook's dimensions suitable with the criteria of a good EFL textbook; and carefully drawing a conclusion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Eight dimensions were assessed based on the criteria of a good EFL textbook, consisting of layout and design, subject and content, objectives, types of texts, language skills, activities and tasks, grammar and vocabulary, and teachers' book. Based on the assessment results, the EFL textbook "*Pathway to English 3*", mostly meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook as described in the following table:

Table 1: Fulfilment of the EFL textbook criteria

No	Dimensions	Meet the Criteria	Do not meet the Criteria
1.	Layout and Design		
	1.1 durable quality of paper and binding	√	
	1.2 a convenient size for students to handle	√	
	1.3 an appealing cover	√	
	1.4 well-organized main headings and subheadings	√	
	1.5 well-organized units which offer easy progression	√	
	1.6 enough pictures, diagrams, tables to help the students understand the printed texts	√	
	1.7 relevant and functional illustrations, tables, figures, graphs	√	
	1.8 an adequate vocabulary list or glossary		√
	1.9 instructions written in a simple and clear language	√	
	1.10 adequate indices and appendices		√
	1.11 necessary audio-visual aids which help students learn the four skills in an integrated way		√
2	Subject and Content		
	2.1 containing an appropriate table of content	√	
	2.2 not conflicting with students' social beliefs and background	√	
	2.3 covering most language skills	√	
	2.4 presented either topically or functionally in a logical, organized manner	√	
	2.5 containing sufficient variety	√	
	2.6 promoting students' autonomy	√	
	2.7 containing real-life issues that challenge the reader to think critically about his/her worldview	√	
	2.8 containing topics which are familiar to the learners	√	
	2.9 interesting and motivating, and promoting students' involvement	√	
	2.10 appropriate for the learners' level	√	
	2.11 encouraging a positive attitude towards gender		√
	2.12 encouraging a positive attitude towards environmental issues		√
	2.13 containing self-check progress report	√	
3	Objectives	√	
	3.1 clear and precise for the learners	√	
	3.2 gradual in difficulty	√	
	3.3 realistic	√	
	3.4 corresponding to the needs of the learners	√	
	3.5 demonstrating various levels of bloom's taxonomy	√	
	3.6 recognizing individual differences		√
	3.7 suitable with the level of the learners	√	
	3.8 able to be covered within the time allocated	√	
4.	Types of Text		
	4.1 Description (<i>factual and literary</i>)	√	
	4.2 Information report	√	
	4.3 Procedure	√	
	4.4 Recount (<i>procedural, factual, and literary</i>)	√	
	4.5 Discussion	√	
	4.6 Explanation	√	

	4.7 Exposition (<i>analytical and hortatory</i>)	√	
	4.8 Narrative	√	
	4.9 Response		√
5	Language Skills	√	
	5.1 Listening	√	
	5.2 Speaking	√	
	5.3 Reading	√	
	5.4 Writing	√	
6	Activities and Tasks	√	
	6.1 a variety of activities	√	
	6.2 sufficient instructions in the material	√	
	6.3 clear instructions in the material	√	
	6.4 instructions to explain how exercises should be done	√	
	6.5 sufficient number of activities	√	
	6.6 interactive activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate	√	
	6.7 activities which facilitate the students to use grammatical rules by creating situations in which these rules are needed	√	
	6.8 communicative exercises which enable learners to carry out their communicative tasks in real-life situations	√	
	6.9 a balance between the activities for language and activities for skills	√	
	6.10 an adequate set of assessment quizzes or testing suggestions		√
7.	Grammar and Vocabulary		
	7.1 The grammatical rules are presented in a logical manner and in increasing order of difficulty,	√	
	7.2 The new structure is integrated in varying contexts and situations	√	
	7.3 The grammatical points are presented in brief and easy examples and explanations	√	
	7.4 The vocabulary load seems to be reasonable for the level of the learners	√	
	7.5 There is sufficient written practice of the grammatical concepts that lead to communicative use of the language,	√	
	7.6 The progression of vocabulary items is appropriate.	√	
	7.7 The new structure is repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement		√
	7.8 The vocabulary is functional, thematic, authentic, and practical	√	
8	Teachers' Book		√

Layout and Design

The assessment of the textbook (table 1) shows that the layout and design mostly meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, a list of vocabularies or glossaries was not available in each chapter of the textbook. Appendices were not found. Audio-visual aids which helped students learn the four skills in an integrated way were not available.

Layout and design of a textbook is a significant dimension which has a great influence on learning of the basic information in the texts. Based on the criteria adapted from Sheldon

(1988), Cunningsworth (1984), Nunan (1991), Sheldon (1998), McDonough and Shaw (2003), and Hartley (1985), a good textbook should have a layout and design. According to them, the layout and design should have (1) a durable quality of paper and binding, (2) a convenient size for students to handle, (3) an appealing cover, (4) well-organized main headings and sub-headings, (5) well-organized units which offer easy progression, (6) enough pictures, diagrams, and tables to help the students understand the printed texts, (7) relevant and functional illustrations, tables, figures, graphs, (8) an adequate vocabulary list or glossary, (9) instructions written in a simple and clear language, (10) adequate indices and appendices, and (11) necessary audio-visual aids which help students learn the four skills in an integrated way.

Subject and Content

Based on the results of the assessment of the textbook (table 1), the subject and content mostly meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, it does not fully encourage a positive attitude towards gender and environmental issues.

Subject and content of the textbook is the second important dimension. Based on the criteria suggested by Cunningsworth (1995), Celce-Murcia (2001), Sheldon (1988), and Cunningsworth (1995), a good textbook should have subject and content. According to them, the subject and content should be (1) containing an appropriate table of content, (2) not conflicting with students' social beliefs, (3) not conflicting with students' background, (4) covering most language skills, (5) presented either topically or functionally in a logical, organized manner, (6) containing sufficient variety, (7) promoting students' autonomy, (8) containing real-life issues that challenge the learners to think critically about their worldview, (9) containing topics which are familiar to the learners, (10) interesting and motivating, (11) promoting students' involvement, (12) appropriate for the learners' level, (13) encouraging a positive attitude towards gender, (14) encouraging a positive attitude towards environmental issues, and (15) containing self-check progress report.

Objectives

Table 1 shows that the objectives mostly meet the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, they do not recognize individual differences in each chapter of the textbook.

Objectives are the most important dimension that should be present in a textbook. Based on the criteria adapted and modified from Cunningsworth (1995), Ur (1996), Tomlinson (1998), Richards (2001), Tekir and Arikan (2007), and Abraha (2008), a good textbook should have objectives. According to them, the objectives should be (1) clear and precise for the learners, (2) gradual in difficulty, (3) realistic, (4) corresponding to the needs of the learners, (5) demonstrating various levels of bloom's taxonomy, (6) recognizing individual differences, (7) suitable with the level of the learners, and (8) able to be covered within the time allocated.

Types of Texts

Table 1 indicates that the types of texts mostly meet the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, one chapter contains no type of text.

In addition to objectives, types of texts are also a significant dimension that should be there in a textbook. Under the criteria proposed by Anderson & Anderson (2002), Gerot & Wignell (1995), Anderson & Anderson (2003), Derewianka (2004), Butt *et al* (2006), Thai (2009), Droga & Humphrey (2011), and Humphrey *at al* (2012), a good EFL textbook should contain types of texts. According to them, the types of texts are categorized into description (factual and literary), information report, procedure, procedural, factual recount, literary recount, discussion, explanation, analytical and hortatory exposition, narrative, and response.

Language Skills

Table 1 describes that the language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) meet the criteria of a good EFL textbook.

Language skills are also a crucial dimension that should be present in an EFL textbook. McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggested that materials should enable the learners to see how the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) can be used effectively in appropriate contexts. According to Brown (1994), Oxford (1991) and Suherdi (2012), an integrated language skill in a textbook is sometimes organized by listening, speaking, reading and writing. In addition.

Activities and Tasks

Table 1 presents that dimension six—the activities and tasks—mostly meet the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, an adequate set of assessment quizzes or testing suggestions was not included in the activities and tasks.

Activities and tasks are the other significant dimension of a good EFL textbook with which students can develop their confidence. Based on the criteria suggested by Tomlinson (1998) and Richards (2001), the activities and task should have (1) a variety, (2) sufficient and clear instructions to explain how to do the exercises, (3) suitable and interactive activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate, (4) activities which facilitate students to use grammatical rules, (5) communicative exercises enabling learners to carry out their communicative tasks in real-life situations, (6) a balance between the activities for language and activities for skills, and (7) an adequate set of assessment quizzes or testing suggestions.

Grammar and Vocabulary

Table 1 presents that the availability of the grammar and vocabulary parts meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, the new structure was not repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement.

Grammar and vocabulary is the other important dimension of the EFL textbooks. Based on the criteria adapted from Brown (1994), Nunan (1991), Gerot (1998), Droga and Humphrey (2011), Biemiller in Hiebert & Kamil (2005), Hunt and Beglar in Richards & Renandya (2002), Nation in Richards & Renandya (2002), Richards (2002), Bauer (1998), Thornbury (2005), Richards & Renandya (2002), the grammar and vocabulary should have (1) grammatical rules presented in a logical manner and in an increasing order of difficulty, (2) new structure integrated in varying contexts and situations, (3) grammatical points presented in brief and easy examples and explanations, (4) vocabulary load reasonable for the level of the learners, (5) sufficient written practice of the grammatical concepts that lead to communicative use of the language, (6) appropriate progression of vocabulary items, (7) new structure repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement, and (8) vocabulary which is functional, thematic, authentic, and practical.

Teachers' Book

Based on the result of the assessment of the textbook, the teachers' book was not sufficiently provided. Teachers' book is also an important dimension that a good EFL textbook should have. Brown (2001), Arnold and Rixon in Tomlinson (2008) and Masuhara in Tomlinson (1998) said that teachers' book is the crucial pair of student's book. It is also called as a teacher's guide, teacher's support, teacher's edition, and teacher's manual. Teachers' book is a means of consulting and using as many as of its suggestion as teachers feel appropriate.

According to them, teachers' book has to cover with methodological guidance, alternative and supplementary exercises, and suitability for non-native speaking teachers, and answer key.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusion

Based on the results of assessment on the eight dimensions, consisting of layout and design, subject and content, objectives, types of texts, language skills, activities and tasks, and grammar and vocabulary, and teachers' book, the textbook mostly meets the criteria of a good EFL textbook. However, weaknesses were found including an adequate vocabulary list or glossary was not provided and audio-visual aids and video were not available. In addition, several chapters did not encourage a positive attitude towards gender and environmental issues. Moreover, one chapter contained no types of texts. New structure was not repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement. Finally, the textbook was not accompanied by a teacher's book.

Suggestions

Based on the conclusion mentioned above, it is strongly suggested that textbook writers include all dimensions with their accompanying items to provide a good textbook for the EFL students. Second, due to the limited time frame, this study was focused only on eight dimensions and one EFL textbook. Other aspects, such as language types, students' needs, teachers' needs, students' perceptions, teachers' perceptions, and other related requirements of EFL textbooks are suggested to be included and examined in the future studies to complete this research.

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ERP Training: A Framework to Develop Appropriate Training to Accommodate the Variety of End-user Learning Styles in Thailand

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ABSTRACT

This article proposes an ERP training framework to accommodate the various learning styles of Thai users by analyzing the current ERP training approach and the learning styles of Thai users, including learning style and cultural learning behavior, which are reflected through the training outcomes of various end-user learning style groups. A qualitative research approach was employed in this study. Semi-structured interview and questionnaire were used as instruments to collect data based on seventy-two end-users who had participated in ERP training in implementation projects at twenty-two companies in Thailand. The recommendations for an ERP training framework were developed based on four dimensions of the current approach, which largely failed to accommodate Thai users' various learning styles. This framework would help to improve ERP training quality, which is a key success factor in ERP implementation.

Keywords: Educational culture; ERP training; Individual learning style; Training outcome; Hofstede's cultural dimensions.

INTRODUCTION

Previous research was conducted to investigate whether the current ERP training approach accommodates the various learning styles of Thai users and how it affects training outcomes. ERP training outcome evaluation revealed that the current ERP training does not accommodate the various learning styles of Thai users, which include both individual learning styles and cultural learning behavior. Four problem areas of the current approach were identified by learners from various learning style groups who were not satisfied with the current ERP training approach in various ways. Learners revealed the inability of the current approach to match the various individual learning styles. Training was found to have a negative effect on the perceived level of understanding as to how the ERP system works, and confidence in applying knowledge from training when using the system alone [1]. Moreover, the investigation of the cultural learning behaviors of Thai end-users to evaluate the effectiveness of the current ERP training approach revealed that Thai end-users' learning behaviors impacted the effectiveness of current ERP training, which may explain the dissatisfaction [2].

Prior research supports the assumption that the current ERP training approach is incompatible with Thai users' various learning styles, and impacts both the effectiveness and the outcomes. This supports the assertion that the current ERP training approach was designed without taking into account the various cultural settings in which it might be employed, thus lacking consideration of the various learning styles of end-users. Therefore, the current ERP training

approach does not include appropriate methods and materials to accommodate such learning styles. This may lead to ineffective training in regard to how to use the ERP system properly. The research question is as follows: *“Why does the vendors’ training approach in ERP implementation methodology fail to provide sufficient knowledge about how to use the ERP system properly?”*

To enhance the effectiveness of ERP training by developing an appropriate ERP training framework, it is necessary to identify the reasons for the incompatibility between the current ERP training approach and the end-user learning styles. The proposed ERP training framework helps both practitioners and researchers to improve information system (IS) knowledge transfer for the ERP system. Moreover, this framework can be very helpful to academic researchers, especially those who are interested in IS knowledge transfer development for ERP systems, to extend existing knowledge and to enhance training outcomes. Furthermore, this research will be of most benefit to practitioners, who can apply the training framework. Moreover, it also encourages ERP vendors to be careful when designing an ERP training approach, in which the various learning styles of end-users should be considered. This could facilitate better knowledge transfer and reduce user resistance to the new ERP system. The improvement of end-user training not only enhances the performance of tasks, but also helps the organization to reduce training and maintenance costs in providing support to end-users when using a new system.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning Styles and ERP Training

An Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) System is software that integrates a company’s business management functions [3]. Implementing an ERP system can bring an array of benefits to a company, but there are a significant number of ERP implementation failures. Such failures have been the focus of a number of studies which identified the ineffectiveness of training as a major problem, largely as a result of end-users’ reluctance and resistance to the new system. This jeopardizes the long term benefits of the ERP system for the company [4]. The current ERP training approach does not provide learners with sufficient knowledge to use the system by themselves [5]. Consequently, the current ERP training is ineffective for most learners.

The implementation methodology designed by ERP vendors is usually adopted for ERP training. However, the methodology is designed and developed in the West, with a western cultural perspective, and as a result, does not necessarily match the learning styles of Asian learners who have a significantly different learning culture. Although the training method may be successful in a western context, there is no guarantee that it will be successful in other learning cultures. It is therefore necessary to adapt the ERP training materials and delivery to suit the range of end-user learning styles.

Education researchers have attempted to explain the issues that exist in matching course design and learning style. It is clear that an appropriate teaching design that matches the learning styles of learners can significantly improve the outcomes of training [6]. However, the failure to take the learning styles of learners into account can lead to ineffective training and knowledge transfer [7, 8]. Reference [9] revealed that ERP training design and learning style affect end-user task performance. Consequently, the matching of learning style and training method can result in enhanced training outcomes and greater user satisfaction [10].

In previous research, learning style or learning behavior was classified based on two main factors: cultural learning behavior, and individual learning style. Prior research investigated

the relationship between cultural values and individual learning style, but there is little agreement about the results [6, 11]. Consequently, end-user learning style in this research focuses on both individual learning style and cultural learning behavior. End-users were classified into learning style groups by employing Kolb's learning style inventory, and Hofstede's cultural dimensions were used to explain the cultural learning behavior of Thai end-users.

Individual Learning Style

Reference [12] identified four learning modes to classify learners based on the following: learning from feelings is represented by Concrete Experience (CE); learning by watching and listening is Reflective Observation (RO); learning by thinking is referred to as Abstract Conceptualization (AC), and learning by doing is Active Experimentation (AE). These learning modes are represented by the following four learning styles.

- *Converging learning style:* (learning by thinking and doing- AC/AE). Abstract conceptualization and active experimentation are features of the converging learning style. Knowledge is acquired by thinking or the analysis of conceptual ideas and theories, and these ideas are then applied. Converging learning style learners prefer learning based on the resolution of practical problems. This type of learner usually prefers technical aspects and problem solving, but often lacks social skills.
- *Diverging learning style:* (learning by feeling and watching- CE/RO) real-world experience and reflective observation are the features of the diverging learning style. Learners' knowledge acquisition is instinctive. Diverging learning style learners prefer to collect information by observation and solve problems by being creative rather than by active experimentation. They work towards the big picture from the bottom up. Diverging style learners can view situations from different perspectives; they are more social and prefer group work. Consequently, brainstorming and discussion in groups suits their learning style.
- *Assimilator learning style:* (learning by thinking and watching- AC/RO) abstract conceptualization and reflective observation characterizes the assimilating learning style. Learners in this group prefer to learn by thinking, so ideas and concepts are more important than actual practice. They also possess the ability to create logical frameworks based on comprehensive information. They also learn from logical and analytical interactions. Consequently, they require clear and precise explanation rather than practical experience. In contrast to diverging style learners, they view topics from the top down rather than the bottom up.
- *Accommodating learning style:* (learning by feeling and doing- CE/AE) accommodating learning style learners combine concrete experience and active experimentation. Learners prefer hands-on experience and employ their senses rather than analysis. Therefore, accommodating learning style learners base their understanding on their experience but they lack analytical abilities. They are more inclined to experiment through trial and error by working in the field and by employing various methods to achieve an objective. Consequently, this type of learner prefers fieldwork, simulation and games to lectures.

Cultural Learning Behavior

Learning behavior is strongly affected by cultural background because educational experiences in a particular culture shape the way people learn. Hofstede's cultural dimensions can be applied to assess the impacts of culture on learning [13]. The learning culture in Thailand contrasts with that of the West [14]. The dimensions of Hofstede's cultural analysis that are relevant to education include power distance, collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity and short/long term orientation. Thailand is characterized by high

power distance, collectivism, femininity and short-term orientation. Thai education is largely teacher-centered, so learners are passive and expect to be guided and instructed by a teacher without question and without much interaction. Knowledge is transferred from the teacher to the students. Questioning the teacher in class is inappropriate as it is seen as showing a lack of respect and could lead to a loss of face for the teacher [15]. As a result, learners often lack vital skills such as critical thinking, problem solving and creative skills [16, 17]. Secondly, the traditional culture of rote learning involves teachers providing information to students, so students do not acquire self-learning skills. Thai learners lack motivation [18], which is indicated by the femininity dimension in Hofstede's analysis. Consequently, most students are passive as opposed to active learners. Thirdly, study is largely regarded as a one-time process, and students fail to appreciate the concept of lifelong learning, or learning as a process. Consequently, learning only takes place in class and little effort is made outside the classroom [19]. Fourthly, the Thai education system is also rather test-focused, which may encourage learners to focus more on memorization than conceptual understanding. As a result, the culture affects the method of teaching, the behavior of the student and the focus is on testing rather than learning. Students, consequently, have low levels of independent thinking ability and performance [20, 21].

Training Outcome

Collecting data and feedback to evaluate the training outcomes is important so that training can be reviewed and enhanced. However, using a single dimension of measurement does not reflect the complexity of training and could lead to inaccuracy [22]. Therefore, Kirkpatrick's framework, which is widely used, is appropriate because this framework includes four levels of analysis as follows:

- *Level 1: Reaction:* various aspects of training are evaluated by participants including satisfaction, opinions and an assessment of the importance of training.
- *Level 2: Learning:* the quantity of information that learners acquire on a course is measured. This level depends on evaluation data from trainers
- *Level 3: Behavior:* the learner's ability to apply skills and knowledge in actual use is measured. Level three is often employed with computer-based performance testing to determine whether a learner can apply knowledge when at work.
- *Level 4: Results:* the impact of training on organizational goals where cost reduction and quality and quantity improvements are measured.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, a qualitative research approach was employed to identify the problem areas of the current ERP training approach which does not accommodate the various end-user learning styles in terms of either individual learning style or cultural learning behavior. Recommendations can then be made about an ERP training framework that accommodates the various learning styles of Thai users. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews and questionnaires were employed as instruments to collect data. Firstly, a questionnaire was employed to obtain demographic data and to identify the individual learning styles of end-users. This was followed by interviews to evaluate the training outcomes of the ERP training for each learning style group, and included the exploration of the cultural learning behavior of Thai end-users, which influenced the effectiveness of the ERP training approach. However, the ERP training outcome evaluation presented in this research was measured by Kirkpatrick's framework on only three levels: 1) Attitude 2) Perceived level, and 3) Applied knowledge behavior. The fourth level assesses training from a business point of view, which managers and executives can understand, such as increased production, better quality, reduced costs, enhanced sales and profit, and return on investment. However, in this research, it is necessary to evaluate the training outcome from the end-user's perspective.

The population in this study was end-users who had experienced ERP training during an implementation project. Content analysis is used to determine the pattern or themes that commonly occur. NVIVO software is applied as a tool for behavioral coding. The data were coded by employing the directed content analysis approach. The researchers employed existing theory and relevant prior research findings to develop the initial coding theme prior to the analysis of data.

RESULTS

Demographic Data of Respondents

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N=72)

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Female	52	72.22
Male	20	27.78
Age		
≤ 20	-	-
21-30	18	25.00
31-40	33	46.00
41-50	18	25.00
51-60	3	4.00
> 60	-	-
Education		
Diploma	2	2.78
Bachelor	54	75
Master	16	22.22
Others	-	-
ERP Experience after Training		
< 1 Year	16	22.22
1-2 Years	37	51.39
> 2 Years	19	26.39
ERP Brand		
SAP R/3	18	25
SAP A/1	8	11.11
SAP B/1	20	27.78
Microsoft		
Dynamic	14	19.44
Navision		
JDE E1 Hyperion	3	4.17
Others	9	12.5
Individual Learning Style		
Accommodating	25	34.72
Converging	23	31.94
Assimilating	13	18.06
Diverging	11	15.28

Most respondents in this research were female (72.22%). The majority of respondents were in the age range of 31 to 40 years old (46%). The educational level of the respondents was bachelor degree 75%, master degree 22.22% and diploma 2.78%. The respondents had about one to two years' experience using an ERP system after training (51.39%), more than two years (26.39%) and less than one year (22.22%). Based on the questionnaire, the results indicated that the most frequent learning style of respondents was the accommodating learning style (34.72%), the converging learning style was the second largest group (31.94%), the assimilating learning style was third (18.06%), and the smallest group was the diverging learning style (15.28%).

ERP Training Outcome Evaluation for Various Group of End-users Learning Styles

Dissatisfaction about the ERP training was expressed by various individual learning style groups. Members of different individual learning style groups were not satisfied with the ERP training approach in different ways. The results indicated that there were incompatibilities between the ERP training approach and the individual learning style of end-users according to the ERP training outcome evaluation. These incompatibilities also had a negative effect on the perceived level of understanding as to how the ERP system works and the confidence to apply the knowledge acquired in training in actual use.

Accommodating Learning Style

The time allocation for ERP training was inadequate in terms of both the total amount of time and the study period. This was the biggest concern of accommodating style learners who prefer to learn based on trial and error by working in the field and by trying different ways to accomplish an objective. Learning by trial and error to acquire hands-on experience is not one-time learning but is continuous, even after the go-live stage. This is an ongoing and time-consuming process [23]. This contrasts with the current ERP training approach which provides only one training session and mostly focuses on the implementation period and ignores the importance of pre and post (go-live) training. This method does not maximize knowledge acquisition about using the ERP system, especially for accommodating style learners, who prefer hands-on experience when using the ERP system, which includes dealing with problems based on real circumstances after the go-live period.

Furthermore, the pre-implementation period is also important, but the current ERP training does not include training orientation to inform end-users about how they should prepare for training. Accommodating style learners rely on senses rather than logical analysis. Consequently, training orientation would help them to know more about the ERP system and its benefits, which would better prepare them for training. This is necessary for accommodating style learners in order to increase their motivation to train effectively and efficiently. Moreover, training as a single process also affected the cognitive load of learners because the current ERP training time allocation was insufficient and there was a rush to go-live without considering training efficiency. The compressed training schedule meant excessive cognitive load which pressured participants to learn about how using the new system in a short period of time. There are also issues of dissatisfaction that affected their perceived level of understanding as to how the ERP system works, which for the accommodating learning style learners was slightly poor. The current ERP training approach does not enhance understanding of the ERP system for end-users. Therefore, they suggested that the training method should allow them to acquire hands-on experience by applying workshop or simulation training techniques to give them the opportunity to visualize how the ERP system works. This may help them to improve their understanding of the ERP system and should be considered when designing ERP training.

Converging Learning Style

The major dissatisfaction of converging learning style learners was about the content and method. The process to construct knowledge for converging style learners is first to understand the concepts and theories and then to apply them to understand how the system works in practice [24]. Converging style learners prefer to start with explanations as to how the ERP system works and then practice in authentic situations. However, it was difficult to conceptualize their ideas based on the training content, which was poorly designed and did not cover the particular organizational business processes. The training content focused on teaching how to complete transactions by using the ERP system without addressing whether the content was sufficient to allow the end-users to perform their routine jobs when using this

system. The training content is usually set up by the trainer, and end-users do not participate in training content preparation. Although user requirements were collected at the beginning of the implementation phase, the poor quality of the training content was an issue for end-users. The lack of participation in the training content preparation process is related to the impact of educational culture, which is discussed in a later section. Moreover the training content focused on teaching about end-user responsibilities, but did not include cross-functional business processes which might be related to their responsibilities. For this learning style, training content which covers cross-functional business process can help them to conceptualize how the ERP system works. Understanding the overall system and dataflow, including the links between each process, can help end-users of this learning style to visualize how the ERP system works. Furthermore, the current ERP training content focuses on teaching only how to use the ERP system, but does not teach how to solve usage problems, troubleshooting or special techniques, which is the greatest concern for converging style learners. This contrasts with their learning style as they prefer to learn based on problem-solving to construct knowledge [25, 26]. Therefore the lack of this training content makes it difficult for learners to enhance their knowledge and usage capability. After receiving information and the concepts are understood, the converging style learner will apply these ideas in practice. Therefore, the traditional training method of class training, where there is a poor balance between lecture and practice, and where the focus is on lecture and demonstration via slide projector rather than providing sufficient practice, fails to allow understanding as to how the ERP system works in practice and does not meet their needs. In contrast, on-the-job training focuses on practice and is a training method that provides sufficient opportunities to understand how the ERP system works in practice. However, on-the-job training focuses on practice but does not provide fundamental and rational explanations, which worries converging style learners. Consequently, training based on one training method cannot completely enhance the knowledge of converging style learners.

Reference [27] mentioned that providing both lecture and tutorials is suitable for converging style learners to enhance their knowledge. However, on-the-job training is mostly conducted by key users and provides opportunities for trainers and learners to work together closely. Therefore, learners can ask questions immediately. However, key-users mostly lack knowledge transfer skills and have knowledge limitations in answering questions and problem solving skills.

These issues affect converging style learners' perceived level of understanding and the current ERP training approach cannot deliver knowledge that allows end-users to have a clearer understanding as to how the ERP system works. Furthermore, converging learning style respondents stated that the factors which may help them to improve their understanding of the ERP system should be considered when designing ERP training. Firstly, the content should map between "as-is" and "to-be" to allow end-users to acquire a better understanding of how their working process are being replaced by the business processes of the new ERP system. Secondly, the training method should provide opportunities to practice based on real circumstances, such as workshop or simulation cases. As mentioned earlier, converging style learners prefer to learn based on problem-solving to understand how the concepts work in practice. Therefore, the training method should provide hands-on experience by applying workshop or simulation cases to give them the opportunity to learn based on problem-solving situations. Practice with abnormal work cases encourages them to think critically and enhances problem-solving skills, which are abilities that converging learning style learners use to find practical solutions and also help them to acquire a better understanding.

Assimilating Learning Style

The assimilating learning style involves thinking more than acting, so ideas and concepts are important for them. They have the ability to understand comprehensive information and to form it into a clear, logical format. Therefore, good and clear explanation is important for this learning style rather than practical opportunities. Learners mostly prefer to learn from high level concepts and work down to the details. Therefore, it is better to provide reading materials, followed by lectures with demonstrations, allowing sufficient time to reach a conclusion [25]. However, the training materials and user manual were poor and failed to provide content to cover the particular organizational business processes. The manual is normally developed by the ERP vendor and is applied in all training situations. This kind of manual is not developed to match particular job characteristics but focuses only on how to use the ERP system in general. The manual contents are not customized to particular organizational business processes and lack troubleshooting and special techniques, which is the major concern of assimilating-style learners. Consequently, consistent and well-presented learning materials are important for assimilating-style learners. Moreover, the training content for assimilating learners should provide an understanding of the relationships between the concepts and the boundaries of the course. This is in contrast with the current ERP training content, which teaches only end-user responsibilities and lacks cross-functional knowledge. This is important for assimilating style learners to help them to conceptualize ideas as to how the ERP system works and to enhance their knowledge.

The poor design of the training manual and training content affects learners' perceived level of understanding as to how the ERP system works. Furthermore, assimilating learning style end-users also stated that the training content should map between 'as-is' and 'to-be' to allow end-users to have a clearer and better understanding of how their existing working process are replaced by the business processes in the ERP system. Assimilating style learners prefer to learn by thinking rather than acting. Consequently, understanding ideas and concepts about 'as-is' and 'to-be' are important to this learning style to better understand and visualize how the ERP system works and how the system affects the way they do their job. Although assimilating style learners prefer lecture and demonstration via slide projector, the examples of work cases and exercises that were used in the training class were very simple, general cases. This does not reflect actual use, where problems when using the system in their role can happen all the time. Therefore, demonstration with abnormal work cases can extend their knowledge and enhance their problem-solving skills too.

Diverging Learning Style

The current ERP training focuses on learning how to use the system only for the end-user's responsibilities, which is incompatible with diverging style learning. For this reason, learners of this style prefer to learn from specific details to construct the big picture. The learners in this group prefer to learn only the parts related to their responsibility, but do not want to know about other content that does not affect them. Diverging style learners have the ability to build their knowledge by discussion. However the discussion topics have to be strongly related to course content [23].

However, the training content did not cover and was not applied to fit the particular organizational business processes for which they had responsibility. This was the major concern of these learners in contrast to converging and assimilating style learners, who were more concerned about the training content not covering cross-functional business processes. Moreover, the manual provided too much information, which is incompatible with this learning style as they prefer the manual to be pertinent, not to use too many words, and to explain the system step-by-step. Reference [28] mentioned that learners who had concrete experience,

such as diverging style learners, preferred to learn by following a step-by-step guidance procedure. Furthermore, the content should be well-defined and clear in regard to the subject area, which makes it easier to understand. Consequently, the manual to serve this learning style should be a 'how to' book with captured screen shots and short and sharp explanations. Diverging style learners often develop a personal manual during the class with short steps and explanations, which are easier to remember. This is consistent with the diverging learning style, where learners start with specific detail and then construct the big picture.

Diverging learning style learners were unhappy with the poor design of the training content and the manual, which affected their perceived level of understanding as to how the ERP system works. They prefer to learn only about their responsibilities and are not interested to know other knowledge even though it might be related to them. Consequently, the training content should cover and be applied to fit their particular needs, which could help to improve their perceived level of understanding. Moreover, traditional training methods, such as classroom training, focus on lecture, but fail to provide sufficient opportunities to explore the system during training. Therefore, the opportunity to practice by repetition was suggested by diverging style learners.

Furthermore, end-users of all individual learning style groups agreed about the lack of practice before the go-live stage, which affected their confidence to apply knowledge and to use the ERP system by themselves. Moreover, hands-on experience is also important to help end-users to become familiar with the new system. End-users mostly did not practice by themselves outside the training class. Practicing from their point of view is a form of work. This issue is related to cultural learning behavior and will be discussed later. Therefore, traditional training methods, such as classroom training, and inappropriate training time allocation do not provide the opportunity for end-users to have sufficient hands-on experience, which does not give them confidence to use the system by themselves. However, to be trained by on-the-job training can help them to increase confidence to apply knowledge when using the ERP system because this training method focuses on practice based on real circumstances. In addition, the trainer and end-users work closely, so the end-users can ask questions at any time. Consequently, the learning process is ongoing. On-the-job training can also help to improve confidence to apply knowledge when using the ERP system, but to be trained by key-users who lack knowledge and knowledge transfer skills, and lack the ability to provide fundamental and rational explanations was a concern for converging and assimilating style learners.

Cultural Learning Behavior of Thai End-users Affected the Effectiveness of the Current ERP Training

The results of the research findings revealed how the four distinct cultural learning behaviors of Thai end-users in the current ERP training approach impacted the effectiveness of ERP training. The discussion on the findings is presented in the next section. Firstly, the results revealed that Thai end-users were largely unwilling to read the ERP training user manual. The manual was mainly used when end-users needed to find a solution to a particular problem or to remind them about a non-routine process rather than for self-study. However, reading the manual to find solutions was not the end-users' first choice. They preferred to obtain assistance from the trainer. The format and content of the training and manuals did not adequately support Thai end-user learning behaviors. The current ERP training and user manual content were not based on end-user characteristics and were not customized to be relevant to the particular organizational business processes. Much of the content focused on step-by-step use of the system, but ignored trouble-shooting and problem-solving skills. The end-users stated that the user manuals had too much content and a lot of unimportant information. Furthermore, Thailand does not have a strong reading culture [29]. Reference [30]

revealed that 44.08 percent of Thais do not read outside their study/work period because they dislike it in spite of the fact that reading is at the heart of self-education and enhances intellectual growth [31]. In a developing nation such as Thailand, where the education system is teacher-centered and learners are passive, learners are largely ill-equipped for self-learning. Moreover, learning is considered as a one-time process and employees lack the motivation and ability to study alone. Furthermore, reading the user manual takes place outside training, but Thai employees may lack the self-discipline to do this. Consequently, although learning how to use an ERP system requires self-learning, Thai end-users do not like to read the manual [32]. Therefore, better training and user manuals should be developed that encourage end-users to read them.

Secondly, the results indicated that Thai end-users are unwilling to ask questions in the classroom even when they do not understand. End-users are afraid to lose face in front of others. Thailand is a collectivist society, so employees are unwilling to express their individual opinions freely. Face-saving and “Kreng-Jai” are evident in Thai hierarchical relationships and require acceptance without argument from a lower status individual to save the face of the superior. Consequently, both trainers and trainees avoid putting themselves in positions in which they might lose face [15]. This perhaps helps to explain why end-users are unwilling to participate actively in class. Therefore, the use of traditional training methods should be re-considered. A training method that encourages more classroom involvement by end-users should be adopted. Furthermore, the results also indicate that on-the-job training may be preferable as end-users would be more likely to ask questions. Thailand has a feminine culture in which informal, personal communication is preferred [33]. On-the-job training provides opportunities for end-users and the trainer to work together more closely. It reduces the likelihood of losing face and puts fewer barriers between the teacher and the learner. However, poor key user selection and the lack of people who can both understand the system and teach are problems when employing the “train-the-trainer” method in a Thai context. Thailand is characterized by high power distance so people are expected to show loyalty and respect to superiors in exchange for protection and guidance. Therefore key-users are not always selected based on their suitability as a trainer. It was found that most key-users did not possess the skill to transfer knowledge and had limitations in terms of ERP system knowledge. This is a serious limitation of the “train-the-trainer” method [34].

Thirdly, the results indicated that Thai end-users are often unprepared for training because they lack self-preparation skills. Most end-users believe that it is the trainer’s responsibility to prepare training that matches their organizational processes. This is a problem when designing training content because ERP consultants lack knowledge about each organization’s business processes. ERP consultants are unable to prepare such training content as it is unlikely that an outsider would be familiar with the organization’s business processes. Therefore, the content is based on the writer’s own experience, which does not necessarily reflect the needs of the user. Consequently, end-users expressed dissatisfaction with the training content as it largely failed to enhance the users’ ability to use the ERP system at work. Thai employees lack self-learning skills because the Thai education system is constructivist in nature and is characterized by high power distance and teacher-centeredness. Knowledge is transferred by the teacher rather than discovered by learners. As a result, learners are passive recipients of knowledge. Furthermore, Thailand is a feminine society that lacks competitiveness in the classroom. Thai employees are often unmotivated and do not take responsibility for their own learning [18]. End-user participation is necessary for effective training, so it is necessary to work with end-users to improve training content to match real work situations

Fourthly, the results also indicated that Thai end-users lack the ability and willingness to practice outside the class. Consequently, employees lack experience of constructivist learning as individuals [35]. Moreover, Thai employees often care more about immediate gratification than long-term fulfillment. Reference [13] revealed that Thais tend to be short-term oriented. Consequently, learning is often regarded as a one-time process rather than an ongoing process (life-long learning) and learning is expected to happen only in the classroom [19]. The use of traditional training methods such as classroom-based training mainly involves presentations with slides and fails to provide opportunities to practice during training. This training is designed based on the understanding that end-users practice outside the class, which is incompatible with Thai cultural learning behavior.

Learning how to use the ERP system involves a lot of detail. Consequently, placing time limitations on the learning process pressures end-users to learn how to use the ERP system quickly, thus increasing the cognitive load and negatively affecting end-user confidence and familiarity when using the system.

Moreover, the current ERP training was designed to be conducted only once [36], but Thai end-users require more direct experience to help them to learn how the ERP system works. Experience is important in changing end-users to become active rather than passive learners. The current ERP training does not include training orientation, which could help users to prepare for training. End-users are usually not given the opportunity to share ideas about the training they prefer. Furthermore, follow-up about using the ERP system after the go-live period is also useful as it would allow them to better understand the ERP training content and to resolve any problems they faced after the initial training. Therefore, both the insufficient training time and the inappropriate time period for ERP training created difficulties for Thai end-users.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings identify four types of problem associated with the current ERP training approach which can be used as evidence to make recommendations about a more appropriate ERP training framework that can accommodate the various learning styles of Thai users and their culture.

Training Method

Class Training: The major problem of the current traditional ERP classroom training method is the inappropriate proportions of lecture and practice, and focuses only on how to key-in data rather than on understanding the business process. The current ERP training method is based on instruction-oriented knowledge transfer rather than exploration-oriented knowledge transfer [37]. The training method is incompatible with the different end-user learning styles, and was the focus of complaints from converging learners. However, although sufficient hands-on experience is important, fundamental and rational explanation is also important and is required by converging style learners too.

Moreover, end-users with different individual learning styles made suggestions about the current ERP training method. The converging and assimilating learners, who both prefer to learn based on thinking, suggested that learning based on problem-solving, such as practice with abnormal business work cases, can help to enhance their understanding. The converging and accommodating learners, who both prefer to learn by doing, suggested that providing the opportunity to practice based on real circumstances, such as simulated business cases is important. This would help them to acquire a better understanding.

Therefore, the ERP training method should be a mixed training method that should combine simulation training with traditional classroom training. Simulation training provides the opportunity for end-users to acquire hands-on experience by simulating business processes, which helps them to visualize the business process more easily and to distinguish between 'as-is' and 'to-be' before the go-live stage [38]. Furthermore, class training can provide necessary information such as the fundamentals of the ERP system and rational explanations, which helps end-users to understand the detail and skills more deeply because the simulation training technique can enhance process orientation knowledge and integrative skill, but does not always provide other knowledge such as the fundamentals of the ERP system. Consequently, the combination of, firstly, traditional classroom training to explain the fundamentals of the ERP system, and secondly, simulations to understand the business process, is necessary. An understanding of how the ERP system works is required to acquire business process knowledge rather than just the functionality of the ERP system.

Train-the-Trainer Training: The "train-the-trainer" approach involves training by key-users who often lack ERP knowledge and knowledge transfer skill. It is difficult to find key-users who have skills in effective knowledge transfer, the existing business process, and the new ERP system. Although the advantage of on-the-job training by key-users is that it is based on real circumstances and allows learners to visualize how the system works and to ask questions when they face problems, in practice it is hard to achieve because key-users are sometimes unable to provide clear solutions to a problem. Moreover, the Thai education system is largely teacher-centered so learners depend on teachers to transfer knowledge. Consequently, learners expect their instructors to know everything. Therefore, the "train-the-trainer" training method should not be applied as the main ERP training method but is more appropriate to be used after the go-live period. End-users should be trained directly by ERP consultants and training preparation should be carried out more effectively. This is consistent with reference [39], who found that practice following the "train-the-trainer" training method is difficult. It is also difficult for ERP consultants to transfer knowledge in the limited implementation period. Consequently, knowledge and skill transfer to end-users should be carried out by ERP consultants rather than key-users. However, the "train-the-trainer" training method is more appropriate to be used after the go-live period because key-users can employ on-the-job training to help other end-users using the actual ERP system at work. This is consistent with reference [40], who stated that the "train-the-trainer" training method is an effective solution for organizations to transfer knowledge to end-users post-implementation. On-the-job training was selected to be the training method by key-users, and it has been identified as an effective training method to assist end-users when using the ERP system.

Training Content

The current ERP training content is poor as it focuses mostly on the software menu, but does not provide business knowledge that reflects the particular organizational business processes. This is consistent with references [36, 37] who categorized the ERP system knowledge as software knowledge, business process knowledge and organization-specific knowledge. However, this research argues that training should also include problem-solving knowledge. Therefore, end-user participation is important when designing the training content to ensure that all of the required knowledge is included. Moreover, the following important knowledge should be covered in training:

- Software knowledge to describe the system menu and functions including the fundamental understanding of various ERP modules.
- Business process knowledge (including transformation processes, cross-functional processes and organizational processes) to explain how the organizational processes are transformed by the ERP process and why tasks are performed, including cross-

functional business knowledge to show the links in the business process across a company and the data flow within the system. Moreover, the training content should be integrated with the particular organizational business processes.

- Problem solving knowledge, such as trouble-shooting and special techniques should also be included in the ERP training content. Problem solving training should reflect the real daily operations of users, which helps users to better understand the capabilities, functionality, and applications of the system.

Therefore, these three types of knowledge should be considered when designing ERP training content.

Training and User Manual

The current ERP training and user manual focuses on explaining how to use the ERP system in general, and the user manual content was not developed based on actual job characteristics. The content was mostly not relevant and covered only end-user job processes. Furthermore, the manual was mostly used to find solutions to problems rather than to enhance knowledge. Therefore, the user manual content was poorly designed and included too much content that was not interesting to read. It was also found to be difficult to find content in a short time. The manual also lacked trouble-shooting and special techniques. This is a problem as it fails to consider the behavior of end-users.

Therefore, the standard manual that was developed by ERP vendors to explain how to use the ERP system and is applied in all organizations is inadequate. The user manual should be modified to reflect the actual job characteristics to support end-user tasks. It should be designed as a more user-friendly 'how to' book which would allow users to find solutions quickly and should include trouble-shooting and special techniques. Consequently, a manual that provides only instructions about how to use the ERP system fails to serve their purposes. This is consistent with reference [41] who found that the user manual should support usability in terms of navigation, presentation, and learnability. The improvement of the user manual is important to increase training efficiency and to avoid the extra cost of help-desk support.

Training Time Allocation

The current ERP training Most ERP training approaches rely on the implementation method and ERP phase model developed by ERP vendors. This model focuses on the action implementation phase. The current ERP training was designed to provide a one-time process during implementation before the go-live period, so pre and post training is overlooked. Reference [40], stated that the sequencing of training should be reconsidered to match the different stages of the implementation lifecycle so that resources and materials can be allocated more effectively to end-users.

Furthermore, providing ERP training as a one-time process does not accommodate cultural learning behaviors. The lack of self-study is evident which is incompatible with the variety of individual learning styles especially for accommodating and assimilating style learners, for whom time plays an important role in their learning process. Therefore, training should be a continuous process and should be arranged not only during the implementation period, but also during the pre and post implementation stages.

A variety of training courses should be provided to end-users at different stages of the ERP lifecycle to provide the particular knowledge and skills required in each stage. The training objectives should include software knowledge, business knowledge and problem solving knowledge, all of which are important knowledge to use the ERP system. However, this

knowledge cannot be acquired in one-time training, so training should be a continuous process. Reference [42] mentioned that the success of ERP training should be based on long-term planning. Moreover, another recommendation is that a pre-training process, such as training orientation, should be provided to end-users to enhance readiness.

CONCLUSION

A considerable volume of research has been conducted to improve the quality of ERP training and many frameworks have been developed to improve training quality. However, such frameworks fail to accommodate the variety of individual learning styles and different cultural learning behaviors. More modern approaches are widely applied in the education and business sectors in many countries, but are limited in IT [7].

Moreover, most of the prior recommendations to improve the quality of ERP training have focused on the training method [43]. However, the prior recommendations pay less attention to other dimensions of ERP training such as training content, the training and user manual, and the training time allocation. The empirical evidence reveals that learners of different individual learning styles are concerned about the current ERP training approach for various reasons. Consequently, ERP training quality should not only be based on improving the training method, but also on other dimensions of the ERP training approach which should be improved to accommodate the variety of individual learning styles and different cultural learning behaviors. Based on the findings of this study, the four dimensions of ERP training were found to be a concern for end-users of all individual learning styles and cultural learning behaviors and were linked together in this framework.

Thereby, this framework would help to improve ERP training quality, which is a key success factor of ERP implementation in accommodating the variety of individual learning styles and cultural learning behaviors. It would also help organizations to reduce training cost and maintenance fees in providing extra support to end-users when using the new system.

However, the recommendations for an ERP training framework in this study mainly focus on the ERP training that is bundled into ERP implementation methodology and provided by ERP vendors during the implementation stage, which is mostly known as “the ERP methodology-training approach”. Furthermore, the study was mostly based on the perspectives of end-users who had experienced ERP training, especially in regard to Thai cultural learning behaviors. The researchers suggest that future research should investigate other cultural learning behaviors in other countries. This might reveal other issues with the ERP training approach that impact the effectiveness of training outcomes and can be useful in revising and refining the recommendations for an ERP training framework so that it can be more generalizable to other contexts.

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Investigating The Vietnamese EFL Learners' Affective And Cognitive Attitudes Towards The IELTS Listening Test

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ABSTRACT

The sustainable societal development generates the growing demand of Vietnamese EFL learners who would like to study abroad and one of the most popular English language proficiency test to be eligible for overseas universities is the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Consequently, the focus of language systems has been emphasized within the context of teaching and learning English in Vietnam, particularly in foreign language centers in Vietnam. Of the four language skills, listening has been considered as the most widely used language skill which has drawn a lot of attention from many researchers due to its primary importance in second language acquisition and learning (Rubin, 1994). The time we spent on listening exceeds the time spent on speaking, reading, and writing. However, its great importance has just received recognition lately as a tool to facilitate learners' language learning (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). A number of studies have been conducted to examine the validity of the IELTS test along with figuring out the relationship between the IELTS practice courses and learners' performance (Ata, 2015). Nevertheless, few empirical studies on the Vietnamese EFL learners' attitudes towards the IELTS listening test were carried out. Therefore, this study is conducted for the purpose of filling the gap in the literature in the local context of teaching and learning the IELTS test in Vietnam. Thus, the research aims at examining the Vietnamese EFL learners' attitudes towards the areas of the test that learners have positive affection, their perceptions of challenges of taking the IELTS listening test.

Key words: IELTS listening test, students' attitudes, challenges

INTRODUCTION

Background to the problem

The IELTS listening test

According to (Moore, 2005), due to the growing number of universities require IELTS as a requirement for students and a large number of students who wish to study in English-speaking countries, the expansion of IELTS is apparently inevitable. Many universities, colleges require that their students have to sit for the IELTS test prior to graduation. Therefore, the need for learning the IELTS test is increasing. IELTS encompasses two modules: general and academic training. Four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing are included in the IELTS test. A number of Vietnamese EFL learners took the IELTS test but they could not achieve an appropriate band score. There is little doubt that one of the reasons causing challenges for learners in the test is listening which exerts a tremendous impact on their performances. That is to say listening section of the IELTS test makes a substantial contribution to learners' success. Since listening may be the most challenging skill in language

learning, numerous studies should be undertaken to examine it in many aspects. Of various categories, attitudes are of paramount importance since it is believed that learners' success or failure in language learning is heavily influenced by their attitudes.

Attitudes

A lot of attention has been focused on attitudes proposed by social psychologists. However, Murray (2012) asserted that learners' attitudes towards a language test did not receive much attention from researchers and scholars in language learning. It is widely accepted that attitudes refers to the favorable or unfavorable responses towards a particular object. Learners show negative or positive reactions to the speakers or the target language. It is an observable fact that learners with positive affections will get better results than those with negative responses in the test. One of the most effective and practical ways to help learners improve the level of performance is adopting positive attitudes towards the test.

The importance of the problem

It can be clearly seen that learners' favorable reactions towards the target language or the target-language culture greatly affect their language learning. Attitudes towards the test are outstanding predictors of learners' behaviors in the test. Listeners' feelings, beliefs should be taken into account since their attitudes affect their performance in the test. More specifically, the study investigates the Vietnamese EFL learners' attitudes towards the IELTS listening test, taking the two aspects of attitudes namely affective and cognitive into account. The former aspect of attitude explored the listeners' affective attitudes towards the test. The later aspect of attitude deals with their perceptions of challenges of taking the test. The researcher also gives some recommendations for the Vietnamese EFL teachers so that they can make improvements in their teaching the IELTS listening test and make good preparation for their students in taking the IELTS listening test. Language teachers, syllabus designers can benefit from investigating learners' attitudes which paves the ways for gaining insight into learning process and teaching process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of the IELTS Listening section

The IELTS listening test consists of four sections with 10 questions each. The first two sections pertaining circumstances set in everyday social contexts. Listeners may hear a conversation between 2 speakers in section 1, for example, a conversation about travel arrangements. In section 2, they may hear a monologue about local facilities. The last two sections are relevant to situations set in educational training contexts. In section 3, there is a conversation up to 4 speakers, for example, a conversation between two university students with their tutor. And there is speech on academic interest in the final section (ielts.org).

Attitudes

Attitudes have drawn a lot of attention from a number of researchers in this field. Thurstone (1931) defined attitudes as positive or negative affective responses for an object. Fuson (1942) and Campbell (1950) also suggested a definition of attitudes in relation to behavior tendency of an individual in a specific situation. Several authors viewed attitudes from the concept of evaluation which refers to a summary evaluation of an object or thought. Attitudes consist of three components which are built around its central components including affection, behavior, and cognition (Taylor, 2006). According to Feng and Chen (2009), "learning process is an emotional process. It is affected by different emotional factors. The teachers and his students engage in various emotional activities in it and varied fruits of emotions are yielded" (p94). Attitude can help learners to express their positive or negative feelings towards the surrounding situations. The behavioral aspect of attitude refers to an individual's action in

particular circumstances as suggested by Kara (2009). The final component of attitude is associated with a person's belief, knowledge concerning specific matters. It can be inferred from this definition that cognitive aspect of attitude related to learners' beliefs about the knowledge they acquire and their comprehension during the learning process. According to Zainol et al. (2012), it may be divided into four steps as follows: linking the former knowledge and the new one, creating new knowledge, checking new knowledge, and applying the new knowledge in many situations.

The role of attitudes in language

Attitude is also one of the main factors impacting inspiration in language learning. This argument was further developed by Brown (2000). He indicated that language learners make the most of favorable attitudes to facilitate their second language acquisition while unfavorable attitudes would result in reduced incentive. Attitudes are one of the critical elements contributing to the success of language learners. Learners who possess positive/negative attitudes towards a certain language can affect their performance on a language test (Zainol et al, 2012).

Challenges Vietnamese EFL learners may face in the IELTS listening test

Numerous studies have been carried out concerning attitudes in language learning. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, little studies have been conducted pertaining to the Vietnamese EFL learners' perceptions of challenges of taking the IELTS listening test. Rubin (1994) pointed out some factors that EFL learners perceived make listening difficult in non-testing conditions or in testing conditions including text characteristic, interlocutor characteristic, listener characteristic, and process characteristic. Bloomfield et al. (2010) also proposed three factors: characteristics of listeners, characteristics of passage, and characteristics of the testing conditions. Although a range of factors discussed above, the researcher only focus on problems related to bottom-up processing and top-down processing which are relevant to the specifications of the IELTS listening test.

Bottom-up processing

A large number of studies have been conducted to look into the impact of bottom-up processing on listening comprehension (Buck, 2001; Brown, 2001; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Rubin, 1994; Rost, 2011; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Challenges relevant to bottom-up processing should be taken into consideration such as listening for specific details, writing correct numbers, recognizing the letters of the English alphabet, writing correct grammar, understanding fast speech, understanding new words, identifying the speakers, listening to various accents and phonological modifications, understanding paraphrases.

Listening for specific details

In the IELTS listening test, listeners are required to listen for specific details which are supposed to be related to real-life skills. In other words, it requires listeners to understand clearly stated information or the listeners should be involved in the local level of the listening passage and locates the required information. Listening for details may cause difficulties for most of listeners in the IELTS listening test. Therefore, prediction skills should be used before listening since it can help the listeners to know exactly what information they are going to listen for.

Writing correct numbers

Listeners usually have problems with listening for numbers and writing down the correct numbers that they hear in the first section of the listening test. One of the most common problems is certain numbers that sound similar, for example, 50 and 15, 31st and 33th, 52 and

62, 22nd and 27th, etc. These numbers may cause confusion for listeners which should be taken into account and if possible, be supplied with practice materials.

Recognizing the letters of the English alphabet

Another common obstacle that listeners perceived in the test related to spelling. Listeners are required to listen for name of a person or place that is spelt out letter by letter for them, which are very likely to occur in section one of the listening text. Listeners' answers will be marked wrong if they make a spelling mistake. Letters are hard to differentiate should be taken into consideration in the teaching and learning activities such as: A and H, M and N, J and G, E and I, S and X, B and P, etc.

Writing correct grammar

Completion task is one of the most frequently used tasks in the test, so listeners often have difficulties in writing correct grammar in the test. Or else they will be penalized for grammatical mistakes. Therefore, grammatical knowledge should be included in the learning process since it helps listeners predict the necessary information in the gaps. It is advised that listeners should take into consideration verb-subject agreement, singular/plural noun, articles, etc. when completing the gaps.

Understanding fast speech

The majority of listeners seem to have experience of listening to something and not understanding it because the speakers talk so fast. Numerous studies look into the correlation between fast speech and listening comprehension. Griffiths (2012) noted that listening comprehension was worse at higher speech rate and better at slower speech rate when he compared the impacts of three various speech rates (127, 188, 250 wpm) on listening comprehension.

Understanding new words

Listening to new words is definitely difficult for the Vietnamese EFL learners. Field (2003) shared the same view with Rost (2011) that one of the main obstacles to listeners' breakdown in listening comprehension is vocabulary limitations. It is in line with (Bloomfield et al., 2010) who stated that the level of difficulty of the listening text may increase if listeners faced with infrequent lexical phrases. The IELTS listening test consists of a variety of topics which set in academic contexts. Therefore, there may be existing unfamiliar words in various fields in the third and final sections of the listening text. Lack of vocabulary knowledge will lead to listeners' failure in understanding the listening passage.

Identifying the speakers

Another problem that listeners might face in the IELTS listening test is the number of speakers in the listening text. It is supported by Underwood (1989) that the more speakers appear in the listening text, the tougher the passages are. To be more specific, listeners are required to listen for a conversation up to four speakers in the third section of the listening text. Therefore, it is hard for them to differentiate between the speakers as compared to the first section with two speakers. In contrast, what listeners need to do is only listen to one speaker developing the argument in the first and final section of the listening text (Rixon, 1986).

Listening to different accents

Listening to speakers with various accents could cause frustrations in listeners as different groups of speakers pronounce English language differently. The most common accents are pertaining to geographical areas and social groups. It can be seen that a range of accents included in the IELTS listening test such as British, Australian, New Zealand, American, and

Canadian (ielts.org). Therefore, listeners should get accustomed to understanding these accents by listening to radio stations, TV shows, podcasts, and movies.

Listening to phonological modifications

Failure in recognizing phonological modifications can lead to the significant reduction in second language listeners' comprehension. Such modifications are regular and rely on a set of complex rules. In his book "assessing listening", Buck (2001) suggested some popular phonological modifications namely assimilation, elision, intrusion, etc. To illustrate, some sounds are modified by the sounds next to them, for example, 'won't you' is usually pronounced 'wonchoo'. Some sounds are simply dropped, for example, 'next day' is usually pronounced 'nexday'.

Understanding paraphrases

Paraphrasing is frequently used in the IELTS listening paper which potentially causes difficulties in the process of listening comprehension. Chiang and Dunkel (1992) conducted a study to explore whether paraphrasing has effects on EFL learners' listening comprehension or not. The results indicated that more skilled listeners have better understanding of the listening text than less skilled listeners. As a result, recognizing paraphrases is an incredibly essential skill in the IELTS listening test.

Top-down processing

Apart from challenges related to bottom-up processing, listeners also deal with troubles concerning top-down processing (Buck, 2001, Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Rubin, 1994). Difficulties pertaining to top-down processing can be classified into three categories namely problems related to listening for main ideas, understanding unfamiliar topics, and comprehending functional language.

Listening for main ideas

Besides challenges in listening for specific details, listeners feel that they do not understand the spoken language since they fail in listening for main ideas. The main ideas enable listeners to interpret the overall meaning of the listening text. They are the most important message that the speakers want to convey. Sometimes it is not difficult to find out the main ideas since they appear at the beginning of the text. However, sometimes listeners find it hard to figure out the overall meaning of the listening text without listening to the entire conversation.

Understanding unfamiliar topics

Another obvious factor that may influence listening comprehension is unfamiliar topics Buck (2001). There is no doubt that it can be easy for listener to interpret the message of familiar topics than unfamiliar ones. The specifications of the IELTS listening test indicate that a range of topics pertaining to survival English and academic English included in the test. The first two sections include general topics with common vocabulary while the two last sections consist of situations concerning school-related topics with academic terminologies. The idea is supported by Buck (2001), who suggested there is a significant relationship between the types of topics and difficulties. He mentioned that academic topics are related to more difficult items compared to non-academic topics. As a result, topics in section three and four may hamper listeners' listening comprehension as they may have some academic language as well as the more complexity of grammatical structures and sentences in comparison with section one and two of the listening test.

Comprehending functional knowledge

Failure in understanding the meaning of functional language becomes another problem in comprehending the test (ielts.org). Comprehending a description of a place or a location or following directions is a complex process for listeners. It is advisable that listeners should study the map or plan carefully before they listen so that they have clear image in their mind which helps them understand what they hear. Sometimes it is quite hard for them to listen for a description of a process with some academic terminologies. In addition, listeners also have trouble in identifying the speakers' attitudes and opinions, which are likely to occur in the first and third section of the listening text (Pauline, 2014).

Relevant studies on the IELTS listening test

Breeze and Miller (2009) conducted a research on the validity of the IELTS listening scores as an indicator of Spanish students' coping ability and found students' IELTS listening scores and their academic performance have a positive relationship. Field (2009) in a research examined the cognitive validity of lecture-based question in the IELTS Listening paper in test and non-test conditions and discovered that note-taking in test conditions are more formidable than that of non-test conditions. However, note-taking is more complicated in the non-test conditions regarding forming the interpretations of the text, extracting relevant information from irrelevant information, and coping with topic complication. Golchi (2012) came up with a finding that negative relationship can be found between listening anxiety and listening comprehension and listening strategy use. The results also indicated that metacognitive strategies were utilized by high anxious learners more than low anxious ones. No significant difference was identified between two language institutes namely cognitive and social/affective strategies. Badger and Yan (2009) did a research on strategies, sub-strategies, and tactics that native speakers of English and native speakers of Chinese employed when taking the IELTS listening test. The results indicated that no fundamental distinction can be recognized between the two groups with regard to strategy use. Winke and Lim (2014) undertook a study to investigate the effects of test anxiety and testwiseness on listeners' performance in the IELTS listening test. There were one control group and two treatment groups. The result showed that there were no differences in test-taking strategies, test anxiety among three groups. In addition, there was a negative connection between the test-takers' scores and their test anxiety. The findings of Phakiti (2016) revealed that most of the listeners tend to be overconfident in four sections of the IELTS Listening test. In addition, there were complex interconnection between the participants' traits and their metacognitive and strategy use, test difficulty and their performance in the test, the effect of strategy use and appraisal confidence on the IELTS listening performance. A study conducted by Sabet and Babaei (2017) investigated that bottom-up processing underlined most listening tasks in the IELTS listening test. Most of the listening tasks require basic understanding of the small textual units.

Relevant studies on attitudes towards the IELTS test

Rasti (2009) conducted a study on the attitudes towards the IELTS test of Iranian learners and his results showed that nearly 80% of the participants had positive attitudes towards the IELTS but there were no significant connection between the candidates' attitudes towards the IELTS test and their age, sex, educational background and test scores. Ata (2015) surveyed 200 speaking students of China, India, Saudi Arabia at the Monash, Melbourne, and Deakin university language centers to explore their attitudes, knowledge and education towards different components of the IELTS test and the effects of their responses towards their performance on the IELTS test. He suggested that students' attitudes exert enormous influence on their performance on the IELTS test. The findings showed that students' misunderstanding of motivation and language learning might prevent them from obtaining the four language skills.

As can be seen from the studies on the IELTS listening test, they measure the validity of the test, the correlation between IELTS listening anxiety with strategy use and listening comprehension. Regarding studies on the attitudes towards the IELTS test of EFL learners, Rasti (2009) and Ata (2015) reported that learners show negative attitudes towards the IELTS listening section. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, little empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the Vietnamese EFL learners' attitudes towards the IELTS listening test. Therefore, the researcher makes efforts to examine learners' emotional and cognitive attitudes towards the IELTS listening test. More specifically, the study looks into the learners' affection towards the test, and learners' perceptions of their challenges of taking the IELTS listening test.

Research questions [RQ]

RQ1: What are the attitudes of Vietnamese EFL learners towards the IELTS listening test in terms of affective aspect?

RQ2: What are the attitudes of Vietnamese EFL learners towards challenges of taking the IELTS listening test in terms of cognitive aspect?

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The descriptive survey research design was adopted in this study. The advantage of this design is that it is useful in investigating attitudes, beliefs, opinions, etc. of a large group of subjects more quickly than other methods (McLeod, 2014). The participants were required to answer all the questionnaire items in order to give their attitudes towards the IELTS listening test in terms of affective and cognitive aspects of attitude.

Sampling

Convenience sampling was used in this study to provide information on demographic and sample characteristic since it is the most frequently used method in educational research. It is supported by Frankael et al. (2011, p. 100) who suggested that the researchers can use convenience sampling if they find it complicated to select a random or systematic non-random sample.

Participants

The participants in this study were learners at Branch 1, 2, and 4 of Foreign Language Center (FLC) - Ho Chi Minh City University of Education (UE), The Office for International Study Programs (OISP) - a subdivision of Bach Khoa University (BKU) - Vietnam National University, Faculty of Foreign Languages (FFL) - Ton Duc Thang University (TDTU), and American Academy (AMA). Of all participants, 42.5% (N=147) were male, and 57.5% (n=199) were female. Most of learners (75.7%) have studied English for 9 to 14 years. It was followed by 15 to 20 years (20.2%), 3 to 8 years (19.7%), over 22 years (2%) respectively. The majority of learners (74.9%) have ages ranging from 19 to 35 years, followed by 12 to 18 years (25.1%).

Research instruments

The questionnaire was employed in this study. It was designed based on the literature and some items were based on Pauline Cullen's book (The Official Guide to the IELTS test) (2014). The questionnaire consists of three parts: the first part investigates the backgrounds of the participants in order to collect their personal information, the second part encompasses three items which explores learners' feeling towards the test, and the final part includes seventeen items which ask for learners' perceived challenges of taking the test. The questionnaire was written in both English and Vietnamese which was designed in the format of close-ended

questions rated on a seven-point Likert scale which ranges from (1) *very untrue of me*, (2) *untrue of me*, (3) *somewhat untrue of me*, (4) *neutral*, and (5) *somewhat true of me*, (6) *true of me*, (7) *very true of me*.

Procedure for data collection and data analysis

In order to design a pilot study questionnaire, the researcher conducted the interviews in Vietnamese first to investigate learners' affective and cognitive attitudes towards the IELTS listening test. The results of the interviews and information from literature were used to build up the pilot study questionnaire. After that, the pilot study questionnaires were distributed to 20 Vietnamese learners who are taking the IELTS preparation courses at AMA to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire. The questionnaires were then thoroughly analyzed by using SPSS with the Cronbach's Alpha was .82. The pilot study questionnaires were made some adjustments before it was given out to the entire respondents of the study. To avoid any misunderstanding and confusion may be caused by the questionnaire items, only the Vietnamese version of the questionnaire was delivered to 346 Vietnamese learners during their break time at three branches of FLC of UE, OISP of BKU, FFL of TDTU and AMA. The researcher gave further explanation to learners if they have problems in understanding the questionnaire items. Participants' responses in the questionnaires were analyzed in detail by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 22.0. In other words, descriptive statistics were computed to investigate learners' attitudes. As suggested by James and Theodore, descriptive data are used "to characterize or describe a set of numbers in terms of central tendency, and show how the number disperse, or vary, around the center" (p124). Frequency and percentage were computed for the data in each item in the questionnaire to compute descriptive statistics.

RESULTS

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

RQ1: What are the attitudes of Vietnamese EFL learners towards the IELTS listening test in terms of affective aspect?

Concerning the first research question, the result of descriptive statistics show that the mean score of listeners' enjoyment towards the IELTS listening test is 0.45 (SD = 0.499). This result indicates that the majority of respondents were not interested in the IELTS listening test and listeners' disinterest in the test is remarkably consistent as the responses vary from 1 to 2, which is shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Results on listeners' enjoyment of the IELTS listening test

N= 346					
Enjoyment	Items	Mean	Min	Max	SD
	3.In general, you are interested in the IELTS listening test	0.45	1	2	0.499

As can be shown in table 2, the participants did not favor the IELTS listening test. The mean score of the category of confidence is 3.84. In particular, among the negative statements, the majority of listeners did not feel very confident about their listening comprehension (M =3.32). Table 2 shows that item 2c and 2d did not receive much agreement from the participants (M = 3.29, M = 3.05 respectively). It can be said that listeners found section 4 more challenging than section 3.

It can apparently be said that statements 2a and 2b obtained participants' positive emotional attitude toward the areas of the test. In comparison with item 2c and 2d, most of the respondents agreed that they felt confident about section 1 and 2 of the IELTS listening test with the mean score equal to 4.96 and 4.59 respectively. Item 2a received the highest agreement (M = 4.96), which indicates that listeners were confident about section 1 most. The mean score of item 2b was 4.59 and was lower than that of item 2a, which suggests that the participants did not have much confidence about section 2 than section 1.

In general, the mean score of enjoyment category and confidence category was negative, which suggests that listeners did not fond of the IELTS listening test as well as did not confident about the IELTS listening test.

Table 2: Results on listeners' confidence in the IELTS listening test

N= 346					
Confidence M= 3.84	Items	Mean	Min	Max	SD
	1.I feel confident about my listening comprehension	3.32	1	7	1.471
	2.I feel confident with				
	a. section 1 (conversation in everyday or social context)	4.96	1	7	1.447
	b. section 2 (monologue in everyday or social context)	4.59	1	7	1.364
	c. section 3 (conversation in educational or training context)	3.29	1	7	1.439
d. Section 4 (monologue or talk in educational or training context)	3.05	1	7	1.566	

RQ2: What are the attitudes of Vietnamese EFL learners towards challenges of taking the IELTS listening test in terms of cognitive aspect?

Statements 4 to 14 obtained learners' negative cognitive attitudes towards challenges concerning bottom-up processing, which is shown in table 3. Interestingly, most of the respondents (78.7%) opined that they have problems with writing correct grammar. The speed of the speech cause great difficulties to the participants in the test, which constitutes 75.5%. Similarly, Rasti (2009) and Ata (2015) reported that most of the participants in his study showed negative attitudes towards the fast speech of the speakers. New words bring about a problem in listening test, which made up 71.7%. In addition, phonological modifications of the listening text, is claimed by 69.4% of listeners to be the frequent obstruction in listening. In addition, understanding paraphrases is considered as a major issue for 238 listeners (64.4%). Recognizing the letters of the English alphabet was supposed to be another obstacle for listeners to decode the spoken text (63%). Nearly two-thirds of listeners (62.1%) found listening for correct numbers could be a big confusion for them. It was followed by listening for specific details with 60.2%. The results also show that 59.3% of listeners have to face with the problem of identifying the speakers. A variety of accents is also an obstacle to listeners in the test (57.8%). This result is similar to the findings of a study by Rasti (2009) and Ata (2015), the descriptive statistics revealed that 90.7% of learners show negative attitude in their ability to understand accents. To sum up, the respondents' cognitive attitudes towards obstacles relevant to bottom-up processing is negative, which is consistent with the findings of Rasti (2009) and Ata (2015) who found EFL learners' negative cognitive attitudes to the IELTS listening section.

Table 3: Results on the Vietnamese EFL learners' perceived challenges pertaining to bottom-up processing

	Items	Frequency	Percent
Challenges related to bottom-up processing	4. Writing correct grammar	272	78.7%
	5. Understanding fast speech of a speaker	261	75.5%
	6. Understanding new words	248	71.7%
	7. Listening for phonological modification (assimilation, elision, contraction, etc.)	240	69.4%
	8. Understanding paraphrases	223	64.4%
	9. Recognizing the letters of the English alphabet that are spelt out	218	63%
	10. Listening for correct numbers	215	62.1%
	11. Listening for specific details	208	60.2%
	12. Identifying the speaker	205	59.3%
	13. Understanding different accents	200	57.8%

As shown in table.4, most of the participants showed that understanding a description of directions and locations can confuse them in the test, which accounted for the highest percentage (77.2%). The Vietnamese EFL learners also cope with other challenges during the listening test such as understanding a description of a process and labelling parts of a machine or device, which made up 72.8% and 70% respectively. Handling unfamiliar topics may be another source of difficulty for EFL learners, which constituted 68.8%. Two-thirds of listeners (66.5%) got failure in listening for main ideas. It was followed by understanding opinions and attitudes of the speakers which were 63.9% and 59% respectively. Overall, it can be apparently to say that the respondents have negative cognitive attitude towards obstacles concerning top-down processing in the IELTS listening test

Table 4: Results on the Vietnamese EFL learners' perceived challenges concerning top-down processing

	Items	Frequency	Percent
Challenges related to top-down processing	14. Understanding a description of directions and locations	267	77.2%
	15. Understanding a description of a process	252	72.8%
	16. Labelling parts of a machine or device	242	70%
	17. Understanding unfamiliar topics	238	68.8%
	18. Listening for main ideas	230	66.5%
	19. Understanding opinions of the speakers	221	63.9%
	20. Understanding attitudes of the speakers	204	59%

IMPLICATIONS

Pertaining to the negative affective and cognitive attitudes towards the IELTS listening test, Vietnamese EFL teachers are advised to carry out appropriate teaching methods and learning activities of teaching the IELTS listening section effectively to enhance their students' positive attitude towards the IELTS listening test. In addition, teachers should consider listeners' emotions, beliefs and encourage them to have positive attitudes towards the listening test. This is due to the fact that positive attitudes play a central role in language learning and can affect students' performance on the listening test. An encouraging atmosphere in the IELTS classes should be created to build up the listeners' positive attitudes towards the listening section. The

importance of the IELTS listening section should be highlighted and teachers should motivate listeners to learn the listening section by investigating the listeners' needs and interests. Concerning the challenges that listeners perceived in the test, teachers are recommended to take into account all of these issues by supplementing a variety of task types aiming to assist listeners in improving their listening comprehension with the focus on problems related to bottom-up processing and top-down processing. Supplementary materials should pay attention to boosting listeners' bottom-up and top-down listening skills in the IELTS listening test. In addition, practice materials should be provided for listeners in the process of learning so that they can practice more at home. In order to accommodate the listeners' need and interest, the content and design of the IELTS listening section should be reviewed by the IELTS administrators. In general, the study provides an insight into the Vietnamese EFL learners' affective and cognitive attitudes towards the IELTS listening test, add to the research on EFL learners' attitudes and the growing studies of the IELTS listening test.

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Writing As A Skill: Problems Identified And Pedagogical Remedies

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ABSTRACT

This study identifies and discusses some common writing problems among Saudi students. The study upholds that pedagogically, writing as a skill and not as an activity has to be taught. The study argues that most of these writing problems arise from pedagogical reasons and a fresh look is needed to find out the pedagogical solutions of common writing problems i.e. punctuation and capitalization, grammatical structure, and language use. To a greater extent, these problems are not limited only to the Preparatory Year (Najran University), involved in the study, but apply also to other teaching and learning levels as well. Thus, the study advocates that writing problems can be minimized if the students are taught writing as a *skill* by professional language practitioners in an environment where students not only engage themselves in writing activities but also enjoy and develop writing as a skill.

Keywords: writing problems, pedagogy, pedagogical reasons, writing as a skill.

INTRODUCTION

There are various types of writing problems among EFL learners. Among those punctuation and capitalization, grammatical structure, and language use are regarded as common ones. There are reasons cited by EFL practitioners (Chen 2002, AbiSamra N. 2003, Newfields T. 2003, Al-Hazmi S. 2006, Al Buinain H. 2009, Sharif Y. 2010, Saleh F. M. 2010, Mojica L. A. 2010, Ezza El-Sadig 2010). Most of the researchers see the reasons of the writing problems (as cited above) as learners' poor background and mother tongue interference, and suggest to root out the problem by engaging learners in writing activities which, perhaps or unfortunately, many a times are not student-friendly, and learners are engaged in those exercises with discomfort. On top of this, the practitioners', generally, STATE that writing is:

- The most difficult or dangerous genre of the language
- A pain for both teachers and learners
- An inherited problem in language learning
- The most time consuming and boring activity
- An assignment which is always less rewarded
- An engagement causing a poor outcome
- A daunting task

This study begs to differ with those practitioners who consider writing a *painful task*. The researcher considers and tries to explore (through interactions with colleagues who teach writing and through his own teaching experience) that writing has never been a pain either for teachers or for learners. The living proof is the great libraries full of volumes not only by great scholars in the past but also, very interestingly and importantly, by teachers who are currently engaged in teaching writing. Even today, when teaching writing, in an EFL situation, has become a debate and a matter of concern, various write-ups are being written for teachers and

learners as well. Had writing been a pain, the writers would not have engaged in such a painful and fearful task! In researchers opinion, learners should be engaged in writing tasks without being bored, so they get an opportunity to develop writing as a *skill* and certainly not just as an *activity*.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing is, generally, regarded the most difficult or dangerous genre of the language. Fareed, Ashraf, and Bilal (2002) opine that writing is the most challenging zone in language learning. Several researchers in their studies have maintained that writing is a complicated and difficult task. Newfields T. (2003) considers the capability to write detailed academic essays as one of the huge contribution in higher education. Al Hazmi (2006) presents that the field of EFL writing in the Arab world suffers from being abstracted, depersonalized and product-oriented. Al Buinain (2009) in her study addresses the problems related to the performance of students in the writing courses. Sharif (2010) analyses compositions written by first, second, and third year university EFL students. His research aim was to find out the kinds of errors they make in writing with special reference to prepositions. Al Khashawneh (2010) investigated the academic writing problems of the Arab postgraduate students and offered solutions to these problems. Mojica (2010), while investigating EFL learners writing difficulties as reported by Flavell and Willman (1977), concludes, "the students' consideration of high-order processing skills during the three stages in writing, particularly during the pre-writing part, is a positive sign. Such skills need to be honed further, as their development can make them better composers, better writers. It must be remembered that helping students to become more aware of their processing strategies means helping them develop their metacognitive skills – which should be every serious and dedicated educator's concern for the students under their charge." Ezza (2010), while reviewing the contents of writing courses of three Arab universities, maintained that there is a general assumption among researchers that Arab/EFL learners are mainly responsible for their poor writing performance. The study was an attempt to examine whether educational policies may have their role in the learners writing problems. It further suggests that for the most writing problems are the results of outdated approaches and resources.

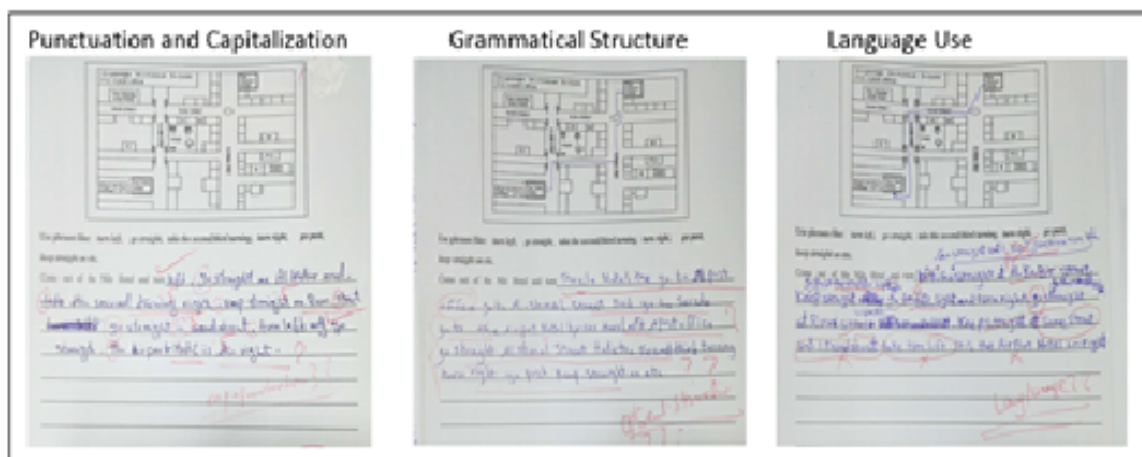
This study, in contrast with the practitioners who regard writing as the most difficult or dangerous genre of the language, takes a different view. The practitioners' understanding about writing 'a pain for both teachers and learners', in researcher's opinion, may be a 'myth'. The practitioners' submissions about writing as *an inherited problem in language learning, the most time consuming and boring activity, an assignment with less reward, and/or a daunting task*, may have a special context, but, in this study, an attempt has been made to present that writing, pedagogically, is a skill (and not as an activity) to be taught. The researcher, in the discussion section, maintains that most of these writing problems arise from pedagogical reasons and a fresh look is needed to find the reasons from pedagogical perspective to overcome the common writing problems.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopts a qualitative approach to explore common writing problems: punctuation and capitalization, grammatical structure, and language use along with their remedies from pedagogical perspective to improve writing as a *skill*. The multifold aims of this study are:

- *to identify and discuss the writing problems and remedies from a pedagogical perspective*
- *to develop student friendly tasks/exercises that address these problems and*
- *to develop writing as a skill and not merely as an activity*

To address this research aims, three writing (paragraph) samples of Level 1 students were selected to analyze the common writing problems, as mentioned.



DISCUSSION & FINDINGS

This section discusses the causes generally cited for common writing problems and offers various notional and functional pedagogical remedies to address the problems.

Writing Problems And Cited Causes

The following is discussion on the writing problems in line with the available literature on common writing problems i.e. punctuation and capitalization, grammatical structure, and language use:

Poor Background

Poor background is cited as one of the most prominent reasons of writing problems. Researchers try to maintain that learner's poor background is the hindrance rooting out the obstacle to good writing. This is to understand that poor background does affect the performance of the learners but, by no means, is the barrier in the way of developing writing as a skill.

Memorization

Memorization is another cause which has been cited as one of the major problems among Arab/EFL learners. Researchers maintain that students are asked to memorize in order to produce a good and errorless write up in the exam. As a result, learners do not get any opportunity to develop writing ability and face a great deal of problem when they engage in higher learning at the university level. This may be 'partially' true, but does not give passport to university teachers to do nothing to enhance writing skills/ability of the learners.

Curriculum in Secondary Schools

The secondary school curriculum is also cited as one of major reasons for the problems of writing among Arab learners. The researcher does not see any reason to cite this as a problem at the university level. Instead, this study suggests to do something pedagogically to develop writing as a skill among Arab learners. This is, in researcher's opinion, the future course of research whether or not the secondary schools continue with the same curriculum. Alternatively, is there a dire need to change the current curriculum structure? Moreover, the researcher strongly feels that it is not the duty of the university teachers to look into the curriculum of secondary schools. Instead, they should be doing something pedagogically at their own level to achieve the desired goal.

Teaching methodology

What would be the benefit if the teachers cite the teaching methodology as a problem at the school level? Is there any fruit in discussing whether the learners were not taught effectively or methods and strategies at the school level are/were not effective? This study maintains that the teachers at the university level should do something pedagogically which is effective and fruitful instead of blaming students past learning strategies.

Motivation

If the learners were not motivated at the school level, they can be motivated now. There is no theory that states that motivation starts at the school level, nor is there any theory that indicates that motivation cannot be imparted at the higher level of learning in the unfortunate case when a student joins a university without any motivation. To say otherwise is merely to pay the blame game, because there is always scope to motivate learners at any level of learning. We need only to motivate learners in writing and engage them in writing tasks, which are very much student-friendly in nature, and make sure that the learners not only are entertained but also enjoy writing assignments without any pain and fear.

Controlled writing

Controlled writing is one of the major reasons cited for poor writing skills among Arab learners, and the researcher partially agrees that it is a problem, but this is not a reason which cannot have any remedy. In researcher's opinion, moving from controlled to free writing exercises is the pedagogical remedy, which helps overcome the problem. The important element in writing exercises is that the students need to be personally involved in order to make the learning experience of lasting value. Encouraging student participation in the exercise, while, at the same time, refining and expanding writing skills, requires a certain pragmatic approach.

ESTABLISHED HYPOTHESIS

There is a hypothesis that, perhaps, is established by researchers/teachers that, like any foreign language learners, Arab/EFL learners face many problems in learning English. Many studies have been conducted to investigate the problems of acquiring English in general and problems in writing in particular. This hypothesis is based on the very fact that the students have many problems when writing in English, like not knowing how to organize their ideas, because it is almost a new experience for them. The very fact, that for the students to succeed in a foreign language generally, and writing skills specifically, they need to surround themselves in a language learning environment, remains – without argument, but it is also not fruitful to blame that Arab learners have few opportunities to use the foreign language in their society (though this may be correct).

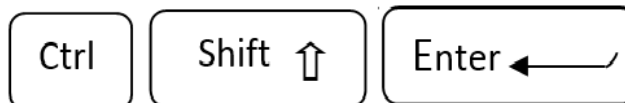
This study, while reviewing literature and researches conducted by EFL practitioners (Chen 2002, AbiSamra N. 2003, Newfields T. 2003, Al-Hazmi S. 2006, Al Buinain H. 2009, Sharif Y. 2010, Saleh F. M. 2010, Mojica L. A. 2010, Ezza El-Sadig 2010), found that studies are conducted mainly to investigate the causes of writing problems among Arab learners. The researcher is not in denial that the studies conducted thus far do not offer the solutions, of course they do. In contrast, the researcher, through this study, maintains that there is no benefit to buzz the problems and offering remedies/solutions of writing problems from/to the students' perspective. Alternatively, these remedies should have been offered from a pedagogical perspective.

NEED A CHANGE!

There is a dire need to have a change in teachers' notional level (especially those who teach writing at the institutes of higher learning). Teachers should agree with the notion that writing is a skill and not just an activity to be taught; writing is not a pain but a task to be entertained, writing is not a problem but an art. The larger issue is our aim to develop students' writing skills and certainly not engaging them in activities. In order to achieve these interesting tasks, teachers may use the events of students' lives to inspire writing. They also can establish an email dialogue between students from different schools who are studying the same book. Writing tasks may also be used to improve relations among students. There are various activities teachers can ask the students to be engaged in while developing students writing as a skill. Some of them are:

- copying from the teacher's write up with emphasis on capitalization and punctuation
- writing words relevant to students' lives to help them build vocabulary.
- writing very short and simple sentences
- writing steps for making anything (process)
- writing on students daily routine
- writing to an audience for a real purpose
- practicing and playing with revision techniques
- writing descriptions by focusing on the sounds of words
- making grammar instruction dynamic

7. CSE: A UNIQUE APPROACH!



This research has very little relation with the approaches to teaching writing viz. the Controlled-to-Free Approach, the Free-Writing Approach, the Paragraph-Pattern Approach, the Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach, the Communicative Approach and the Process Approach to teaching writing but wishes to place a unique approach which is far from the traditional approaches used in the classroom. The advocacy of the **Control-Shift-Enter** (CSE) approach is, in researcher's opinion, associated with pedagogical solutions where the teachers are expected to have a friendly **control** on the classroom, **shift** from the traditional, perhaps, ill perspective and **enter** into more flexible learning environment. This approach is more *functional* than *notional* which of course, not a command to be used on a *keyboard* but an *assignment* for the teachers to execute in the classroom situation. This approach has the following features where teachers are supposed to play and practice in the classrooms and create a rich environment for the learners. There is a **SHIFT** *from* what we, the teachers, generally, do to what we are expected to do to engage learners into a great art i.e. writing.

From TEACHING to LEARNING

Here the teachers *shift* their focus from teaching to learning and ensure that only learning takes place in the classroom. Students learn to write and enjoy the tasks assigned by the teacher. In other words, focus shifts from being teacher-centered to being learner-centered.

From ACTIVITY to SKILL

Here the learners are not engaged in the writing activities but in developing the skill of writing. Basically, writing is not an activity to be engaged in but a skill to be taught and learned. So the teachers present various student friendly exercises and certainly not the rote activities in which students are engaged to develop writing skill.

From ACCEPTED to EXCEPTIONAL

Whatever material the teachers use as per the level of the students should be exceptional and not merely accepted. Many a times the materials are found accepted as per the students need and level but are not exceptional. As a result, these accepted materials are proven to be worthless. So, it is desirable to use the materials/exercises which are exceptional and students are very happy while taking on the materials.

From RICH CONTENT to HIGHLY RELEVANT LESSONS

The lessons should be highly relevant rather than rich in content. I have no objection to rich contents, but at times, it has been found that the contents were rich but not relevant. It is found that students become stuck, sometimes not being able to familiarize themselves with the richness of the contents. I think it shall always be welcome to have relevance over the richness of the contents.

From TOOLS to TECHNIQUES

The tools play a great role in teaching and learning but the significant point to note is that the tools become ineffective if techniques are not effectively used. Technique is the soul of the tool and in whatever fashion the teachers introduce tools in the classroom, techniques are always helpful to create the healthy learning environment.

From HIGH-IMPACT to HIGH-ENGAGEMENT

Sometimes teachers try to have a high impact on the learners to make them feel that the great leader of the classroom is the teacher. This results in creating a chasm in the classroom between the teacher and the learner. The teachers should assign the tasks to the learners with high engagement without bothering about the impact on the learners. The teachers automatically, in my opinion, get the respect and high impact if they successfully turn students into great writers.

From STIFF to FLEXIBLE

The teachers need to have a very flexible approach and never be stiff towards learners or learning situation. Flexibility ensures that classroom tasks are differentiated to suit all the learners. This also ensures that learners have opportunities to learn what they want, when they want, where they want and how they want. Teachers are the great managers of the classroom and flexible managers are always successful. If the teachers are flexible in their approach, more chances are there for the learners to learn and develop.

From NOTIONAL to FUNCTIONAL

Notions are always helpful when they accomplish their function i.e. to do something unique and better. If they are kept only as notions, they don't serve any purpose. The teachers need to deliver the best from what they have at the notional/abstract level to the function/concrete level by presenting something practical in the classroom, engaging learners in the writing tasks which are fruitful and a means of entertainment for them.

From BITTER to BETTER

To conclude the study, I would like to call the teachers teaching writing at the university/higher level of learning, to work for the better. The project is huge and the task is really challenging but of course, not daunting. If we really want a change in the teaching writing atmosphere, we need to have a fresh look at the situation, develop a notion towards the learners in which they are not the bitter ones but the better ones. We must create an

environment where learners do not merely attend the writing classes and, engage themselves in writing activities/exercise but enjoy and develop writing as a skill to be the future writers.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study offers the pedagogical remedies to overcome the writing problems among Arab/EFL learners. First, teachers, at the very inception of writing classes, should present writing as the most interesting genre of language. Second, teachers should motivate students about writing that will always result well (if engaged in and entertained/appreciated). Third, teachers should present writing exercises as a historically proven character building projects. In addition, teachers should create and sustain an environment where students engage in assignments (as a skill) with fun and easiness. Last, but not least, teachers should view writing assignments as a healthy output and a very pleasant artistic task.

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Sensitivity of Foreign Direct Investment to Macroeconomic Variables in Nigeria*

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the sensitivity of foreign direct investment to macroeconomic variables in Nigeria for the 1986 to 2016 period. The study adopted foreign direct investment as the dependent variable, while gross domestic product, unemployment rate, inflation, government expenditure, exchange rate, interest rate, population and openness to trade were proxies for independent variables. The Ordinary Least Square (OLS) estimates revealed that inflation rate, population and openness to trade have significant positive influence on foreign direct investment, while economic growth has a negative though significant influence on FDI. Furthermore, unemployment, exchange and interest rates exert negative and insignificant influence on FDI inflows into Nigeria all in the short run. Therefore, FDI inflow to Nigeria is sensitive to changes in economic growth, inflation, population and openness to trade, hence the sensitivity of FDI to population size is of greater magnitude. From this findings, it is recommended, among other things, that the government should tackle unemployment and corruption problems frontally, while the managers of the Nigerian economy should also focus on controlling interest rate and maintaining the stability of exchange rates in order to attract, enhance and improve FDI inflows to the country.

Keywords: Population, Unemployment, Sensitivity, FDI Inflows, Trade Barriers, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

In the process of economic growth, investment cannot be sidelined as it is needed to improve productivity, production methods leading to the emergence of capital goods and consequently capital accumulation (Esubalew, 2014). As a result, investment serves as a catalyst for capital stock accumulation (Majeed & Khan, 2008). Investment can occur in various forms in an economy; private, public or foreign, however, in whichever form, investment has the nature of improving the economic conditions of a country. Ordinarily, foreign direct investment (hereafter, can appear as FDI) is viewed as the international firm partnership that propels equity holding and proper management control in the home country (Sun, Tong & Yu, 2002).

However, the totality of foreign direct investment is not only determined by the multinational firms but it is seen as an outcome of the game between the host government and the multinational firms' involved (Okafor, 2014). This is made possible as a result of the influencing capacity of the policies made by the government and the incentives given to the local industry (Faeth, 2009). These policies range from exchange rate regulation, tariffs and

trade barriers to restriction of the inflow of capital, technology and any other form of investment into the host country.

From the Nigerian perspective, the authorities have sought to attract foreign investment through various means which ranges from implementation of some policies to the enactment of some decrees or acts. The most prominent of such measures include the deregulation of the 1980s (Njogo, 2013), most especially the Structural Adjustment Programme(SAP) that was aimed at encouraging foreign direct investment in Nigeria which was part of the financial liberalization scheme as at that time. Furthermore, other measures include the New Industrial Policy of 1989, the establishment of the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission in the early 1990s, the establishment of the Nigerian Investment Promotion Council (NIPC) in 1995 which embraces the basic exploration of foreign investment and new businesses in Nigeria. Correspondingly, the NIPC was established in 1995 during the late General SaniAbacha's regime, tagged itself as the one-stop-shop for exploring and planning foreign investment and new business in Nigeria. The NIPC is armed with the mandate of facilitating foreign investments and advocating on behalf of foreign investors in the areas of ensuring that favourable policies are made, and it also ensures that it creates an investment friendly environment as investor outside the country can consider Nigeria a safe haven for investment (Njogo, 2013).

However, several studies(See, Wuhan &Khurshid, 2015; Ayeni, 2014; Enu, Havi&Attah-Obeng, 2013; Duruechi&Ojeigbe, 2015; Asamoah, 2012; Mercylyne, 2014) have been carried out to examine the viability of investment in the economy taking into cognizance the macroeconomic variables existing in the economic environment, or as to whether investment is propelled by these variables or the other way round, as a result, policy makers are in a quandary over which one to accord priority to knowing fully well that investment is instrumental to the growth of any economy. Although it cannot exist in isolation without other macroeconomic variables. Hence, this study examines whether or not foreign direct investment is sensitive to macroeconomic variables in Nigeria. The existence of macroeconomic variables and their attendant influence on foreign direct investment has been examined in various contributions in literature (See Enu, *et al.*, 2013; Duruechi&Ojeigbe, 2015; Asamoah, 2012; Mukhiddin& Jalal, 2012; Bin-Amir, Zaman& Ali, 2012). However, considering the mixed results in literature as regards the subject matter whereby (Wuhan &Khurshid, 2015; Jimoh, 2013) discovered a negative relationship between interest rate and foreign direct investment and Asamoah (2012) discovered otherwise, meanwhile, Tamer (2012) discovered a positive relationship between exchange rate and foreign direct investment and Abdishu (2000) discovered otherwise to mention just a few.

Therefore, this study distinguishes itself by considering a dataset on certain macroeconomic variables that are more relevant for the Nigerian situation, hence unemployment rate and population size could scarcely be found in prior studies in Nigeria. In addition, the use of the classical ordinary least square technique in this study will help to re-affirm the results of previous studies in Nigeria that used the same estimator, but bridge a gap in the choice of dataset in the examination of how foreign direct investment can be sensitive to changes in the selected macroeconomic variables.

The extensive theoretical and empirical relationship between foreign direct investment and selected macroeconomic variables will be discussed in the section two of literature review. Section three assesses the methodology, data issues and pre-estimation analyses. The discussion of empirical results are dealt with in section four, while the final section presents the concluding remarks and recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Literature

Foreign Direct Investment and Economic Growth

Foreign direct investment is a form of cross-border investment that embraces injecting foreign funds into an enterprise that do not exist in the same country as the country of origin (Njogo, 2013). Foreign direct investment is also a long term investment that shows the interest and control by a foreign investor in another country other than that of the investor (International Monetary Fund, 1999). This investment can be in the form of acquisition of management interest in the enterprise in the home country (Nwillima, 2008 in Anaza, 2016). This investment has been found to be determined by various factors ranging from those factors relating to the profitability of the investment at the firm level to the profitability of investment at the economy-wide level (Krugell, 2005; Wang & Swain, 1997 in Njogo, 2013).

However, irrespective of the of determinants, foreign direct investment has been presumed to spur economic growth in mostly developing countries of the world like Nigeria as portrayed by the endogenous growth theory (Tong & Hu, 2003 in Okafor, 2014; Petrakos, Arvanitidis&Pavles, 2007). As a result, the government should enact policies in line with financial liberalization in a bid to present an encouraging environment that can stimulate the inflow of foreign direct investment in the host country (Popescu, 2010).

Moreso, Devrim (2009) posited that foreign direct investment is not just a capital movement but it involves a transfer of managerial skills, technology and other tangible and intangible assets. This is substantiated by the opinion of Ndiyo and Ebong (2003) as relayed by Anaza (2016) who described foreign direct investment to be an inflow of foreign resources in the form of technology, capital, management skills and marketing enterprises into the host country. Investment is needed for economic growth, hence growth depends largely on investment (Anaza, 2016). Furthermore, Todaro (1994) explicated the contributions of foreign direct investment to embrace filling the resource void between the desired level of investment and the current level of locally mobilized savings, filling the gap between targeted foreign exchange requirement and those derived from net export earnings plus net public foreign aid, imbue the gap between targeted government tax revenues and locally raised taxes and also filling the management, entrepreneurial and technological gaps in the local operations of private firms.

However, when considering the trend of foreign direct investment inflows to Nigeriaseveral policies have been implemented in a bid to foster foreign direct investment such as the Structural Adjustment Programme of 1986, the industrial development coordination decree of 1988, the Nigerian Enterprise Promotion Decree of 1972 and the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission of 1995. Hence, the role of foreign direct investment cannot be overlooked in the process of fostering economic development.

Macroeconomic Variables affecting FDI

There exists several variables within the economy that affects foreign direct investment and some of the variables will be treated here:

Investment

Investment refers to the acquisition of capital goods that better the lot of the populace which may include the acquisition of goods that is used in the production of more goods as they spur output (Konor, 2014). However, investment can be influenced by some other macroeconomic variables such as Gross Domestic Product, Exchange Rate, Import, Export, Trade Openness, Inflation and some other variables existing in the economy. Correspondingly, Konor (2014)

discovered that macroeconomic variables affect investment while Ayeni (2014) discovered otherwise.

Exchange Rate

O'Sullivan and Sheffrin (2003) posited that exchange rate is the value of a country's currency in a bid to convert it to another. It is the most important price in any economy. There are mixed results on the relationship between exchange rate and FDI in both theoretical and empirical literature. However, Esubalew (2014) discovered that exchange rate affects investment negatively, also, Asamoah (2012) discovered the same result while considering exchange rate volatility on investment while Abdishu (2000) discovered otherwise.

Inflation Rate

Inflation is an economic concept that has both negative and positive effect on the economy (Mercylyne, 2014). However, the negative effects are more recognized as they reduce the value of money (Blanchard, 2000). Kimani and Mutuku (2013) viewed inflation to be the increase in the price of goods and services over time. Meanwhile, Mukhiddin and Jalal (2012) discovered that inflation rate has an insignificant relationship with investment while Bin-Amir, Zaman and Ali (2012) discovered otherwise.

Theoretical Literature

Simple Accelerator Theory

This theory as advanced by Clark (1971) assumes that the firms' desired capital-output ratio is constant. However, the theory was criticized for not taking into cognizance other factors influencing investment such as the cost of capital and profitability. The theory assumes that investment is a function of growth of output only and that the intended stock of capital is achieved at that very point in time. As a result, a more flexible accelerator model to capture the influence of other uncertainties and variables and to explain that the addition in the stock of capital does not happen instantly (Twine, Kiiiza&Bashaasha, 2015). However, the theory was criticized for focusing mostly on firms.

McKinnon and Shaw Theory

This theory which was advocated by McKinnon (1973) and Shaw (1973) assumes that increase in the demand for investment can occur if the real interest rate are set lower than the market equilibrium (Mercylyne, 2014). As a result interest rate should be strictly regulated by monetary authorities as savings tends to be an increasing function of interest rate. These proponents assume that government regulations prevent financial intermediaries from proper functioning.

Empirical Literature

Empirical Review from Developed Countries

Tang (2017) studied the macroeconomic determinants of foreign direct investment in thirteen European Union countries between 1994 and 2012. Employing two-stage least squares and the generalized method of moments regression techniques, the results revealed that bank credit, stock market size and country income have positive effects on foreign direct investment. The influence of some macroeconomic factors on foreign direct investments in FDI receiving countries was investigated by Taran, Mironiuc and Huain (2016), and by applying multiple regression and ANOVA analysis of variance, the findings of the study showed that the degree of economic freedom is a significant factor of multi-regional inward FDI during the period 2012 to 2015, but this effect is caused by only fiscal freedom, government spending, monetary trade, and financial freedom.

In Wuhan and Khurshid(2015), the effect of interest rate on investment in China between 2003 and 2012 was examined. The results of the regression and vector error correction model identified that there exist a long run negative relationship between interest rate and investment. WTamer (2012) studied the effects of macroeconomic factors on foreign direct investment in 24 OECD countries between 1999 and 2010. Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analysis were employed in the study; it was found that market size has a strong effect on FDI while exchange rate and trade openness have positive significant relationship with FDI.

Empirical Review from Developing Countries

Hasli, Ibrahim and Ho (2017) investigated the effect of financial crisis and macroeconomic factors on foreign direct investment in 23 developing countries for the period of 1993 to 2013. By employing generalized least square estimator, the study found that the US financial crisis has a positive significance effect on the inflow of FDI, and this validated Krugman's theory on fire-sale FDI. However, country specific economic recession, lending rates and natural resources discourage inflow of FDI. Nonetheless, trade openness, domestic currency, money supply and domestic fixed investment encourage FDI in developing countries. Kurul and Yalta (2017) revisited the relationship between institutional factors and foreign direct investment inflows in 113 developing economies over the period of 2002 to 2012. The result of the dynamic panel methodology- system GMM revealed that some institutional factors matter more than others in attracting more FDI flows; hence the control of corruption, government effectiveness, and the voice and accountability have significant positive impacts on FDI flows. In addition, exercising policies to enhance the participation of citizens in a political system, for example by selecting their government, as well as the protection of civil rights, may increase FDI flows.

Fantaye (2016) scrutinized the macroeconomic determinants of foreign direct investment in Ethiopia between 1982 and 2014. Adopting the regression technique, he observed that certain macroeconomic variables (real GDP, gross fixed capital formation and ratio of trade to GDP) determine foreign direct investment. Kingu (2016) identified the determinants of foreign direct investment in Tanzania for the period 1970 to 2012. The results of Johansen's and Engle-Granger's approaches to co-integration test revealed that the variables are co-integrated. Furthermore, the regression result suggested that gross domestic product, openness, and inflation rate are the main determinants of FDI inflows to Tanzania.

Using correlation and regression analysis, Samantaray, Nugali and Sasidhar (2014) found for Saudi Arabia that a positive long run relationship exists between stock market and macroeconomic variables in their study on the effect of macroeconomic variables on the stock market (investment) for the period 2003 to 2013. In Ghana, Enu, *et al.*, (2013) examined the macroeconomic determinants of foreign direct investment between 1980 and 2012. The regression technique and vector autoregressive model and Granger causality test showed that there exists no relationship between macroeconomic variables and foreign direct investment, while a unidirectional causality was discovered between real GDP, FDI and exchange rate. Mercylyne (2014) studied the effect of macroeconomic variables on growth in real investment in Kenya between 2000 and 2013. The results of the regression analysis showed that there was a strong positive relationship between real estate investment growth and macroeconomic variables. The study of Konor (2014) on the determinants of private investment in Ghana between 1970 and 2011 by employing the autoregressive distributed lag model, revealed that economic growth affects private investment in the long run, but it is affected by inflation in the short run while exchange rate affects private investment in both the short-and long run.

In a study between 1992 and 2013 period, the impact of macroeconomic variables on foreign direct investment was examined by Hunjra, Raza and Asif (2013) for Pakistan, and by employing descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The regression result revealed that economic growth and interest rate are the macroeconomic variables that exert significant relationship with FDI. Shahzad and Al-Swidi (2013) also examined the role of macroeconomic variables on foreign direct investment inflows in Pakistan between the periods between 1991 and 2011. The regression result showed that there exists a long run relationship between macroeconomic variables and foreign direct investment.

Empirical Review from Nigeria

In Nigeria, Ndubusi (2017) investigated the impact of macroeconomic variables on foreign direct investment for the period 1981 to 2014. The result of the VECM Granger causality test employed in the study revealed that there is a longrun unidirectional causality between FDI and real GDP, whereas, in the short run causality do not run from anydirection. There is bidirectional causality between FDI and exchange rate. However; there is no causal relationship in the short run. There is also a noticeable unidirectional causality running from inflation rate captured by consumer price index to FDI in the short run. Bidirectional causality between FDI and oil price was reported in the long run. The study of Duruechi and Ojeiegbe (2015) on the determinants of foreign direct investment in Nigeria between 1990 and 2013 using regression techniques, revealed that government expenditure is the most important factor that spurs investment.

Agwu (2015) examined the determinants of investment in Nigeria for the periods from 1981 to 2013 by employing the autoregressive distributed lag model. The result showed that the past income level, capital investment, government size and interest rate are the major determinants of domestic investment in Nigeria, hence these variables have a positive effect on private investment in Nigeria, while exchange rate and inflation have an insignificant effect on private investment in Nigeria. Gharaibeh (2015) assessed the determinants of foreign direct investment in Bahrain for the period, 1980 to 2013. The result of the OLS estimates showed that government expenditure, inflation rate, interest rate, trade openness, labour force, and population have statistically significant relationships with FDI inflows into Bahrain.

The contribution of macroeconomic factors to the private sector investment in Nigeria between 1979 and 2012 was examined by Ayeni (2014). Using regression technique and the autoregressive distributed lag model, it was found that the macroeconomic variables in the model for the study do not spur private investment in Nigeria. Imoughele and Ismaila (2014) also studied the determinants of private domestic savings in Nigeria between 1981 and 2012. The regression result revealed that interest rate has a positive but insignificant relationship with private savings in Nigeria, meanwhile, population and budget deficit has insignificant relationship with private savings. Also, terms of trade and inflation have negative but significant relationship with private savings.

Jimoh (2013) investigated the sensitivity of interest rate to bank investment in Nigeria between 1980 and 2012. By employing regression analysis, it was revealed that there exists a negative relationship between interest rate and investment. Obidike and Uma (2013) assessed the effect of macroeconomic variables on foreign direct investment in Nigeria as a liberalized economy for the periods between 1975 and 2009. The result of the Johansen's approach to co-integration revealed the existence of a long run relationship between the selected macroeconomic variables and FDI. Furthermore, the results showed that macroeconomic variables in the study have significant impact on FDI, hence the latter is sensitive to changes in the selected macroeconomic variables.

METHODOLOGY, DATA ISSUES AND PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

This study employs the classical ordinary least square regression technique in the investigation of the sensitivity of foreign direct investment to macroeconomic variables in Nigeria. The study period spans from 1986 to 2016, hence the raw data on (foreign direct investment, gross domestic product, unemployment rate, inflation, government expenditure, exchange rate, interest rate, population and openness to trade) collected from the Central Bank of Nigeria statistical bulletin, Nigeria Bureau of Statistics Fact Book and the World Bank Development Indicators Database for this period are transformed to their natural logarithms to avoid spurious results, thus the transformation will also make interpretation easy. The pre-estimation analyses in this study are descriptive statistics and correlation matrix. *Table 1* reports the descriptive summary of the variables in the model built for this study.

Table 1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics

Series	Mean	Maximum	Minimum	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Jarque-Bera
FDI	21.51151	23.39490	19.07931	1.091941	-0.075242	2.228008	0.799048*
GDP	8.696371	11.45241	4.902307	2.012061	-0.300806	1.989727	1.785844*
UR	2.204229	3.349904	0.641854	0.838520	-0.277011	1.587896	2.972097*
INFR	2.714926	4.288204	1.683102	0.745173	0.784908	2.510511	3.492568*
GEXP	6.454571	8.802456	2.786245	1.851541	-0.519715	2.032733	2.604024*
EXGR	3.880449	5.721008	0.703394	1.383177	-0.715198	2.229834	3.408952*
INTR	3.115161	3.586016	2.484907	0.205697	-0.371912	4.659841	4.273281*
POP	18.65534	19.04126	18.27123	0.233190	0.022622	1.805693	1.845038*
OPEN	3.935493	4.404434	3.166182	0.325304	-0.795456	2.651854	3.425769*

Note: * implies rejection of null hypothesis of normal distribution at 1% significance level.

Source: Authors' Computation

From Table 1, all the series except INFR and POP are negatively skewed, hence they are skewed to the left. This implies that there is every tendency of obtaining negative extreme values than positive extreme values for all the series except INFR and POP. The kurtosis statistics revealed that except for INTR, all other series have a platykurtic (low-peaked and thin-tailed) probability distribution. INTR has a leptokurtosis (thick-tailed probability distribution, implying that the excess kurtosis is positive). The Jarque-Bera statistic shows that all the series come from a normally distributed.

Table 2: Correlation Matrix

	FDI	GDP	UR	INFR	GEXP	EXGR	INTR	POP	OPEN
FDI	1.000000	0.898038	0.701892	-0.157244	0.887787	0.835837	0.256197	0.912347	-0.107750
GDP	0.898038	1.000000	0.796004	-0.320152	0.989170	0.942823	0.225686	0.987947	-0.107003
UR	0.701892	0.796004	1.000000	-0.512027	0.801397	0.805594	0.091700	0.842800	-0.280790
INFR	-0.157244	-0.320152	-0.512027	1.000000	-0.349821	-0.299618	0.232435	-0.354279	0.048193
GEXP	0.887787	0.989170	0.801397	-0.349821	1.000000	0.969109	0.244055	0.976161	-0.025255
EXGR	0.835837	0.942823	0.805594	-0.299618	0.969109	1.000000	0.306241	0.927446	0.067993
INTR	0.256197	0.225686	0.091700	0.232435	0.244055	0.306241	1.000000	0.218711	0.138160
POP	0.912347	0.987947	0.842800	-0.354279	0.976161	0.927446	0.218711	1.000000	-0.197189
OPEN	-0.107750	-0.107003	-0.280790	0.048193	-0.025255	0.067993	0.138160	-0.197189	1.000000

Source: Authors' Computation

In Table 2, the results of pairwise correlation on the series was presented. It is obvious that POP as one of the macroeconomic variables and foreign direct investment have the highest ($r = 0.91$) correlation among all pairs, this is quite acceptable since it is expected that increasing population drives human capacity development, thereby increasing economic productivity. Economic growth, which in turn attracts FDI inflows from multinational enterprises (MNEs) that seek to increase their profits in the international markets. However, foreign direct

investment is sensitive and negatively correlated with inflation rate and degree of trade openness.

Model Specification

The model built for this study specifies foreign direct investment as a function of gross domestic product, unemployment rate, inflation, government expenditure, exchange rate, interest rate, population and openness to trade. This macroeconomic variables determine FDI inflows into Nigeria. Therefore, the model can be presented mathematically as:

$$FDI = f(GDP, UR, INFR, GEXP, EXGR, INTR, POP, OPEN, \mu) \dots\dots\dots\text{Equa. 3.1}$$

Where;

FDI = Foreign Direct Investment, GDP = Gross Domestic Product, UR= Unemployment Rate, INFR= Inflation Rate, GEXP= Government Expenditure, EXGR= Exchange Rate, INTR= Interest Rate, POP= Population, OPEN= Openness to Trade, and μ = Error Term.

Equation 1, can be transformed to its econometric form to be:

$$FDI_t = B_0 + B_1\text{LogGDP}_t + B_2\text{LogUR}_t + B_3\text{LogINFR}_t + B_4\text{LogGEXP}_t + B_5\text{LogEXGR}_t + B_6\text{LogINTR}_t + B_7\text{LogPOP}_t + B_8\text{LogOPEN}_t + \mu_t\dots\dots\dots\text{Equa. 3.2}$$

B_0 is the intercept, $B_1 - B_8$ are the estimation coefficients. Theoretically, we expect that $B_1 > 0$, $B_2 < 0$, $B_3 < 0$, $B_4 - B_5 > 0$, $B_6 < 0$, and $B_7 - B_8 > 0$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The ordinary least square regression technique which was employed in the analysis of this study, will reveal the sensitivity of foreign direct investment to changes in macroeconomic variables in the short run. *Table 3* reports the result of the OLS estimation method.

**Table 3: Ordinary Least Square (OLS) Regression
Dependent Variable: FDI**

Variables	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Statistics	P-Value
GDP	-0.740943	0.403678	-1.835479	0.0800*
UR	-0.049826	0.237028	-0.210211	0.8354
INFR	0.382849	0.136309	2.808693	0.0102**
GEXP	0.265659	0.469882	0.565374	0.5775
EXGR	-0.413266	0.304297	-1.358101	0.1882
INTR	-0.123755	0.409958	-0.301873	0.7656
POP	11.65457	3.111074	3.746157	0.0011***
OPEN	0.885483	0.388648	2.278367	0.0328**
C	-193.6048	55.70878	-3.475302	0.0021***

$R^2=0.904679$ Adj. $R^2= 0.870016$ F-Statistics= 26.1 Durbin Watson=2.47
(P-Value=0.000000)

Notes:*** and ** denotes the rejection of null hypothesis of statistical significance at 10'5 and 1percents' respectively, while the value in parenthesis () represent the exact value of F-test.

Source: Authors' Computation

From Table 3, the coefficient of the intercept in the model is -193.6048. This implies that holding the regressors constant in the short run, foreign direct investment will decrease by approximately 194 percent. Also, in the short run, gross domestic product (real GDP) has a negative coefficient of 0.740943, which satisfies the economic *apriori* expectation. The negative relationship between economic growth and foreign direct investment implies that a 1 percent

increase in real GDP will lead to about 0.74 percent decrease in FDI. Similarly, unemployment rate (UR) is negatively related with foreign direct investment. The coefficient of unemployment rate is -0.049826. In terms of magnitude, it implies that every 1 percent increase in UR will on the average, lead to about 0.05 percent decrease in FDI.

Conversely, inflation rate (INFR) is positively related to foreign direct investment, in that it has a positive coefficient of 0.382849. This implies that a 1 percent increase in INFR will result in about 0.38 percent increase in FDI. Also, the coefficient of government expenditure (GEXP) is positive with a value of 0.265659, which implies that a 1 percent increase in GEXP will lead to about 0.27 percent increase in FDI. Exchange rate (EXGR) coefficient is -0.413266. This reveal an inverse relationship between EXGR and FDI, hence a 1 percent increase in EXGR will cause FDI to decrease by 0.41 percent.

On the relationship between interest rate (INTR) and FDI, the negative coefficient of INTR is 0.123755, and this suggest that a negative relationship between these two variables, hence a 1 percent increase in the value of INTR will result in a decrease in FDI by about 0.12 percent. The coefficient of population (POP) is 11.65457, which implies that a direct relationship exist between POP and FDI. Therefore, FDI will increase by about 11.7 percent following a 1 percent increase in population growth. Finally, the coefficient of openness to trade (OPEN) is 0.885483. This reveal that a positive relationship exist between OPEN and FDI, consequently, a 1 percent increase in openness to trade will increase FDI by about 0.88 percent.

STOP The R-squared statistics explain the level at which the explanatory variables account for the systemic variation in the explained variable (FDI), hence (GDP, UR, INFR, GEXP, EXGR, INTR, POP and OPEN) all account for about 90.5 percent of the variation in the dependent variable (FDI). Therefore, this high explanatory power simply suggest that the macroeconomic variables selected for this study are good predictors of FDI inflows to Nigeria, hence FDI is highly sensitive to changes in these macroeconomic variables. The adjusted R-squared (0.870016) which is very close to the R-squared implies that there is less penalty for irrelevant variables in the model for this study. The overall goodness of fit of the model is satisfactory for this study, since the probability value attached to the F-statistics computed in the OLS estimates show an exact significance at a 0.01 percent threshold level. The Durbin Watson statistics is 2.47, this value falls in the area of no autocorrelation, hence the absence of AR(1), which is the first-order serial correlation.

Model Diagnostic Checks

The model diagnostics was conducted in order to ensure that the assumptions of the classical ordinary least square estimator are not violated. Therefore, model robustness, reliability and stability checks was carried out using various tests in order to overcome the problem of biased and inconsistent estimation, and the invalidation of conventional inference procedures.

Table 4: Model Robustness, Reliability and Stability Checks

Diagnostic Tests	Approach	F-Statistics	P-Value
Linearity Test	Ramsey Reset Test	0.734038	0.4710*
Serial Correlation	Breusch-Godfrey LM Test	1.135663	0.3411*
Heteroscedasticity Test	ARCH LM Test	0.026462	0.8719*
Normality Test	Jarque-Bera statistics	0.354227	0.8377*
Multicollinearity Test	Variance Inflation Factors	Less than 0.1 threshold level	
Stability Test	CUSUM and CUSUM Tests	Lies within bounds	

Source: Authors' Computation

Notes: * signifies the rejection of null hypothesis at 10% significance level

Table 4 reports the diagnostics check on the model built for this study. The study passed the diagnostic test against regression misspecification error, hence the model in the study was correctly specified. The null hypothesis of Breusch-Godfrey LM test that there is no serial correlation is accepted, hence the residuals in the model for this study are serially uncorrelated. This study also satisfied and passed the homoscedasticity assumption of the regression results. The *p*-value attached to the Jarque-Bera statistics is greater than the threshold of 0.1, hence the regression residuals are normally distributed. The study also passed the test against multicollinearity, since the coefficient variance of all the residuals falls below 0.1 threshold level. Furthermore, the plot of cumulative sum of recursive residual (CUSUM) and cumulative sum of squares of recursive residual (CUSUMQ) of the model are in-between and does not surpasses the critical boundaries at 5 percent significance level. This confirms the structural stability property of the short run macroeconomic parameters which coordinates FDI inflows into Nigeria, hence signifying that the model seem to be steady and specified appropriately during the estimation period.

IMPLICATION OF FINDINGS

The implication of the sensitivity of FDI to changes in the selected macroeconomic variables in this study has the following implication for policy makers:

The significantly negative relationship between gross domestic product and foreign direct investment, which is in discordance with the theoretical expectation is unexpected, and stand in stark contrast to the findings of previous studies. However, the inverted U-shaped relationship between FDI and domestic market size could be explained with the reasons that most of the FDI inflows to Nigeria are solely attracted to the oil, mining and manufacturing sectors, the prevalence of vertical FDI inflows to Nigeria, the lack of positive spillover effects from FDI to human capital and the higher levels of FDI leading to reduction of export revenues and increases in the current account imbalance. Though, it significance supports the applicability of the acceleration theory of investment in Nigeria. Therefore, FDI is sensitive to changes in gross domestic product in Nigeria. This finding is similar to the one found in the studies of (Maralagua, Baerbig, & Tsolmon, 2017; Sadaf, Kiran, Saman, & Shabib, 2016). However, (Kingu, 2016, Agwu, 2015; Kaur & Sharma, 2013) studies found something contrary to this. A negative relationship exist between unemployment and foreign direct investment, this which is in tandem with the economic expectation of either positive or negative implies that increasing rate of unemployment may scare away foreign investors, in that they will not want to consider future investment or developing an existing one in an environment where there are signs of macroeconomic instability. Though, the insignificance of the variable confirm that FDI inflows is not sensitive to the rate of unemployment in Nigeria- a result which is consistent with the findings of Göçer, Mercan and Peker (2013), but varies away from the study of Ciftcioglu, Fethi and Begovic, (2007) where there exist a positive relationship between unemployment and FDI inflows.

The degree of openness to trade exerts a positive and significant influence foreign direct investment as expected in the short run. Therefore, this implies that as a small open economy, Nigeria have been able to attract FDI inflows into her economy. However, FDI is sensitive to the openness of the emerging Nigerian economy. The findings here is consistent with that of (Makun, 2016; Tamer, 2012). It is also non consistent with the short run results of (Kingu, 2016; Gharaibeh, 2015). Contrarily, inflation rate (INFR) does not meet with the theoretical expectation, because it is positively signed. The implication of this is that the inflation rate in the domestic economy is not affecting international transactions, as there was so much money in the economy occasioned by the oil exports. Therefore, foreigners do not mind Nigeria's domestic monetary conditions, as they see Nigeria as an oil-rich nation. Consequently, FDI inflows is not sensitive to the level of inflation in Nigeria. This result is in agreement that which

was found in the studies of (Makun, 2016; Malik & Ali-Malik, 2013), but in discordance with the studies of (Kingu, 2016; Gharaibeh, 2015).

The positively signed coefficient of government expenditure, matches with economic expectations, this implies that as the expenditure of the government increases, especially in the area of providing infrastructural facilities, the availability of these infrastructures may attract expatriates to investment in the domestic economy. The non-significance of government expenditure means that it is not a good predictor of FDI inflows to Nigeria, hence FDI is not sensitive to the increase in government expenditure in the short run. This findings is in line with the studies of Agwu (2015). In non-conformity with the economic expectation, exchange rate has a negative and insignificant influence on foreign direct investment. This result is contrary to that of (Agwu, 2015; Tamer, 2012) whose studies found that exchange rate exert a positive influence on FDI inflows to Nigeria. Maralagua, *et al.*, (2017) and Makun's (2016) studies confirm the negative influence found in this study.

Interest rate was found to be negatively related to foreign direct investment, and this corresponds with the economic expectation. In Nigeria, interest rate is higher in relative comparison with those of the developed economies. Higher interest rate will reduce the level of investment, hence a low interest rate is needed to stimulate economic growth and encourage FDI inflows into the host country. The study of Agwu (2015) also found a negative relationship between these two variables. However, this result deviates from the findings of Gharaibeh (2015). Population is directly related to foreign direct investment in conformity with economic expectation. The implication of this is that MNEs may consider the population of the country as a factor in their decision to invest in a country. Furthermore, for the period under investigation, FDI inflows to Nigeria is highly sensitive to the large population size of the country than it is to any other variables in the model for this study, since foreign investors see the cheap availability of skilled labour as an important factor that increase firm productivity, and this will in turn increase profitability. This is consistent with the results of (Gharaibeh, 2015; Aziz & Makkawi, 2012).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study investigated the sensitivity of foreign direct investment to macroeconomic variables in Nigeria between 1986 and 2016. The study adopted foreign direct investment as the dependent variable, while gross domestic product, unemployment rate, inflation, government expenditure, exchange rate, interest rate, population and openness to trade are proxies for macroeconomic variables. It was found that foreign direct investment is sensitive to changes in inflation rate, population and openness to trade, as these variables maintained significantly positive influence on FDI, while the influence of economic growth on it is significantly negative. Unemployment, exchange and interest rates are not good predictor of FDI inflows to Nigeria, and their influence on FDI are negative. It can be concluded that FDI is sensitive to changes in economic growth, inflation, size of population and openness to trade for the period under investigation, hence it is not susceptible to changes in unemployment, exchange and interest rates. The high predictive power of R-squared statistics confirm that the macroeconomic variables in the model for this study are sufficient enough to capture the subject matter. This study passed all post-estimation test, hence none of the assumptions of the OLS estimate was violated. Following the conclusion drawn from the study, it is recommended, among other things, that the government should tackle the problem of unemployment and corruption at their root cause, while the managers of the Nigerian economy should also focus on controlling interest rate and maintaining the stability of exchange rates in order to attract, enhance and improve FDI inflows to the country. Furthermore, fiscal policy actions, such as increasing

government expenditure on infrastructures should play a crucial role in stimulating and smoothing foreign direct investment and business cycle respectively.

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APPENDIX A: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	FDI	GDP	UR	INFR	GEXP	EXGR	INTR	POP	OPEN
Mean	21.51151	8.696371	2.204229	2.714926	6.454571	3.880449	3.115161	18.65534	3.935493
Median	21.35136	8.838581	2.533697	2.555410	6.925625	4.717992	3.109953	18.65191	4.055101
Maximum	23.39490	11.45241	3.349904	4.288204	8.802456	5.721008	3.586016	19.04126	4.404434
Minimum	19.07931	4.902307	0.641854	1.683102	2.786245	0.703394	2.484907	18.27123	3.166182
Std. Dev.	1.091941	2.012061	0.838520	0.745173	1.851541	1.383177	0.205697	0.233190	0.325304
Skewness	-0.075242	-0.300806	-0.277011	0.784908	-0.519715	-0.715198	-0.371912	0.022622	-0.795456
Kurtosis	2.228008	1.989727	1.587896	2.510511	2.032733	2.229834	4.659841	1.805693	2.651854
Jarque-Bera	0.799048	1.785844	2.972097	3.492568	2.604024	3.408952	4.273281	1.845038	3.425769
Probability	0.670639	0.409458	0.226265	0.174421	0.271984	0.181868	0.118051	0.397516	0.180345
Sum	666.8567	269.5875	68.33111	84.16270	200.0917	120.2939	96.57000	578.3155	122.0003
Sum Sq. Dev.	35.77003	121.4516	21.09345	16.65851	102.8461	57.39535	1.269333	1.631327	3.174685
Observations	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31

APPENDIX B: CORRELATION MATRIX

	FDI	GDP	UR	INFR	GEXP	EXGR	INTR	POP	OPEN
FDI	1.000000	0.898038	0.701892	-0.157244	0.887787	0.835837	0.256197	0.912347	-0.107750
GDP	0.898038	1.000000	0.796004	-0.320152	0.989170	0.942823	0.225686	0.987947	-0.107003
UR	0.701892	0.796004	1.000000	-0.512027	0.801397	0.805594	0.091700	0.842800	-0.280790
INFR	-0.157244	-0.320152	-0.512027	1.000000	-0.349821	-0.299618	0.232435	-0.354279	0.048193
GEXP	0.887787	0.989170	0.801397	-0.349821	1.000000	0.969109	0.244055	0.976161	-0.025255
EXGR	0.835837	0.942823	0.805594	-0.299618	0.969109	1.000000	0.306241	0.927446	0.067993
INTR	0.256197	0.225686	0.091700	0.232435	0.244055	0.306241	1.000000	0.218711	0.138160
POP	0.912347	0.987947	0.842800	-0.354279	0.976161	0.927446	0.218711	1.000000	-0.197189
OPEN	-0.107750	-0.107003	-0.280790	0.048193	-0.025255	0.067993	0.138160	-0.197189	1.000000

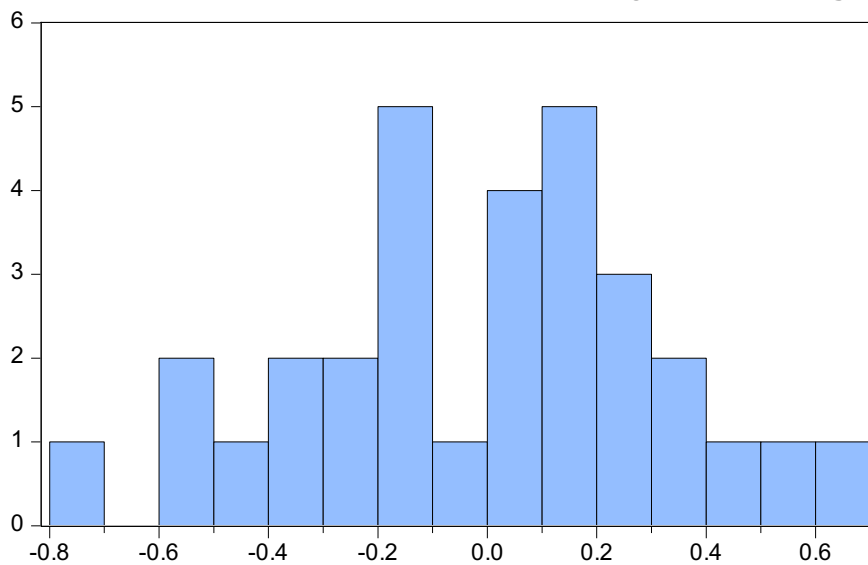
APPENDIX C: ORDINARY LEAST SQUARE ESTIMATES

Dependent Variable: FDI
 Method: Least Squares
 Date: 10/13/17 Time: 11:39
 Sample: 1986 2016
 Included observations: 31

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP	-0.740943	0.403678	-1.835479	0.0800
UR	-0.049826	0.237028	-0.210211	0.8354
INFR	0.382849	0.136309	2.808693	0.0102
GEXP	0.265659	0.469882	0.565374	0.5775
EXGR	-0.413266	0.304297	-1.358101	0.1882
INTR	-0.123755	0.409958	-0.301873	0.7656
POP	11.65457	3.111074	3.746157	0.0011
OPEN	0.885483	0.388648	2.278367	0.0328
C	-193.6048	55.70878	-3.475302	0.0021

R-squared	0.904679	Mean dependent var	21.51151
Adjusted R-squared	0.870016	S.D. dependent var	1.091941
S.E. of regression	0.393680	Akaike info criterion	1.211145
Sum squared resid	3.409652	Schwarz criterion	1.627464
Log likelihood	-9.772749	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.346855
F-statistic	26.09975	Durbin-Watson stat	2.474602
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

APPENDIX D: NORMALITY TEST



Series: Residuals	
Sample 1986 2016	
Observations 31	
Mean	7.34e-15
Median	0.013205
Maximum	0.684346
Minimum	-0.734536
Std. Dev.	0.337128
Skewness	-0.160230
Kurtosis	2.585819
Jarque-Bera	0.354227
Probability	0.837685

APPENDIX E: SERIAL CORRELATION TEST

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:

F-statistic	1.135663	Prob. F(2,20)	0.3411
Obs*R-squared	3.161515	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.2058

Test Equation:

Dependent Variable: RESID

Method: Least Squares

Date: 10/13/17 Time: 12:02

Sample: 1986 2016

Included observations: 31

Presample missing value lagged residuals set to zero.

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP	-0.182430	0.421865	-0.432437	0.6701
UR	-0.089046	0.244966	-0.363501	0.7200
INFR	0.009588	0.139942	0.068514	0.9461
GEXP	0.124895	0.491499	0.254111	0.8020
EXGR	-0.177763	0.368157	-0.482846	0.6344
INTR	-0.313664	0.472466	-0.663887	0.5143
POP	1.948851	3.370518	0.578205	0.5696
OPEN	0.253042	0.449292	0.563202	0.5796
C	-34.73843	60.36001	-0.575521	0.5714
RESID(-1)	-0.464422	0.321572	-1.444222	0.1642
RESID(-2)	-0.146062	0.296916	-0.491932	0.6281

R-squared	0.101984	Mean dependent var	7.34E-15
Adjusted R-squared	-0.347023	S.D. dependent var	0.337128
S.E. of regression	0.391275	Akaike info criterion	1.232610
Sum squared resid	3.061920	Schwarz criterion	1.741444
Log likelihood	-8.105449	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.398477
F-statistic	0.227133	Durbin-Watson stat	2.017982
Prob(F-statistic)	0.989977		

APPENDIX E: ARCH LM TEST FOR HETEROSCEDASTICITY

Heteroskedasticity Test: ARCH

F-statistic	0.026462	Prob. F(1,28)	0.8719
Obs*R-squared	0.028326	Prob. Chi-Square(1)	0.8663

Test Equation:

Dependent Variable: RESID^2

Method: Least Squares

Date: 10/13/17 Time: 12:03

Sample (adjusted): 1987 2016

Included observations: 30 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.116300	0.033939	3.426767	0.0019
RESID^2(-1)	-0.030719	0.188836	-0.162673	0.8719
R-squared	0.000944	Mean dependent var		0.112836
Adjusted R-squared	-0.034736	S.D. dependent var		0.142294
S.E. of regression	0.144745	Akaike info criterion		-0.963352
Sum squared resid	0.586628	Schwarz criterion		-0.869939
Log likelihood	16.45028	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-0.933468
F-statistic	0.026462	Durbin-Watson stat		1.940832
Prob(F-statistic)	0.871944			

APPENDIX F: LINEARITY TEST

Ramsey RESET Test
 Equation: UNTITLED
 Specification: FDI GDP UR INFR GEXP EXGR INTR POP OPEN C
 Omitted Variables: Squares of fitted values

	Value	df	Probability
t-statistic	0.734038	21	0.4710
F-statistic	0.538811	(1, 21)	0.4710
Likelihood ratio	0.785356	1	0.3755

F-test summary:

	Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Squares
Test SSR	0.085295	1	0.085295
Restricted SSR	3.409652	22	0.154984
Unrestricted SSR	3.324356	21	0.158303

LR test summary:

	Value	df
Restricted LogL	-9.772749	22
Unrestricted LogL	-9.380072	21

Unrestricted Test Equation:

Dependent Variable: FDI
 Method: Least Squares
 Date: 10/13/17 Time: 12:04
 Sample: 1986 2016
 Included observations: 31

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
GDP	2.556035	4.510055	0.566741	0.5769
UR	0.120355	0.333371	0.361024	0.7217
INFR	-1.246641	2.224169	-0.560497	0.5811
GEXP	-0.905794	1.665060	-0.544001	0.5922
EXGR	1.452501	2.560323	0.567312	0.5765
INTR	0.452007	0.887080	0.509545	0.6157
POP	-39.53323	69.80540	-0.566335	0.5772
OPEN	-2.798853	5.034619	-0.555922	0.5841
C	703.2534	1223.111	0.574971	0.5714
FITTED^2	0.100200	0.136506	0.734038	0.4710

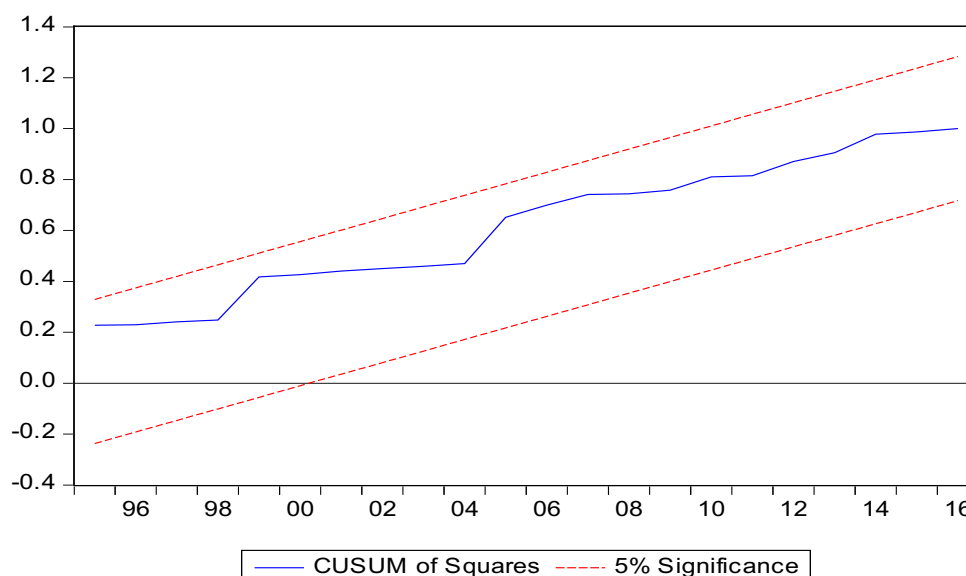
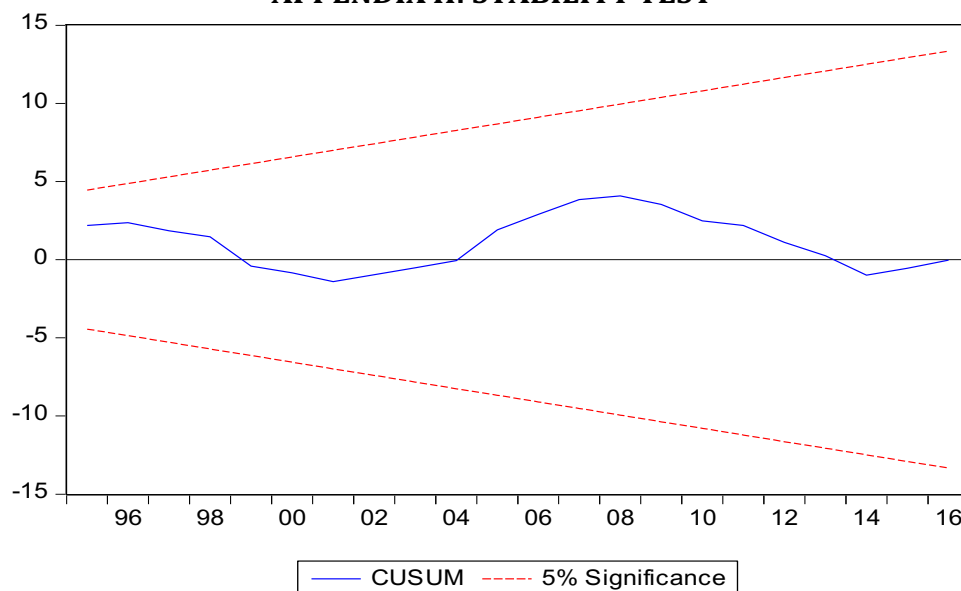
R-squared	0.907063	Mean dependent var	21.51151
Adjusted R-squared	0.867233	S.D. dependent var	1.091941
S.E. of regression	0.397873	Akaike info criterion	1.250327
Sum squared resid	3.324356	Schwarz criterion	1.712904
Log likelihood	-9.380072	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.401116
F-statistic	22.77330	Durbin-Watson stat	2.430642
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

APPENDIX G: MULTICOLLEARITY TEST

Variance Inflation Factors
 Date: 10/13/17 Time: 12:00
 Sample: 1986 2016
 Included observations: 31

Variable	Coefficient Variance	Uncentered VIF	Centered VIF
GDP	0.162956	2592.725	127.6989
UR	0.056182	62.24596	7.646469
INFR	0.018580	29.38989	1.997078
GEXP	0.220789	1986.383	146.5137
EXGR	0.092596	313.1809	34.29126
INTR	0.168065	327.5990	1.376470
POP	9.678778	673855.6	101.8765
OPEN	0.151047	471.0293	3.094042
C	3103.468	620757.1	NA

APPENDIX H: STABILITY TEST



Risk Analysis of the Newsvendor Problem Based On Steady Risk Preference

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ABSTRACT

A new risk measurement method was used in this paper to analyze the risk of newsvendor problem. Through the study we found for the action of same order quantity decision, risk values of the action are different for decision makers who have different risk preference. For the same order quantity risk value of high profit product is always lower the low profit product. With increase of order quantity the increment of risk value will first decrease and then increase.

Keywords: newsvendor problem, risk measurement, steady risk preference

INTRODUCTION

As a fundamental problem in stochastic inventory control, the newsvendor problem has been studied for a long time and applied in a broad array of business settings. In the newsvendor problem a decision maker need to decide how many goods to order before a one period selling season with stochastic demand. If too much is ordered, stock is left over the end of the period, whereas if too little is ordered, sales are lost. In choosing an order quantity the newsvendor must balance the costs of ordering too little against the costs of ordering too much. Traditionally, risk-neutral decision makers are considered to either maximizing the expected profit or minimizing the expected cost. However, modern supply chains are become much more complex than ever. What concerns supply chain managers most is not the profit but the risk of their firms. So the assumption of risk-neutrality seems to be inadequate for contemporary supply chain management. And there are a number of papers devoted to the study of risk analysis in newsvendor models. We review some of them as follows.

Traditionally, the von Neumann-Morgenstern utility (UT) approach and the mean-variance (MV) approach are two well-known decision methodologies for studying problems with risk concerns.

To reflect the newsvendor's risk attitude, many researchers have adopted the utility function approach in their analysis. Representative papers in this area include [1][2][3]. Atkinson [1] studies the incentive issue in the newsvendor problem. He finds that a risk-averse manager will order a smaller quantity compared with the risk-neutral manager, and a delegation scheme which can improve the situation is proposed. In [2], the maximization of the von Neumann-Morgenstern's expected utility is discussed, and the optimal solution can only be solved via a numerical search. Eeckhoudt et al. [3] focus on the effects of risk and risk aversion in the newsvendor model when risk is measured by expected utility functions. In particular, they determine comparative-static (i.e., a qualitative sensitivity analysis) effects of changes in the various price and cost parameters in the risk aversion setting.

The MV formulation was proposed by Markowitz [4]. Under the MV formulation, the payoff of the investment is quantified by expected return and the risk is quantified by the variance of return. Instead of optimizing the expected cost/expected profit for the newsvendor problem, Lau[1] investigates the optimal stocking problem which maximizes an objective function of the expected profit and standard deviation of profit. Chen and Federgruen [5] first model a quadratic utility function for the risk-averse decision maker and then construct an MV efficient frontier. Choi *et al.* [6] carry out a mean-variance analysis of the newsvendor problem. They constructed analytical models and reveal the problem's structural properties, and proposed the solution schemes which help to identify the optimal solutions. Jun Wu *et al.* [7] studied the risk-averse newsvendor model with a MV objective function. They found that stockout cost has a significant impact on the newsvendor's optimal ordering decisions.

The UT approach is precise, but its application is limited, owing to the difficulty in assessing the utility function for decision maker in practice. MV theory measure the risk as it is purely objective event and have no relationship with actor's subjective behavior.

In this paper, we will use a new risk measurement method proposed by Jiang [8] to research the traditional newsboy problem. This method can build a relationship between subjective attitude of actor and the objective risk, and can incorporate different risk preference include risk-neutral, risk-aversion and risk-seeking. By this method we can measure the risk for different risk preference decision makers. And so try to find the reason of the experimental finding by Schweitzer and Cachon[8]. They describe two experiments that investigate newsvendor decisions across different profit conditions. Results from these studies demonstrate that choices systematically deviate from those that maximize expected profit. Subjects order too few for high-profit products and too many of low-profit products.

To be specific, we first discuss the characteristic of risk and risk preference, and the risk measurement formulation is given in Section 2. The review of the newsvendor problem and the risk express of newsvendor is given in Section 3. In Section 4, we study the newsvendor problem which described in [9] use the new formulation. Conclusions are given in section 5.

RISK PREFERENCE AND RISK MEASUREMENT

Characteristics of risk

Risk has three exceptional characteristics. One is subordinative, any risks have definite actor and happened in the action with explicit target of interest. Different actors may take different action for same event, so to get different targets. Second is harmful, the potential loss that lead by risk may threaten the actor. Third is associative, any risks that subordinate to some actions may threaten the actor and quite contrary to the target of actions. So risk has inherent relationship with subjective behavior of the actors.

When we describe risk there are 5 essentials should be involved. They are: action, actor, benefit, possible loss, harm. Action and actor are subjective elements. Benefit and possible loss are objective elements. Harm is the effect of subjective element on objective elements, it is also the subject of risk measurement. "Benefit" is the target of actions taken by actors, it can be indicated by currency gains, denoted by w . The probability of benefit is p . "Possible loss" is the certain quantity of monetary loss, denoted by l . The probability of possible loss is $1-p$. Benefit and possible loss are complement with each other. The risk of action p is defined as follows:

$$R(p) \sim [l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n; w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m] \quad (1)$$

where p_i is the probability of loss l_i , w_i is the probability of benefit w_i . For the complementary of possible loss and benefit, $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i + \sum_{i=1}^m w_i = 1$

l_i in formula (1) corresponding to loss, we call it "common risk". w_i in formula (1) corresponding to benefit, we call it "speculative risk". Avoid common risk and chase speculative risk is the most important psychological characteristic of actors.

Risk preference characteristic

According to standard gambling proposed by von-Neumann-Morgenstern [10], we call binomial distribution $[x, a, y]$ a gambling. x and y are two possible results. a is the probability of x , so probability of x is $1 - a$, $0 \leq a \leq 1$. $x < y$, and $x, y \in X$, X is subset of positive real numbers $[0, +\infty)$. The preference of decision maker to uncertainty depend on the value assess of gambling $[x, a, y]$, we call it equivalent of gambling, denoted by $[x, a, y] \sim$, the relationship of $[x, a, y]$ is follows:

$$[x, a, y] \sim [x, a, y] \quad (2)$$

We call formula (2) as no difference formula. It is apparently that $x < y$. Decision makers must trade off repeatedly, and different risk preference will has different a .

Definition 1: If decision maker's wealth level w has changed, and his risk preference remains the same, that is for all $[x, a, y] \in [0, +\infty)$, we have $[x, a, y] + w \sim [x, a, y] + w$, then the following relationship exist:

$$[x, a, y] \sim [x, a, y] + w \Leftrightarrow [x, a, y] + w \sim [x, a, y] + w \quad (3)$$

We call such kind of decision maker had steady risk preference. This paper will focus on steady risk preference actor.

Risk preference can be identified by the value of a . According to [11], there are 3 types of risk preference in the steady risk preference category. We define the risk preference of common risk and speculative risk separately.

Definition 2: Common risk preference

If x, y denote 2 different loss results, then the equivalent of gambling is loss equivalent. Decision maker assess the no difference formula. If $a < E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is risk aversion. If $a = E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is risk neutral. If $a > E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is risk seeking. Where $E[x, a, y]$ is the mathematical expectation of $[x, a, y]$, that is $(1 - a)x + ay$.

Definition 3: Speculative risk preference

If x, y denote 2 different income results, then the equivalent of gambling is speculative equivalent. Decision maker assess the no difference formula. If $a < E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is speculation prudent. If $a = E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is speculation neutral. If $a > E[x, a, y]$, we call decision maker is speculation seeking. Where $E[x, a, y]$ is the mathematical expectation of $[x, a, y]$, that is $(1 - a)x + ay$.

Make μ denotes the equivalent of loss distribution, and ν denotes the equivalent of income distribution. According to the above definitions, for different risk preference decision maker, for standard gambling $[0, 1/2, 1]$, the characteristic of equivalents are as table 1.

Table 1 Equivalents of gambling[0, 1/2, 1]

	Risk neutral, speculation neutral	Risk aversion, prudent	Risk aversion, seeking	Risk seeking, speculation seeking	Risk seeking, speculation prudent
θ	=0.5	<0.5	<0.5	>0.5	>0.5
η	=0.5	<0.5	>0.5	>0.5	<0.5

Risk measurement

For a risk $p=[l_i, w_j], i=1, \dots, n, j=1, \dots, m$, common risk will bring loss, and speculate risk will bring benefit, and benefit equals to negative loss. So in the expression of risk, w_j is negative. If decision maker is steady risk preference, then the measurement formulation of risk p is as follows [8].

$$R(p) = \frac{(1 - \alpha) \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_i)}{(1 - \alpha) \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_i) + (1 - \beta) \prod_{j=1}^m (1 - y_j)} \tag{4}$$

Let $O_0 = \min_{i=1, \dots, n, j=1, \dots, m} (l_i, w_j)$, $O_* = \max_{i=1, \dots, n, j=1, \dots, m} (l_i, w_j)$

the standard value of l_i and w_j is x_i, y_j separately then

$$x_i = \frac{l_i - O_0}{O_* - O_0}, i = 1, \dots, n \tag{5}$$

$$y_j = \frac{w_j - O_0}{O_* - O_0}, j = 1, \dots, m \tag{6}$$

$$\alpha = \prod_{i=1}^n x_i \tag{7}$$

$$\beta = \prod_{j=1}^m y_j \tag{8}$$

The level of common risk preference and speculative risk preference of decision maker can be decided by two standard no difference formulas

$$[0, \alpha] \sim [1, \beta] \tag{9}$$

$$[0, \beta] \sim [1, \alpha] \tag{10}$$

Solve the equations

$$(1 - \alpha) = 0 \tag{11}$$

$$(1 - \beta) = 0 \tag{12}$$

we get two non 1 roots. The root of (11) is α_1 , the root of (12) is α_2 .

If p is has continuous distribution, and the For the risk measurement of continuous distribution p and probability density function is $f(t)$, then the measurement formulation of risk p is as follows:

$$R(p) = \frac{(1 - \alpha) \int_0^1 f(t) dt}{(1 - \alpha) \int_0^1 f(t) dt + (1 - \beta) \int_0^1 f(t) dt} \tag{13}$$

where $\int_{-1}^0 f(t)dt$, $\int_0^+ f(t)dt$, for other parameters are the same with discrete distribution.

NEWSVENDOR MODEL

Basic newsvendor model

In the classical single-period single-item newsvendor problem, a newsvendor orders a certain amount of newspaper from his supplier with a unit ordering cost c . The newspaper is sold with a unit revenue r , where $r > c$. The unsold newspaper has a unit value v which is defined as the unit salvage value minus the unit holding cost. To avoid trivial cases, we have $v < c$. The overage cost c_0 , i.e. cost per unit for a remaining inventory at the end of period is $c - v$. The underage cost c_u , i.e. the cost per unit for unsatisfied period demand is $r - c$.

The newspaper's demand D is uncertain and follows a certain distribution with a known probability density function $f(x)$ and cumulative distribution function $F(x)$. Before the day starts, the newsvendor, as the decision maker in the newsvendor problem needs to determine the order quantity of the newspaper. The order quantity is represented by q , and it is the decision variable in the newsvendor problem. With all these details, we can derive the expressions for the profit $P(q)$, expected profit $EP(q)$, as follows:

$$P(q) = (r - v) \min(q, D) - (c - v)q \quad (14)$$

$$EP(q) = (r - c)q - (r - v) \int_0^q F(x)dx \quad (15)$$

In the classical newsvendor model the optimal order quantity q^* is derived by maximizing the expected profit $EP(q)$. The optimality condition is given by

$$F(q^*) = \frac{r - c}{r - v} \quad (16)$$

Risk Expression of Newsvendor Problem

Newsvendor is the actor of the action of newspaper order decision. Order action will both bring loss and benefit with some probability. We should first express the risk of order action as formula (1).

Assume order number is q , and demand is x . If $q > x$, then there is purely benefit, without loss. If $q < x$, then the income is $c_u \cdot x$, loss is $c_0 \cdot (q - x)$. If income > loss then when demand is x , the result of order q decision is benefit. If income < loss when demand is x , the result of order q decision is benefit. For each q , we can find a demand b to make income = loss, call demand b as balance point.

$$b = \frac{c_0 \cdot q}{c_u + c_0} \quad (17)$$

Risk of order decision can be expressed in 3 pieces. The first piece is about loss. The probability density function of this piece is $f(x), x \in (-\infty, b)$, and loss is $c_0(q - x) - C_u x$. The second piece is about benefit. The probability density function of this piece is $f(x), x \in [b, q]$, and benefit is $C_0(q - x) + C_u x$, i.e. negative loss. The third piece is also about benefit. The probability of this piece is $\int_q^+ f(x)dx$, and benefit is $C_u q$, i.e. negative loss.

The risk of action of order q newspapers can be expressed as

$$R(q) \sim [f(x), C_0(q-x) \underset{(b)}{C_a x}; f(x), C_a x + C_0(q-x); \int_q^+ f(x) dx, C_a q] \quad (18)$$

CONCLUSION

We use a new risk measurement method to study the risk of newsvendor problem in this paper. This method helps us to build a relationship between subjective attitude of actor and the objective risk. We can analyze all kind of risk attitude. We get some finding by our study. And the most interesting one is the third one, That is change of $\Delta R(q)$ coincide with the phenomena in [9]. But we can't give further explanation from such as behavior or psychology aspect.

One problem of use this method in practice is how to judge risk preference of decision maker. From the perspective of psychological measurement, the process of get equivalent of gambling is a heuristics process. We should chose suitable gambling and point estimate method to assess .

This paper focuses on steady risk preference, and in practice many decision makers may have variable risk preference. It may be a new research direction.

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Promoting African Languages and Culture through Service Learning in the USA

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ABSTRACT

This study shows the relevance and prominence of Swahili language and culture in America. It underscores the nature, presence and relevance of African languages in America. Through Service learning approach, Swahili students, guided by their teachers offered Swahili language and culture lessons to the elderly in one of the counties in Georgia for 6 weeks. Data seem to suggest that the elderly were surprised at the presence of Swahili in their first language and its prominence in American social media; they appreciated various aspects of African culture, namely- Africans' respect of the elderly, greeting one another, and the versatile nature of African clothes. The elderly showed great interest in learning more about Swahili language and culture. The author calls on other Africanists to find ways to educate the American public about African languages and culture. Teaching implications include the need for teachers to be intentional and strategic about finding ways to use language and culture courses as panacea for promoting minority languages and cultures around the world.

Key words: Service Learning; African languages, culture, Swahili.

INTRODUCTION

As the world becomes increasingly integrated, major languages such as French and Spanish continue to be preferred and thus offered in most American higher learning institutions because of their relevance locally and internationally. Likewise, American citizens are progressively learning the afore-mentioned languages and cultures. African languages and cultures find themselves competing to be relevant and of value in the American public. Thus, this study sought to educate the American public about the relevance and prominence of Swahili language and culture in America through a service learning approach.

Service Learning (SL), also known as Community Engagement (CE) has several definitions but all center on the idea of students applying academic skills and knowledge to deal with a problem, an issue or a need in a specific community while enhancing their learning. The National Service Learning Clearinghouse defines it as "a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities." While community service allows people to offer any needed service in communities, service learning connects what students are learning to address genuine needs in their nearby community (Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000). In this article, I use Bringle and Hatcher's (1995) definition of academic service-learning as "a course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility (p. 112). As students gain knowledge in various areas and apply it in real

situations, they gain real-life skills to solve problems while developing leadership skills in addition to becoming committed to civic participation (Furco & Root, 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Service learning (SL) is built on the idea that learning occurs best when students are actively involved in their own learning and when the learning has a distinct purpose (Billig, 2000). Thus, many studies across various disciplines and contexts attest to higher academic achievement through SL (Clayton, Bringle, & Hatcher, 2013; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001). For instance, Warren (2012)' meta-analysis of 11 research studies found student learning outcomes were significantly impacted in many areas with an overall effect size of $d = .332$. In their research study, Jameson, Clayton, and Ash (2013) found that service learning resulted in students' having higher order thinking skills, application of knowledge, and critical thinking. Also, the Association of American Colleges and Universities tout service-learning as one of the "high-impact educational practices" consistently producing positive student learning outcomes (Eyler, Giles & Braxton, 1997, Brownell & Swaner, 2010; Kuh, 2008). Lockeman and Pelco (2013) also note a higher level of degree completion for students engaged in service learning than their peers who didn't have a similar coursework. Additionally, students see a greater connection to the coursework, gain a sense of community with their classmates while also building a different way of relating with their teachers (Brownell & Swaner, 2010). Even more, SL "builds their self-confidence and develops a sense of empowering" (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Wulsin, 2008).

Other studies also attest to the experiential benefit of service-learning that often result in employment. For example, Duncan and Taylor (2013) note: In a world of inflated grades and the consequent academic excellence of so many graduates, graduate schools and businesses are beginning to examine other qualifications of their applicants. Many rate "service" to the community high on the list of what separates the average applicant from the superior one not only [due] to the commitment it requires but also the skills it can produce that are frequently not acquired in a classroom (p. 3).

Along with academic learning outcomes, much research has established positive effects of SL including enhanced moral reasoning and personal identity development (Clayton, Bringle, & Hatcher, 2013; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Other benefits include greater sense of personal identity, interpersonal development, particularly the capability to work well with others and develop leadership and communication skills. Service learning also results in students gaining greater inter-cultural understanding that enhance their perceptions and relationships with people around the world (Clayton, Bringle, & Hatcher, 2013).

Some studies show benefits of service learning to communities. Balciene and Mazeiklene indicate that community enjoyed the help received, appreciated cooperation with those involved in offering service and were grateful for the emotional support (2008). Sherraden and researchers listed intercultural competence, international knowledge, tangible resources, capacity building, tolerance, and global engagement as host community outcomes (2013). However, a gap still exists in literature regarding the benefits of Service-Learning for community members (Harrington, 2014).

This study sought to underscore ways in which Swahili students worked with their teachers as agents of change in their school community to bring awareness of the meaning, value, relevance and presence of Swahili in America. This article shows the impact of students' service to the elderly- the participants in this study.

METHOD

Participants and Context

The study took place at one University community located in the Northeastern part of the United States of America. The community has people from various parts of the USA but also hosts people from many parts of the world because it is known to be a great place for retirement. This project involved 12 participants, 3 male and 9 females from the Community Center on Aging (CCA) whose ages ranged from 53 years old to 78 years of age. All of them were literate but with various levels of education- some graduated from high school only while some had a four-year college degree. About four of them had a master's degree while two retired from professions that required a terminal degree. Seven of them had extended families living within the community and six of them had at least two grandchildren. Two participants had health challenges that limited their mobility while the rest were active and able to engage in simple activities requiring body movement.

Five university students also participated- one male and the rest were females who worked with one Swahili instructor and one teaching assistant. The students were in their fourth level of Swahili class having completed three previous Swahili courses. The five students also had flexible schedules that allowed them to participate fully in the program while the rest of the students enrolled in the same course did other projects agreeable with their class schedule. All students were eager and excited to be a part of the program.

Procedure

Like other educational approaches and strategies, Service-learning aligns curriculum with specific educational goals and objectives. According to Shelley Billig (2011), SL has six elements that guide and facilitate students' learning leading to positive outcomes. Such elements reflect an action plan that starts with investigation, planning, action, reflection, demonstration and ends with celebration. This project implemented all six elements as steps toward enhancing students' Swahili language and culture skills while allowing them to be agents of change in educating their fellow Americans the Swahili language and culture.

Investigation means exploring and examining the need, context and participants. For this project, this first step involved the Swahili instructor reaching out to various populations within university community to identify possible participants for the program. Upon various correspondence with elementary schools, middle schools, high schools and centers for the aging, it became apparent that the first group would be the elderly. Thus, the instructor proceeded to communicate with the center for the aging to find out whether most of the elderly at that center knew anything about Swahili and if not, whether they would be interested in learning about it. Preliminary correspondence targeted the director of the center through emails and phone calls. Upon a positive response to the need for the project, visitation to the center and learning the proper procedures, rules, suitable times and possible setting were established. Also, students were asked to research at least three community centers for the elderly, visit each of them in groups and prepare a brief report on one they would be interested in visiting further. As in most SL programs, this stage gave students the opportunity to do research, create surveys about their target community's knowledge about Swahili, analyze data, and observe behaviors to find an issue that they can address in bringing global cultural awareness in their university community. This stage also allowed them to take on leadership roles within the classroom while advancing their communication and team-building skills.

Planning was the second stage taken to identify roles that the instructor would need to play regarding advertising the program and obtaining permission both from the Universtiy

institution as well as the center for the aging. This stage also identified location for classes, time and frequency of the meetings. Such information was included in various advertisements including flyers, Facebook postings, emails and twitter accounts associated with the center. A preliminary visit to the center was made by the instructor and students to establish setting, use of media, group assignments and present an overview of the program. This visit was also another way to advertise the program and allow questions, wonderings and other issues that may have been overlooked.

Once participants registered, the instructor and students made transportation arrangements, agreed on topics for each session and assigned roles during each of the visits. Topics were identified based on observations and findings during the investigation stage. The Swahili students also had to undergo a special training regarding ways to interact with the elderly, possible issues to consider- such as making sure they speak loud and clear because most of the elderly have hearing challenges. Each of the students had to pass a background check. A survey of participants' knowledge of the Swahili language and culture (table 1) was prepared and taken to the center prior to the first instructional session.

Table 1: CCA Participants' knowledge-survey before participation in the program

Questions and common responses	
1.	Do you know anything about Swahili? <i>It's a click language, I think it's hard, not sure really, I don't know, never heard of it</i>
-	Do you know where Swahili is spoken? List countries or part of continent. <i>Somewhere in Africa, Ethiopia maybe. I think South Africa. Congo, maybe Ghana and Nigeria.</i>
-	Its prominence in the USA - <i>Nothing that I know really, nope</i>
-	Its significance in the United Nations? - <i>I think Spanish and French is in the UN but I never hear of Swahili being there, well I don't know.</i>
2.	What Swahili cultural aspects do you know? (i.e, clothing, common food, respect/value for the elderly, inter-dependence, popular songs etc- list anything you know).
i.	<i>I heard somebody said a song was sang in Swahili during the FIFA World Cup in South Africa, Mufasa? No, not much really, I know they are really happy and nice people- that's what many Africans are, that's it really.</i>
3.	Why did you enroll in the class? <i>Sounds interesting. To learn something different. I like learning new things. I never learned other languages you know, I just want to hear something different. I like to learn just about anything. I was intrigued about it in the promo session</i>

The surveys were given and recorded accordingly. The next step was action. This stage signaled the onset of the program whereby language and culture sessions began. This is when students became mediators of change in their community. They were given the power and opportunity to make a difference and see a practical connection between what they are learning and the real-world. Working with their teacher, students designed four 20minute-sessions that they offered once a week for four weeks. The first session focused on introduction to Swahili: giving relevance of Swahili in America. The session underscored some Swahili words found in English, such as Simba, Rafiki, mama etc. Other connections to the American culture included fashion- the use Vitenge/Kanga/Vikoi fabrics worn by several American celebrities as well as food items such as Chai found in many grocery stores and Starbucks coffee shops.

The second session was twofold: it covered historical/political/geographical information about the Swahili such as where Swahili is spoken. The session also taught participants greetings in Swahili. Participants learned not only how to greet each other in simple Swahili but also learned the role of greetings within the Swahili culture, with special emphasis to "Shikamoo" "Marahaba" as a special greeting with various historical backgrounds but one that the Swahili

use to show respect to the elderly. In the third session, participants learned to introduce themselves and a few common phrases such as how to say thank you, goodbye and please. Session four covered the Swahili names for the big five animals and numbers 1-10. There was a separate session dedicated to Swahili fashion whereby Swahili students did a fashion show to demonstrate ways in which Kanga and Vitenge are used in Swahili-speaking countries and how they can be used in the US. Some Chai and Maandazi were also brought to give participants a taste of Swahili food. This was also the session whereby participants were given another survey of their Swahili knowledge after participating in the program (table 2).

Table 2: CCA knowledge-survey after participation in the program

1. What do you know about Swahili?
2. Do you know where Swahili is spoken? List countries or part of continent.
 - Its prominence in the USA
 - Its significance in the United Nations?
3. What Swahili cultural aspects do you know? (i.e, clothing, common food, respect/value for the elderly, inter-dependence, popular songs etc- list anything you know).
4. Did you like this program? If so, what did you enjoy the most?
5. Would you like to participate in this program if offered again in the future? If yes, what issues, topics would you request?
6. Would you recommend this program to your friends?

Reflection was the next implementation element. Students from the university, the elderly from CCA and instructors reflected on the program. This paper focuses on reflections made by participants from the CCA center based on their answers to questions 1 through 6 of the post-program survey (table 2). Although students who taught the CCA participants also reflected on the program, their reflections are shared in another article. I use the CCA participants' reflections to illustrate ways in which this project developed a sense of global awareness that became clear after their participation in the project. By analyzing aspects that the CCA participants found to be "more enjoyable" and examining reasons behind such choices, I was able to underscore key findings in this study. Also, by looking at specific facts that the CCA participants were able to recall at the end of the program, I could see the consequences of taking actions to educate the American public about minority languages and culture.

The last two elements of service-learning involved demonstration and celebration. Students from the university demonstrated their learning by analyzing the implication behind responses given by the CCA participants to the post-program survey questions. Students presented their findings in front of their Swahili class. One group decided to make a follow-up action plan based on responses for question 5 in the post-program survey. Celebration was the final step. Students and teachers arranged to meet the CCA participants briefly. This celebration session culminated with the giving of Kanga fabrics to each participant as their certificate of participation. The celebration session reconnected students to the community and a group photo was also taken but not included in this paper to preserve CCA participants' privacy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data seems to suggest that there was a positive impact of the program to most participants. The impact is examined based on responses given in the post-program survey (table 2).

Table 3: Impact of Program

Qtn #	# responses	Common Responses
1	11	It's a language, culture, good, it is fun, has Simba in it, Rafiki, safari, mama, chai, Tanzania, shikamoo, ndiyo, asantee, kwaheeri, jambo bwana, mimi Asha, kanga, sounds a lot like English, no funny letters:) Can't believe there is so much Swahili in English, the US Navy sang a Swahili song, movies and some American shows use Swahili words
2	10	Kenya, Tanzana, Uganda, East Africa, Africa, UN uses Swahili, Tanzania, where you are from, in the Serengeti country, Maasai
3	12	Shikamoo, I say marahaba- a good thing, they respect us elders, mandazi, simama/kaa song, jambo bwana, Vitenge, you can use Kanga to carry a baby
4	12	Yes- 12; I liked the simama/kaa song, shikamoo, fashion show, photos of East Africa and the animals, I liked singing, counting, greetings, respect for us, loved to talk to the students- they were so sweet like my grandchildren
5	10	Yes, anything is fine. I like to learn more about spices; cultural aspects, I need to practice greetings, I want to learn more, can we go there? I like your shoes- are those Swahili too? More songs, I want African dance. I really liked the Kangas and I want to order some. I wish we learned more about African clothing and other cultural aspects like how to cook certain foods
6	12	Absolutely, yes of course, yes. Yes indeed. This is so unique; I will tell my friends. I feel so good to know this, yes, I will tell them.

By analyzing the data, three findings emerged. First, participants were surprised about Swahili's presence in their language and culture. Second, they appreciated various aspects of the Swahili culture. Third, they showed interest towards a minority culture.

Participants were surprised about Swahili's presence in their language and culture

Data seems to suggest that participants were surprised at the presence of Swahili in their language and culture: particularly social media and food. More specifically, when asked, "Do you know anything about Swahili? prior to taking Swahili language and culture (SLC) lessons, participants responded as followed: It's a click language, I think it's hard, not sure really, I don't know, never heard of it (see table 1). In fact, five out of twelve said "never really heard of it" while three of them said "not sure really". One thought it is a click language while two of them just thought it was hard. Clearly, they hardly knew anything about Swahili. After participating in the program, eleven participants out of twelve gave very specific answers to that question. Their answers were a recollection of the words and things they learned. Each participant listed at least one word they knew.

After collecting the surveys, the Swahili teacher held a brief meeting with participants to give them an opportunity to add anything to their written responses. This was done intentionally because some of them couldn't write fast and had trouble seeing clearly. In that meeting, all participants commented on the fact that they knew some of the words they wrote in their survey responses prior to taking the SLC lessons but were not aware that those words were in Swahili. Taking SLC lessons helped them connect the presence of the Swahili language to English- a language they already spoke. For example, almost everyone said that they couldn't believe that "Simba and rafiki" are Swahili words as well as "hakuna matata." Many of them started identifying Swahili words in popular songs such as "Malaika" which means angel while

others couldn't believe that Swahili has become so significant in America that the US Navy sang a song called "baba yetu" in Swahili which means "our father" (see table 3).

One participant recalled her astonishment when she found that Starbucks sells Chai and they sell some coffee labeled "katikati"- a Swahili word which means "in the middle," used with Starbucks to denote "medium" coffee. Also, two participants who like to drink tea said that they have been buying chai tea from Walmart, Kroger, and Bells outlet stores in their city. In fact, one of them said that he couldn't believe that there are several Swahili food items right here in America. He said that he bought a box of chai tea bags from Bells outlet made from Kilimanjaro Tanzania. He didn't know what "Kilimanjaro" was but the SLC lessons helped him see that Swahili has been a part of his life all along. These statements are a testament that the participants in this study may be a good representation of other elderly in American with limited knowledge of the presence of Swahili in America. The study shows that it takes very little effort to open people's eyes and enlighten their minds of an African language and culture that is and has been a part of them for a long time.

Participants appreciated various aspects of the Swahili culture.

When asked, "What Swahili cultural aspects do you know? (i.e, clothing, common food, respect/value for the elderly, inter-dependence, popular songs etc- list anything you know- see table 1 question 3), prior to the SLC lessons, they provided the following responses:

I heard somebody said a song was sang in Swahili during the FIFA World Cup in South Africa, Mufasa?

No, not much really,

I know they are very happy and nice people- that's what many Africans are, that's it really

Their responses indicate a shallow knowledge of the Swahili culture. Notice, they only mentioned broad ideas of the language although the question wasn't addressing the Swahili language at all. One person seemed to recall a Swahili song. That individual couldn't specify the name of the song itself, but he seemed to remember that he heard the song when the FIFA World Cup was hosted in South Africa. Another participant simply remembered a character in the Lion king movie - Mufasa. About seven participants didn't know anything about Swahili culture. One person wrote that the Swahili people are really happy and nice people because to her, that is what many Africans seem to be. All their responses didn't address the heart of the question- meaning, no one knew anything specific about the Swahili culture.

After attending the SLC program, their answers to the same question were completely different (see table 3). They expressed very specific ideas of the Swahili culture. Their answers seem to suggest three common themes: Africans' respect of the elderly, greeting one another and the versatile nature of African clothes. First, they appreciated the Swahili's sense of respect to elders. This was well reflected in their mention of the special greeting used to show respect for elders: namely- Shikamoo -Marahaba. Four people wrote that greeting by stating: "Shikamoo, I say marahaba- a good thing." Instead of just writing the greeting itself, they tagged it with an explanation about it, "a good thing." Additionally, three people specifically noted their admiration of the fact that the Swahili seem to respect elders. Their response helps us get a sense of the emotions toward the Swahili culture. They included themselves as recipients of the Swahili cultural values by observing that the Swahili "respect *us* elders." As stated previously, their written responses were also elaborated during the follow-up meeting. In addition to mentioning Swahili food such as maandazi and chai, about three of them said that they were happy to know that the Swahili seem to be interdependent because they seek to greet each other.

Second, they listed the common greeting “jambo” but attached “bwana” with it. When asked why they didn’t just write the greeting word “jambo” by itself, they each felt that “bwana” to them communicated a sense of connection that is not captured by the English word “sir”. Third, all female participants listed the Swahili’s clothing items namely, Vitenge and Kanga. During discussion time, they each spoke so fondly of the idea of using a piece of cloth to send a message because each “Kanga”- a piece of cloth, has a written message. The Swahili use the Kangas like Americans use greeting cards for various occasions. In addition, the Swahili use “Vitenge”- larger piece of African fabric to carry babies on their back. Some women use such pieces of cloth as aprons, table cloths or wraps to keep themselves warm. Participants admired such clothing and wished they had something like that in America.

Participants showed interest towards a minority culture

The elderly showed great interest in learning more about the Swahili culture. They expressed this through the responses to the following questions: Did you like this program? If so, what did you enjoy the most? Would you like to participate in this program if offered again in the future? If yes, what issues, topics would you request? Would you recommend this program to your friends? All twelve participants liked the program. The following statements represent common responses: “I liked the simama/kaa song, shikamoo, fashion show, photos of East Africa and the animals, I liked singing, counting, greetings, respect for us, loved to talk to the students- they were so sweet like my grandchildren. Ten out of the twelve participants said they would like to participate in the program if offered again. They listed the following as topics of choice for future offerings:

Yes, anything is fine. I like to learn more about spices; cultural aspects, I need to practice greetings, I want to learn more, can we go there? I like your shoes- are those Swahili too? More songs, I want African dance. I really liked the Kangas and I want to order some. I wish we learned more about African clothing and other cultural aspects like how to cook certain foods

Their responses indicated a great interest to learn more about specific aspects of the Swahili culture. For example, one person expressed an interest to visit the Swahili coast, she said “can we go there? Others loved the songs and another one wanted to learn African dance. Five people expressed their desire to learn more about African clothing and food. Lastly, all of them mentioned their will to recommend the program to their friends. They wrote: “Absolutely, yes of course, yes. Yes indeed. This is so unique; I will tell my friends. I feel so good to know this, yes, I will tell them”. The specific requests are a testament of a thirst to learn more about a minority culture. Though some wanted to visit the Swahili Coast, many showed a clear desire to learn more about the Swahili culture while living in America.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

Sometimes it is easy to look at the world and wonder why things are the way they are. Many times, it is easy to believe that things just happen arbitrarily. When it comes to awakening the minds of people to know about other cultures that exist and worth studying, it is upon each one of us to do something about it. Those of us who teach African languages, literatures and culture have a responsibility to share our knowledge with other communities in which we reside. We need to be intentional about using our language and culture courses as panacea for promoting our languages and cultures around the world. Change doesn’t happen overnight; it takes time. It may take a long time before many people in the United States of America know Swahili language and culture but educating one community at a time plants a seed that will spread and grow.

CONCLUSION

The rainbow is only beautiful because of its various colors. The world today begs for more colors of cultures to make it more beautiful. We see dominant cultures continuing to shape

ways in which people see the world without realizing that minority cultures still have a role to play. No language or culture is too minor and insignificant. Each language and culture brings something different and unique and deserves a place in the world. This study illustrates the hunger and thirst for one community to learn about another culture. This study shows that people long to relate to each other and wish to learn about varied ways of living. It underscores the need to examine how much we know about other people in the world because we end up discovering that we know something about a people that seemed so foreign to us. We discover that there is nothing to lose by learning about other people. This study is a step towards a programmatic approach to making the world a more peaceful and just society by seeking to make which seems so unfamiliar become familiar. And by doing so, as global citizens, we see ways in which each of us can add colors in the cultural rainbow. We can bring beauty in the world that more often shows darkness than light.

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Unsuccessful Support of Holism

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ABSTRACT

D. Navon's article "Forest before the trees" (1977) presented the theory of global precedence in support of philosophy of *holism*, the "primacy of the whole" principle.

In this paper it will be shown that

- 1) the *global precedence* theory is built up from undefined notions (globality, locality, feature, element, and global structure),
- 2) each notions is assigned to many meanings,
- 3) the mathematical expressions are wrong,
- 4) the transformations of the mathematical formulas are illegal,
- 5) the logic of argumentation is broken.

Despite all this Narvon's article recruited dozens of followers, inspired hundred publications in top psychological journals, and is included in many textbooks and reviews. It is mentioned at 42,000 web sites. This paper also shows why Narvon's article was widely accepted as proof of the wrong principle "The whole before the parts". This phenomenon indicates that "something is rotten in the state of Denmark".

Key words: global precedence, whole/parts relations, holism, hierarchical structure.

INTRODUCTION

Relation between the whole and the parts is an old yet eternally young problem. The classic article by D. Navon "Forest before the trees" [1] presented the *global precedence* principle, which is classified by "The Oxford Handbook of Perceptual Organization" as "an issues of part-whole relationships". The article was widely accepted as proof of the principle "The whole before the parts" despite the main statement of *global precedence* - "*Global features precede local features*"- contains neither the term whole, nor the term parts. Even in 2015 in a student's handbook one can read: "What did Navon find? We often see the forest (global structure) before the trees (features)" [2].

There are a number of reasons why the psychological community got the wrong message:

- 1) in the article the word forest was not mentioned at all, and the reader perceives the title as a general statement: **the whole before the parts**;
- 2) the ambiguity of the terms introduced in the article: global, local, feature, element, and structure. None has a definition and to each term were ascribed several meanings. As a result, the reader substitutes the obscure terms with terms well known in Gestalt theory. For example, the article "Global precedence" in Wikipedia starts not with definition of the principle, but with redefinition of the basic terms: **local features** are explained as "**parts**", and **global** features as "**the whole**".
- 3) Gestalt psychology always positioned itself as a holistic philosophy, and promoted the dominance of the whole: "For atomists parts make the whole. We perceive whole not parts" [3]. It was widely accepted that "holism is a fundamental notion of Gestalt psychology" [4].

Navon wanted to present an experimental support for the holism, the "primacy of the whole" principle, which was never well founded. It was clear that in the paradigm of hierarchical

structure the absolute dominance of the whole over the parts is impossible: "There is no claim that the whole precedes its parts; such a claim would be quite meaningless" [5]. To achieve his goal, the author constructed a new hierarchy – the globality hierarchy, and used in experiments a very special stimulus – the compound letter, which is a big letter made up of small letters.

This paper presents a short analysis of the experimental and theoretical foundations of the global precedence theory.

WERTHEIMER'S ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND STIMULI

Perception of compound stimuli was analyzed by Wertheimer as early as 1923 (see Fig.1 and Fig. 2).. In his paper Wertheimer describes the dotted lines not as "lines of dots", but as "lines" [6]. Discussing Fig.1 he wrote: "the perceived grouping is quite clearly 'a horizontal line and a vertical line' ". Right after this, Wertheimer analyses a similar example – Fig. 2A and Fig. 2B.

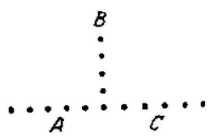


Fig. 1



Fig. 2

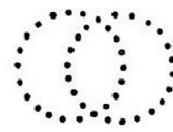
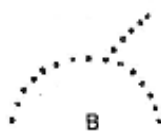


Fig. 3

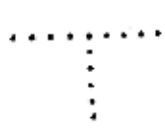


Fig. 4

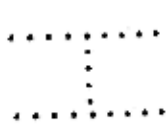


Fig. 5

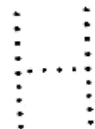


Fig. 6

His remarks on these figures were: "We are dealing now with a new principle which we may call *The Factor of Direction*. That direction may still be unequivocally given even when curved lines are used is of course obvious". It is remarkable that Wertheimer found it necessary to explain that not only straight lines but also curved lines have a direction, and at the same time he found it absolutely natural to apply the terms "line", "curve", and "direction" to Fig. 2A, which contains neither line nor curve – it contains only dots. It is obvious that at each point the arc AC on Fig. 2A has a direction but any black dot on Fig. 9B has no direction. Despite this we have no objections to Wertheimer's statement. The reason is that, according to Wertheimer, our percept of the whole (the Gestalt) of Fig. 2B consists of the same parts as our percept of Fig. 2A: "an arc and a line". Consequently, the hierarchical structure of Fig. 2A consists of whole and its parts (two lines – an arc and a straight line). For Fig. 9B the hierarchical structure has 3 levels: the whole (level 1), parts of the whole (an arc and a straight line) - level 2, and parts of the lines - separated equidistant dots (level 3).

Here is how Metzger describes a similar stimulus (Fig. 3): "The dotted pair of circles is hardly different from two regular circles. There are not forty-two dots, but rather two circles with dots on them. Gestalt laws work unchanged despite partition and interruption"

The Gestalt is always the description of parts of the whole and their spatial relations (level 2). Changes to level 3 don't disturb the Gestalt of the stimulus as long as the level 2 stays intact¹. Some particular arrangements of the parts have a name (like triangle or cross). The Fig. 4 is perceived similarly to Fig. 1 as a horizontal line and a vertical line, but in an experiment it will be reported as "T" because "T" is a symbol for two lines in this particular arrangement. In this

way Fig. 5 is perceived as three lines, and Fig. 6 is also perceived as three lines, but reported as character “H”.

How in our perception of Fig. 2B do a line and an arc appear? The answer is in the definition of Gestalt: “Gestalt is a short description of the procedure that creates the given stimulus” [7]. Fig. 2A was created as follows: the pen was moving along an arc, and then along a straight line. Fig. 2B was created similarly: the pen was moving along the arc and the straight line but **without touching the paper**, descending on the way in equal intervals (thus creating the dots). As a result we perceive these two images as the same Gestalt: “an arc and a straight line”.

NAVON’S ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND STIMULI

Navon used in experiments as visual stimulus a compound letter: big printed capital letter “H” (Fig. 7) consisting of small “S”. He found that in tachistoscopic experiments, after subjects recognize the big letter they can’t recall from which small letters (H or S) the big one was constructed. That was claimed as proof of certain Gestalt statement: “The whole is perceived first and then influences perception of parts”. Navon accepts that the perception proceeds from global analysis (perception of the whole and its parts) in more and more fine-grained analysis of the parts, subparts etc, and emphasizes the importance of low-resolution information. Consequently, the perception of the compound letter – the main experimental stimulus of the global precedence paradigm (Fig. 7) – is as follows.

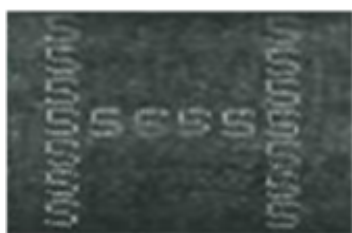


Fig. 7

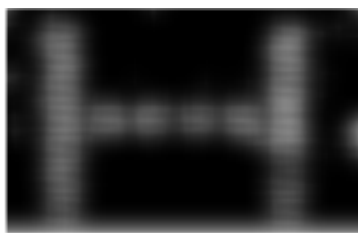


Fig. 8

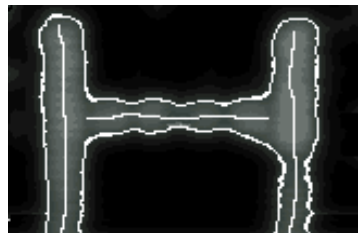


Fig. 9



Fig. 10



Fig. 11

At the first moment of perceiving the stimulus (Fig. 7), our fovea vision is focused on an arbitrary point of the stimulus. The rest of the stimulus we perceive by peripheral vision. This means that most of the image is blurred, and looks like Fig. 8.

The next step is separating figure and background (Fig. 9). The figure is recognized as a linear drawing (because of elongated shape of the spots, and approximately parallel borders) created by a pen of definite width. The percept is transformed into a one-dimensional line – the path of the centre of the pen – the trajectory. By applying the “good continuation” principle, the trajectory is perceived as three lines (three movements), and then identified as the letter “H”. So, at this moment the subject’s task (responding with the name of the letter) was resolved without knowing that the stimulus contains many small “S”. That explains why in

tachistoscopic presentation subjects have difficulties answering the question: "From which small letters is the large 'H' constructed?"

The same scenario of perception can be applied to more complicated compound stimulus, such as the portrait of the "bearded man" (Fig. 10). The image in Fig. 11 is formed by peripheral vision, and will be interpreted as a face (the whole), and the spots will be identified as parts of the face – the eyes, the mouth, the ear etc. To perceive the details (structures of the parts) one will need further observation by moving the gaze to the informative spots (the parts).

It is clear that from Navon's general model of human perception the whole and its parts are perceived at early stages of perception but recognition of the inner structure of the parts (the details) takes more time. So, it is trivial that when perceiving the compound stimulus we first perceive the whole (i.e. the parts and their particular configuration), and then we perceive the details (the subparts) – the small letters. But Navon rejected this interpretation and built a theory of *global precedence*, which (as he hoped) will bring him to a very different interpretation of the same experimental results, which will support the holistic concept – dominance of the whole.

ANALYSIS OF "GLOBAL PRECEDENCE"

Navon introduced the *global precedence* principle in 1977. The main notion of his theory is that of the **global**, which the author describes as follows: "*The globality of a visual feature corresponds to the place it occupies in the hierarchy. The nodes and arcs at the top of the hierarchy are more global than the nodes and arcs at the bottom*" [1]. One can see that in this description:

1. Because the nodes of the hierarchical structure are occupied only with parts (except the top level – the whole), it is not clear what is the *visual feature*, which also occupies a node in the hierarchy. **This term was never defined** by the author, and the natural assumption is that the *feature* means *part*, but in different parts of the article it was associated with different meanings. This opens the possibility of different interpretations of the conclusions of the theory.
2. All arcs in the hierarchical structure are identical – they present the relation of inclusion between parts and wholes from the previous level. Each arc (relation of inclusion) connects two adjusted levels, and doesn't belong to any particular level. Therefore the characteristic ***global can't be applied to an arc.***

In a 1981 article, Navon explains the term global in details. He creates the globality scale for the compound letter, making a start from a 3-level hierarchical structure of its percept: the whole (level 1), the parts (level 2), and subparts (level 3) – see right part of the Fig. 12 [5].

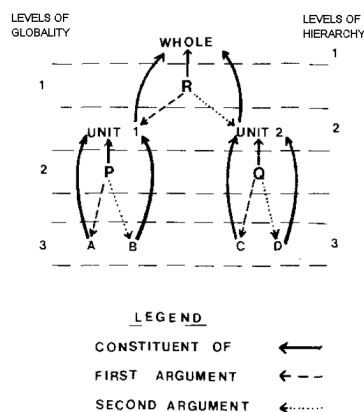


Fig. 12

For the compound letter “H” at the top will be the whole – the “H”, the second level will be occupied by its parts “two vertical lines and a horizontal one”, and level 3 is comprised of small letters “s” (subparts of three lines).

As we mentioned above in the paradigm of hierarchical structure the experiments with compound letters can produce only trivial results, and Navon decided “to rephrase (?) the logic underlying the usage of compound letters for testing global precedence” [5]. Here is how he did it following the schema in Fig. 12.

1. The main objects of perception – the whole and the parts of the whole (Unit1 and Unit2) were excluded from the globality scale. That means that the global precedence is no longer a whole-part problem.
2. The relation R between the parts of the whole (level 2) is not present in the initial hierarchical structure (which consists only of wholes, parts and relations of inclusion between the levels), and therefore couldn’t be assigned to any level of globality, which is demanded by definition of globality (see above).
3. Relations P and Q between the subparts of the whole (level 3) were separated from their arguments a, b, c, and d, and moved from level 3 to level 2. The subparts a, b, c, and d were assigned to level 3. As a result, levels 1 and 2 were populated only with phantoms, i.e. relations without arguments, and level 3 was populated only with subparts, while their parents (parts of the whole) disappear from the new structure altogether.
4. It was not specified which level in the hierarchical structure of the whole has to be identified with the local level.

All of this together shows that the notion of *globality* is poorly defined, internally contradictory, and arbitrarily constructed. Not a single conclusion based on this concept could be understood and accepted. After this the author presented the algebraic part of his theory. It starts with the statement:

“A **stimulus** is defined by its **elements** and their spatial relationship; e.g.,

$$\text{Whole} = R(\text{Unit } 1, \text{Unit } 2)", \tag{1}$$

It raises three objections:

- 1) The *whole* (an object of the psychological domain) is not a *stimulus* which is an object of the physical domain.
- 2) The *whole* is not a *relation*. The correct way to mathematically represent the meaning “is-defined-by” is to define the whole as a triplet $W\{R, \text{Unit}1, \text{Unit}2\}$.
- 3) The term *element* is not defined.

After this the author tries to get rid of the parts. The fact that the perceived whole of the compound letter doesn’t depend on which small letters were used, was presented by the expression:

$$A = R(\text{anything}, \text{anything}) = R(a, a),$$

where A is the whole, and a is a local element, i.e. a small letter. It means that the **whole** is defined not by its parts (objects of level 2) and their relationship, as was claimed in “equation” (1), but by its **elements** (small letters, objects of level 3), and **wrong** spatial relationship R, which is a relation among **parts** (objects of level 2). The desired result was achieved: after a chain of illegal operations, level 2 containing the parts of the whole was arbitrarily wiped out. Now the details from level 3 (small letters) were declared parts of the whole, and no doubt it

will be found in the experiment that they will be perceived after the whole. The global precedence paradigm is ready

Because of chaotic use of terms, the author produces many declarations of global precedence including this one: “**Features of a high-level unit precede the features of a lower-order one**”. It shows that after 30 pages of constructing the notion of *globality*, and after using the word *global* more than 200 times, the notion *global* was found by the author **to be redundant**.

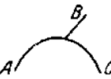
GLOBAL AND LOCAL CONTRADICTIONS

1. The general goal of global precedence was the investigation of whole-part relations, but the solution – the theory of global precedence - doesn't include the notions of *whole* and *part* at all.
2. The main notion of global precedence is the globality-locality relation, but the main claim of the theory is presented by the author without even mentioning the terms global and local: “Features of a high-level unit precede the features of a lower-order one”.
3. The term ‘feature’ (mentioned above) denotes a set of inconsistent notions: the part, the relation, the subpart, the structure, the frequency component, and the geometrical object.

The contradictions exist not only on the global scale, within the theory of global precedence as a whole, but in every ‘local’ piece of text. For example here is a quote: “The elements are not the features of the global form. They are constituents on their own, like an eye is within a face. How can that advantage tell us anything about global precedence in a stimulus (like the letter H) that unlike a face has no separate local constituents, just features (e.g., the horizontal bar) that make up the whole?” [5].

Let us divide this passage into simple statements:

1. *The eye is a constituent of the face.* It means that the eye is a part of the face (the whole).
2. *A face has separate local constituents.* In the image, hair is not separated from the ears, and the mustache is not separated from nose and from mouth.
3. *Letter H (not the compound letter) has no separate local constituents.* It is absurd.

According to Wertheimer, the stimulus  is perceived as two parts – an arc and an appendage – despite the fact that they are not separated. Navon's mistake here (as well as in many other places) is that he doesn't differentiate the objects of the physical world from objects of our perception. In the physical world “H” as geometrical object is one figure (a connected set of points), but we perceive it as three parts.

4. *The letter H has just features (e.g. the horizontal bar).* If the horizontal bar is a feature, we can consider that the two vertical bars are also features of “H”.
5. *The features make up the whole.* Taking into consideration the previous point (4), we get: “Two vertical bars and the horizontal bar **make up the whole**”. This disavows Navon's description of compound letter as “large letter **made up** of small ones”.

CONCLUSION

From the experiments with compound letters can be made only one conclusion: the whole (the big “H”) is perceived earlier than the details (small letters), which is trivial. To avoid the triviality the author proposed a theory of *global precedence* based on the new hierarchy – the globality hierarchy, which is ambiguous and inconsistent. To each of the terms introduced by the new theory (globality, locality, feature, element, and global structure) were ascribed several meanings. Based on these variables the author presented some inadequate mathematical constructions, applied to them illegal operations, and make illogical

transformations producing in the end the formula of the *global precedence*: “Global features precede local features”. This statement can’t be reasonably interpreted, and it is not a wonder that many readers transformed it into the understandable “The whole before the parts” – prompted by the author himself with the title of his paper: “Forest before the trees”.

Drawing illogical conclusions from these poorly defined terms, the author came up with five different formulas for the *global precedence*. The biggest paradox is that one of the formulas suggested by Navon doesn’t contain the terms *global* and *local* at all: “Features of a high-level unit precede the features of a lower-order one”.

For experimental proof of the global precedent principle, the author used mainly one stimulus – the compound letter. Navon describes the percept as a 3-level hierarchical structure: the whole, the parts, and the subparts (see Fig. 12). He arbitrarily identifies the local level of globality structure with the subparts level, the global level with the whole, and gets in the tachistoscopic presentation the foreseen result: the perception of the whole precedes the perception of details.

As the sense of the statement “Global structure precedes local features” wasn’t clear, many readers transformed it into the understandable “The whole precedes the parts”, despite the author himself rejecting this interpretation. Why did this happen? One reason is the ambitious title of the article: because in the article the word forest was not mentioned, readers perceive the title as a general statement: the whole before the parts.

The second reason was the ambiguity of the terms introduced in the article. As a result the reader substitutes the obscure terms with terms well known in Gestalt theory. A representative example is the article “Global precedence” in Wikipedia. It starts not with definition of the principle, but with redefinition of the basic terms: “Images and other stimuli contain both local features (details, parts) and global features (the whole)”.

The third reason was that Gestalt psychology always positioned itself as a holistic philosophy, and promoted the dominance of the whole: “We perceive whole not parts”.

In general Navon’s paper suffers from two methodological mistakes – one experimental, and one theoretical:

1. The paradigm implicitly supposes that from the very beginning the percept of the stimulus is available in all details and our perception is free to decide what will be processed first, the global picture or the details. In the described tachistoscopic experiments after the first 100 msec only the blurred image is available. This is enough for perceiving the whole (the big “H”), but no details are available. Only later, when our attention shifted the gaze to the salient objects, the fovea vision can deliver the details.
2. In the paper, characteristics of objects belonging to the psychological domain are mistakenly applied to objects of the psychological domain.

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Captions:

Fig. 7 Bearded man

Fig. 8 Bearded man in peripheral vision

Fig. 9 Compound letter H made up of small s's

Fig. 10 Blurred stimulus

Fig. 11 Perceived lines (parts of H)

Fig. 12 Levels of hierarchy and globality

The Effect Of Public Debt On Budget Performance In Osun State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of public debt on budget performance in Osun state from 2011 to 2015. Secondary data were obtained from Osun State's report of the Accountant-General with the financial statements of the relevant years, budget summary of the state for the relevant years, debt sustainability report for the relevant years as provided by Debt Management Office of Nigeria Also, primary data were obtained through the administration of questionnaire to officers involved in the budget process of the state. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in this study. Also, chi square test was used to analyze the impact of public debt on budget performance from 2011-2015. It was found that settlement of accumulation of arrears, employment generation, investment boosting and promotion of macroeconomic stability have low public borrowing index of 3.18, 3.08, 3.06 and 2.86 respectively with negative deviations from the mean. It is concluded that there is negative significant effect of public debt on budget performance in Osun state. The study recommended that Osun state government should set systems to identify the problems affecting budget implementation and feedback systems for monitoring the progress of programmes, this will, in essence, enhance effort of the government to review and modify programmes.

Key words; Public Debt; Budget Performance; Osun State

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

A developing economy is one with less developed industrial base and a low human development index in relation to other countries (Wikipedia). Nigeria, without doubt, is a developing economy as she is characterized by heavy dependence on few agricultural and mineral resources. Also, her manufacturing sector is mostly at the infant stage and relies heavily on imported inputs from developed economy (Ajayi, 1984). Therefore, the nation and all of its component states have to harness all possible sources to mobilize sufficient financial resources for the implementation of its economic development. One of the major instruments available for resource mobilization is public borrowing (Economics Discussion.net, 2015). Over the years, most of the states in Nigeria, in a bid to finance productive investment which is expected to generate additional productive capacity in the economy, has resulted to the use of public borrowings to augment whatever resources is available. The topic of public borrowing and budget performance is very important as it directly concerns current taxpayers, future generations and can affect expectations about the future of the economy (Boris, 2012). Public debt is the total outstanding debt obligations or accumulated borrowing of the national government. In every modern economy, the Central Bank keeps the finances and accounts of the nation, and it is involved in raising money for the execution of government programs. The need to borrow money arises when the total government expenditure exceeds its receipts.

Public debt is usually contracted to bridge budgetary gap. Public debt is in different forms: Marketable debts (are those, which can be bought and sold in the financial market) and Non-marketable debts (are those that have been issued in favor of specified debt holders and cannot be sold to others.). Funded debt (is a long-term debt for a definite period.) and Unfunded debt (or floating debt on the other hand, is for a short period of less than a year.). Reproductive debt (or productive debt, is expected to create asset that will yield sufficient income to pay off the principal as well as the interest on loan) and Deadweight debt (or unproductive debt is debt that does not increase the productive capacity of the economy because it is not backed by any existing asset.). Internal debt (is that which the country owes to its citizens.) and External debt (on the other hand, refers to debt owed to foreign individuals, governments, international organizations, World Bank Groups' (ICAN PSAF Pack, 2013).

There are several reasons for raising public loans. Some of these reasons include, but are not limited to huge and persistent budget deficit, rapid expansion of the public sector, implementation of development programs, war time borrowings, natural disaster, fluctuating government revenue, economic instability, debt servicing and balance of repayments disequilibrium. Soludo (2003), opined that countries borrow for two broad categories: macroeconomic reasons [higher investment, higher consumption (education and health)] or to finance transitory balance of payments deficits [to lower nominal interest rates abroad, lack of domestic long-term credit, or to circumvent hard budget constraints]. Government has several policies to implement in the overall task of performing its functions to meet the objectives of social and economic growth. For implementing these policies, it has to spend huge amount of funds on defense, administration, development, welfare projects and various other relief operations. It is therefore necessary to find out all possible sources of getting funds so that sufficient revenue can be generated to meet the mounting expenditure. The planning process of assessing revenue and expenditure is termed Budget.

Budget is most important information document of the government. One part of the government's budget is similar to company's annual report. This part presents the overall picture of the financial performance of the government. The second part of the budget presents government's financial plans for the period up to its next budget. Therefore, every citizen of a nation from the common person to the politician is eager to know about the budget, as everyone would like to have an idea of the financial performance of the government over the past one year, financial programs and policies of the government for the next one year and the manner in which the standard of living will be affected. Given that the issue of relationship between public debt and budget performance is yet to be resolved in the literature, it is therefore, pertinent to examine the bond between the two variables. In addition, there is dearth of evidence on the causal relationship between each of the components of public debt and government budget. This is important in order to suggest appropriate mix of domestic and external debt in financing budget deficit in the overall macroeconomic context. The focus of the project, therefore, is to examine the relationship between budget performance and public debt using Osun state as the case study.

Statement of the Problem

In recent times, the debt profile of most states in Nigeria has increased drastically due to the wide variance between revenue and expenditure projections. In Osun state, for instance, the state's budget plan estimated expenditure of N88.14bn in 2011, despite estimated Revenue for the fiscal year being at N54.8bn. It followed the same trajectory in 2012, 2013 and 2014, with estimated expenditure projected at N150.13bn, N234bn, and N216bn, as against estimated revenues of N55.97 bn, N61.89bn and N57.16bn respectively. Notably, again, Osun's budget plan in 2015 called for an expenditure plan of N201bn, while revenue projection did not move

above N63bn. Such wide tangents between annual budgets and actual spending are the first signals of a financial disaster certain to happen and calls for timely intervention. It is at this point that the state incurs public debt in order to bridge budgetary gap. However, the state government has to pay interest and repay the loan (principal) in full consonance with the agreed terms and conditions. The repayments for all these debts incurred run concurrently, and deductions are made out of whatever revenue is to accrue to Osun State. Also, the choice of public debt (either domestic or external) as source of financing deficit may generate larger deficit as allocation has to be made for servicing the debt in the subsequent fiscal year thus resulting in perpetual deficit as in the case with the Nigeria economy (Adedotun, 1997). This is an indication that public debt may be a promotional cause of budget deficit in the state. As at 31st December 2014, Osun state, ranked 11th most indebted state in Nigeria with total stock debt of N52.56bn (Budg IT Co. 2015). It was discovered that taking these loans did nothing to improve Internally Generated Revenue amid large overhead costs; this means the bulk of the State's existing revenue is diverted into debt repayment.

Economic theory suggests that reasonable levels of borrowing by a developing economy are likely to enhance its economic growth (Pattillo, Ricci, and Poirson 2002). In other words, there is a limit to public borrowing, which can be considered safe. Furthermore, a rising debt burden may constrain the ability of government to undertake more productive investment programs in infrastructure, education, and public health as well as the ability to settle workers' remuneration. To avoid such a situation, it is imperative that the quantum and structure of the nation's debt be carefully managed in a manner that is consistent with the country's growth and development aspirations. (Sanusi, 2003).

The experience in Nigeria has shown that the external and domestic borrowings at the state level are components of the country's total public debt. More generally, implementation of budgets, in the best situation, has not exceeded 60 percent over time, it means the borrowings to support government capital are not delivering expected values right from the year of appropriation. The soft analysis of the growing public debt however, raises concerns about sound fiscal policy, ineffective plugs to leakages, ineffective economic diversification policy implementation and low loan utilization as evidenced by poor budget performance over the period of time. Apart from the general belief that development is horizontally induced, issues of corruption as well as wastage through inflated contracts, the politicization of ethnicity and the behavior pattern of the elite in the use, misuse and abuse of public office have aggregated to unproductive capital projects (John, 2007).

In recognition of the fact that debt is never going to go away as it has become an integral part of public finance which is often motivated by the need to cover budgetary gaps and hasten the development process faster than government revenues from taxes and mineral resources exploitation will allow. It is therefore pertinent to investigate the relationship between public debt and budget performance.

Research Objectives

This study examined the effects of public debt on budget performance in Osun state from 2011 to 2015. The **Specific objectives are to:**

- i. identify and assess the factors that encourage borrowings by the state government,
- ii. examine factors that enhanced the budget performance of the state, and
- iii. assess the impacts of public debt on budget performance in the state.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Public debt

By public debt, we mean government IOUs issued to individuals, organizations and other governments. From the ancient to the contemporary world, governments have been indebted to their citizens. Governments, like individuals, borrow from willing creditors to finance their long and short-term pressing financial needs that cannot be financed from other sources (Shaibu, 2003). A country becomes indebted when she borrows money to meet deficit as a result of shortfall in revenue to meet earmarked expenditures. However, government borrows to finance wars, to fight economic crisis such as depression or inflation or to finance economic reconstruction and development. Ocampo (2004) proclaimed that the external debt situation for a number of low income countries, mostly in Africa, has become extremely difficult. For these countries, even the use of traditional mechanism of rescheduling and re-sectioning of debt together with sound economic policies may not be sufficient to attain sustainable external debt levels.

Asley (2002) opined that high level of external debt in developing countries negatively impact their trade capacities and performance. Debt overhang affects economic reforms and stable monetary policies, export promotion and a reduction in certain trade barrier that will make the economy more market friendly and this enhances trade performance. However, debt decreases a governments' ability to invest in producing and marketing exports, building infrastructure, and establishing a skilled labor force. Muhtar (2004) also stated that, the service of these debt have direct negative impact on economic development. To him, debt services encroach on resources needed for socio-economic development and poverty reduction. It also contributed to negative net resources flow.

Ojo (1989) was of the belief that it is no exaggeration to claim that Nigeria's huge external debt is one of the hard knots of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) introduced in 1986 to put the economy on a sustainable path of recovery. The corollary of this statement is that if only the level of debt service payment could be reduced significantly, Nigeria would be in a position to finance larger volume of domestic investment, which would enhance growth and development, but more often than not, a debtor has limited room to manage debt crisis to advantage.

Furthermore, debts are classified into two which are reproductive debt and deadweight debt. A loan obtained to enable the state or nation to purchase some sort of assets, for instance, money borrowed for acquiring factories, generating electricity, setting up refineries etc., is said to be productive. However, debt undertaken to finance war and expenses on current expenditure are deadweight debt (Eaton, 1993). When a country obtains loan from abroad, it means that the country can import from abroad, goods and services to the value of the loan without having to export anything in exchange. When capital and interest have to be repaid, the same country will have to get the burden of exporting goods and services. These two types of debt however require that the borrowers' futures saving must cover the interest and principles payment (Debt Servicing). Therefore, debt-financed investment need to be productive and well managed in order to earn a return higher than the cost of debt servicing.

Budget performance

The main financial document that reflects the state policy regarding the set up and the use of public resources is the budget (Attila, 2010). Budget can be used as a benchmark, as a control system, that allows managers to compare actual performance with estimated or desired performance (Silva and Jayamaha, 2012). Budget performance is operationally defined as a

comparison between estimated revenues and expenditures and actual revenues and expenditures resulting into either a deficit (where aggregate expenditures of the government is greater or more than its total revenues collected within a given period), a surplus (where government expenditures is less than its revenues) or an equilibrium/balanced budget (where total revenues of the government equal the total expenditures) (KCL, 2012).

As stated earlier, budget is one of the common financial tool used to manage a government's finance; performance reports often relate to an assessment of specific functions in an environment. Budgets allow governments to plan future expenditures. These plans allow for the necessary amount of inputs needed to generate capital for funding the project. Governments may also adjust future expenditures based on past budget performance. Reviewing historical budgets helps the government understand how and why they are spending money in discharging their primary objectives as well as responsibilities. Budgets may also be used to secure external financing for expanding the reach of their responsibilities.

Furthermore, the government often track spending variances through the use budgets. While most financial budget processes are completed on an annual basis, tracking budget variances typically is done monthly. A monthly spending variance review helps the government to understand where money was spent each month compared to the income generated on financial statements. Excessive budget variances may require the government to completely review their budget process to ensure they have accurately forecast any financial needs.

Governments often use performance reports in addition to budgets to provide residents, business owners and companies within their jurisdiction with additional information relating to budgets variances. This additional information may relate to financial or non-financial issues that can cause the budget to go outside its allowable range. Resource costs increases or other additional costs are common financial budget increases. Non-financial increases may result from inferior resources needing to be replaced.

Lastly, governments may use an automated computer software program for tracking accounting or financial information relating to the budget process. Many computer software packages also include a budgeting module that allows the local government to funnel information electronically into a pre-set budget format. Computerized budgets limit the company's time and money spent during the development or planning phase of the budget. The local government may also be able to link these budgets to specific financial accounts and track information in a real-time format.

Public debt and Budget Performance

Public debt will arise where the actual expenditure exceeds actual revenue thereby making it necessary to source for means of financing the excessive expenditure. According to Ndan, 2009, it is important to draw from savings set aside or to borrow from outside sources in order to meet budgetary objectives. Dalton in KCL (2012) confirms this by asserting that "If over a period of time expenditure exceeds revenue, the budget is said to be unbalanced". Deficit budget is one where the estimated government expenditure is more than expected revenue. Such deficit amount is generally covered through public borrowings or withdrawing resources from the accumulated reserve surplus. Consequently, a deficit budget is a liability to the government as it creates a burden of debt or it reduces the stock of reserves of the government.

Causes of Debt

Ajayi (1984) reflected the causes of debt problem as related to both the nature of the economy and the economic policies put in place by the government. He articulated that the developing economies are characterized by heavy dependence on one or few agricultural and mineral commodities. Also, the manufacturing sector is mostly at the infant stage and relies heavily on imported inputs. To him, they are dependent on the developed countries for supply of other input and finance needed for economic development, which made them vulnerable to external shocks.

The grand cause of the debt crisis is that, in most cases, the loan is not used for development purposes. The loan process is done in and shrouded with secrecy. The loan is obtained for personal interest and sectarian purposes. It is usually tied to party politics, patronage and elevation of primordial interest rather than the promotion of national interest and overall socio-economic development. In some cases, loans were contracted without regard to viability of projects they were meant to finance (Richard, 1991). Corruption, political factors and personal gains of government officials who negotiated such contracts seemed to be the major factor in contracting certain loans rather than the soundness of the projects to be financed with the loans.

Method of Data collection

This study uses both primary and secondary data. The relevant data for the study were obtained from Osun State's report of the Accountant-General with the financial statements of the relevant years, budget summary of the state for the relevant years, debt sustainability report for the relevant years as provided by Debt Management Office of Nigeria. Also, primary data were obtained through the administration of questionnaire to officers involved in the budget process of the state. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in this study. Also, chi square test was used to analyze the impact of public debt on budget performance from 2011-2015.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Factors Encouraging Public Borrowing by Osun State Government

To establish the validity of the factors that encourage public borrowing in the study area, the degree of these factors as rated in the questionnaire was examined. The responses of the respondents were rated into five groups to determine the Public Borrowing Index (PBI). Seven (7) variables were used in the determination of the factors that encourage public borrowing as opined by the respondents. Each of the factors were rated in respect to Likert Scale as "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree", "strongly disagree", "undecided", to indicate and each of the rating were assigned a weight value of 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The ranking had a decreasing order of relevance from 5 to 1. Therefore, to determine the PBI of each variable, the calculated weight value was summed up and thereafter divided by the total number of respondents.

The Factor Weighted Value (FWV) was carried out by adding the products of the numbers of responses to each of the identified variables and the weight attached to each rating e.g., $(a \times 5) + (b \times 4) + (c \times 3) + (d \times 2) + (e \times 1)$.

The mean of the PBI distribution was achieved by dividing the total Level Weight Value (LWV) by the total number of questionnaires. The deviation about the mean was compared for each variable. Also, calculated were the standard deviation (S.D) to measure the extent to which each factors fluctuates above or below the mean.

Provision of social amenities has the highest public borrowing index of 3.94 with a positive deviation of 0.60 from the mean, closely followed by the need to finance budget deficit with an index of 3.65 and a deviation of 0.31 from the mean in the positive axis. Also, the need to facilitate growth of the state’s economy has an index of 3.59 with a positive deviation of 0.25 from the mean. However, settlement of accumulation of arrears, provision of employment opportunities, investment boosting and promotion of macroeconomic stability have low public borrowing index of 3.18, 3.08, 3.06 and 2.86 respectively with negative deviations from the mean.

Table 1: Factors Encouraging Public Debt in Osun State.

S/N	Factors	RATINGS					LWV	F (NR)	PBI	\bar{X}	$\bar{(X - X)}$	d ²
		5	4	3	2	1						
1	Public debt is incurred to finance budget deficit	60	100	18	0	8	186	51	3.65	3.34	0.31	0.0961
2	Public debt is incurred to provide social amenities	90	96	9	0	6	201	51	3.94		0.60	0.3600
3	Public debt is incurred because there is need to boost investment	75	44	18	0	19	156	51	3.06		-0.28	0.0784
4	Public debt is incurred in order to provide employments opportunities	60	44	27	14	12	157	51	3.08		-0.26	0.0676
5	Public debt is encouraged by the need to promote macroeconomic stability	60	36	30	0	20	146	51	2.86		-0.48	0.2304
6	Public debt is incurred in order to settle accumulations of arrears	60	48	27	18	9	162	51	3.18		-0.16	0.0256
7	Public debt is incurred to facilitate growth of the state's economy	105	36	27	6	9	183	51	3.59		0.25	0.0625

Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2017

PBI = Public Borrowing Index

LWV = Level Weight Value

NR = Number of Respondents or summation of frequency

$\sum (LWV/NR) = PBI$

N = Number of factors that encourages public borrowing

$\sum f = 51, N = 7$

Mean (\bar{X}) = $\sum PBI/N$ $23.36/7 = 3.34$

Factors Enhancing Budget Performance in Osun State

To establish the validity of the factors that encourage public borrowing in the study area, the degree of these factors as rated in the questionnaire was examined. The responses of the respondents were rated into five groups to determine the Budget Performance Index (BPI). Eight (8) variables were used in the determination of the factors that enhanced as opined by the respondents. Each of the factors were rated in respect to Likert Scale as “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, “strongly disagree”, “undecided” and each of the rating were assigned a weight value of 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The ranking had a decreasing order of relevance from 5 to 1. Therefore, to determine the PBI of each variable; the calculated weight value was summed up and thereafter divided by the total number of respondents.

The Factor Weighted Value (FWV) was carried out by adding the products of the numbers of responses to each of the identified variables and the weight attached to each rating e.g., $(a \times 5) + (b \times 4) + (c \times 3) + (d \times 2) + (e \times 1)$. The mean of the BPI distribution was achieved by dividing the total Level Weight Value (LWV) by the total number of questionnaires. The deviation about the mean was compared for each variable. Also, calculated were the standard deviation (S.D) to measure the extent to which each factors fluctuates above or below the mean.

Table 7 shows that budget performance is highly affected by timely preparation of budgets and approval by the state's House of Assembly before the beginning of the fiscal year as well as provision of relevant information to stakeholders in order to facilitate participatory budgeting. These two factors have BPI of 4.22 and positive deviation of 0.72 from the mean. Also, allocation of resources to programmes on the basis of the state's priorities and programme effectiveness, and transparency and accountability in budget preparation, execution and reporting have BPIs of 3.88 and 3.84 respectively. Availability of a system which identifies the problems affecting budget implementation, availability of a feedback system for monitoring progress of programmes thereby comparing performance with original plan, the ability of the state government to utilize the report derived from these systems to review and modify programmes and overloading of the State's budget in a way that restricts the absorptive capacity to implement the budget have low BPIs and negative deviations from the mean.

Table 7: Factors enhancing budget performance in Osun state

S/N	Factors	RATINGS					LWV	F(NR)	PBI	\bar{X}	$\bar{(X - X)}$	d ²
		5	4	3	2	1						
1	Budgets are prepared on timely basis and approved by the state's House of Assembly before the beginning of the fiscal year	120	56	39	0	0	215	51	4.22	3.50	0.72	0.5184
2	Relevant information are made available to various stakeholders at the right time in order to facilitate participatory budgeting	120	80	12	0	3	215	51	4.22		0.72	0.5184
3	Resources are allocated to the programmes on the basis of the state's priorities and programme effectiveness	105	68	18	0	7	198	51	3.88		0.38	0.1444
4	The state's budget is usually overloaded in a way that restricts the absorptive capacity to implement the budget	15	48	18	32	14	127	51	2.49		-1.01	1.0201
5	There is a system used to identify the problems affecting budget implementation.	60	56	27	8	12	163	51	3.19		-0.31	0.0961
6	The feedback system for monitoring progress of programmes thereby comparing performance with original plan.	75	56	9	6	16	162	51	3.18		-0.32	0.1024
7	The state government utilizes the report derived from the systems to review and modify programmes.	75	48	0	6	21	150	51	2.94		-0.56	0.3136
8	There is transparency and accountability in the budget preparation, execution and reporting.	80	92	18	0	6	196	51	3.84		0.34	0.1156

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2017

BPI = Budget Performance Index

LWV = Level Weight Value

NR = Number of Respondents or summation of frequency

$\sum (LWV/NR) = BPI$

N = Number of factors that enhances budget performance.

$\sum f = 51, N = 7$

Mean (\bar{X}) = $\sum BPI/N$ 27.96/8 = 3.50

Effects of Public Borrowing on Budget Performance

To establish the validity of the effects of public borrowing on budget performance in the study area, the degree of these factors as rated in the questionnaire was examined. The responses of the respondents were rated into five groups to determine the Effect Index (EI). Six (6) variables were used in the determination of the effects of public borrowing on budget performance as opined by the respondents. Each of the factors were rated in respect to Likert

Scale as “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, “strongly disagree”, “undecided”, to indicate and each of the rating were assigned a weight value of 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The ranking had a decreasing order of relevance from 5 to 1. Therefore, to determine the EI of each variable, the calculated weight value was summed up and thereafter divided by the total number of respondents.

The Factor Weighted Value (FWV) was carried out by adding the products of the numbers of responses to each of the identified variables and the weight attached to each rating e.g., $(a \times 5) + (b \times 4) + (c \times 3) + (d \times 2) + (e \times 1)$. The mean of the PBI distribution was achieved by dividing the total Level Weight Value (LWV) by the total number of questionnaires. The deviation about the mean was compared for each variable. Also, calculated were the standard deviation (S.D) to measure the extent to which each factors fluctuates above or below the mean.

Table 8 shows that public debt is a constraining factor on rapid economic growth and development of the state with EI of 4.31 and a positive deviation of 0.66 from the mean. It shows that debt servicing affects budget performance with EI of 4.25 and a positive deviation of 0.60. It also shows that the timing of budget proposals, resolutions, appropriations and implementation is not affected by public debt. that there has not been record of debt crisis in the state which affected budget performance in the state and that public debt does not improve the internally generated revenue of the state by giving low EIs of 3.31, 3.27 and 2.53 respectively and negative deviations from the mean.

Table 8: Effects of Public Borrowing on Budget Performance

S/N	Factors	RATINGS					LWV	F(NR)	PBI	\bar{X}	$\bar{(X - X)}$	d^2
		5	4	3	2	1						
1	The timing of budget proposals, resolutions, appropriations and implementation is affected by public debt.	50	80	18	12	9	169	51	3.31	3.65	-0.34	0.1156
2	Public debt improves the internally generated revenue of the state.	0	20	72	30	7	129	51	2.53		-1.12	1.2544
3	The issue of debt servicing has effect on budget performance.	155	48	9	0	5	217	51	4.25		0.60	0.3600
4	Public debt is constraining factor on rapid economic growth and development of the state.	140	68	9	0	3	220	51	4.31		0.60	0.4356
5	There is a relationship between public debt and budget performance.	140	60	6	6	3	215	51	4.22		0.57	0.3249
6	Has there been record of debt crisis in the state which affected budget performance in the state?	130	12	0	6	19	167	51	3.27		-0.38	0.1444

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2017

EI =Effect Index

LWV = Level Weight Value

NR = Number of Respondents or summation of frequency

$\sum (LWV/NR) = EI$

N = Number of possible effects of public debt on budget performance

$$\sum f = 51, N = 6$$

$$\text{Mean } (\bar{x}) = \frac{\sum EI}{N} = \frac{21.89}{6} = 3.65$$

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

If $P >$ value is greater than the table value at the appropriate level of significance and degrees of freedom, the null hypothesis will be rejected and alternative accepted but where it is lesser than the value read out of chi-square table, then the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative rejected. P-value is 0.95 is $>$ 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is being rejected and the alternative is actually accepted. That is, there is relationship between public debt and budget performance.

Using chi-square test to analyse the variables, the decision rules stated that; if chi-square value (X_2) is greater than the table value at the appropriate level of significance and degrees of freedom, the null hypothesis will be rejected and alternative accepted but where it is lesser than the value read out of chi-square table, then the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative rejected. The result shows that the accumulated value X_2 is greater than the tabulated value, therefore, the null hypothesis is being rejected and the alternative hypothesis is being accepted.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study examined the effects of public debt on budget performance in Osun state from 2011 to 2015.. The relevant data for the study were obtained from Osun State's report of the Accountant-General with the financial statements of the relevant years, budget summary of the state for the relevant years, debt sustainability report for the relevant years as provided by Debt Management Office of Nigeria Also, primary data were obtained through the administration of questionnaire to officers involved in the budget process of the state. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in this study. Descriptive statistical tools such as percentages and frequency distribution were used to describe the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. Also,chi-square test was used to analyze the impact of public debt on budget performance in the study area.

It was found that Provision of social amenities has the highest public borrowing index of 3.94 with a positive deviation of 0.60 from the mean, closely followed by the need to finance budget deficit with an index of 3.65 and a deviation of 0.31 from the mean in the positive axis. Also, the need to facilitate growth of the state's economy has an index of 3.59 with a positive deviation of 0.25 from the mean. However, settlement of accumulation of arrears, provision of employment opportunities, investment boosting and promotion of macroeconomic stability have low public borrowing index of 3.18, 3.08, 3.06 and 2.86 respectively with negative deviations from the mean.

Similarly, budget performance is highly affected by timely preparation of budgets and approval by the osun state's House of Assembly before the beginning of the fiscal year as well as provision of relevant information to stakeholders in order to facilitate participatory budgeting. These two factors have BPI of 4.22 and positive deviation of 0.72 from the mean. Also, allocation of resources to programmes on the basis of the state's priorities and programme effectiveness, and transparency and accountability in budget preparation, execution and reporting have BPIs of 3.88 and 3.84 respectively. Availability of a system which identifies the problems affecting budget implementation, availability of a feedback system for monitoring progress of programmes thereby comparing performance with original plan, the ability of the state government to utilize the report derived from these systems to review and modify

programmes and overloading of the State's budget in a way that restricts the absorptive capacity to implement the budget have low BPIs and negative deviations from the mean.

Also, the finding showed that public debt is a constraining factor on rapid economic growth and development of the state with EI of 4.31 and a positive deviation of 0.66 from the mean. It showed that debt servicing affects budget performance with EI of 4.25 and a positive deviation of 0.60. It also showed that the timing of budget proposals, resolutions, appropriations and implementation is not affected by public debt. That there has not been record of debt crisis in the state which affected budget performance in the state and that public debt does not improve the internally generated revenue of the state by giving low EIs of 3.31, 3.27 and 2.53 respectively and negative deviations from the mean. Also, the null hypothesis is being rejected and the alternative is accepted. That is, there is relationship between public debt and budget performance.

Public debt is incurred majorly to provide social amenities and to finance budget deficit. It is also being incurred to facilitate the growth of the state's economy but rarely to boost investment, provide employment opportunities, provide macroeconomic stability or to settle accumulation of arrears. The state's budget is usually prepared on a timely basis and approved by the state's House of Assembly before the beginning of the fiscal year, relevant information is made available to various stakeholders at the right time in order to facilitate participatory budgeting, resources are allocated to programmes based on the state's priorities and programme effectiveness, the state's budget is not overloaded in a way that restricts the absorptive capacity to implement the budget and that there is transparency and accountability in budget preparation, execution and reporting. It was also realized that there are no systems set to identify the problems affecting budget implementation and there are no feedback systems for monitoring the progress of programmes, this will, in essence, frustrate the effort of the government to review and modify programmes. It was concluded that the timing of budget proposals, resolutions, appropriations and implementation is not affected by public debt and that there has not been record of debt crisis in the state which affected budget performance in the state. The study showed that public debt is a constraining factor on the rapid economic growth and development of the state and that public debt does not improve the internally generated revenue of the state because of the issue of debt servicing.

From the foregoing, it is pertinent to state that there is significant relationship between public debt and budget performance. This relationship is mostly negative because the more the budget of the state goes into deficit, the more the debt burden.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

From the above findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Osun state government should set systems to identify the problems affecting budget implementation and feedback systems for monitoring the progress of programmes, this will, in essence, enhance effort of the government to review and modify programmes.
2. Government should harness other sources of revenue (e.g. taxes, fines, fees, licenses, grants and financial aids) to finance budget deficit while debt should be incurred to finance state services are legitimate, productive and indispensable to prosperity.
3. Adequate attention should be given to the structure of debt servicing.

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Winds of Change in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh during 2019 Indian General Elections: An Appraisal

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ABSTRACT

The seeds of 'Opposition Unity' sown by the two regional parties- the S.P and B.S.P of U.P sprouted in Bihar and have, now, grown up in the Karnataka state by the Congress and J.D(S) combine where Congress being magnanimous to gift the Chief Minister ship of the state to the junior partner, the J.D(S) . By the time, the message is loud and clear that 'Modi can be defeated only if all the opposing parties of a particular state unites against his B.J.P'. Thus the 'United Opposition', in all probability, will face the mighty B.J.P together in 2019 General Election in the states of Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. The present study discusses the various possibilities by which the parties opposed the B.J.P are expected to take on the ruling party though these states , for the last over more than two decades, have been bipolar between B.J.P and Congress in respect to the their state politics . B.S.P, though, always been a poor third in M.P. but has a strong vote bank in some pockets of this state. So in combination with other parties, it may become lethal for B.J.P and may bring a pleasant surprise for the 'United Opposition' in general and the Congress in particular. Modi's wave might have been on the wane, but only to a small extent. So it will be a walk on the razor's edge both for the B.J.P and the parties opposed to the B.J.P.

Key Words: Vasundhra Raje Scindia, Jaat, Gurjar, Meena, Shivraj Singh Chouhan, Atal Bihari Vajpayee, Manmohan Singh, Adivasis, Mahagatbandhan

INTRODUCTION

Politics of Rajasthan is dominated by two parties – the Congress and the B.J.P. The other National and Regional political parties have their presence only in some pockets of the state. The state , in general, have been a tie between the Congress and the B.J.P. Ms. Vasundhra Raje Scindia of B.J.P has been the C.M. of the state since 2013 when B.J.P. got 163 seats and Congress got only 21 seats out of 200 seats [1].Ms. Scindia, also, remained the C. M. of the state from 2003 – 2008. During this time, BJP won 20 out of 25 Lok Sabha seats while Congress could bag only 4 seats in 2004 General Elections [2].But the tables turned in December 2008, when the infighting within the BJP, Raje's perceived autocratic and despotic rule, and the police excesses in the Gurjar-Meena agitation [3] combined to overcome the incumbent Raje government's development and growth planks. So the Congress emerged victorious with the support of some independent MLA's. Ashok Gehlot was sworn-in as the new C. M. of the state. Congress won 20 seats in 2009 Lok Sabha elections and the B.J.P was relegated to poor second with 5 seats [4]. But in 2014, B.J.P. made a clean sweep by winning all the 25 Lok Sabha seats with 54.9% vote share while Congress trailed far behind with only 30.4% share of the polled votes [5].

M. P. being the second largest (after U.P) and fifth most populous state of India has a 230-seat state legislative assembly and sends 29 members to the India's Lower House of parliament. It has been ruled consecutively for the last about 13years by B.J.P's Shivraj Singh Chouhan who replaced Babulal Gaur as the 18th C.M. on 29th November, 2005. In the November 2013 state assembly, the party wise position was: B.J.P=165 seats; Congress= 58 seats; B.S.P=4 seats and others=3 seats [6]. B.J.P and Congress are the dominant political parties while the small or

regional parties have insignificant presence except the B.S.P. which has some pockets of influence in the state

According to the census of 2011, M.P. has (%): Hindus= 90.9, Muslims= 6.6, Jains = 0.8, Budhists =0.3, Christians =0.3 and Sikhs= 0.2 with *Adivasis* making 21.1% of the total population, 46 recognized Scheduled Tribes and three of them have been identified as "Special Primitive Tribal Groups[7]. The population consists of a number of ethnic groups and tribes, castes and communities including the indigenous tribals. The Scheduled castes and the Scheduled Tribes have quite a large concentration (30-50%) in Khargone, Chindwara , Sioni Sidhi, Singrauli and Shahdol districts while Dhar, Jhabua and Mandla are inhabited by over 50% population of the tribal groups[8].

In 2004 parliamentary elections, BJP won 25 seats, Congress bagged 4 seats with 48.13% and 34.07 % vote share respectively while the third force, the B.S. P, accounted for 4.75% votes without winning any seat. The Congress fared better by winning 12 seats though B.J.P was still ahead with 16 seats while B.S.P had to be content with only one seat. There was, also, an improvement in the %vote share of Congress (40.14) while B.J.P was still ahead with 43.45 % votes; of course B.S.P could maintain its third position and its vote share swelled to 5.85%. In 2014, B.J.P. swept the state by winning 27 Lok Sabha seats with 54.0% vote share while Congress remained far behind with only 34.9% share and could win only two seats. Though B.S.P did not get any seat but obtained 3.8% vote share [9.10].

METHODOLOGY

The research material was collected both from the official and non-official agencies by using primary and secondary sources and had, already, been discussed in our previous publication [11]. Table: 1 lists the names of smaller political parties which have their presence in the states of Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh

DISCUSSION

The huge % vote share of B.J.P in 2014(54.0%) notwithstanding, Congress secured 3-0, i.e. one Assembly and two Lok Sabha by pole victories in Rajasthan on 1st Feb., 2018 [12] as given in Table: II. Congress's large victory margins in Rajasthan in the Assembly and Lok Sabha by-poles along with its sweeping victory in the local body by-polls [13] just a few weeks after the Lok Sabha by-poll wins coupled with one Lok Sabha [14] and two assembly wins in M.P.[15] over the ruling B.J.P (Table: III) has, certainly, emboldened the Congress. So it is roaring to take on the ruling B.J.P in 2019 General Elections.

Referring to these victories, the Congress President Mr. Rahul Gandhi tweeted [16]:
"This is a triumph over arrogance and misrule.
Rajasthan and now Madhya Pradesh has shown
that the winds of change are coming".

It should have been taken with a pinch of salt by the BJP rather than to gloat over that the two victories in M.P. came at thin margins; conveniently forgetting that they lost them despite holding 121 road shows.

Two other factors also added to the exuberance of the Congress .Though Congress lost the Gujarat Assembly elections [17] to B.J.P (18th Dec., 2017), but the narrow victory margin gave it a new lease of life. Secondly, in the most recently conducted Karnataka Assembly elections (14th May, 2018), the Congress and JD(S) formed a post-poll coalition with 115 M.L.A s and their combination succeeded in forming the government in the state. Congress consented to

make the junior partner JD(S)'s Mr. H.D. Kumara swami as the C.M. to keep B.J.P. out of power [18]. Though B.J. P became the largest party in the poll results with 104 MLAs [18] but fell short of 7M.L.As from the absolute majority.

The Coalition Idea

Though the coalition arrangements among various National and Regional parties at the national level under different P.M s are nothing new in India, but the phenomenon called "Modi Versus The Rest of Opposition" got a fillip when the two electorally strong regional parties(S.P. and B.S.P) of U.P and an equally strong Lalu Parshad's R.J.D and Congress combine in Bihar trounced the 'Invincible' Modi's ruling B.J.P in the four Lok Sabha constituencies in the by poles[19,20] held in the two states.

A brief history of the various coalitions formed in India at the national level is given below:

Various Coalition Governments at National Level [21]

The General Election that was held on 20th March, 1977 at the end of Emergency (declared by India's P.M. Indra Gandhi on 25th June, 1975) saw the formation of first-ever coalition government at the national level under the Prime Minister ship of Morarji Desai (24th March, 1977 to 28th July, 1979) of Janta Party (an amalgam of political parties opposed to Emergency). It was, also, the first non-Congress National government. As the popularity of Janata Party dwindled, Morarji Desai had to resign and Charan Singh became the PM (28th July, 1979 to 14th Jan., 1980). But due to lack of support, this coalition government did not complete its full five-year term.

Congress returned to power in 1980 under Indira Gandhi (14th Jan.,1980 to 31st Oct., 1984) and then continued under Rajiv Gandhi (31st Oct., 1984 to 2nd Dec.,1989). However, the next General Election, once again, brought a coalition government under National Front which lasted till 1991 with two Prime Ministers, i.e. Vishvanath .Pratap Singh (2nd Dec.,1989 to 10th Nov.,1990) and Chandra Shekahr (10th Nov., 1990 to 21st June, 1991); the latter being supported by Congress. The 1991 election resulted in a Congress led stable Minority Government of P.V. Narasimha Rao which lasted for five years (21st June, 1991 to 16th May, 1996). The next 11th parliament saw three Prime Ministers: Atal Bihari Vajpayee(16th May, 1996 to 1st June, 1996), H.D. Deve Gowda (1st June,1996 to 21st April,1997) and Inder Kumar Gujral (21st April,1997 to 19th March, 1998) in two years and forced the country back to the polls in 1998.The first successful coalition government comprising over 20 different political parties(some old parties left in between and new joined with time) in India which completed the full 5-year term was of NDA which was led by B.J.P's Atal Bihari Vajpayee as PM(19th March, 1998 to 22nd May, 2004). Then another coalition, led by Congress UPA consisting of over 13 separate parties (some old parties left in between and new joined with time) ruled India for two terms from 2004 to 2014 with Manmohan Singh as PM (22nd May, 2004 to 26th May, 2014).However, in the 16th parliament, B.J.P secured majority on its own (first party to do so since 1984) and NDA, again, came into power with Narinder Modi becoming the P.M. on 26th May, 2014.

Coalitions - The Unwieldy Partnerships

As discussed, the coalition arrangements, both at the National and State levels formed from time to time among the parties of different hues did not last long as in Indian politics the 'Self', 'Opportunism' and 'Casts' would prevail over the 'Party Ideologies' and 'Welfare of the Peoples'. Some coalition partner or the other would leave on trifles to result in a collapse of coalition to necessitate a fresh election either in the state or a mid - term election in the

country to plunge its 1.34 billion peoples [22] into a state of uncertainty. In a way, the inherent contradictions among alliance partners have always made these coalitions short-lived.

A recent example of the fall of a coalition in the Bihar state can be cited as follows:

The alliance named Mahagatbandhan (The Great Alliance) formed by the coming together of Congress, J.D. (U) and R.J.D defeated B.J.P in Bihar (8th Nov., 2015) [23]. They fell apart after over one and a half year (15th July, 2017) [24] amid corruption allegations. There sprouted a new 'arrangement' allowing the defeated B.J.P to prop up J.D.(U), a constituent of the former Mahagatbandhan, which deserted its two former allies- Congress and R.J.D to join hands with B.J.P.

Coined New Terms to Unite Against Modi

In olden times, the opposition parties would unite against B.J.P. in the name of 'Communalism' versus 'Secularism'. As the time elapsed, this slogan did not remain a 'catchy' slogan against the B.J.P. So the divided opposition seized on newer ways to take on P.M Modi's B. J.P. The National and Regional political parties, now, would come together in the name of 'Dalits' versus 'Non-dalits'; 'Majority' versus 'Minority'; 'Tolerance' versus 'Intolerance' and most recently by a change over from 'Hindu Terror' by 'RSS Terror'[25]. Their strategy worked and the 'United Opposition' consecutively won seven Lok Sabha by poles in the four states which fall in the Hindi Heartland: U.P-3 [19], Bihar-1[20], M.P.-1[14, 15] and Rajasthan-2[14, 15]. These states, together, had given B.J.P 145 members [5] out of 174 [6] in the Lower House of Indian Parliament where the B.J.P had a total strength of 282 members out of its total 543 member strength. Of course, with a series of defeats during the last four years, the B.J. P's own strength has come, now, down to 273 members [26].

We, now, try to qualitatively predict the number of parliamentary seats which the B.J.P would have lost in Rajasthan and M.P. if the opposition parties were united in 2014 as they, now, seem to unite to make the 2019 year- "Modi Versus The Rest" year. B.J.P had won 52 seats out of a total of 54 seats in these two states in 2014.

We take up the two states i. e. Rajasthan and M.P under two separate headings. In these two states, the Assembly Elections are expected to precede (tentatively October- December, 2018) the General Elections for the 17th Lok Sabha (Lower House) in March- May, 2019. The data represented in the form of two Tables: IV and V will give us an idea to know whether there would be any significant increase in the number of their parliamentary seats if 2019 replicates 2014 with the 'United Opposition'.

Rajasthan

Rajasthan is a unique state in the sense that its politics, till today, is bipolar between B.J.P and Congress parties but revolves around a few dominant casts-the Jaats (9.28%), the Gujjars (6.0 %) ,Meenas (10.0%) and the Rajputs (5.65%). The Rajputs constitute mostly of predecessors and followers of the former kings of the pre-partition princely states. In some areas, their population is as high as 23.0 % of their total population. The Jaats, the inhabitants from much earlier times, are believed to be divided into 700 Gotras (sub castes); the Bishnois being most dominant and two, together, make almost a double of the population of the Rajputs [27]. Further, in this state, the three casts namely the Jaats, Gujjars and Meenas are politically most active. One or the other of the three, would keep the state governments (be of Congress or of the B.J.P), on their tenterhooks by demanding some sort of reservation for one or the other cast.

No doubt, in Rajasthan any Regional or National party is strong enough to cross swords with the B.J.P or Congress, but two new political phenomena have emerged in 2014 parliamentary elections. Firstly, the regional parties like N.P.P and N.U.P [Table: I] have made their inroads in some parliamentary constituencies (Dausa, Jaipur Rural and Ganganagar- Table: IV). Secondly, some prominent rebels leaders like Jaswant Singh, a Rajput and a B.J.P rebel, from Barmer; Buta Singh, a Dalit leader and a Congress rebel, from Jalore; Dr. Raj Kumar, a B.S.P rebel from Jhunjhunu; Hanuman Beniwal, a B.J.P rebel from Naagaur and Subash Maharia, a Congress rebel from Sikar have emerged to pose a serious threat to the two dominant national parties by contesting this parliamentary election as independent candidates.

Two Scenarios in 2019 for Rajasthan

On perusal of the % vote share of various political parties during 2014 Lok Sabha elections (Table: IV), there would emerge two scenarios:

- (I). If Congress, B.S.P., S.P., N.C.P, Splinters (consisting of N.P.P and N.U.P and the rebels of various political parties), A.A.P and the seven Communists groups [28] form a pre-pole alliance (**Scenario-1**).
- (II). If it becomes 'Modi versus all the Opposition Parties', i.e. all opposition parties including the smaller parties under the name "Others"[29] align (**Scenario- II**).

On adding their respective % vote share (Table: IV), we find that:

- (a) In the first case, they could have bagged 4 seats, i. e, there would have been a gain of 4 seats as their score was zero when they separately contested against B.J.P in 2014.
- (b) In the second case, they might have bagged 8 seats, i. e. a gain of 8 seats.

Madhya Pradesh (M.P.)

Though the preceding Assembly Elections will give a better idea of the things to come in 2019 Lok Sabha elections, yet we consider two scenarios while projecting the expected number of seats in M.P.

Two Scenarios in 2019 for M.P

Although it is uphill's task to attain 100% index of unity for the various coalition parties having different ideologies as the complete inter party transfer of votes would be virtually impossible, yet we dwell upon the various possibilities of their forming coalitions among themselves.

- (I) When Congress, B.S.P., S.P., N. C. P and the 7 Communists groups [27] form an alliance (**Scenario-1**).
- (II) When all opposition parties including the smaller parties under the name "Others" [30] align against their common political foe, the B.J.P (**Scenario-1I**).

From the % vote share data of various parties as given in Table: V, we can derive as:

- (a) On adding the vote % of all the parties represented in **Scenario-1** and, thereby, assuming that had fought the 2014 Lok Sabha elections together, they could have bagged 7 seats. This is 5 more than the number of seats won by these parties when they fought separately against the B.J.P (Congress =2; B.S.P., S.P. and the Communist =0).
- (b) If there were an alliance among all opposition parties (**Scenario-1I**) which includes all the parties named in (I) as well the Others [30], they might have won 9 seats in 2014 i.e. a net gain of 7 seats from their previous score in 2 seats in 2014.

CONCLUSIONS

The politics of both these states (particularly Rajasthan) is bipolar. So even if the parties opposed to B.J.P were united in 2014, and extrapolating it for 2019, they would not have cut much ice with respect to their winning ability in the 2019 parliamentary elections in Rajasthan.

The 'United Opposition' may stand some chance in M.P. because here the B.S.P has a solid vote bank ranging in between 3.5- 6.0% ever since 2004. To add to the benefit of the 'United Opposition', B.S.P has some, very strong, pockets in the state of Madhya Pradesh [in **Churu- it got 26.61% votes; in Jhunjhunu - its rebel obtained 20.71 % votes in 2014 and it won Rewa parliamentary seat in 2009**] and may win a day for the opposition in some constituencies or may even get a seat or two single handedly. So Congress must have very cordial relations with B.S.P if it wants to give some surprises to the mighty B.J.P. Yes, there is another factor which may favor the 'United Opposition' and that is that the 'Pro-Modi Wave' which was on its zenith 2014 is showing some down trend; but things look not that bad for him because with parties of different ideologies, their index of unity may not reach 100%.

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Communist Party of India (Marxist), Communist Party of India , All India Forward Block, Revolutionary Socialist Party, Communist Party of India (Marxist- Leninist) Liberation, Communist Party of India (Marxist- Leninist) Red Star, Socialist Unity centre of India (Communist)

See Table: I - under Rajasthan.

See Table: I- under Madhya Pradesh.

Table: I Political Alliances, Some Relevant National and Other Political Parties in Rajasthan and M.P.

<p>Political Alliances and Relevant Political Parties in Rajasthan and M.P. National Democratic Alliance(NDA), United Progressive Alliance(UPA), Samajwadi Party(SP), Bahujan Samaj Party(BSP), Rashtriya Janta Dal (RJD),Janta Dal (Secular)[JD(S)], Janta Dal (United) [JD(U)], Aam Aadmi Party(AAP)</p>
<p>Rajasthan based Other(Smaller) Political Parties Bharat Hindu Mahasabha, Ambedkarite Party of India, Jago Party, Bahujan Mukti Party, Rajasthan Vikas Party, Bharatiya Yuva Shakti, Bahujan Sangharshh Dal, Bharatiya Sant Mat Party, Prabuddha Republican Party, National Unionist Zamindara Party, Hindustan Janta Party. Megh Desham Party, Jai Maha Bharath Party, Socialist Party (India) * National People's Party (NPP) and NUP= National Union Party(NUP) are comparatively stronger parties and thus are discussed separately.</p>
<p>Madhya Pradesh based Other(Smaller) Political Parties Rashtriya Samantra Dal, Loktantrik Samajwadi Party, Bahujan Mukti Party, Bahujan Sangharshh Dal, Jan-Nyay Dal, Akhil Bharat Hindu Mahasabha, Poorvanchal Rashtriya Congress, Shivsena, Bartiya Shakti Chetna Party, Republican Party of India(A),National Peoples Party , Ambedkarite Party of India, Gonvana Gantantrik Party, Bhartiya Satya Sangharh Party, Chattisgarh Swabhiman Manch, Jai Mahabharat Party, Republican Party of India(K), Prajatantrik Samadhan Party, Samta Party, Samta Samadhan Party, Bhartiya Minorities Surakha Mahasangh, Minorities Democratic Party, Aadijan Mukti Sena. Akhil Bhartiya Viks Congress Party, Social Democratic Party of India</p>

Table: II Rajasthan By poles

Constituency	%Vote Share of Congress	%Vote Share of BJP
Mandalgarh (Assembly)	38.9(2014); 39.5(2018)	50.0(2014); 32.2(2018)
Alwar(Lok Sabha)	33.71(2014); 58.0(2018)	60.0(2014); 40.0(2018)
Ajmer(Lok Sabha)	40.0(2014); 51.0(2018)	57.8(2014); 46.2(2018)

Table: III M.P. By poles

Kolaras (Assembly)	BJP lost by 8,086 votes while it lost by 24953 votes in 2013
Mungaoli (Assembly)	BJP lost by 2014 votes while it lost by 20765 votes in 2013
Ratlam (Lok Sabha)	BJP lost by 88832 votes but it won by 108447 won in 2014

Table: IV. Vote% (Rajasthan.): BJP Vs the Rest of Opposition

Constituency	BJP	Congress(1)	BSP,SP,NCP(2)	Communists(3)	Splinters(4)	AAP(5)	Scenario1 ^a	Others(6) ^b	ScenarioII ^c
Ajmer	54.79	40.06	1.73	---	---	---	41.79	3.47	45.21
Alwar	60.26	33.16	1.83	---	---	0.8	34.99	3.96	39.75
Banswara	49.30	41.46	2.38	---	---	---	43.84	6.86	50.70(1)
Barmer	40.09	32.92	1.06		JS ^d 18.12	1.22	52.1(1)	6.60	58.70(2)
BHARATPUR	60.44	34.85	2.30	----	----	0.41	37.56	2.00	39.56
Bhilwara	56.79	34.60	1.36	----	----	0.53	36.49	6.72	43.21
Bikaner	62.91	29.78	1.22	----	----	1.52	32.52	4.56	37.08
Chittorgarh	60.62	33.31	0.35	2.00	----	0.51	36.17	3.19	39.36
Churu	52.67	15.64	26.61	0.92	----	1.24	44.41	2.89	47.30
Dausa	33.86	28.98	1.62	----	NPP ^e 19.48	0.34	50.42(2)	15.71	66.13(3)
Ganganagar	54.19	30.17	----	1.23	NUP ^f 8.78	----	40.18	13.53	53.71(4)
Jaipur	66.10	24.89	0.40	1.25	----	4.23	30.77	2.93	33.70
Jaipur Rural	62.90	29.82	Sp 0.14	---	NPP ^e 3.14	----	33.1	4.05	37.15
Jalore	53.39	18.34	2.76	----	BS ^d 16.13	-----	37.23	9.39	46.62
Jhalawar-B	58.69	34.25	2.95	----	----	----	37.20	5.00	42.20
Jhunjhunu	49.01	25.53	1.46	0.25	RK ^d 20.71	---	47.95	3.45	51.4(5)
Jodhpur	66.31	28.20	1.25	----	----	0.79	30.24	3.44	33.68
K-DhoPur	47.57	44.35	2.98	----	----	4.40	51.73(3)	4.67	56.40(6)
Kota	55.83	38.45	0.94	---	---	1.61	41.00	3.31	44.31
Nagaur	41.31	33.82	1.85	----	HB ^d 15.93	-----	51.60(4)	8.09	59.69(7)
Pali	64.96	28.54	1.50	----	----	0.46	30.50	4.53	35.03
Rajsamand	65.33	25.24	1.48	----	----	0.91	27.63	7.46	35.09
Sikar	46.88	24.43	0.39	4.99	SM ^d 17.73	1.47	49.01	4.16	53.17(8)
S. MadhoPur	53.16	40.03	1.07	---	NPP ^e 1.42	---	42.52	4.36	46.88
Udaipur	55.51	35.61	2.41	2.84	----	----	40.86	3.64	44.50

a = Sum of % votes of Parties: 1 to 5; b = See reference 29; c = Sum of % votes of the Rest of Opposition (1 to6); d -Independents: JS= Jaswant Singh; BS= Buta Singh ;HB= Hanuman Beniwal : SM= Subash Maharia; RK= Raj Kumar; e = National Peoples Party ; f=National Union Party

Table: V. Vote %(M. P.) BJP Vs the Rest of Opposition

Constituency	BJP	Congress(1)	BSP(2)	S.P (3)	Communists(4)	(1+2 +3+4) ^a	Others(5) ^b	(1+2 +3+4+5) ^c
Mo r n ea	43.93	21.57	28.39	---	--	49.96 (1)	6.07	56.03(1)
Bhind	55.51	33.56	5.57	---	--	39.13	6.35	45.48
Gwalior	45.05	42.03	6.94	---	--	48.97 (2)	5.98	54.95 (2)
Guna	40.57	52.94	2.81	--	--	55.75 (3)	3.68	59.43 (3)
Sagar	54.11	40.57	2.23	--	--	42.80	3.93	46.73
Tikamgarh	55.19	27.96	3.13	6.20	1.98	39.27	5.54	44.81
Damoh	56.25	32.87	3.46	---	----	36.33	7.42	43.75
Khajurao	54.31	26.01	6.90	4.58	0.36	37.85	7.83	45.68
Satna	41.08	40.13	13.64	---	----	53.77 (4)	5.14	58.91 (4)
Reva	46.45	26.00	21.28	---	----	47.28 (5)	6.27	53.55 (5)
Sidhi	48.08	37.16	3.98	--	0.44	41.58	10.34	51.92 (6)
Sahdol	54.25	29.35	2.00	0.58	2.85	34.78	10.98	45.76
Jabalpur	56.34	35.52	1.60	---	---	37.12	6.55	43.67
Mandla	48.08	39.01	1.75	--	---	40.85	11.17	52.02 (7)
Balaghat	43.17	34.54	4.16	8.93	1.82	49.45 (6)	7.38	56.83 (8)
Chindwara	40.02	50.54	1.11	---	--	51.65 (7)	8.33	59.98 (9)
Hoshangabad	64.88	27.07	1.37	---	---	28.44	6.73	35.17
Vidisha	66.54	28.28	0.90	0.31	----	29.49	3.97	33.46
Bhopal	63.36	30.47	0.90	0.51	0.41	32.29	4.35	36.64
Rajgarh	59.04	36.41	1.37	----	----	37.78	3.18	40.96
Dewas	58.19	35.43	1.51	----	----	36.94	4.87	41.81
Ujjain	63.08	32.61	0.98	----	0.12	33.71	3.21	36.92
Mandsour	60.13	33.99	0.70	----	0.69	35.38	4.50	39.87
Ratlam	50.42	40.41	1.71	----	0.56	42.68	6.89	49.57
Dhar	51.86	42.17	1.36	----	----	43.53	4.62	48.15
Indore	64.93	29.47	0.56	----	----	30.03	5.03	35.06
Khargone	56.34	33.97	0.72	----	2.25	36.94	6.72	43.66
Khandwa	57.05	36.40	1.09	----	----	37.49	5.46	42.95
Betul	61.68	30.19	1.58	----	----	31.77	6.55	38.32

a = Sum of % votes of Parties: 1 to 4; b = See reference 30; c = Sum of % votes of the Rest of Opposition (1to5)



The Detection of Malingered Levels Of Cognitive Impairment On The Nevada Brief Cognitive Assessment Instrument: Toward the Development of Rapid, Quantitative Measures of Feigned Low Intelligence

Robert W. Wildman

ABSTRACT

A methodology for detecting the downplaying of examinees' cognitive abilities on the Nevada Brief Cognitive Assessment Instrument (NBCAI) is developed, described and validated.

Key Words: Malingering, Impression management, Feigned low intelligence, Nevada Brief Cognitive Assessment Instrument (NBCAI)

INTRODUCTION

The Nevada Brief Cognitive Assessment Instrument (NBCAI) 3. is a 50-item, self-administered matching task which has been used in neuropsychological evaluations (Wildman & McDaniel, 2014). It has been found to have a correlation of .83 with WAIS-III verbal IQ (Brown, Lawson, McDaniel & Wildman, 2012) and may, thus, be considered a measure of IQ and a potential instrument for detecting attempts to present oneself as functioning at a lower level intellectually than is actually the case.

While the NBCAI has already been shown to be useful in detecting negative patient impression management through such procedures as comparing its vocabulary subtest scores with ability to fill out intake forms and communicate during a clinical interview (Wildman, 2010), the present study explores the possibility of developing a quantitative measure of attempts to downplay one's true level of intelligence which is completely internal to the instrument itself.

METHODS

Participants

The subjects for this investigation were 123 applicants for Social Security disability benefits seen for evaluation by the author in his office in Reno, Nevada. The first of these individuals was seen on December 8, 2017 and the last on June 4, 2018.

Procedures

Previous research had identified among patients making a good-faith effort on the NBCAI the 20 least-missed items: 1,2,3, 12, 15, 20, 21, 23, 24, 28, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40.

1. Appreciation is expressed to Dr. William F. McDaniel for his review and suggestions relating to this report.
2. The NBCAI is available for unlimited clinical and research use without charge. It is reproduced in the Brown et al. (2012) report and is also available from this author who will also provide a test manual for the instrument.

The author sorted the subjects into three categories, mostly based on the external indices described earlier in this report: 1) those clearly making a good-faith effort on the instrument, 2) those making a minimal effort or “staying within their comfort zone” and 3) those believed to be downplaying their abilities/attempting to malingering a low level of intelligence. Examinees in category 2 were discarded from the data analysis as not contributing a clear picture to the phenomenon under investigation, leaving 93 subjects in category 1 and 30 in category 3.

Since an obvious artifact in such a study relates to the fact that those people making a good-faith effort on the NBCAI would be expected to obtain higher scores than those who are downplaying their abilities, it was decided to be inappropriate to include in the data analysis all members of category 1. In fact, 26 of the first 30 good-faith patients obtained perfect scores on the NBCAI. Instead, the 30 members of category 1 who obtained the lowest scores were compared with the 30 subjects in category 3.

Ratio utilized in the ultimate data analysis

An a priori prediction was made that an index of the ratio of the number of missed items on a profile that came from the 20 least frequently answered incorrectly items as a proportion of total misses would help in the identification of those examinees who are attempting to conceal their true intellectual abilities. The resulting ratios, of course, could range from .000 to indicate that none of the easiest items were answered incorrectly to 1.000, obviously meaning that all of the missed items on that profile came from the 20 easiest.

RESULTS

The 30 subjects in category 1, those believed to have been making a good-faith effort, obtained scores ranging from 7 to 43 (mean = 33.93, median = 39, sd = 9.853). Scores for the 30 participants in category 3, those believed to have been extending themselves considerably less than would have represented a maximal effort, ranged from 3 to 31 (mean = 14.600, median = 12, sd = 7.944).

For group 1, the range of the ratios of the 20 easiest items missed to total misses ranged from .000 to .302 (mean = .095, median = .100 sd = .101). The comparable figures for category 3 subjects were .000 to .413 (mean = .266, median = .279, sd = .112). The resulting *t* of 1.04 is not significant.

Despite the lack of significance between the ratio means of these two groups, if one sets a cut-off score of .125, predicting that all subjects scoring over that ratio are attempting to hide their true level of intellectual functioning and all those scoring .125 and lower are honest responders, one would be correct in the identification of 20 of the 30 (67%) good-faith subjects and with 26 of the 30 (87%) individuals believed to be downplaying their abilities. This cut-off, therefore, produces an overall “hit rate” (Wildman & Wildman, 1975) of 77%.

This hit rate of 77%, when compared to an expected chance hit rate of 50% (15 subjects in each cell) in the four cells of good-faith effort looking honest and looking faked and faking bad looking honest and appearing to be faking bad, produces a Chi Square of 19.463, which with 3 degrees of freedom is significant at well beyond the .01 level.

CONCLUSIONS

These results clearly document the ability to develop a measure of negative impression management which is entirely internal to the NBCAI. Such an index can be important in the conduct of neuropsychological evaluations in that Wildman and McDaniel (2014) found that virtually all of the patients who scored at the lowest levels on both the Saint Louis University

Mental Status Examination and the NBCAI were diagnosed with serious CNS dysfunction. It should also be possible to develop corresponding measures of downplaying one's abilities using other instruments.

An advantage of employing this methodology over other malingering-detection schemes, such as the Structured Inventory of Malingered Symptoms (Widows & Smith, 2007), is that the present impression management detection device can be an integral part of the evaluation process itself. This is particularly important in that typically additional testing to rule out malingering/negative impression management is not authorized in referrals for disability evaluations.

It seems to the present writer that a 20 easy items/total misses ratio, as well as other NBCAI-based malingering detection schemes which might be developed in the future, should be regarded as supportive evidence for a conclusion of downplaying one's abilities and never used as a definitive answer to the question of whether negative impression management is operative in any individual case.

An obvious limitation of this report is that all of the ratings and decisions were made by just one psychologist, a weakness which should, of course, be corrected in future research.

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Chushingura (The Forty-Seven Ronin) in History and Film, A Guide for Secondary Level History Teachers

Rick Derrah

With the victory of Tokugawa Ieyasu at the battle of Sekigahara in 1600 a new period in Japanese history; the Tokugawa or Edo Period (1603-1686), began. It was an incredible change as the country shifted from several hundred years of warfare to a time of peace. It was, however, a time of peace which held the warrior class as its highest members. The samurai were controlled by the daimyo or local lords who controlled the provinces but were, in return, subordinate to the bakufu or central government. While this organization of control would last for two hundred and fifty years without many major problems there were occasions when events called the tenets of the system into question. One such event was Chushingura or the story of the Forty-seven Ronin.

In 1701 the daimyo of the province of Ako, Asano Naganori attacked Kira Yoshinaka inside the Shogun's castle in Edo. Kira was only slightly wounded on his forehead and back, but due to the violation of drawing his sword in the Shogun's castle, Asano was forced to commit seppuku on the same day. Asano's domain was confiscated resulting in his vassals becoming masterless samurai or ronin. Two years later forty-seven of the retainers of Asano attacked the mansion of Kira in Edo and killed him. They took his head to the Asano's grave at Sengakuji and then reported their crime to the bakufu government. After a period of confinement the men were forced to commit seppuku. This event became a topic in contemporary academics debates, but more importantly captured popular imagination.

Beyond just a period of peace, the Tokugawa period saw a flowering of Japanese culture including popular theatre such kabuki and bunraku (puppet theatre). Almost immediately the story of the Forty-seven Ronin was extremely popular in Edo Period theatre. "But precisely because of the widespread fame of the incident, it was constantly reinterpreted and reimagined by later generations, so that the truth of the historical incident paradoxically became ever more inaccessible as time passed." (Masahide, p.149) These reinterpretations give us a glimpse into different perspectives on the incident. The popularity of the story has continued into modern media. Each year NHK, Japan's national television channel, shows, usually a historically based, fifty-two one hour episode drama series known as the taiga drama. The first taiga drama to start in January was called Ako Ronin and based on the story of the Forty-seven Ronin; it had a fifty-three percent share of the viewing audience which is a record unbroken to this day. (Schilling, p.245) The popularity of this story has also resulted in over two hundred movie versions of the story. Two versions in particular, *The 47 Ronin* (1942), directed by Kenji Mizoguchi and *Chushingura* (1962), directed by Hiroshi Inagaki have different approaches to the subject.

By looking at the historical basis of the story and comparing this with two different film versions a secondary level history teacher has a lens through which to study the Tokugawa period in a high school history classroom. Students could use one of the many play versions of the story to act out key scenes and compare this with one or both of the film versions. The two film versions discussed here could be viewed to compare the handling of different

elements of the story. Some key elements to compare could include the historical authenticity, the idea of loyalty, and the role of women in both film versions.

This study falls under the current Massachusetts History and Social Science Curriculum Frameworks as provided by the Massachusetts Department of Education.

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

World History Standards

History of China, Japan, and Korea to 1800

- WHI.25 Summarize the major economic, political, and religious developments in Japanese history 1800
 1. the development of feudalism
 2. the rise of the shogun and the role of the samurai

- WHI.28 Describe the influence and consequences of isolation

THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

With his victory at the battle of Sekigahara in 1600, Tokugawa Ieyasu became the most powerful person in the country, but it was the emperor who bestowed upon him the title of shogun. The Emperor was in a position above the shogun, however, he held no real power at this time still official formalities were upheld. Each year the shogun would send emissaries to the imperial residence in Kyoto and in return the emperor would send representatives to the shogun's capital of Edo. In 1701 representatives of the Emperor Higashiyama (1687-1709) and the retired Emperor Reigan (1683-1687) came to Edo to present New Year wishes to the shogun. As part of the system of control of the daimyo by the bakufu, daimyo would serve in various capacities in the capital. Asano Naganori, daimyo of the province of Aki, was appointed to serve as a host for the Emperor and another daimyo, Date Muneharu, did the same for the retired emperor. Both of these individuals worked with the shogunal official in charge of ceremonies, Kira Yoshinaka. During the ceremonies, Asano attacked Kira, who was about seventy years old, with his sword inside the shogun's castle in Edo. Kira was struck in the face and as he turned to run away he was struck again in the back. He lived but this was the initial incident which would culminate with forty-seven of Asano's followers entering Kira's house and killing him two years later.

One of the largest controversies surrounding the incident involves the cause of Asano's attack on Kira. One account of the attack on Kira by an official in Edo castle, Kajiwara Yosobei, is the only statement by a witness to the attack which survives today. According to his statement, Kajiwara had gone to speak with Kira concerning an exchange of presents with the emissaries but he was not present so he spoke with Asano. After speaking with Asano he noticed Kira return so he went to speak with him and while doing so Kira was attacked coming from behind Kajiwara. Kajiwara reported that Asano stated during the attack "Do you remember my grudge from these past days?" (*kono aida no ikon oboetara ka*) (Masahide, p.150). Asano was then held back by Kajiwara and others while Kira was helped away. Bakufu officials were notified and Asano was confined.

Another report on the incident was left by a different shogunal official, Okado Denpachiro, who was an inspector on duty at the time of the attack. His report provides a little more insight into the reason for the attack than Kajiwara's statement. Okado states that when he questioned Asano concerning the attack, Asano stated that he had forgotten where he was and attacked Kira because of a grudge. He does not, however, explain more about the grudge in his report.

Another account of the attack is found in Ako Gijinroku (1703) by Muro Kyusu. He was not an eyewitness to the attack. In Ako Gijinroku, Kajiwara is speaking with Asano concerning the exchange of presents when Kira approaches and makes a statement concerning Asano's lack of knowledge and refers to him as a country bumpkin. Reacting to the statement Asano attacks Kira. This account, however, was written two years after the incident.

The bakufu ordered Asano to be held by the daimyo Tamura Takeaki while the investigation continued. The records of that daimyo state that the attack had occurred before noon, Asano was placed into custody at 1 P.M., the order for Asano to commit seppuku came at 4 P.M., and Asano committed seppuku just after 6 P.M. (Masahide, p.151) The official bakufu statement declared that Asano was guilty of two crimes; disrupting the ceremonies and drawing his sword in the shogun's castle. Not only was Asano forced to commit seppuku but his domain was confiscated, his younger brother Daigaku was placed in the custody of another daimyo, and his house was abolished. With his domain confiscated all his retainers were now ronin or masterless samurai.

The Ako domain had approximately two hundred and seventy samurai at the time of the incident who were now unemployed. The immediate response of Asano's retainers was mixed. Some wanted to attack and kill Kira while others urged restraint. Messengers were sent from Edo to Asano's home province of Ako where the response was again mixed. Some of the retainers in Ako suggested holding the castle against the shogun's forces and dying as they defended it but before that decision was made a petition was sent to the bakufu. The petition was based on the idea of *kenka ryoseibai* which stated that all sides in a disagreement were to be punished equally. Kira had not been punished while Asano received a swift decision being forced to commit seppuku on the same day of the incident. The petition was not made without precedence.

Prior incidents provided a basis for sending a petition to the government of the current shogun Tsunayoshi. In 1627 Naramura Magokuro attacked two others inside Edo castle and he was forced to commit seppuku. One of the people he attacked died but the other Kizukuri Saburozaemon fled without offering resistance. Due to his action or his inaction Kizukuri was banished. Asano's retainers argued that Kira should at least be sentenced to banishment, but the response to the petition urged the retainers go along with decision of the bakufu. "The lenient treatment of Kira can be seen as a manifestation of the political posture of Tsunayoshi, which placed primary emphasis on maintaining order." (Masashide, p. 155) One reason to give up the idea of defending the castle concerned the protection of the Asano clan. Some retainers hoped that Asano's younger brother, Daigaku, would be allowed to take over the Asano clan and allow it to continue. If the castle was held against bakufu orders Asano's closest relative, Daigaku, could be punished. Another option considered by the retainers was junshi or suicide after the death of a lord. Junshi, however, had been outlawed by the bakufu so following that course could have resulted in punishment for daigaku as well. Daigaku was eventually released from custody but he was handed over to relatives in Hiroshima eliminating any chance that the Asano house would be restored along with the jobs and honor of its retainers. Without hope of having the Asano house restored the decision was made to seek revenge against Kira.

In considering the response of the bakufu it is important to consider the influence of the shogun and the timing of the incident, Tsunayoshi. He was a student of Confucianism and strongly believed in regulations. Aware of the court attitudes towards the warrior government he paid particular attention to ceremonies. The feelings of the shogun to improve the ceremonies in the eyes of the imperial court, the high position of inspector of ceremonies that Kira held may have been in conflict with daimyos who only spent some of the time in the

capital. The bakufu was at a high point of its power. It was solidifying its relationship with the daimyo and encouraging the variety of court rituals which led to an increased concern for the matter of etiquette. Just seven years after the Asano attack on Kira another daimyo, Maeda Toshimasa, in a position similar to Asano's attacked and killed the inspector of ceremonies, however, this attack took place outside of Edo castle.

After a period of planning and hiding their true intentions, forty-seven of Asano's retainers led by Oishi Kuranosuke attacked Kira's mansion in Edo. None of the men from Ako were killed while they killed several of Kira's men and wounded many others. Forty-seven men entered the mansion but, as soon as Kira was killed one man left to bring word back to the province of Ako so while most accounts describe forty-seven men as partaking in the revenge against Kira some refer to the forty-six ronin. Regardless of the title, after they took the head of Kira it was placed at the grave of Asano at Sengakuji.

The bakufu's response to the attack on Kira's mansion was not as swift as the response to Asano's attack on Kira. One document, described as being of questionable authenticity, described the bakufu's reaction to the attack on Kira's mansion. Kira's adopted son was forced to commit seppuku and all the men who survived the attack and without helping with the defense of the mansion were executed by decapitation. Decapitation was seen as a harsher punishment than being allowed to commit seppuku. Kira's house was abolished with the understanding that his adopted son did not act as a samurai since he should have gone out after the forty-six ronin.

The immediate response by the bakufu against Oishi and the other retainers was to place them into custody. Eventually they were ordered to commit seppuku. Seppuku was a punishment which was considered honorable and only applied to samurai. The fact that ronin were allowed to commit seppuku as samurai instead of being decapitated as they broke bakufu law showed a compassion for their actions. They were, however, going to die which showed the bakufu's ultimate objective of maintaining order by following the law.

The action of the forty-seven ronin created a heated debate among scholars of the time. "The revenge itself has maintained the lively interest of historian's right up to the present." (McMullen, p.294) The forty-seven ronin created a controversy by following one of the highest samurai virtues of loyalty to their lord by while doing this they broke bakufu law. Sato Naokata wrote in 1705 that the bakufu made the correct decision by having the retainers commit seppuku as they had broken the law. "In an another, undated piece, he reported with approval a samurai's opinion that though the actions of the forty-six were widely admired by chonin, viewed as revenge, they were unexceptional for warriors in japan." (McMullen, p.301) In response to Naokata's writings another Confucian scholar, Asami Keisai stated that the forty-six had acted in the only moral way they could. Kira was the direct cause of their lord's death so revenge was the only solution. Keisai ideal does place some blame on the bakufu's judgment against Asano and believes that the final judgment of the bakufu against the forty-six ronin shows an understanding of the action of the forty-seven ronin. They were forced to commit seppuku, but none of their families were punished. Another scholar, Dazai Shundai, regarded the action of the ronin as misplaced. He felt it was not Kira who caused Asano's death but the wrongful judgment of the bakufu. These ideas, critical of the bakufu, were suppressed. "As Shundai complained,' from scholars, ministers, and gentlemen down to cart-pullers and grooms, there was no one who does not slap his thighs in admiration for the forty-six." (McMullen, p.310)

Debates continue to this day concerning the various aspects of the incident even on the point of why Asano attacked Kira. Did Kira cause problems for Asano because he failed to give an adequate bribe to Kira leading to the attack? Did Kira make an inappropriate advance to Asano's wife? Many of these questions continue even with varying degrees of evidence to support them. The greatest debate, however, still resolves around the question of loyalty and honor in the incident.

LOYALTY AND HONOR

Loyalty and honor are two key elements in the story of the forty-seven ronin. Were there actions a result of loyalty to their deceased lord, were they an attempt to redeem their personal honor, or to something else. To better understand these factors it is important look at the history of conflict resolution in samurai society. Conflict resolution has evolved over time, but be divided into three distinct periods of development. The first was medieval period when the principle of jiriki kyusai or self-redress of grievances was the predominate method of solving grievances. The second period was the late medieval or warring states period when the idea of kenka ryoseibai or equal punishment of all parties in a quarrel regardless of the reason behind the involvement. The final stage, Tokugawa period, saw pacification force a radical change to the way samurai settled arguments. The ultimate determination of disputes was found within the law.

The introduction of kenka ryoseibai during the warring states period created a decline in the samurai's self determination and a rise in the power of warlords or daimyo. Instead of personally taking care of disputes samurai were now more dependent on the influence of outside opinion. Samurai needed to appeal to another power for the resolution of disputes. The bakufu did utilize the idea of kenka ryoseibai, however, "even though kenka ryoseibai had acquired the status of a kind of customary law by that time, it was not formally inscribed in the shogunate's official code." (Ikegami, p.203) There was no official legal way to handle samurai disputes. During the warring states period kenka ryoseibai was important from a military perspective. It limited disputes within military formations, but under the Tokugawa bakufu it was seen as a way to prevent problems under the Tokugawa model of organization.

The forty-seven ronin, even after deciding to attack Kira, were not united in a plan of action. During their two years of planning two contending factions developed. The conservative faction led by Oishi Yoshio who was more concerned with the honor of the Asano house than personal loyalty to their daimyo who was forced to commit seppuku. If the Asano house was able to be restored honor would also be restored. This was his primary concern. The radical group felt a personal loyalty to their daimyo, Asano. They wanted to take action against Kira and attack him without delay. One member of this group stated "if the deceased lord had been thinking of the importance of the house descended from his ancestors, he would not have allowed himself to be carried away by anger." (Ikegami, p.228) This course of action would cause the radical group to go against the law of the bakufu, however, they stated that their primary obligation was not to the shogun. Their most important goal was the restoration of their personal honor as samurai. Oishi believed the radical group's sense of loyalty was misplaced. Their loyalty should be to the house of Asano and protecting the honor of the house should be the samurai's objective. Odaka Gengo stated

"we had been patient until now...because we were hoping that, if Daigaku were allowed to succeed to the lordship, and Kira were to receive some sort of punishment, Daigaku would have a better appearance in the seken. If so, the ie of Asano would stand even though our lord had been [killed] in this way...[But since this hope appears to be in vain] ... if we only watch to see how things turn out, that would be the way a coward would act, and not the attitude that a real samurai should take... We will

stand up for the way of the samurai and take revenge on the enemy of our master..."
(Ikegami,p.230)

When Daigaku was placed in the custody of relative sin Hiroshima the differences between the two groups closed. An attack on Kira would satisfy the honor of the house and the samurai, but this discussion brings to the front two concepts of loyalty. These two concepts include loyalty to a person in the form of the daimyo of a samurai and the second is loyalty to the house to which the samurai belong. In Japanese these two ideals are expressed with the terms *hitomae* and *seken*. *Hitomae* is the sense of honor felt by samurai while *seken* is the sense of within a community. While the radical group spoke about its loyalty to their dead daimyo Asano they were concerned with their sense of honor within the *seken*. It is interesting to note that the radical group was composed mainly of Ako samurai who were assigned to represent the domain in Edo. Edo was filled with many samurai is a crowded environment. The perception of the *seken* was a strong force. Oishi criticized this and stated that "if you would let go of your private worry, and look at the essence of the matter, criticism of the *seken* would not bother you." (Ikegami, p.231) Oishi was concerned with the *seken* but felt the best course of action was to restore the honor of the Asano house within the *seken*.

Methods of conflict resolution, views of loyalty and placement of honor have all been interpreted in various ways and provide an opportunity for the story itself to be interpreted in numerous ways. This has allowed the story of the forty-seven ronin to continue in popular culture.

CHUSHINGURA IN POPULAR CULTURE

"Within a month, Nakamura, a kabuki theatre in Edo, preformed a play entitled Akebono sogano youchi, which apparently derived it's theme from this vendetta." (Ikegami, p.225) The shogunate banned further performances after just three shows. The story continued to be told but playwrights changed the names of the character in the stories to limit government interference. The popularity of the story along with its ambiguities such as the cause of the 'grudge' between Kira and Asano has spawned many versions of the story.

One version in particular brings family into a more central role of the story. "In Kanadehon Chushingura, the most famous of the seventy or so kabuki and puppet plays on the subject written between 1706 and 1891" (Barrett, p.26) Right from the beginning of the family enters the story showing Kira's desire for Asano's wife as the center of the disagreement between the two individuals. Concern for families is also increased as Oishi and the other retainers are very concerned about the impact of their decision on their families. "This difference doubtless reflects the different lifestyles of the audience. In the kabuki-viewing merchant family the wife had the active role in the family business." (Barrett, p.27) More than just the emphasis on family some dramatic story lines are introduced. Oishi is a witness to the death of Asano and receives the sword used in his seppuku. At the end of the play Oishi uses this same sword to kill Kira.

Another famous version Mayama's Genroku Chushingura by Mayama Seika was made into a two part film in 1941 and 1942 by the director Kenji Mizuguchi who made the film at the request of the Japanese wartime government. Mizuguchi had made films critical of feudalism but this film highlighted absolute loyalty. "Since Mizuguchi takes for granted in his audience so many plot, character, allusion, and allegory, he is free to concentrate his energies on the problem of defamiliarizing the Chushingura epic." (Davis, p.132) The scenes of Kira causing problems for Asano are not shown and the movie begins with the attack on Kira. Very little is made of the reasons for the attack shifting blame away form the evilness of Kira as shown in

other versions to placing blame on the system of control as set up by the bakufu. How can a samurai, a man of loyalty and honor exist within such a system? “The villain of the affair is not Kira, who simply played the coward, but the system of government that can commend actions of the coward while summarily punishing with death the partner to the quarrel who drew and used his wakizashi in the last defense of samurai honor.” (Powell, p.737)

In *Genroku Chushingura*, the placement of loyalty is also shifted. Oishi is loyal not to Asano the man but loyal to his position. “Oishi’s loyalty is not personal but institutionalized, for it is simply directed toward anyone in a superior position, and Mizuguchi illustrates this cinematically” (Barrett, p.29) by having Oishi frequently shown from an overhead camera.

Mizuguchi places the viewer within the movie by using various methods. He uses very authentic materials, props, and sets the movie to such an extent that the budget of the film was ten times more than other contemporary films. More important is the methods Mizuguchi uses to explore these sets.

“Genroku Chushingura is a masterpiece because it transcends drama, or rather brings drama into a perceptual realm that seems to have little to do with its overt subject matter. Although Genroku Chushingura is a deadly serious historical tract, Mizuguchi plays games with our perceptual apprehension of space and objects at a local level. He asks that we focus our attention on things that are not directly relevant to the story, which attenuates the narrative but concentrates the style.” (Davis, p.148)

Mizuguchi uses multiple long shots in his films as well. “The close relationship between Mizuguchi’s style and the old performing arts is apparent, and only in this limited sense can his works be called premodern.” (Sato, T. p.181) By utilizing these techniques Mizuguchi moves the emphasis away from elements of the story such as the evil Kira and places the viewer within the system he is calling into question.

In contrast to Mizuguchi’s handling of the story, the director Hiroshi Inagaki in his movie version *Chushingura* (1962) shows Asano as embodying the ideals of virtue and youth. Much more time in the movie is used to show the level of Kira’s harassment of Asano. The cause of this harassment is clearly shown as Kira’s greed leaving the action of Asano, his attack on Kira, as the result of his integrity honor. “It is the universal contrast between pure youth and corrupt adulthood.” (Barrett, p.30) While the story discusses the possibility of restoring the Asano house in a limited way the emphasis is clearly placed on the personal loyalty to the daimyo Asano.

WOMEN

While the story of the forty-seven ronin places honor and loyalty in the revenge of their departed daimyo against Kira as the central elements of the story, the role of women is treated differently in the two film versions providing an interesting insight into the Tokugawa period. Inagaki does show the involvement with women by the forty-seven compassionately but they are truly secondary to the act of revenge. Mizuguchi, however, gives woman a very important place in his version.

In Hiroshi Inagaki’s film version of *Chushingura* women have a secondary role. Oishi Kuranosuke leaves his wife and children and visits Yoshiwara in order to conceal his true intentions from the government. He drinks and pretends to enjoy the company of women since Kira’s allies who expect an act of revenge. Oishi divorces his wife sending her home without explanation or an affectionate farewell. Unlike some versions of the story where Oishi’s wife responds to her husband’s cruelty, Inagaki shows Oishi’s wife as the samurai wife must

understand. Any emotional involvements of the 47 must be let go for the sake of samurai duty. "In Inagaki's flamboyant spectacle, flawed by visual excess, after the killing of Kira the forty-seven march triumphantly through the town, tired, wearing their dirty, bloodstained clothes, but supremely dignified." (Mellen p.32) The brotherhood of the group replaces any attachment they held.

In Kenji Mizuguchi's version of Chushingura, is not until the end that the relationship between men and women comes to the center of the story. Including parts left out by Inagaki, Mizuguchi deals with the days before the ronin commit seppuku. One day a woman appears who had been engaged to one of the forty-seven. Her father had spent all his money in preparations for their marriage. He now feels betrayed by the ronin's decision to join the expedition. "The camera dollies one hundred and eighty degrees around the woman for the entire duration of her explanation to Oishi of her predicament, adding an emotional intensity lacking in the film before now." (Mellen, p.33) The woman wants to know what he really feels. Inagaki's women, suffer through the decisions of their loved ones but Mizuguchi, showing the feudal period from an anti-feudal point of view, provides the woman in this scene with a strong sense of self. The audience is made to feel sympathetic toward her desire not to suffer in doubt for the rest of her life. "The camera keeps moving, signaling that the most sincere of human feelings are now being revealed without hypocrisy." (Mellen, p.34) Oishi requests that she not see her lover as he might weaken in his last moment and be unable to complete his seppuku. She is finally allowed to see him and he states that he does not love her but this is not the truth as he shows that he has retained a token of their relationship. He leaves asking her to tell her father that he is still his son-in-law. "It could be argued that Mizuguchi's perennial preoccupation with women is the means by which he subtly sabotages the nationalism apparently promoted by the picture." (Davis, p,132)

In the final scenes of the movie after the ronin leave for their seppuku, the woman herself commits seppuku. This is the only seppuku Mizuguchi allows to be seen in the movie. Even the forty-seven ronin's seppuku is not shown only their names are read. It is only a woman in Mizuguchi's version who seeks out answers to the questions she has even if this goes against what is expected of her. She chooses the prerogative of the samurai, seppuku, even when she has other options. She alone represents the ultimate ideals of honor and loyalty.

CONCLUSION

For the secondary history teacher, Chushingura or the Story of the Forty-seven Ronin provides multiple opportunities to explore the Tokugawa Period. The story can be used as the center of a lesson on the samurai, popular culture, the ideals of loyalty and honor, or the representation of history in film and satisfies a history requirement as stated in the Massachusetts History and Social Science Curriculum Frameworks as provided by the Massachusetts Department of Education. Films are a great tool to help with this opportunity.

When films are brought into the classroom students are exposed to new worlds and the films The 47 Ronin (1942) directed by Kenji Mizuguchi and Chushingura (1962) directed by Hiroshi Inagaki both provide a rich telling of a story which continues to be told and retold in popular Japanese culture more than the story of Ebenezer Scrooge in A Christmas Carol is retold in American culture. The issues raised from different perspectives in each film allow the teacher to set up activities such as viewing comparative segments and analyzing the various perspectives. More than just differences looking at films on the same subject would allow the students to find commonality as well. Readings could also be introduced to supplement the visual materials. Either way, using these two films along with the historical background

provided will allow teachers to look at important questions from the Tokugawa Period and enjoy some two great films.

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Digital Divide and e-Training for people with Disabilities

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ABSTRACT

There are currently a number of challenges particularly for people with disabilities due to digital divide with a significant limitation of the ICT to be accessible and to adapt to user needs. This paper focusses on accessible ICT platforms and e-training as well as hopes and challenges of them. Cerebral palsy (CP), one of the most common motor disability in rehabilitation with antenatal antecedents and often multi-factorial is given as an example as well as a European project with the participation of authors as partners.

Keywords: Digital Divide, ICT, ICT Platforms, e-training, Cerebral palsy

DIGITAL DIVIDE AND ICT

Digital Divide refers to the gap of unequal accessibility and experience at the of modern information and communication technologies ICT (i.e. telephones, televisions, computers and the Internet), between people particularly due to demographics and disability.

The World Health Organization (WHO) affirms that about 15% of the world's population have disabilities, 2-4% of them with significant difficulties in their daily activities. This means that a significant number of people are unable to access technology because it wasn't developed for all. In USA about 54% of households with a disability use the Internet, compared to 81% of households with no disability http://www.who.int/disabilities/world_report/2011/report/en/.

Mary Pat Radabaugh, formerly with the IBM National Support Center for Persons with Disabilities, sums up the importance of technology in the empowerment of persons with disabilities (National Council on Disability 1993): "For most people, technology makes things easier. For people with disabilities, technology makes things possible."

ICT can enable persons with disabilities to access lifelong education, achieve skills development and employment (Broadband Commission for Digital Development et al. 2013) and should be used to promote inclusion and full participation of persons with disabilities in life.

ICT also are used as r channels for the delivery and implementation of governance, welfare, socioeconomic development, and human rights programming [15]. They can contribute to poverty reduction by enabling direct interactions between producers and markets globally, new methods of delivering personalized public and social services quickly, different channels for income generation, and innovations in asset accumulation and access to finance [10; 19]. The Internet offers multiple channels to access and adapt information, with a global reach,

which can improve transparency, accountability, and monitoring of development programs and services. Multiple channels are used for communication and service delivery including email, text messaging, voice communications, and video. People with physical disabilities or diseases that affect hand dexterity like quadriplegia resulting from spinal cord injury, multiple sclerosis, muscular dystrophy, cerebral palsy or stroke are unable to interact with touch screens, mouses, or keyboards without the presence of assistive technology to bridge the gap. Additionally the lack of access to personal devices and the Internet is also prevalent among those with cognitive, hearing and visual impairments <https://medium.com/.../what-is-the-digital-divide-and-how-does-it...>

The use of technology in the empowerment of persons with disabilities is not new. Assistive (enabling) and adaptive technologies aid persons with difficulties to use the computer in verbal communications, and telecommunication relay devices have been used to promote independence and participation. It is an alternative way to access the content on screen, command the computer or process data. Specific adjustment software or devices for using the computer include [3].

Screen reading software (speaks displayed text and allows simulating mouse actions with the keyboard),

- Screen magnification software (for enlarging the content of the screen),
- Braille display (for displaying Braille characters),
- Alternate input devices (e. g. Screen keyboard) and special keyboard (to make data entry easier),
- Keyboard enhancements and accelerators (like StickKeys, Mousekeys, repeatKeys, SlowKeys, BounceKeys, and shortcut keys),
- Alternative pointing devices (e. g. Foot operated mice, head mounted pointing device, or eye tracking systems),

Unfortunately, many assistive technologies are expensive. Screen readers, text-to-speech software and Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC) devices can cost more than 1,000€ each, and not everyone is aware of the financing or grant opportunities within their country. Particularly, persons with disabilities in low and middle-income countries face significant challenges in acquiring assistive devices such as the cost and availability of standalone, specialized equipment [34]. High prices of assistive technologies can be a barrier to their use in promoting the independent living, education, and employment of persons with disabilities in low and middle-income countries, which have lower state funding to facilitate the acquisition of assistive technology [4]. The continuous progress of ICT requires continuous improving the learning quality applied in education and training systems by addressing new perspectives and opportunities. E-training could be an answer to fulfill needs to learn of the students in a personalized and inclusive way. There is an optimism about the potential of e-Learning to reduce barriers to education and improve the lives of individuals with disabilities [7]. Developing accessible online educational environments is as a principal solution to address this issue and to remove the barriers that people with disabilities may meet when they access these learning technologies. An appropriate technology has to provide people with disabilities with adaptive and personalized learning experiences that are tailored to their particular educational needs and personal characteristics. It should improve their motivation, satisfaction, learning speed and learning effectiveness.

But at the moment only a select population has the ability to take advantage of them and so increasing the digital divide. It is necessary that ICT designers integrate accessibility features

in their product or service to make it possible for people with disabilities to access them independently.

One inclusive organization that follows principles of accessibility happens to be one of the largest tech companies - Apple. Apple's accessibility features have improved over the years with the introduction of Voice Over, Switch Control, and more. These features have opened doors to the millions of people who could not use smartphones because they could not hold or touch the device, read the screen, or hear the commands.

With more access to products with accessibility integration and to assistive technologies like Tecla, the gap of people with disabilities affected by the digital divide could be lower.

In the following we present some issues of ICT to support inclusion of people with disabilities.

Multiple channels for communication and access content

ICT enables content creation and delivery in various formats by using different media and multiple communication channels simultaneously to connect i.e. SMS, voice, websites with multimedia, social media, and mobile apps [2; 4]. People with a disability can choose the one most suited media and channel without additional financial burden on the demand or supply side.

Availability and Affordability

The rapid developments in digital technologies support the field of assistive and adaptive technology because they have brought many of these specialized functionalities within the domain of general consumer and personal technology. The cost and availability of accessible technology for persons with disabilities can decrease

Different Apps

There are apps using icons, images, and storyboards to communicate and assist people with hearing disabilities by providing instant captions for audio content including phone calls, voice amplification, and video calling, and converting audio alerts into text. There are educational apps that focus on assisting students with learning disabilities in learning and working on math, composition, and reading. Additionally web-enabled services offer targeted assistance for individuals with disabilities such as remote live captioning for meetings and webinars, remote sign language interpretation, and video relay where a sign language interpreter assists in the communication between individuals with and without hearing disabilities. Crowdsourcing platforms offer new opportunities for persons with disabilities to learn and inform others about accessibility of restaurants, hotels, tourist destinations, and other public sites.

HOPES AND CHALLENGES FOR ACCESSIBLE E-TRAINING AND ICT PLATFORMS

Technology has the potential to overcome disabilities barriers and improve access to learning for students with disabilities. The increased use of ICTs in most sectors of society and recent developments in adaptive hardware and software should make possible that people with disabilities to do tasks that were difficult or impossible for them to do in the past (<https://www.ruhglobal.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Nabil-Eid-from-Syria-Middle-East-ICT-acces>).

The unequal access to information systems for distance learning students has been studied intensively over past years through different demographics and metrics, which are resulting in different stages and interpretations of the digital divide. These have primarily moved from

digital “have” versus “have-nots” towards a more social and intellectual inequality [20]. The modern digital divide is not a question of whether users possess the right technology at hand, however with new technology being constantly introduced in the market, discrepancies arise which in turn cause also a new form of divide.

Existing empirical research on training by using ICT platforms and e-training for students with disabilities is not sufficient, and trainers/teachers remain with many questions which are not answered and there is not a consensus about how best to serve such students in accessible content and an online environment.

A very recent study [11] looks into the historic evolution of the digital divide across a set of countries in the EU in order to examine the effectiveness of latest mitigation techniques and policies embedded in relation to this subject.

Analyses on digital gaps noted in different regional dimensions conclude that there is still a high level of imbalance even in developed countries [31].

The key element is how to ensure that such platforms and online learning/training is accessible to the broadest spectrum of learners in the world with and without disabilities.

UN Report [26] indicates that people with disabilities face a wide range of barriers, including access to information, education and a lack of job opportunities. ICT can be a powerful tool in supporting education and inclusion for persons with disabilities.

In the education sector, current learning platforms are complex and lead to confusion on both the student and teacher’s part.

Accessible e-training modules on ICT platforms as web-based courses can be taken and completed successfully by learners with disabilities. Accessible e-Learning creates an online learning experience that includes as many people as possible regardless of their limitations whether physical, sensory, or cognitive. The challenge of developing accessible content is to develop e-Learning for a corporation, academic institution, or government agency and following best practices.

Research has been conducted recently that aims at adapting information systems to end users with disabilities. As part of the EU4ALL framework (https://cordis.europa.eu/project/rcn/80191_en.html) such mitigation involves the design of an integrated system that displays the most appropriate output to the user.

Referring the Web, the W3C [32]. (W3C Web Accessibility Initiative, 2013) carried out a key solution promoting people with disabilities in accessing, using and interacting with the web through the Web Accessibility Initiative (WAI). The WAI develops strategies, guidelines, and resources to make the web accessible to people with disabilities. The WAI targets, among others, web content through Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG) [33], authoring tools through Authoring Tools Accessibility Guidelines (ATAG) [33], and user agent through User Agent Accessibility Guidelines (UAAG) [33]. In the WAI model, the WCAG is complemented by accessibility guidelines for browsing and access technologies (UAAG) and for tools to support creation of Web content (ATAG)[18]. Accessibility problems are not just about ICT teaching platforms. Training by using ICT platforms needs to address accessibility and inclusion from both the perspective of technology and pedagogy. This is particularly true for students with disabilities. Accessible content is effectively used by people in the following

disability groups: Blind or visually-impaired, deaf, mobility impairments and learning with disabilities students. Good accessible design makes e-Learning more accessible for everyone, conversely, poor design can make content hard to access for all students with disabilities. There are a number of areas in which e-Learning can work to the advantage of students with disabilities when studying in education context. These revolve around the three areas of accessibility, flexibility, and disclosure. Online information can be made available in a variety of formats to best suit the person accessing it, whether this is visual through a screen displaying images or text, audio as spoken words and sound, or touch devices. For specific information on accessibility features and more about a usable and accessible platforms see examples Blackboard, Microsoft Lync, Second Life.

According to the Americans with Disabilities Act – ADA , online courses should be made accessible to students with disabilities but ADA has not provided any specific accommodation standards, it's up to each school to decide to what extent it will serve its students with disabilities. In a perfect world, online courses should be created using the concept of universal design, the idea Mostavailable e-learning systems for learners with disabilities are limited to deliver accessible learning contents. However, the learners with disabilities need the whole accessible platform environment and not only the accessible content. In fact, providing accessible content in a non-accessible learning environment leads to a non-accessible learning experience. In the following, we present the main limits of the available systems.

For example, courses should be design in navigating with keyboards, include in alt text, images and text on screen for clarity, create highly-usable course navigation, considerations when including audio and video in courses and ensure screencasts are totally accessible.

Online courses should be designed to be accessible from the beginning and implementing universal design principles at the outset avoided costs caused by the need to engage in a digital retrofit, also, design learning platform includes multiple learning modalities could very well be superior to in-person education for students with disabilities (<https://www.ruhglobal.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Nabil-Eid-from-Syria-Middle-East-ICT-acces>).

Accessibility of ICT platforms and free courses, should introduce the challenge to decrease the digital divide helping students with disabilities who y use computers in different ways when taking part in training or may need alternative teaching methods.. Many online courses are not designed with accessibility in mind so students who do not disclose that they have a disability maybe disadvantaged. It also means that when students do request accommodation to access the learning environment it requires a process of design-redesign to accommodate the students, adding additional costs, so we need to understand the main.

CASE STUDIED: CEREBRAL PALSY AND SUPPORTING TRAINING

Christine Staple-Ebanks, founder and head of advocacy of the Nathan Ebanks Foundation explains: "Cerebral palsy is the most common physical disability in childhood and is also one of the least understood. There are over 17 million people living with CP worldwide, and 350 million family, friends and supporters who care about them." <https://petchary.wordpress.com/2017/10/06/world-cerebral-palsy-day-christine-staple-ebanks-says-quality-of-life-is-key/>.

Cerebral Palsy (CP) is the most common cause of motor disability in childhood and it can lead to a varied spectrum of clinical manifestations. CP comes from a permanent and non-progressive injury in the developing brain and it can occur during pregnancy, childbirth or after birth. Although there is no cure for CP the consequences can be minimized.

CP is not just a day-by-day reality it has a moment-by-moment impact in people's lives—not just in the lives of those with CP, but among families professionals , and educators as well who care for them.

Issues which can be improved by the use of ICT are Quality of Life and wellbeing; it means helping people thrive, and adults find enjoyment and fulfillment in life. It is about providing the supports necessary to give children with CP access to education and developmental opportunities.”

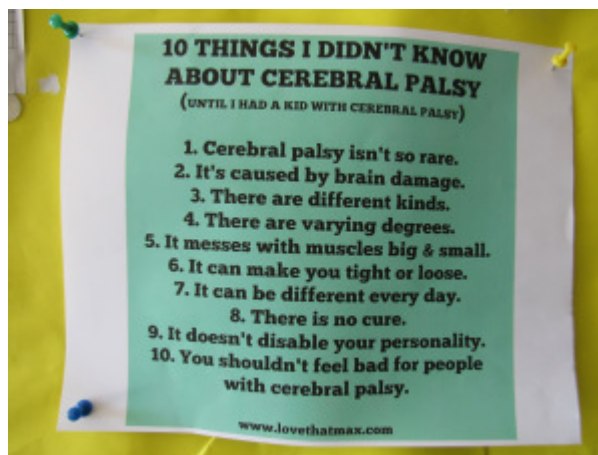


Fig. 1: 10 Things I Didn't Know About Cerebral Palsy Source:

<https://petchary.wordpress.com/2017/10/06/world-cerebral-palsy-day-christine-staple-ebanks-says-quality-of-life-is-key/>.

Access to medical and therapeutic care available based on ICT is essential to helping people with CP live the best possible life. But these services and supports are not readily available in many countries, and for the few specialists who are here they will tell you that the take up of their services due to a number of reasons including low awareness and some families not having the resources to pay for these services.

Healthy eating habits is one of the most important factors that contribute to the wellbeing of the general population. It is also relevant the fact that everyone has different nutritional needs, hence the importance of proper nutrition and the support of a nutritionist.

Individuals with CP, as well as any other person, must have a healthy and balanced diet. However, in some cases, there may be a need to make some adjustments in their eating habits, but it always needs to be based on the principles of a complete, varied and well-balanced diet.

The major food problems associated with CP are: underweight/ malnutrition; overweight/ obesity; constipation; gastro-esophageal reflux; dehydration; dysphagia; chewing and swallowing difficulties; monotonous diet; deficient supply of macronutrients and micronutrients.

Physical inactivity, along with unhealthy diets, are some of the risk factors for non-communicable diseases that gave rise [35] to the 2008-2013 Action Plan for the Global Strategy for the Prevention and Control of Non-Communicable Diseases.

For this reason, aggravated by the high worldwide rate of physical inactivity as well as obesity, [34] WHO (2011) adopted the "Global recommendation on physical activity for health", an example that was followed by WHO Europe and many European states.

WHO (2006) recognizes that people with disabilities are less physically active in relation to people who do not have any disability.

Physical activity and sports and diet are closely associated and contribute to "wellbeing". One of the objectives of the United Nations (1982) World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons is to improve living conditions and social inclusion.

Due to the needs identified in the population with CP, the "CP-WELLBEING - Development of a Training Program for Improving the Wellbeing of Persons with Cerebral Palsy through Inclusive Eating and Physical Activity and Sports" was elaborated with the main objective of increasing the competences (attitudes, skills, knowledge) of the collective around CP (persons, families, professionals and volunteers) about how to implement inclusive eating and physical activity and sports with a global Wellbeing and Quality of Life approach, through an innovative e-training program.

APPLICATION

The Project CXP-WELLBEING is developed within the ERASMUS+ PROGRAMME 2016 (www) and the stakeholders involved in the execution of the Project are AVAPACE, Fundació Lluís Alcanyís Universitat de Valencia de la Comunitat Valenciana (CUNAFF), Federação das Associações Portuguesas de Paralisia Cerebral (FAPPC), IL CERCHIO Società Cooperative Sociale Consortile, Hrvatska Udruga Radnih Terapeuta (HURT), Westfälische Hochschule Gelsenkirchen, Bocholt, Recklinghausen (IAT).

The Teaching Guide developed within the project to realize online and face-to face inclusive training with people with CP, families, professionals and volunteers will be the document for professionals that will guide the teaching/learning sessions as well as the form in which the concepts will be explained to the people with CP involved in the Project, for increasing their Wellbeing and Quality of Life through the implementation of inclusive eating and physical activity and sports.

Through the execution of this Project the next results were raised, which have been overcome throughout the execution and implementation of the training;

- **Co-Created Methodological Guide** was developed, with the direct participation of End Users, with the main objective of determining the key contents, methodologies and tools needed for creating and improving the critical competences of persons with Cerebral Palsy and their supports (families and professionals) for increasing their Quality of Life through inclusive feeding and integrative and adapted physical activity.
- **Training Materials** addressed to persons with Cerebral Palsy, families and professionals for facilitating the implementation of inclusive feeding and integrative and adapted physical activity.
- **Designed Experiential e-Training Activities** addressed to persons with Cerebral Palsy, families and professionals for facilitating the implementation of inclusive feeding and integrative and adapted physical activity.
- **Development of an ICT Platform**, including awareness, training contents and tailored and adapted ICT-Games solutions for supporting the implementation of Training Materials and Designed Experiential Training Activities.

Through the project both the content of the training and the expected results are focused on three main pillars, the first of them being inclusive feeding, in second of them inclusive physical activity and finally the influence of both on the quality of life of the person, which we focus on the dimensions of quality of life that determines the model of quality of life of Shallock et al.

[17], among the which we find the emotional, material and physical well-being as we can see below in Figure 1.

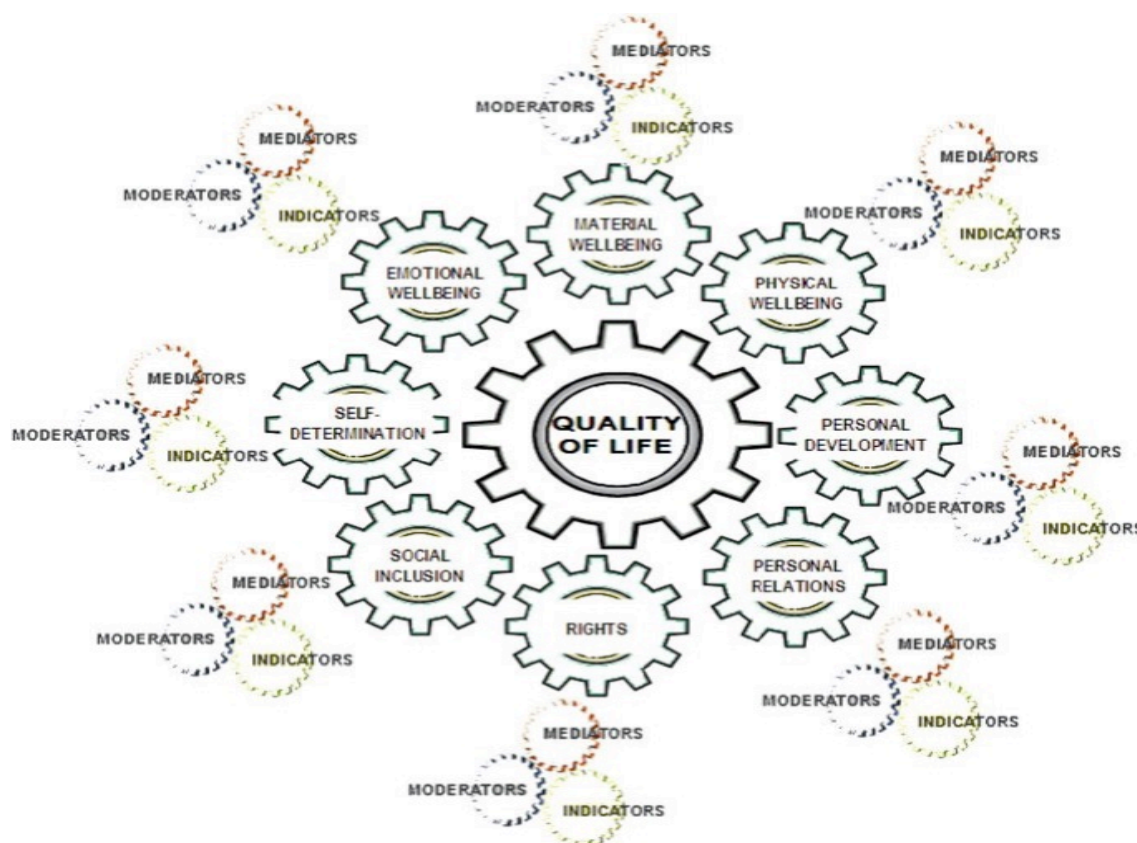


Fig. 2: Model of quality of life [17]

In this process of creating the CP-WELLBEING training, it seemed appropriate to do a pilot, where you can check both the contents and the materials used were appropriate for the implementation of the training.

This piloting was carried out in all the participating countries of the project, using all of them, the same satisfaction questionnaire. This satisfaction questionnaire was carried out using a Likert scale where 1 was in disagreement and 5 totally agreed. It gathered their satisfaction with regard to their expectations, the knowledge and skills acquired, their training needs, the contents of the workshop, the trainer, the work as a team and the dynamics throughout the formative activity, the space, the time, the space for personal reflection and the general assessment.

All this material can be consulted on the website <https://www.cpwel.eu/> where the teaching guide, the presentations and the execution guide of each of the training activities are available to the public. The teaching guide details the activities that can be found in the private spaces of the participants of the supporting ICT platform.

The CP-Wellbeing platform support the 8 e-training activities i.e. for Training Activity 1 some issues: (<https://www.cpwel.eu/en/workspace/training-activity-1-quality-of-life-model/>)

- Referring Content: A welcome text, Slideshow presentation of training activity 1, Execution guide of training activity 1 as PDF (only seen by the trainer), Explanation text for the homework, Link to homework of training activity 1, Questionnaire, Healthy habits annex as PDF file

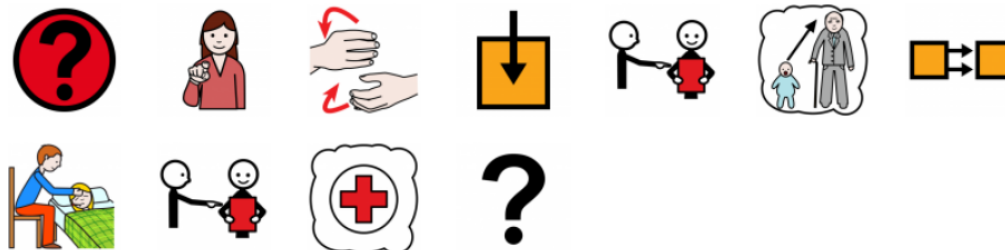
- The platform supports the participants at Homework

Homework Training Activity 1

Logout Training_A Logout

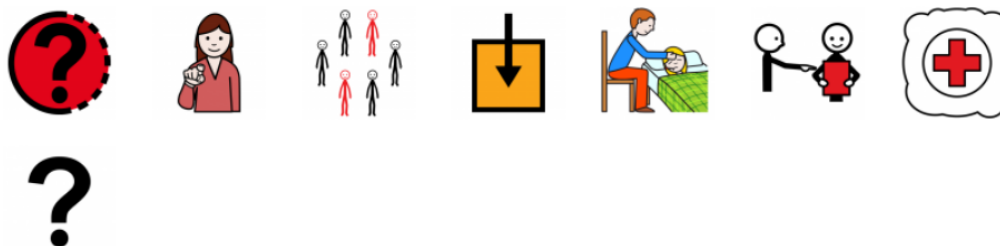
1. What are the habits of your daily life that you follow to take care of your health?

Annex of healthy habits in eating and physical activity. [1]



I walk 20-30 minutes every evening and I eat a lot of vegetables and fruits.

2. How do you participate in carrying out those habits? [2]



Back to select participant

Fig. 3:

[\(https://www.cpwel.eu/en/workspace/training-activity-1-quality-of-life-model/questionnaire/\)](https://www.cpwel.eu/en/workspace/training-activity-1-quality-of-life-model/questionnaire/)

View for the participant:

The participant can see the ten questions in his language and in image language. She or he can answer them in the fields below the image language.

When the participant visit the site again, she or he can change or add something to her or his answers.

View for the trainer:

When a trainer open this site, she or he can select if she or he want to see the homework of all participants she or he has, or she or he select one of them.

Now the trainer click on “Send selection” and the answers of the selected participant(s) will be show.

At Diary

Login: [training_x](#) [Logout](#)

Diary of X Training

Diary entry deleted.

New entry:

Save new diary entry

Date: 16.05.2018

[Edit](#) [Delete](#)

Date: 10.05.2018 - Last edited on: 16.05.2018

[Edit](#) [Delete](#)

View for the participant:

When a participant open her or his diary, she or he can make new diary entries for homework or other things. She or he can edit existing entries or delete them.

View for the trainer:

A trainer can see the entries of her or his participants, after she or he selected one or all of them.

Validation questions

View for the participant:

A participant see one validation question for each training activity and she or he can select one of the two given answers. When she or he visit the site again, she or he can change her or his answers.

Manage participants (*only see by a trainer*) First, the trainer must select if she or he want to create a new participant or if she or he want to edit or delete an existing one.

When the trainer want to create a new participant, she or he must fill in the fields "Last name", "First name", "Login name" and "E-Mail". Then she or he click on "Create participant" and the new participant is create. The participant will get automatically an e-Mail with the login name and a generated password (Login name with first letter in capital and last letter an exclamation mark).

For edit or delete a participant, the trainer select her or his name, click on "Send your choice" and she or he see the data of the selected participant. The trainer can now edit the given data or delete a participant.

When the trainer click on "Delete participant", she or he will be ask again if the selected participant really should be delete.

Mailing (only see by a trainer) A trainer can send a mail to one or all of her or his participants. First, she or he select one or all participant and click “Send selection”.

Then she or he can enter a subject and the text. The trainer can upload an attachment file to send with the e-mail. The uploaded file must be from type doc, docx, pdf, png, jpeg or jpg. With a click on “Send mail” the mail(s) will be send.

On the platform there are games i.e. for TA1

Game: Fresh food

Logout: training_x Logout

We learnt that **food can come straight from nature** (fresh food) or it **can be modified in a factory** (processed food). Fresh food is more likely to be healthy than processed food, that is why we need to identify what food has been modified in a factory in order to read the label and check whether is healthy or not.

Now is your turn to say what is fresh and what is processed. You will see pictures of different types of food and you will have to place them in their correspondent box, *fresh* or *processed*, depending on if they come straight from nature or have been modified in a factory.

Click on a food picture and drag it to the box (fresh or processed) **where you think it belongs to**, if you are right, the picture will stay in the box, but if you are making a mistake, the food picture will go back to its place.

Try as many times as you need and ask for help if there is anything you do not understand :-)



Icons designed by Freepik From www.flaticon.com or taken from www.pixabay.com

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER WORK

People with disabilities experience a significant digital divide in all countries. The phenomenon of digital divide observed among the population of persons with disabilities is aggravated by the relatively slow uptake of accessible ICT platforms and e-training. The Internet may be a source of opportunities for people with disabilities both in terms of accessing information and increasing social inclusion. However, it seems that current strategies aimed at improving Internet participation of this population are not fully effective both on a national level and European one. Wide implementation of guidelines enabling easier access to Internet content and to the persons with disabilities such as WAIG should be an element of public policy and made obligatory for websites run by public institutions.

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Teacher Effectiveness: What Do Students And Instructors Say?

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ABSTRACT

Educators often discuss teaching strategies as the means to enhance students' education; however, many effective educators share characteristics that also strongly influence students' learning. Few studies have made progress in identifying the characteristics of effective teachers. This study used data from an online survey completed by 733 graduate or undergraduate university students and 92 full time university instructors to explore their perceptions about the characteristics of effective university instructors. Instructors, undergraduate and graduate students from a Catholic, Liberal Arts University participate in an online survey. The survey was used to explore the characteristics of effective instructors who taught online and on-ground college courses. Using a Likert scale rating and a rank ordering of importance of 19 characteristics which were combined to inform 10 categories, participants rated how important the viewed behaviors/characteristics in an effective instructor for online and on-ground coursework. Results indicated important similarities and differences in perceptions between instructors and students. Both students and instructors rated knowledgeable as the most important characteristic in online and on-ground instruction. The only characteristic that differed depending on the age of the participant was humor. The younger the participant, the more important humor in instruction was.

Keywords: Teacher effectiveness, Higher education, Teaching Characteristics, Students' learning

INTRODUCTION

Teaching effectiveness is a topic of significant conversation and attention in the media, the legislative area, and education, but there is little agreement about what "teacher effectiveness" actually means. Lewis et al. [8] indicated that teacher effectiveness is a "complex phenomenon, and there is little consensus on what it is or how to measure it" (p. iii). Almost two decades later, educators are no closer to reaching a consensus about the characteristics that determine teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness has been assessed in many different ways, including: instructors' qualifications, their behavior/characteristics, the instructional practices used, student achievement, or a combination of these factors [11].

Especially in higher education, students' perceptions are often viewed as a central element in determining teacher effectiveness. Universities have used student course evaluations extensively as a means for measuring teacher effectiveness [4]. Faculty evaluations have been used in at least three different ways: as formative measures to help faculty improve teaching

and course content, summative evaluations of teaching effectiveness, and as information to aid students in selecting courses and instructors [4].

In addition, much research has been conducted in an attempt to identify the characteristics of effective teachers. As early as 1995, Clark [5] used student completed university evaluation forms to identify qualities of effective university instructors. The results indicated that students felt effective instructors' possessed important cognitive and affective components. The cognitive skills included content, organization of ideas, clarity of concepts, and effective presentation skills. Four affective components of increasing student interest, encouraging participation, developing interpersonal relations, and enhancing communication were identified.

By contrast, in their qualitative study of teacher effectiveness, Madsen and Cassidy [9] examined educators' perception of effective teaching behaviors rather than students' perceptions of effective teaching. In analyzing their data, Madsen and Cassidy [9] focused on categories of behaviors rather than listing individual teaching characteristics. Experienced instructors, student teachers, and beginning education students with no teaching experience observed videos of instructors and analyzed the instruction across 5 pre-identified dimensions of teacher behavior: instructional practices, content delivery, classroom environment, student learning, and student social interaction. The study participants identified teachers' instructional practices as the most important component that differentiated effective instructors from those who were viewed as less effective, while teacher delivery was the least important characteristic and according to their results had little impact on teacher effectiveness.

Stronge, Ward, and Grant [11] in their research placed the emphasis of teacher effectiveness on student achievement rather than teacher instructional practices. Stronge, et al. determined teacher effectiveness by comparing the characteristics of teachers whose students had high academic growth to those whose students experienced low academic growth. The two groups of instructors were compared across 15 characteristics which Stronge, et al. [11] then organized into 4 dimensions: instructional delivery, student assessment, classroom learning environments, and personal qualities. Differences were found between the instructors of high and low achieving students in two of the dimensions: classroom environment and personal qualities. However, in contrast to Madsen and Cassidy's [9] findings, no difference was found between the groups in the dimensions of teacher instructional delivery and student assessment. The dimensions of students' social interactions and teachers' personal characteristics were not examined in this study.

Instructors of high achieving students scored significantly higher in the dimension of the classroom learning environment and its two components: managing and organizing the environment. Managing the classroom environment included establishing classroom routines, monitoring student behavior, and managing time efficiently and effectively. The other dimension of the classroom environment encompassed classroom organization, which included the availability of student materials, the classroom layout, and effective use of space.

Significant differences were found in two dimensions of personal qualities between academically effective and less academically effective teachers. Instructors of high achieving students scored higher in the areas of respect and fairness. In addition, they also evidenced stronger positive relationships with their students when compared with the instructors of lower achieving students [11]. These results were similar to those found in an earlier

exploratory study analyzing the educational practices of more and less academically effective instructors [12].

Depending on whose perspective is considered, effective teaching practices may be identified differently. Kern [7], determined that students and teachers have different classroom expectations. Williams and Burden [13] found that this difference can negatively affect learners' satisfaction, motivation and interest in learning, and their academic achievement. In contrast, a close match between students' and teachers' perceptions as to what constitutes effective instruction may result in greater student gains and motivation [10]. Despite the importance of achieving consensus between instructors and students, few studies have compared teachers' and students' perceptions of effective teaching [3, 1]. The present study addresses this void in the literature by comparing instructors' and students' perceptions regarding effective instructional practices. The literature review provided the basis for the research questions.

1. What do students perceive to be characteristics of effective online and on-ground instructors?
2. What do instructors perceive to be characteristics of effective online and on-ground instructors?
3. How do the perceived characteristics of effective teachers differ with regards to age, gender, major, and/or course delivery?

METHOD

Full-time instructors and undergraduate and graduate students from a Catholic, Liberal Arts university that offers on-ground as well as online educational programs throughout the United States were invited via email to participate in an online survey. The survey was developed by the researchers based on prior studies and was pilot tested with 20 students who provided feedback for improvement. The study was then approved by the University's IRB.

All participants were adults who provided consent and then completed an online survey which was distributed during the spring 2016 and spring 2017 semesters. The anonymous, voluntary survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Students and instructors supplied their demographic information and then rated the importance of 19 teacher characteristics/behaviors in online or on-ground settings. Those 19 characteristics/behaviors were combined into 10 qualities which students and instructors used to rate the importance of the instructional characteristics in the online and on-ground settings based upon the categories determined by Delaney, et al. [6].

RESULTS

Students' Demographics

A total of 733 undergraduate and graduate students participated in the study. There were 450 female students and 215 male students, 68 students did not indicate their gender. Three hundred and seventy-five students were undergraduate, 290 students were graduate level, with 68 students not indicating their current educational level. When asked how they have completed college coursework, 142 reported that they had only taken traditional on-ground courses, 233 indicated that they had taken online courses only, and 290 stated that they have taken some combination of both on-ground and online coursework. Sixty-eight students did not answer this question. Students reported a variety of majors including, but not limited to: Business, Social Work, Biology, Education, and Computer Information Systems.

Participants were grouped into three age ranges. The respondents between the ages of 18-29 years of age composed 30% of the sample. Forty to 49 year - old respondents constituted the

next largest group, or 22% of the sample. Students between 30-39 years of age composed 21% of the sample.

Students' Means

Participants were asked to rate how important behaviors/characteristics were in an effective instructor for on-ground coursework and then again for online coursework (if the student had taken online coursework). Ratings were scored 1-4 with 1 being Not important at all, 2 was a Little important, 3 was Important, and 4 was Absolutely necessary. The means for each item are listed followed by the numerical order of importance (see Table 1). Students indicated that the three most important behaviors/characteristics for on-ground instructors were: "Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively" (3.82), "Demonstrates foundational and current knowledge about content" (3.81), and "Readily responds to student concerns and/or questions" (3.69).

Table 1
Characteristics/Behaviors in Online and On-ground Instructors by Mean and Order of Importance- Students' Responses

Characteristics/Behaviors	Online Mean*	On-ground Mean*
Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively	3.79 (1)	3.82 (1)
Demonstrates foundational and current knowledge about content	3.76 (3)	3.81 (2)
Readily responds to student concerns and/or questions	3.79 (2)	3.69 (3)
Is professional and respectful in dealings with students and colleagues	3.68 (4)	3.66 (4)
Applies course content to current, practical solutions	3.46 (8)	3.61 (5)
Explains difficult concepts in multiple ways	3.51 (7)	3.59 (6)
Treats students fairly and does not have "favorites."	3.41 (9)	3.58 (7)
Delivery of course content flows in organized manner	3.55 (6)	3.56 (8)
Assigns the appropriate workload at the appropriate level of difficulty	3.57 (5)	3.52 (9)
Encourages varying ideas and opinions into the classroom	3.41 (10)	3.36 (10)
Explains the information on the syllabus and agenda and its organization	3.41 (11)	3.33 (11)
Recognizes and appreciates student diversity	3.29 (13)	3.33 (12)
Encourages students' active participation with course content	3.25 (14)	3.28 (13)
Clearly explains course rules and policies	3.37 (12)	3.27 (14)
Provides effective and sympathetic guidance	3.21 (16)	3.25 (15)
Increases students' interest in the topic	3.25 (15)	3.18 (16)
Encourages students seek additional support within & in addition to lesson	3.17 (17)	3.02 (17)
Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce student stress/ anxiety	2.72 (18)	2.94 (18)
Presents course content in an amusing or humorous way	2.60 (19)	2.83 (19)

***Note. Mean out of a possible 4.0**

The means and numerical order for each statements as rated for online instructors are also found in Table 1. Students indicated that the three most important behaviors/characteristics for online instructors were: "Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively" (3.79), "Readily responds to student concerns and/or questions" (3.79), and "Demonstrates foundational and current knowledge about content" (3.76). It is interesting to note that the highest and lowest rated characteristics/behaviors for both on-ground and online instructors were the same.

In addition to determining a rating for each statement, the final survey question asked students to identify the three most important qualities in their on-ground instructor from ten qualities. 43% of students indicated "Knowledgeable," 17 % of students indicated "Respectful," and 11% indicated "Approachable." These qualities were followed by "Engaging" (8%), "Communicative"

(7%), "Organized" (5%), "Responsive" (5%), "Fair" (5%), "Professional" (4%) and "Humorous" (1%).

Online students rated the three most important qualities in their online instructor (see Table 2), 34% of students indicated "Knowledgeable," 17 % of students indicated "Communicative," and 12% indicated "Respectful." These were followed by "Engaging" (8%), "Approachable" (7%), "Organized" (6%), "Responsive" (6%), "Fair" (5%), "Professional" (4%) and "Humorous" (1%). It is interesting that "Approachable" was one of the top three characteristics for on-ground instructors, but "communicative" was more important for online instructors. This difference in characteristics appears to be a function of the format in which the course content is presented.

Table 2
**Important Qualities of Online and On-ground Instructors by Order of Importance-
Students' Responses**

Order of Importance	Online	On-ground
1	Knowledgeable	
2	Respectful	Communicative
3	Approachable	Respectful
4	Engaging	Engaging
5	Communicative	Approachable
6	Organized	Organized
7	Fair	Responsive
8	Professional	Fair
9	Responsive	Professional
10	Humorous	Humorous

Similar, to the outcome regarding characteristics/behaviors, the highest and lowest rated qualities of instructors were similar for both on-ground and online instructors.

Additionally, Spearman's rho correlations were conducted to determine if there was a relationship between the type of student/student demographics (specifically, gender, age, major, location, and level of education) and their ratings regarding characteristic/behavior of instructors. Several significant associations were noted. First, Age and the two items related to Instructors' use of humor online and Age and one item regarding Instructors' use of humor on-ground were significant and negatively related. This indicates that younger students' view the use of humor as more important compared to older students. Secondly, College level and the two items related to Instructors' use of humor online and on-ground were significant and negatively related. This reveals that undergraduate students' view humor as more important for Instructor effectiveness than Graduate level students, and do so for both online and on-ground teaching (See Table 3). No other significant associations were found which suggests that gender, age, major, location, and level of education are generally not related to the characteristics/behaviors viewed as important in effective instructors. Therefore, these desired or important characteristics/behaviors for instructors were consistent across all other varying types of students.

Table 3
Spearman's rho Significant Correlations
Correlations

			Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- Online
Spearman's rho	Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.126**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.003
		N	665	542
	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- Online	Correlation Coefficient	-.126**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.
		N	542	542

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce students stress/anxiety- Online
Spearman's rho	Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.153**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	665	541
	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce students stress/anxiety- Online	Correlation Coefficient	-.153**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	541	541

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			What is your age?	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way-Online
Spearman's rho	What is your age?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.101*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.019
		N	665	542
	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- Online	Correlation Coefficient	-.101*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.
		N	542	542

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			What is your age?	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce students stress/anxiety-Online
Spearman's rho	What is your age?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.099*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.022
		N	665	541
	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce students stress/anxiety- Online	Correlation Coefficient	-.099*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.
		N	541	541

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way-On-ground
Spearman's rho	Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.165**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	665	414
	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- On-ground	Correlation Coefficient	-.165**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	414	414

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce student stress/anxiety-On-ground
Spearman's rho	Are you an Undergraduate or a Graduate?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.096*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.050
		N	665	414
	Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce student stress/anxiety- On-ground	Correlation Coefficient	-.096*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.
		N	414	414

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		What is your age?	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- On-ground
Spearman's rho	What is your age?	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	665
	Presents course content in an amusing or entertaining way- On-ground	Correlation Coefficient	-.177**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000
		N	414

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

No other significant associations were found which suggests that gender, age, major, location, and level of education are not related to the characteristics/behaviors viewed as important in effective instructors. Therefore, these desired or important characteristics/behaviors for instructors were consistent across varying types of students.

Instructors' Demographics

A total of 92 full-time instructors participated in the study. There were 44 female and 33 male instructors, 15 instructors did not indicate their gender. 31 Instructors taught at the undergraduate level, while 10 taught graduate level and 39 taught at both levels. 12 Instructors did not indicate their current teaching level. When asked how they have taught college courses, 18 reported that they have taught traditional on-ground courses only, 6 taught online courses only, and 56 stated that they have taught some combination of both traditional and online coursework. Twelve instructors did not answer this question. Instructors came from a variety of disciplines including, but not limited to: Business, Social Work, Biology, Education, and Computer Information Systems.

Instructors were grouped into 4 age ranges. The respondents between the ages of 50-59 years of age composed 32% of the sample. Forty to 49 year - old respondents constituted the next largest group at 21% of the sample. Instructors between 60-69 years of age, comprised 19% and 30-39 years of age composed 11% of the sample.

Instructors' Means

Instructors completed the same survey as students. They were also asked to rate how important behaviors/characteristics were in an effective instructor for on-ground coursework and then again for online coursework. According to instructors, the three most important behaviors/characteristics for on-ground instructors were: "Demonstrates foundational and current knowledge about content" (3.91) "Is professional and respectful in dealings with students and colleagues (3.89) and "Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively" (3.80).

Table 4
Characteristics/Behaviors in Online and On-ground Instructors by Mean and Order of Importance- Instructors' Responses

Characteristics/Behaviors	Online Mean*	On-ground Mean*
Is professional and respectful in dealings with students and colleagues	3.82 (1)	3.89 (2)
Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively	3.69 (2)	3.80 (3)
Demonstrates foundational and current knowledge about content	3.64 (5)	3.91 (1)
Treats students fairly and does not have "favorites."	3.65 (4)	3.79 (4)
Clearly explains course rules and policies	3.66 (3)	3.61 (10)
Encourages students' active participation with course content	3.55 (8)	3.69 (6)
Recognizes and appreciates student diversity	3.54 (9)	3.61 (9)
Readily responds to student concerns and/or questions	3.48 (11)	3.67 (7)
Applies course content to current, practical solutions	3.45 (13)	3.69 (5)
Explains difficult concepts in multiple ways	3.50 (10)	3.61 (8)
Delivery of course content flows in organized manner	3.61 (6)	3.56 (12)
Encourages varying ideas and opinions into the classroom	3.57 (7)	3.57 (11)
Assigns the appropriate workload at the appropriate level of difficulty	3.48 (12)	3.47 (13)
Encourages students seek additional support within & in addition to lesson	3.40 (14)	3.35 (15)
Explains the information on the syllabus and agenda and its organization	3.37 (15)	3.30 (17)
Provides effective and sympathetic guidance	3.33 (16)	3.41 (14)
Increases students' interest in the topic	3.16 (17)	3.31 (16)
Uses humor effectively and appropriately to reduce student stress/anxiety	2.54 (18)	3.07 (18)
Presents course content in an amusing or humorous way	2.43 (19)	2.68 (19)

*Note. Mean out of a possible 4.0

The means and numerical order for each statements as rated by instructors for online instruction are also found in Table 3. The three most important behaviors/characteristics for online instructors were: "Is professional and respectful in dealings with students" (3.82), "Delivers concepts clearly and comprehensively" (3.69), and "Clearly explains course rules and policies" (3.66).

It is interesting to note that the highest and lowest rated characteristics/behaviors for both on-ground and online instructors were similar. However, the mid-rankings of characteristics varied between on-ground and online teaching.

In addition to determining a mean for each statement, in the final survey question instructors were asked to identify from the ten qualities the three most important characteristics in an effective on-ground instructor. 42% of instructors indicated "Knowledgeable," 13 % indicated "Engaging," and 5% indicated "Professional." These were followed by "Respectful" (4%), "Communicative" (4%), "Organized" (2%), "Approachable" (2%), "Fair" (2%) and "Responsive" (0%) and "Humorous" (0%).

Instructors rated the three most important qualities in an online instructor (see Table 5). 29% of students indicated "Knowledgeable," 7 % of students indicated "Communicative," and 5% indicated "Respectful," "Responsive" (5%), and "Professional" (5%). This was followed by "Engaging" (3%), "Approachable" (2%), "Organized" (1%), "Fair" (1%) and "Humorous" (0%).

Table 5
**Important Qualities of Online and On-ground Instructors by Order of Importance-
Instructors' Responses**

Order of Importance	Online	On-ground
1	Knowledgeable	Knowledgeable
2	Communicative	Engaging
3	Respectable	Professional
4	Responsive	Respectful
5	Professional	Communicative
6	Engaging	Organized
7	Approachable	Approachable
8	Organized	Fair
9	Fair	Responsive
10	Humorous	Humorous

Similar, to the outcome regarding characteristics/behaviors, the highest and lowest rated qualities of instructors were similar for both on-ground and online instructors. However, the characteristics “Responsive” and “Communicative” were rated far lower for on-ground teaching than online instruction.

Correlations were conducted to determine if there was a relationship between the type of instructor/instructor demographics (specifically, gender, age, discipline, level of teaching, and delivery method) and their ratings regarding characteristic/behavior of instructors. No significant associations were found which suggests that gender, age, discipline, level of teaching, and delivery method are not related to the characteristics/behaviors viewed as important in effective instructors. Therefore, these desired or important characteristics/behaviors for instructors were consistent across varying types of Instructors.

Comparing Students' and Instructors' Perceptions of Effective On-ground and Online Teaching

Table 6 indicates the rankings of characteristics of instructor's effectiveness from students' and instructors' perceptions related to online teaching. The most important (“Knowledgeable”) and the least important characteristics (“Humorous”) were the same. The order of importance of the other characteristics was not consistent. “Respectful” was a characteristic that both instructors and students viewed as important, but its placement in order of importance differed slightly. Further analysis revealed that “Communicative” and “Responsive” were deemed more important by instructors than students, and students perceived “Approachable” and “Engaging” as more important than instructors (See Table 6).

When comparing the rankings of characteristics from students' and instructors' related to instructor effectiveness for on-ground teaching, the top five and the bottom five items are very closely matched. However, the characteristic of “Professional” was rated much higher by instructors than students, and students rated “Approachable” as more important than instructors did (See Table 6).

Table 6
**Important Qualities of Online and On-ground Instructors by Order of Importance-
 Instructors and Students Responses**

Order of Importance	Instructors		Students	
	Online	On-ground	Online	On-ground
1	Knowledgeable	Knowledgeable	Knowledgeable	Knowledgeable
2	Communicative	Engaging	Respectful	Communicative
3	Respectable	Professional	Approachable	Respectful
4	Responsive	Respectful	Engaging	Engaging
5	Professional	Communicative	Communicative	Approachable
6	Engaging	Organized	Organized	Organized
7	Approachable	Approachable	Fair	Responsive
8	Organized	Fair	Professional	Fair
9	Fair	Responsive	Responsive	Professional
10	Humorous	Humorous	Humorous	Humorous

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Many of the findings from this study are aligned with prior research. For both online and on-ground instructors, "Knowledgeable" was the most important characteristic which supported Clark's [5] findings from 20 years ago. This characteristic/behavior has remained consistent even though we are currently educating a new generation of learners using both on-ground and online formats.

The findings of this study also support the finding of Delaney et al. [6] that the three most important characteristics for effective online instructors were: "Respectful," "Knowledgeable," and "Approachable." This aligns with students' perceptions, but not with the instructors in the sample, who believed "Professional" and "Responsive" were indicative of effective teaching. Instructors should take note that students seemed to value approachable instructors, more than those that demonstrate responsiveness or professionalism.

Since the differences in characteristics/behaviors of effective instructors in the online or on-ground setting were not significantly different, the findings of this study did not support Brocato, Bonanno, and Ulbig's [2] research that indicated students' perceptions of teacher effectiveness were different between on-ground and online classroom settings. But they did support Madsen and Cassidy's research [8] who found the quality of the educators' instructional practices to be more important than delivery method used.

This study added more to our understanding of the qualities that exemplify effective instructors by identifying that the top three and lowest three characteristics/behaviors of effective instructors were the same whether the course was delivered online or on-ground. The data also indicated that the top three qualities of instructors were closely aligned. This is very interesting, in that it suggests that the delivery method does not necessarily mean the characteristics/behaviors of instructors should change. In other words, good teaching is good teaching whether it occurs online or on-ground. This study also furthered our understanding of types of students and their perceptions of good instructors. No matter their gender, age, major, level of education, or location, all students tended to rate good instructor characteristics/behaviors and qualities similarly. The only significant difference was found for younger students and undergraduate students, who rated use of humor as more important than older, graduate level students did. The findings from this research suggest that for educators to be perceived as effective they can use the same characteristics/behaviors and exhibit the same qualities for all students no matter their age, gender, or program of study. Use of humor, however, is recommended when teaching younger, undergraduate students.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER STUDY

The findings of this study are limited to students at a southern, private, liberal arts university. It is unknown whether these findings are representative of a larger cross section of university students. It is unknown if studies involving a larger cross section of university students will support these findings.

Since "Knowledgeable" was considered to be the most important characteristic for both online and on-ground instructors by both students and instructors, further study would be beneficial in an attempt to determine more specifically what students and instructors mean by this term. A qualitative study could provide more specific information to help university instructors understand how to better demonstrate that they are "Knowledgeable."

This study examined teacher effectiveness from the perspective of university students and instructors. Since teacher effectiveness is a topic frequently discussed by university instructors, K-12 instructors, their administrators, further studies might provide insights for comparing university instructors with K-12 instructors. More in-depth qualitative studies might provide additional information to allow instructors at both levels to continue to refine and improve their instruction to better meet students' needs.

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Human Development as flows of mobility: Perspectives from the Bulawayo-Johannesburg trends

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ABSTRACT

Studies of migration experience tend to be trapped *in situ* where focus is on either the place of origin or the destination. Using the mobilities paradigm, this paper reveals that migrants does not merely move from origin to destination through a void devoid of meaning but engage in various negotiations and exchanges of meaning both with other people and with spaces and objects. In the process, various notions of development are derived. The mobilities paradigm is field of enquiry which comprises of 'studies of corporeal movement, transportation and communication infrastructures, capitalist spatial restructuring, migration and immigration, citizenship and transnationalism, and tourism and travel' (Hannam *et al.*, 2006, p.9-10). The study shows that development is much broader than economic and infrastructural progress, encompassing social and security needs as well. This has real implications for migration because it suggests that migrants are no merely drawn from backward places to advanced zones. Instead, they move between places to attain their ideal notion of development, a notion which may be situated in both sending and receiving places. In the study, Johannesburg is an economic attraction while Bulawayo poses social and security comfort. The result is that migrants relate with both places as sites of development, with development assuming various meanings in all contexts.

Keywords: Development, migration, mobilities, South Africa, Zimbabwe.

INTRODUCTION

The paper discusses the mobility of persons along the Bulawayo-Johannesburg corridor. It aims to reveal the intertwined nature of development with mobility. While there have been studies which reveal the migration-development nexus relating to Zimbabwe, the study provides useful insights into the relationship by shifting focus from the developmental dimension as epitomised by remittances to places of origin. Instead, following Sen (1999), the paper reveals that the process of movement itself is a negotiation, contest and sometimes an accomplishment of development. The nuance here is that, in given contexts, mobility **is** development and not just a conduit. In a sense, the paper employs sociological dialectics despite being fashioned as one in the field of development studies. The main concern is human development and not merely understanding the social interactions of participants. It is these participants who reveal the many facets of development which range beyond merely remittance of money and goods but demonstrate that it to encompass aspirations and attainment of political freedoms, peace of mind and even the ability to dream of positive, better futures.

The study was developed in March 2017, at a time when the Zimbabwean state was faced with internal challenges ranging from succession crises in the ruling ZANU PF party, constrained liquidity in the economy, declining industry due to company closures, increased unemployment in the formal economy, increased informalisation of the economy and increasing social agitation over worsening quality of life. Amidst the challenges, the

government -once again- resolved to extend an olive branchⁱ to the diaspora to harness remittances income. Such an effort has historical antecedentsⁱⁱ particularly in the post-2000 Zimbabwe. The results of previous overtures had often been lukewarm due to tense relations between the state and migrants. Suspicions over political inclinations of migrants and motives of the government had contributed to the sustained the standoffⁱⁱⁱ. These attitudes were not unfounded. Some Zimbabwean migrants particularly in the United Kingdom (UK) had over the years engaged in political mobilisation and action against the ZANU PF-led government. This was often interpreted to mean open hostility to the government as well as complicity in a 'regime-change agenda'. Consequently, when it came to political rights, migrants appeared to be reduced to what Agamben (1998) identifies as *zoe* –people who only have bare life devoid of any political rights.

Beyond the political engagements and confrontations, migrants have however demonstrated immense clout as a lifeline (von Burgsdorff, 2012) for Zimbabweans remaining in Zimbabwe due to their financial support. Through remittances, the country's citizens survived an unprecedented economic calamity between 2000 and 2008. During this time, remittances were sent from far flung places such as the United Kingdom and South Africa. It is in this vein that the migration-development nexus has been extensively covered. Many of the studies (Bracking and Sachikonye 2006; Maphosa 2007; Ncube and Gomez, 2011) have revealed the flow and uses of remittances. For instance, Maphosa (2007) studies the contribution of remittances to livelihoods in rural Zimbabwe. His study reveals that remittances are predominantly used for consumptive purposes. Similar observations are made in urban environments by Bracking and Sachikonye (2006). Ncube and Gomez (2011)'s study is concerned with the contribution of remittances to the local economy. Their study reveals the use of remittances for investment in the local economy. To complement the literature on economic remittances, some scholars have begun to explore the role, functions and impacts of social remittances to Zimbabwe's development experience. Social remittances are ideas, behaviours, identities and social capital flowing from receiving to sending communities (De Haas 2010). Studies employing such a perspective often incorporate the social identity theory or aspects of identity formations to analyse the interactions of migrants (Hungwe, 2005; Muzondidya, 2013; Siziba, 2014). The discussion made here adds to this burgeoning literature by revealing that mobilities also contribute to notions, experiences and attainment of development. As such, people, capital, ideas and even places -both animate and inanimate- craft aspirations for and attainment of freedoms (Sen, Development as Freedom, 1999). The paper's structure allows for a discussion of the mobilities turn in the section after this introduction. Thereafter, the study methodology is presented, and this is succeeded by findings and the discussion. The final section lays out conclusions and presents recommendations thereof.

THE MOBILITIES TURN

Mobilities, is not a theory *per se* but a useful conceptual paradigm and possible analytical framework which allows researchers to demonstrate realities through investigations of movement, blocked movement, potential movement and immobility, dwelling and place-making (Büscher, et al., 2011, p.2). As a field of enquiry, it comprises of 'studies of corporeal movement, transportation and communications infrastructures, capitalist spatial restructuring, migration and immigration, citizenship and transnationalism, and tourism and travel' (Hannam *et al.*, 2006, p.9–10). Mobilities connects geographies, cultures and societies through fields such as politics, economics and society (Blunt, 2007; Cresswell, 2010; Merriman, 2015). In the process, it challenges both the 'sedenterist' and 'nomadic' production of knowledge (Cresswell, 2006; Hannam *et al.*, 2006). Such a focus is conceptually distinct from transnationalism and migration studies in the sense that it embraces the field together with people and ideas in reading the process and meaning of movement between, through and to/from places. In this

sense, it recognizes the fluidity of fields in a Bourdieusian sense. Fields are not rigid, but they allow one form of capital to be converted into another (Bourdieu, Language and Symbolic Power, 1991). Mimi Sheller adds that unlike the rich tradition of sociological study of social mobility, the new transdisciplinary field of mobilities research encompasses research on the *spatial mobility* of humans, non-humans, and objects; the circulation of information, images, and capital; as well as the study of the physical means for movement such as infrastructures, vehicles, and software systems that enable travel and communication to take place (Sheller, 2014).

The mobilities paradigm is useful in the sense that it reveals the roles, meanings and purposes played by various elements in the process of movement. As a result, ports of entry or exit, modes of travel, places of transit and so forth become useful in a reading of the movement. Migration as it were, ceases to be a concept of departure and arrival without meaning between these two points. In this study, mobilities captures the movement of persons together with their attitudes and perceptions as they move from one spatial zone to another. Loosely laid out, the spaces are broadly from Zimbabwe to South Africa and vice versa. This is further fragmented to mean from Bulawayo to the border town of Beitbridge, within Beitbridge on both the Zimbabwean and South African sides as well as from the border town to Johannesburg. In between these spaces are stop-over points which are replete with encounters and experiences for travellers. It is these experiences, encounters and engagements which reveal the various notions of development.

METHODOLOGY

The mobilities turn informs the methodological grounding of this paper. Given the fluidity of movement and the nature of mobilities in the study, it is difficult to make mention of a single site in the sense of a single physical location. Instead, the study “site” referred to here is reflective of the entire channel between Bulawayo and Johannesburg – 861 kilometres by road. One may argue that there are multiple sites along the channel. This would be acceptable in some sense considering that multi-sited ethnography has emerged as a plausible and acceptable methodological frame in the postmodern turn (Marcus, 1995). However, such an assertion is contestable given the focus on various aspects of the flows ranging from engaging transport operators and immigration officials, moving between transnational space, interacting with law enforcement officials, confronting locals, businesspeople and other foreigners as well as experiencing urban spaces. Resultantly, the study deployed an ethnographic approach on four migrants. Two of the migrants are cross-border traders while the other two are transnational migrants who work in South Africa but hail from Bulawayo. Observations and interviews were the chosen instrumentation methods. Observations spanned over various spaces including but not limited to the departure area, at border posts, in transition stop-over points, at the places of disembarking as well as within urban spaces on arrival. Although criticism of ethnography may dismiss the approach as a pretentious science which relies ‘on the facticity of first-hand experience’ (Comaroff & Comaroff, 1992), it nonetheless offers useful tools for understanding qualitative aspects of human experience and related phenomena. To reiterate, the aim of the study was to reveal the intertwined nature of development with mobility. As such, an ethnographic approach reveals the context-specific experiences of mobile persons and how such experiences create and derive meaning in given settings. Purposively selected participants were identified. The process of selection entailed communicating with officials working for transport operators in Bulawayo and detailing the aim and objective of the study. These persons were solicited for assistance in identifying known travellers. At this stage, a total of seven officials working for five different transport operators had been identified and they in turn contacted seven potential participants. The

researcher then interviewed and purposively selected four of the participants on the basis on the following criteria:

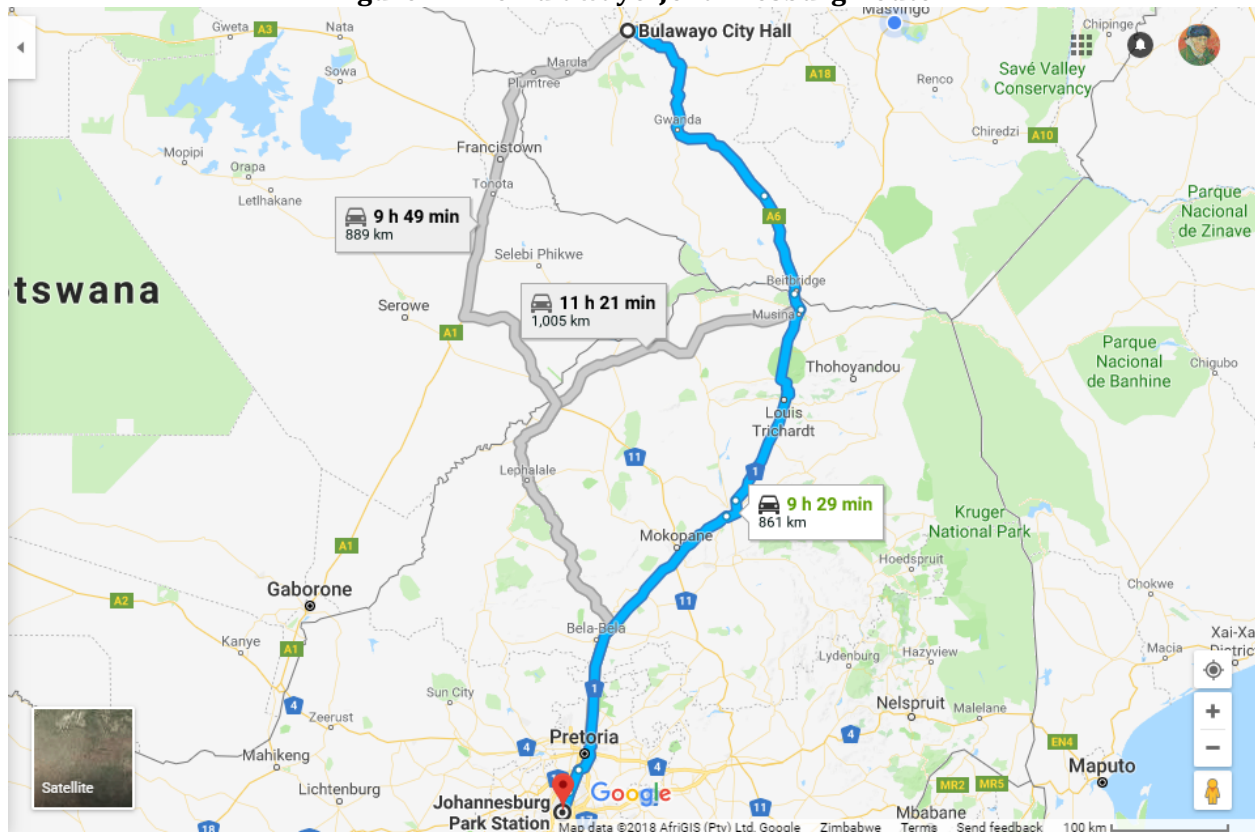
- Is above 18 years of age.
- Either reside in or come from Bulawayo.
- Travel to or stay in Johannesburg.
- Have travelled the Bulawayo-Johannesburg route at least once in the past year prior to the study.
- Use road transport as the primary means of travel on the route.

Questions ranging from reasons for travel/migration, justification for choice of mode of travel, experiences of various spaces and attitudes or perceptions of systems were posed. The age criteria served to exclude minors who although potentially wielding useful information, were not considered due to the possibility of involuntary movement which they may be engaged in. road transport was the chosen mode of analysis due to the resources available, its popularity among travellers as well as the various spaces it encounters along the way. In addition, there was a practical consideration in selecting road since other alternatives for the entire route are either non-existent (rail) when one considers end-to-end travel, or prohibitively expensive and therefore class specific (air). Analysis of data followed thematic content analysis. Major themes were considered largely in the form of attitudes of participants and responses to various situations.

STUDY "SITE"

As already noted, the "site" is not unitary or singular. Instead, multiple spaces were considered throughout the course of the study and these are situated along the blue line in figure 1 below.

Figure 2: The Bulawayo-Johannesburg Route



Source: Google Maps^{iv}

FINDINGS

The four participants (n=4) comprised of two cross-border traders and two transnational migrants. Although cross-border traders may loosely be defined as transnational migrants, the duration of their stay for relatively short periods and are largely domiciled in Bulawayo. This short-termism denies migrants the opportunity to develop sustained social connections beyond the economic ties they form. Moreover, given that transnationalism is the process by which immigrants build social fields that link together their country of origin and their country of settlement (Schiller, Bach & Blanc-Szanton, 1992), it is rare for such migrants to establish ties which link those in places they meet with the migrant's area of origin. Instead, with cross-border traders, ties are established in commercial exchange/engagement and seldom breach those spaces. The transnational migrants in the study were different from the cross-border traders in this sense. They identified with home both in South Africa and in Zimbabwe. Johannesburg resonated with home just as Bulawayo did. A key feature in explaining this connectedness was the length of stay in Johannesburg. John^v has been residing in Johannesburg since 2008 while Ncamisile has been resident since 2002. In their case, Bulawayo was home because it is a place they grew up in and have affective attachment for, a place to which they return twice or thrice a year but maintain constant links with. Contrast this with Mandlovu and Nontobeko who although visiting Johannesburg since 1998 and 2006 respectively, only go there at least once every two months to buy and sell goods. To them, Johannesburg is more of a warehouse than a home. Over the course of 2017, the researchers travelled either to or from Johannesburg with the participants, discussing their trips as well as noting their attitudes and perceptions as well as observing their deportment across various spaces. We present the findings as observed and noted within these spaces.

Departure

Departure either from Bulawayo or from Johannesburg has various meanings for the participants. In late April 2017, the researcher managed to travel with both cross-border traders to and from Johannesburg. To give context to departure from Bulawayo, a sketch of the departure site suffices. Apart from the more reputable coaches which are of South African origin, locally-owned coaches also ply the Bulawayo-Johannesburg route. In addition, there are smaller transport operators commonly identified as 'Sprinters' due to the vehicle models commonly used. One also has the option of hiking on private cars headed to South Africa. We departed from the 'offices' of one coach operator which essentially meant boarding the coach parked on one of the city's roads. Their office could hardly accommodate ten people at once due to space constraints. Both Mandlovu and Nontobeko indicated that the coach was useful for their purposes because one could liaise with the drivers so that they 'purchase' days of stay in South Africa. This will be elaborated in the section on entry and exit ports. At this point, it is important to state that the bus appeared to operate on flexible terms. There was no rigid system where seat numbers and departure times were adhered to. During both trips, the researcher observed that the departure areas were also spaces for final trades in currency as well as hawking spots by vendors from which travellers bought some food items to consume along the journey. An interesting observation was that once on the coach and as it began the trip to Johannesburg, the participants routinely checked their wares and ensured that they secured their valuables. The concern with crime quickly brought up prospects, perceptions and attitudes of crime in the destination. Imageries of rampant crime and criminality in Johannesburg were bolstered by personal anecdotes of encounters at one point or another with a criminal. The chosen attire by both female cross-borders was also explained in terms of security. Both in tight-fitting jeans and jackets, the ladies indicated that their chosen attire enabled them to quickly feel if a would-be thief was attempting to steal from them. In addition, it also allowed them to conceal some of their valuables such as cellular phones. The departure was slightly like John's which was in August after a trip to Bulawayo to attend a bereavement.

However, the sentiments over crimes were less magnified and the chosen coach was more upmarket. In fact, John boarded one South African coach and emphasised that one could never compromise on quality, a statement which was thinly veiled as a slight on Zimbabwean-origin buses. This was in stark contrast to departure from Johannesburg which we now turn to.

In early May, the researcher travelled from Johannesburg to Bulawayo with the cross-border traders (MaNdlovu and Nontobeko) while in August and November, the researcher travelled with John and Ncamisile. Three of the travellers (John, MaNdlovu and Ncamisile) departed from the main transnational station in Johannesburg, Park Station. Park Station is markedly different from departure points in Bulawayo. For a start, it is a designated commercial transport terminal which caters for travellers within South Africa as well as those travelling beyond South Africa's borders. It is replete with shops and outlets from which travellers can purchase goods and use services with ease of access. Only designated coaches are allowed into the station and most of the Zimbabwean-domiciled coaches are not privy to this space. Following a strict schedule much akin to an airport, the coaches move in and out such that travellers must be at the boarding sites on time. Here, carefully-packed luggage is loaded onto coaches and security officers patrol the site with regularity. Departure on MaNdlovu's part was a relief on at least two counts. First, the exit marked an accomplishment and an end to the business trip she had set out to complete, selling goods from Zimbabwe and procuring some items for resale back in Bulawayo. Secondly, departure meant a welcome exit from a city of paradoxes. On the one hand it was a lifeline as a source of income for her. On the other hand, Johannesburg represented various forms of evil due to violent crimes committed in the city. For John and Ncamisile, exit was merely shifting places whose emotional meanings varied. In Ncamisile's words, they were 'leaving home to go home'. In exchanges along the way, it was however evident that the meanings of home were entwined with the politics in both lands. South Africa was referred to as then-president Jacob Zuma's land while Zimbabwe assumed the moniker of being Robert Mugabe's fiefdom. Departure evoked mixed emotions on the part of the participants. On the one hand it meant leaving immediate family and a place of livelihood. On the other it meant going to extended family and a more affectively attached place imbued with meaning much like Ndlovu (2010) discusses.

Nontobeko's departure was different from the other three participants. Not only did she depart from a different site, but she did so using a different coach. Her coach departed from Newtown which although catering for transnational coaches mainly from Zimbabwe, does not have facilities and amenities of a similar standard to Park Station. Instead, Newtown is more informal, spoilt by idle litter strewn across and follows a more flexible time scheduling. It is not uncommon for a coach scheduled to depart at 5PM to depart either earlier or much later. This flexibility resultantly serves to benefit some passengers while disadvantaging others. importantly, it persists throughout all processes including at the border posts.

Transit areas

Transit areas are mostly the spaces where travellers stop over for refreshments and temporary breaks. These spaces are mostly pre-selected service stations and fast food outlets. In Zimbabwe, the transit stop is in Gwanda at a small grocery shop while in South Africa, depending on the bus, stops are in Musina and near Hammanskraal. When on the way to South Africa, MaNdlovu intimated that most travellers prefer to purchase items in Musina and so Gwanda is not very popular. However, the researcher observed that many travellers procured food items popular with Zimbabweans as gifts for the people they were visiting in South Africa. Gwanda is also not too far from Bulawayo -some 127 km away- hence the inclination to purchase is likely to be low considering that travellers will have departed Bulawayo only an hour earlier. In Musina, travellers purchase meals from a range of outlets which include the

American franchise KFC as well as other small retail outlets. Another stop is made much later while in South Africa, again close to some fast food outlets and ablution facilities. The trip to Bulawayo mirrors that of the trip to Johannesburg with the major difference being the hours of travel as well as purchasing behaviours. Pretty much all of the food that most travellers consume is procured in South Africa such that on arrival in Gwanda, the stop is largely routine. The major reason given for this is that food is cheaper in South Africa while also being of superior quality. Even comparable items such as soft drinks tended to be purchased in Rand on the trip back to Bulawayo. An interesting feature on the transit zones is the deferment to code-switching by travellers. Code-switching is the switching between two or more language varieties. For example, a speaker may use Zulu to communicate with one person and then switch to English in his communication with another person. Those travellers such as MaNdlovu, John and Ncamisile who have an intimate knowledge of some indigenous South African languages resort to the use of these languages. In making orders for food items, making enquiries and general conversation, these individuals switched from isiZulu to SePedi then Xhosa and Tshivenda as the situation demanded. Apart from being an admirable feat, it demonstrated their willingness to explore and freely converse in languages of their choosing to enable ease of communication and perhaps to use language as capital for entry in various fields akin to Siziba (2014)'s subjects. Similar strategies were deployed in ports of entry/exit as will be laid out in the following section.

Ports of entry/exit

For most travellers departing Bulawayo and heading for South Africa or vice versa, the most popular port of entry/exit is Beitbridge. Beitbridge is both a border post and on the Zimbabwean side, a border town. The infrastructure, architecture, technology and professionalism are markedly different depending on which side one is considering. The result are different attitudes and perceptions by those in transit. In short, the Zimbabwean side of the border post is marked by mostly grey buildings, worn out tarmac and open dust spaces in parts. The South African side on the other hand is more well-manicured, has smoothly tarred surfaces and fits well with the design of a modern entry/exit port. The general feel is that South Africa presents more as a modern, technologically-inclined space compared to the Zimbabwean side. However, the paradox is that it participants indicated that the Zimbabwean officials had -barring instances of corruption from revenue officers- more competence and professionalism. The south African side was noted to be often characterised by idling workers who appeared to deliberately work sluggishly especially at very specific times of the month. Participants noted that the Zimbabwean side was characterised by general efficiency save for during public holidays when an influx of travellers overwhelmed the staff. MaNdlovu indicated that one had to smile and give a positive outlook when dealing with officials from South Africa despite their hostile attitude. This, she stated, was necessary to be given many days to spend in the country. It was not uncommon for some travellers to be afforded 24hrs which for a cross-border trader would be too little time to sell off wares. The more time one was afforded, the less pressed they were to rush through the city. It is to this urban jungle that we now turn.

In the destination

Getting to either Johannesburg is more than arriving at a given site for the participants. Instead, it is entering it. One does not just arrive at Johannesburg's station but gets into it. The vitality of the city is evident as one arrives, often early in the morning, with people rushing through Park Station or Newtown. Here there appears to be no time to pause and this appears to be a cue for one of the cross-border traders who immediately declares '*asilandanga ukuzolala lapha/ we did not come here to relax*' (Nontobeko, April 2017). It is as though the entry to some spaces gives life to the actors. Depending on the activities of a migrant, Johannesburg has many experiences to offer. The cross-border trader immediately visits

clients and contacts strewn across the metropolitan city. Sales are made at market stalls, in formal businesses, within the city centre and in its periphery. To the transnational migrant, arrival is akin to meeting a wave which immediately carries them together with the already busy residents of the city. Without missing a step, they become one with the city, playing their part in the hustle and bustle of urban life.

Nontobeko not only sells wares from Zimbabwe in South Africa but upon completion of her sales, purchases household goods for further resale in Zimbabwe. Resultantly, she traverses various commercial spaces in search of bargains and opportunities to commercially exploit. This means going through various other local ports and terminals as well as interacting with various retailers. Oddly, she is not fluent in the indigenous languages of South Africa -save for some isiZulu- possibly because of the people she interacts with for business. In the main, her clients and suppliers are foreign businesspeople who include art dealers from Europe, Asians and Nigerians. As a result, the main language used for communication is English.

The caution and trepidation that continuously grips migrants in Johannesburg is in stark contrast to the calm demeanour which they possess when they get back to Bulawayo. Although acknowledging that crime also exists in Bulawayo, it is emphasised that violent crime is very rare. Instead, it is likely that one may be a victim of petty crime unless they carelessly travel at night alone in some sections of the city. In Johannesburg, even serene spaces can rapture into violence as robberies and muggings are commonplace and random. Bulawayo is also much more serene compared to Johannesburg. 'The pace of life here is slow' (MaNdlovu, April 2017). The bustle that is characteristic of Johannesburg is replaced by a calm disposition in Bulawayo.

DISCUSSION

Given all the observations and insights, what insights can we derive from the mobilities of participants? Our analysis starts off with a reminder of Amartya Sen's definition of development which indicates that development is 'a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy'. In this sense, it can be read through the attitudes, interpretations and experiences of migrants from Zimbabwe. Through their various mobilities and the interactions they have with space, other people and objects. The inanimate objects which migrants encounter are largely situated in urban contexts. From this perspective, the development that is read here is intertwined with various urbanisms ranging from economic, social to political. In short, we argue here that the movement of people for various reasons reflects their quest and in some cases attainment of development. It is an exercise in realizing their freedoms. However, as is evident in the conflicts as one moves from Bulawayo to Johannesburg, the freedoms are neither fixed nor given. Social freedoms read through the deployment of language and concerns for security flow from one space to the next. In one moment a person may consider themselves as content or to loosely use the term, 'developed' while in another space and moment they are not. Bulawayo is in this instance representative of a place where one can be comfortable and free socially while Johannesburg poses many other challenges. This observation has been identified by De Boeck and Plissart (2004) cited in Myers (2011) in a study of Kinshasa and its 'second world' which poses different meanings from the western notion of urbanity. However, Johannesburg is not only a place of gloom. Instead, it poses numerous economic opportunities as evidenced by the movement of the four Zimbabwe migrants to the city at various intervals. This resonates well with the assertion that Johannesburg is among a small group of African cities which feature solid prosperity factors (UNHABITAT, 2012). The trips to sell wares and the choice to reside in the city are indicative of an attraction to the city's economic potentiality. Here the rational choice adherent would suggest that the migrant has calculated that their utility maximisation is more likely to be achieved in Johannesburg compared to other possible sites.

The attainment of social freedoms is not entirely absent in Johannesburg and along the way in South Africa. As has been observed by Siziba (2014), our participants engage in code switching when engaging with various persons as an entry fee. This also rekindles the question of 'who Speaks

what language to whom and when?' (Fishman, 1965, p.67), a linguistic demonstration of degrees of freedom and nature of relations. To the researcher, participants could engage in Ndebele or English, to clients in South Africa their repertoire of linguistic skills would be put to full use with various languages being deployed. Where it so happened that the researcher and clients or service personnel were in the same place as the participant, a multiplicity of languages were used to demonstrate the centrality of the participant as a mediator between foreign persons. In social terms, mobility was therefore a way of seeking out development as well as demonstrating freedoms. The migrant in various spaces ceased to be a person deprived of agency and power but one capable of producing social goods useful to strangers.

Mobilities also enabled for a reading of development not as a fixed state or outcome but as a process with negotiated terms and outcomes. For instance, through the various transit areas, it was evident that although spaces in South Africa symbolized modernity and Zimbabwe's transit spot was relatively less developed, various other elements contributed to an overall picture of development. It was not only economic outcomes that were deemed useful as a measure of development but other variables such as social and security features (personal and physical security). Transit spaces revealed how aspirations and achievements of development were fluid. On the one hand South Africa's macro-economic stability and infrastructural layout were enviable to the migrants. On the other, the concerns over physical and personal security were worrisome such that Zimbabwe was deemed more acceptable as a place to reside despite its *kiya-kiya* (Jones, 2010) and anemic economy (Coltart, 2008). The movement of persons in various spaces reveals that such terms as development or even advancement are not fixities and therefore when migrants move from one area to another, it is not an osmotic transition where persons move from a region of low development to one of advanced development. Instead, spaces moved through and the meanings of such spaces and encounters therein reveal that development is negotiated and understood through various prisms.

So far, the discussion has portrayed mobilities considering the participants. While this is due to the methodological approach adopted, it is useful to consider meanings of the encounters considering migration officers at ports of entry and exit. The officials in these spaces comprise of police officers, immigration officials, customs officials as well as military personnel. As noted, on the Zimbabwean side, there were concerns with corruption despite efficient and reliable processing of documentation. On the south African side, the lethargic service delivery was bemoaned by participants. Numerous studies have revealed the problems faced by officials in migration management on the South African side (Crush, 1997; Crush, 2000; Danso & McDonald, 2000; Landau, 2007) with lesser research being expended on scrutiny of the Zimbabwe side (Pophiwa, 2007; Pophiwa, 2010). Although all studies reflect an incapacity to effectively deal with the migration management matter, it is evident that the tinge of anti-foreigner sentiment is manifest among officials in South Africa. However, far from being a sentiment unanimously reserved for all foreigners, it appears space and context give it life. A personal reflection is useful in this regard to contrast with proceedings on the South African side of the border post. On a different trip altogether and upon the author landing at O.R Tambo airport, he was struck by how friendly, courteous and efficient the staff were. Instead of being told how many days were to be allocated upon stay, the staff afforded the author a generous number of days spanning a full month. This contrasts starkly with the exchanges at Beitbridge where migrants are in many cases given the impression that they are unwelcome.

Instead of being viewed as a burden or problem to South Africa, migrants portray themselves as useful economic agents who add value to the economic system in contradiction to the treatment they receive at the border post. On the Zimbabwean side, the association of officials with corrupt practices is consistent with the notion that institutions in the country are weak. Yet once again, exposure at the country's airports gives a different picture. The assertion by Büscher (2012) that mobilities paradigm allows researchers to demonstrate realities through investigations of movement, blocked movement, potential movement and immobility, dwelling and place-making rings true in the Beitbridge-Johannesburg route.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study has discussed mobility of migrants who ply the Beitbridge-Johannesburg route. It has relied on the mobilities turn or the mobilities paradigm to reveal the interplay of human migration and development. It has revealed that persons in various spaces (re)imagine and realise development. Development when construed as freedom can be read in the movement of people across space. As a result, movement is part of some forms of development as well as being a conduit to some forms of development. Analysing the experience of four Zimbabwean migrants, the study reveals that migrants derive meaning of development in various places. Development is not only measured or assessed by migrants in economic terms but encompasses social concerns as well. In this sense, Johannesburg and Bulawayo are not unanimously portrayed as developed but have various elements which make for their status. Bulawayo enables the migrants to identify with security and personal freedoms while Johannesburg enables migrants to identify with economic freedoms. Physical space at places of departure, in transit, at ports of entry and exit as well as at places of arrival produce and reproduce meaning of development to the migrants. Depending on context, the migrant will identify with development either in Johannesburg or in Bulawayo. This scenario leads us to make a narrow set of recommendations.

Two recommendations are made here. The first is for researchers to become more involved in studies which embrace theories and methodologies which incorporate the experiences and realities of migrants between spaces to give a more broad and nuanced portrayal of phenomena. Although this recommendation is made with concepts such as mobilities, it resonates with embedding migration studies within a broad understanding of contemporary society (Castles, 2010). Mobilities reveals the contemporary meanings and experiences in a novel way by showing how different places, spaces and symbols have various meanings both to migrants as well as to development.

The second recommendation is that policymakers to embrace places not merely as physical space which is devoid of meaning but to begin to take more cognizance of their meanings. Assuming such a perspective enables them to better manage migration and perceptions over such matters as hostilities and xenophobic sentiments.

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ⁱⁱⁱ <http://www.newsday.co.zw/2015/04/02/diasporans-challenge-mugabe-to-prove-sincerity/>

^{iv} <https://www.google.co.zw/maps/dir/Bulawayo+City+Hall,+Fife+Street,+Bulawayo/Johannesburg,+Rissik+St,+CBD,+Johannesburg,+South+Africa/@-23.2037097,26.3813129,7z/data=!4m14!4m13!1m5!1m1!1s0x1eb55474f75e1971:0x4847c57a1613a872!2m2!1d28.5857812!2d-20.1547217!1m5!1m1!1s0x1e950c21e0fabb17:0x3af7aaba0fc6da84!2m2!1d28.04218!2d-26.1972089!3e0>

^v We use pseudonyms in this paper to protect the identity of participants and to adhere to ethical protocols.

Intersemiotic translation of the Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to present an innovative critical pedagogy to include a unit on social justice in the curriculum. This critical approach is an intersemiotic translation of the New York bestseller book "The Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks" by Rebecca Skoot. Intersemiotic translation is to translate from a linguistic mode to another semiotic mode or vice versa. In this paper, students translated from a linguistic code, which was their first language, to other semiotic codes, which include pictures, symbols, photos and even a linguistic code, which was their second language-Spanish. The book "The immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks", explores a wide variety of social topics such as discrimination based on gender, race and color among many others. The main purpose of having students do the multimodal translation and present it to class was to open a space for sharing students' perspectives, to disrupt, de-mystify, critique, and question the status quo and to create awareness of the worldviews of those being silenced, marginalized and oppressed.

Key words: intersemiotic, translation, social justice, oppressed, critical pedagogy.

A Critical Approach to tackle social justice and to develop communicative skills in the Spanish classroom.

A unit on Social justice can easily be part of any curriculum regardless of the discipline. It is especially appropriate in the world we live today, where many of the injustices and inequalities that existed more than fifty years ago seem to hunt us again. It is necessary to use critical pedagogies in our classroom to create awareness of the inequalities that have become more pronounced since the 2016 Presidential election. A unit on 'social justice' equips students with the knowledge and skills to talk about inequalities, discrimination- regarding race and gender, religion, power and ethics, regionally, nationally and globally. One of our goals as educators is to prepare students to become contributing global citizens capable of developing critical thinking skills, and being proactive to effect change in the places where they live.

This paper explores how an intersemiotic translation of the New York Time best seller book "The Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks, by Rebecca Skoot can be a venue to incorporate social justice and inequality issues in an intermediate Spanish as a foreign language class. This assignment gives students the opportunity to develop Spanish communicative skills and the same time, it opens a dialogue on a wide range of topics such as access to healthcare, discrimination based on race and gender, unethical research practices and religious beliefs among others. Students can become aware of the issues; they can discuss, argue, and try to find ways to effect change in their communities to make a more equitable society.

The Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks by Rebecca Lacks by Skoot

The book 'The Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks', is about a black woman who was only known as *the Hela cells* for many years. The book, written by Rebecca Skloot, artfully combines race,

gender, religious beliefs, class, health care and research ethics and medicine. Skloot says that Henrietta “was a poor black tobacco farmer whose cells—taken without her knowledge in 1951—became one of the most important tools in medicine, all for developing the polio vaccine, cloning, gene mapping, in vitro fertilization, and more. Henrietta’s cells have been bought and sold by the billions, yet she remains virtually unknown, and her family can’t afford health insurance”. (2011). Henrietta lived during the years of Jim Crow Laws that mandated a separation of Blacks and Whites in The Southern United States starting in the 1890’s. The laws applied to “every aspect of daily life, mandating segregation of schools, parks, libraries, drinking fountains, restrooms, buses, trains, and restaurants. “Whites Only” and “Colored” signs were constant reminders of the enforced racial order” (2011). During those years, the John Hopkins hospital was the only health care facility that offered care for blacks, and it was at this hospital that Henrietta Lacks received the treatment for her cervical cancer, and the place where her cells were taken without her or her family’s permission. The treatment that she received was also different from the one a white woman would have received. When Henrietta’s tumor had spread all over her body, she needed constant blood transfusions since her kidneys had failed. However, one of the doctors, knowing how much Henrietta needed the transfusions, wrote a note to stop all transfusions “until her deficit with the blood bank was made up.” (p. 83, 2011, Skloot). This is a non-fiction book about social inequalities inflicted on minorities, especially Blacks, during the period of the Jim Crow Laws in the Southern United States. However, it is also a book about gender discrimination, unethical behavior in medicine, access to health care, religious beliefs, poverty and education among others.

Intersemiotic translation

Intersemiotic translation or “transmutation” (Jacobson, p.233), will be viewed, for purposes of this paper, as the process of translating from a linguistic code to another semiotic code or vice versa. Loffredo and Perterhella (2014) state that this “change in modality (from written text to image, for example), brings into play other channels in the ‘reinvention’ of, and response to, the source text: a learner can respond to an L2 poem for example with the creation of a poster – perhaps overlapping images and text – or with the production of a recording – mixing sounds and words. (p.65).

Intersemiotic translation in the language classroom can be used as a pedagogical tool to empower L2 learners and to enhance their language skills while tackling social issues such as the ones presented in the book, ‘Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks’.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The idea of introducing a unit on social justice was conceived from Freire’s (1970) “Pedagogy of the Oppressed” which according to Freire “makes oppression and its causes objects of reflection by the oppressed, and from that will come their necessary engagement in the struggle for their liberation”(p.4) One of the first steps we need to take as teachers is to create awareness of the ways in which many people are silenced, especially since the 2016 presidential elections. It is necessary to infuse criticality in our courses; one way is to open a safe space for dialogue about social justice.

The idea of opening spaces for dialogue, for question the inequalities and oppression of certain groups, is motivated by the idea of critical multiculturalism described by Kubota (2012). It is important to recognize cultural differences but we need to do it from a critical perspective that allows learning and transformation at the same time. It is a way to empower our students to become agents that can effect changes within their communities; “critical multiculturalism problematizes, rather than presupposes, difference and explores a critical understanding of culture as diverse, dynamic, and socially, politically, and discursively constructed.” (Kubota,

2012 p.39). The incorporation of a social or critical multicultural unit in our syllabi is a way to view our institutions of learning as venues to create a more equitable and just society.

Description of the assignment

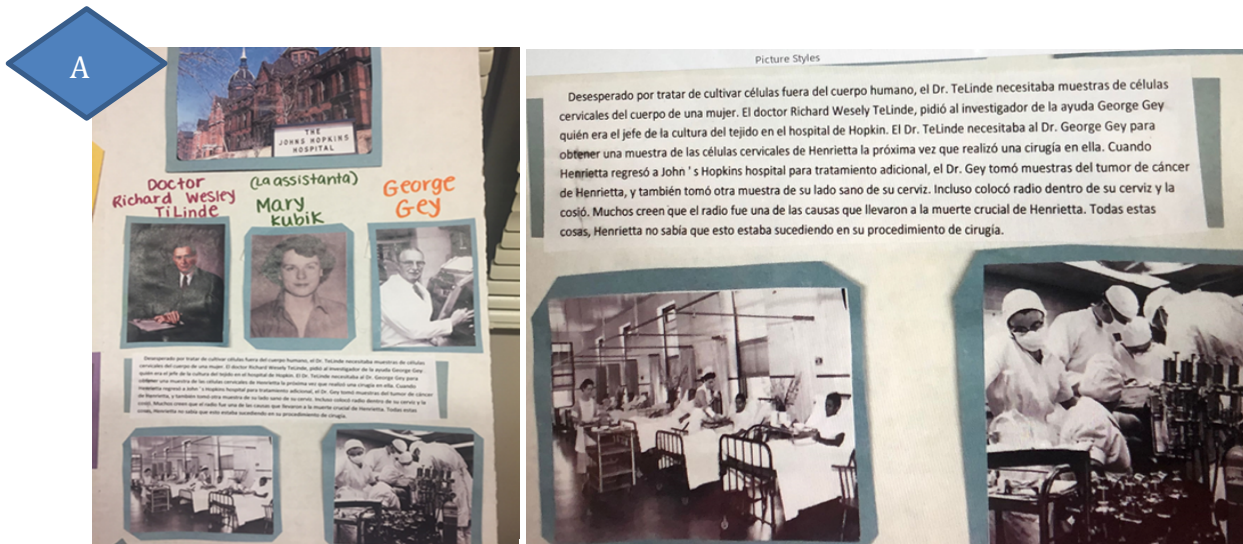
Students read the book individually, and they met a few times outside the classroom to share the main ideas and the issues they wanted to communicate through various modes. Each group had to present the result of their transmutations of the book and use the target language to communicate, explain and share their ideas with the rest of the class. The use of pictures, photos, and objects helped the rest of the class understand the messages other peers were trying to convey. Students used the book as the source text and they transferred the main ideas through the creation of a poster, a collage or a power point. The source text was a combination of linguistic and visual modes, the written words were in the student's first language, and some of the words were combined with pictures and photos of Henrietta's family and relatives.

The multimodality of the translation from students' first language to the second language, allowed students to digitally create their product, or manually construct it by using diverse materials, colors, fonts, pictures, drawings and objects. Students printed or cut out from newspapers and magazines pictures to illustrate the ideas they needed to convey. Furthermore, multimodality provided an opportunity for the learner to use his/her creativity, imagination, background knowledge to transpose a message from one sign system to another. Students' creations resulted in a combination of images, text, sounds and words.

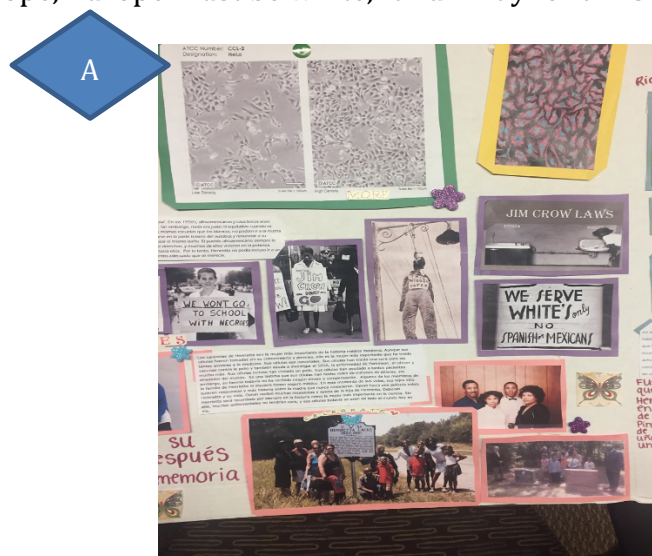
Themes tackled by students' multimodal translations.

Access to healthcare and ethics regarding oppressed minorities

In the poster below- A1- students focused on the John Hopkins Hospital, the only place that offered health care to black patients during the Jim Crow Laws. This was an opportunity to talk about access to health care, which was an issue at the time of Henrietta's cancer treatment. It was also a chance to talk about concerns related to health care nowadays, and the fight in Congress with the Obama Care Health Program. This group also used photographs of Doctor George Gey, who was the director of the tissue research at John Hopkins hospital - where Henrietta received the treatment for her cervical cancer. Gey was also the person who developed the techniques used to grow the Hella cells. Students also displayed a photo of Mary Kubicek, who was Gey's assistant at the time, and she cultured the cells taken from Henrietta's cervix for the first time. Students talked about Henrietta's autopsy, and how her "body lay on a stainless-steel table in the cavernous basement morgue, and Gey's assistant, Mary, stood in the doorway" (p. 90) It was also part of the discussion how samples from various parts of Henrietta's body were collected by the pathologist as Mary held the dishes where the samples were placed. Almost all the groups mentioned how Mary Kubicek felt when she looked at Henrietta toenails: "I thought, Oh jeez, she's a real person. I started imagining her sitting in her bathroom painting those toenails, and it hit me for the first time that those cells we'd been working with all this time and sending all over the world, they came from a live woman. I'd never thought of it that way." (p.91). The issue of unequal treatment based on race and gender, the unethical behavior, greed and fame on the part of the doctors and specialists that came in contact with the Hella cells were issues that all students mentioned in their presentations.



In poster A-2, students focused on Jim Crow Laws and the effects they had on Black people everyday life. Other minorities such as Latin Americans and other minorities were also targets of Jim Crow laws. One of the pictures in the poster reads: "We serve only white people. No blacks or Mexicans allowed. Another picture shows the lynching of black people during those times. This was an aspect they thought important to tackle in their poster. According to a report by Equal Justice Initiative 'By the end of the nineteenth century, Southern lynching had become a tool of racial control that terrorized and targeted African Americans. Through lynching, Southern white communities asserted their racial dominance over the region's political and economic resources _ a dominance first achieved through slavery would be restored through terror". (2015, p.10) This an aspect that can also be linked to the Charlottesville, Virginia white nationalist protest rally on August 12, 2017. The white nationalists were protesting the removal a confederate statue that was built to honor General Robert E. Lee. This topic can certainly open a civil and respectful dialogue about current events that have provoked violence and division in the United States. This issue is as relevant today as it was during the time Henrietta grew up and die. One of the students brought up a news report, [Sunday, August 12, 2017] by the television network CNN, about White nationalists protesters disrupt the events during Independence Day in Poland with "banners that read, "White Europe, Europe must be white," and "Pray for an Islamic Holocaust."



Power Point Slides

The power point slide B1 below represents a message from Chapter 17 of the book, which is called 'Illegal, Immoral, and Deplorable, p. 127. This slide opened a discussion of greed, fame, and unethical professional behavior. Dr. Southam, a cancer researcher, started injecting patients with Hella cells in the 1950's, he had obtained the cancer cells from Gey's lab. However, he had injected them on people that were sick, and he wanted to see how healthy patients would react after being injected with the cancerous Hella cells. "Southam began injecting prisoners in June 1956 using Hela cells that his colleague, Alice Moore, carried from New York to Ohio in a hand-bag. Sixty-five prisoners – murderers, embezzlers, robbers, and forgers, lined up on wooden benches for their injections" (Skoot, p. 129). The reason these prisoners accepted to be injected with cancerous cells was, according to some of them, a redemption, or forgiveness for the crimes they had committed. This example open a space to discuss the role of spirituality and religious beliefs. Students also referred to the Nuremberg Code which was the result of a trial by American prosecutors against Nazi physicians "who had subjected Jews and others to a murderous regime of medical research. The "doctors' trial" was the first of the war crimes trials; one of its outcomes was the famous Nuremberg Code, a set of ethical guidelines for human experimentation." (Williams, 2012, p.1)

B1

Dr. Chester M. Southam y el código de Nuremberg

Dr. Chester Southam fue un virólogo que en los años sesenta que decidió inyectar a pacientes con las células cancerosas de Henrietta Lack sin decirles que la inyección era una célula de cáncer, similar a cómo los médicos de Hopkins habían tomado la muestra de Henrietta sin su conocimiento. Southam entonces consiguió otro hospital, el Hospital Judío de Enfermedades crónicas en Brooklyn, para continuar su investigación. En este hospital, tres doctores se negaron a inyectar a los pacientes sin su conocimiento debido a que creían que la investigación se asemejaba a la investigación durante el Holocausto y citaron el código de Nuremberg.



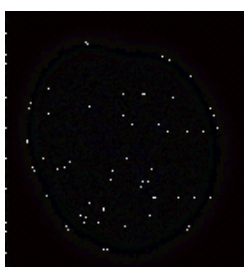
Doctor Southam

The power point slide B2 bellow is about the treatment Henrietta Lacks received at the John Hopkins Hospital. Students explained how dangerous radium is since it can also make cancerous cells to reproduce. Students opened a dialogue about whether Henrietta would have received a different at the John Hopkins for her cervical cancer if she had been white. Some students had done some research about the negative effects of using radium tube inserts for cancer and they discussed the issue with the class. They wondered whether the treatment Henrietta received would have been different if she had been a white female.

Tratamiento de Radiación de Henrietta Lacks

Henrietta Lacks era una mujer afroamericana que sufría de cáncer del cuello del útero. Durante su tratamiento, el doctor tomo muestras de tejido sin consentimiento, diferente al de lo que muchas personas creyeron cuando ellas dieron sus células. El cáncer de Henrietta fue tratado de manera diferente a como una mujer caucásica habría sido tratada porque Henrietta Lacks era negra y de pobre origen

Henrietta tuvo el elemento radioactivo (radio) en su cuello del útero. Sin embargo, el elemento de radio tenía la capacidad de matar el células cancerosas pero puede causar mutaciones que escalan y pueden hacerse cancerosas y si el paciente está expuesto a grandes dosis puede quemar la piel, como el caso de Henrietta.



La Experiencia de Henrietta Lacks después de la Radiación

Cuando le insertaron los tubos en el cuello del utero, Henrietta se quejaba y decía, “Lord, it just feels like that blackness be spreading all inside me.” [Señor, solo siento como la negrura se está propagando dentro mí.] Y es que su piel y su cuello del utero estaban siendo quemados por el elemento radio, incluso su amiga Sadie habla “they burnt you black as tar” [Ellos te quemaron tan negro como el alquitrán]. El cuerpo de Henrietta Lacks estaba siendo quemado desde su pecho a su pelvis. Irónicamente, el doctor Howard Kelly de John Hopkins Hospital, y otro que llevaba en su bolsillo los tubos con el elemento radio murieron debido por haber estado expuestos a la sustancia radioactiva. Es posible que las células cáncerosas de Henrietta murieron, pero luego se reprodujeron a un ritmo más rápido que el tratamiento que recibió en el Hospital John Hopkins.

Students’ presentations

Students presented in Spanish, even though some of them had to code switch from Spanish to English or even code-mesh, which is a combination of Spanish and English – Spanglish. Canagarajah, (2006), sees code meshing as advantageous for second language learners, he states that ‘rather than teaching grammatical rules in a normative and abstract way, we should teach communicative strategies—i.e., creative ways to negotiate the norms relevant in diverse contexts. (p.593). The main goal is for students to communicate, to express themselves and critically argue and unpack the content of the book on issues of inequality, hegemony, racism, gender, access to healthcare and education among others.

The presentations opened spaces where the issues abovementioned were discussed, argued, problematize and in some case provided the setting to create what Pratt (2011) calls the contact zones. These zones are social spaces where cultures meet, cloth, and grapple with each other, often in contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power, such as colonialism, slavery, or their aftermaths as they are lived out in many parts of the world today” (p.34). It is through these discussions that students can develop awareness, be open to dialogue, problematize and try to find solutions to social issues that have silenced and oppressed minorities in our society. It is then than pedagogy becomes a venue for students to be social agents that can effect transformation and change in their communities.

This multimodality allows students to develop skills to communicate through the various modes that have evolved in today's linguistically and culturally diverse world. Furthermore, multimodality provides an opportunity for the learner to use his/her creativity, imagination, background knowledge to transpose a message from one sign system to another. This is certainly a way to empower and emancipate L2 learners.

The poem by Pat Mora, *Legal Immigrant*, mentioned in the interlingual translation section, can also be an example to do an intersemiotic translation. Students can decode the poem using micro and macro skills and transpose the ideas into a poster, or a picture that will represent the main ideas in the poem. Once they do a bottom up and top down analysis of the poem, they can transmute the feelings expressed in the poem, which are shared by many immigrants who may be legal or who may have been born in the United States, but still feel a sense of being caught up between two worlds, two cultures, and two languages. The student's creativity, and the decisions they make as they decide how to transpose the ideas into a visual mode is what empowers and gives them voice.

EMPOWERING L2 LEARNERS THROUGH TRANSLATION

Translation can be a powerful pedagogical tool to empower and emancipate L2 learners. With the sociocultural turn in translation in the late 1980's and early 1990's, we have seen scholars reevaluating the benefits of using translation in the language classroom. For many years, and in a strong response to the Grammar Translation Method, the use of the mother tongue was basically banned from the classroom by the emergence of communicative approaches that advocated for the use of the target language only in order to maximize the L2 proficiency and to prevent negative interference from L1. However, with the new interdisciplinary approach of translation studies, some scholars have started to see the banning of the mother tongue from the language classroom as counterproductive. According to Cook (2012), prohibiting students to use their mother tongue is to ask "students to artificially give up their identity and adopt a new one. It turns the adult back into a child, makes the wise appear ignorant, and the articulate suddenly lost for words" (p.29).

Accordingly, translation is the result of multiple processes of mediation and negotiation of cultural differences. Being in contact with the mother tongue is a way to empower L2 learners who feel a loss of their voices and identity. As Spiro (2014) states in her article "Learner and Writer voices: "Distancing from the mother tongue can lead to a profound sense that "the inner voice" is lost (p.23). Translation is a pedagogical tool that validates the learner's identity and prevents feelings of displacement due to the prescriptivism that characterizes the monolingual approaches to language learning. In fact, learner's L1 becomes an authentic, meaningful input to learn the target language. In addition, translation, interlingual or intersemiotic, is a creative student-centered task, and it is precisely the creativity involved in the translation process that emancipates L2 learners. It is this condition of otherness that allows the translator to find ways to convey a message from the ST to the TT when there are no equivalents between the two languages. Jakobson, in his article on *Linguistic Aspects of Translation*, states that "Whenever there is deficiency, terminology may be qualified and amplified by loanwords or loan-translations, neologism or semantic shifts, and finally by circumlocutions" (p.234). Therefore, the L2 learner as translator has a very active role in the translation process, s/he is a creative and dynamic interpreter who is able to take charge of the learning process by becoming a decision maker about how to best interpret and transfer the message from the TS to the TL. The translator actively participates in the process to make meaning and knowledge as they produce a final product from L1 to L2. This process is emancipatory and gives agency to the L2 learner. According to Witte et al, (2012) in the introduction of the book "Translation in Second Language Learning and Teaching" translation exercises "do not only have positive

effects on the improvement of language skills, but also have emancipatory functions, as students will, ideally, become masters of the language and not feel mastered by it” (p. 9)

In addition, translation in L2 learning can be seen ‘as a contact zone’, (Pratt, p. 3, 1991), where different languages, cultures and community discourses meet, and the student is able to work with the voice of others as well as his/her own voice in a truly authentic context. The student needs to make choices, which can be subjective as s/he chooses from the linguistic and sociocultural conventions of the TS to give the best and most accurate representation into the TL by means a semiotic mode, which can be through gestures, visual, verbal, and written among others. In general, translation can be an empowering tool in the second language classroom because it is a student-centered activity. The focus is shifted from the teacher to the students, who actively participate in the learning process. Furthermore, the use of the L2 learner’s mother tongue in the classroom emancipates since they do not have to assume a new culture and language at the expense of denying their own identities.

Furthermore, students need to negotiate, make choices when there is not a direct equivalent between the two languages. This freedom to make a choice is liberating and empowering. It also gives L2 learners agency. Translation is also a process that develops critical thinking skills, which are necessary to make learners more independent and in control of their own learning. Independence and autonomy also empower second L2 learners. Overall, translation is a tool that helps L2 learners to develop lifelong solving problem skills.

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Nationalist protesters disrupt Poland independence day events

By Matthew Day, for CNN

Updated 8:55 AM ET, Sun November 12, 2017

<http://www.cnn.com/2017/11/12/europe/poland-warsaw-nationalist-march/index.html>

Assessing the Role of Demographic Variables on Employer Branding.

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ABSTRACT

This paper studies the influence of demographic variables like age, gender, qualification and work experience for the impact of early recruitment activities (ERA) and employer brand knowledge (EBK) on Organization attractiveness (OA) and Firm Performance (FP). The questionnaire was administered on 750 final year students of MBA, MCA and BE. The companies were chosen on the basis of NASSCOM top 20 IT-BPM employers in India 2015-16. It was observed that early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact and Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance positive impact on Organization attractiveness (OA) for both the age groups and both the genders, for only MBA students and with nil and 1-2 years of experience. While only Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance impact on Firm Performance (FP) for both the age groups and both the genders and nil level of experience. When designing the advertisement and publicity campaign, the employer need to be very careful as it can lead to negative effect on attractiveness of organization. They should focus more on developing employer brand knowledge with respect to brand awareness, reputation and image. The originality of the review is its uniqueness in showing how different demographic can play important role in deciding the employer brand strategies for any organization which can help in focusing the right target groups for employer brand building.

Keywords: Employer Branding, early recruitment activities (ERA), employer brand knowledge (EBK), internal branding, organization attractiveness (OA) and Firm Performance (FP).

INTRODUCTION

Veloutsou & Guzman (2017) with the thorough analysis of the JPBM journal's contribution discussed about employer brand for attracting employees and role of human like brand characteristics including brand personality. The concept of Employer Brand (EB) has gained lot of attention in recent years. Van Mossevelde (2010) suggested that companies with strong employer brands attracts more applicants in the labor market and afford to pay less salary as compared to companies with poor employer brands for the similar position. Minchington, (2008) suggested that conceptualizing and managing the employer brand of the organization requires sufficient expertise in communication. The employer brand helps in communicating the desired benefits available for working for a specific and its unique employee value proposition (EVP) to all the employees i.e potential and current employees (Love and Singh, 2011). Martin et al. (2011:3618) conceptualized employer branding as "a generalized recognition

for being known among key stakeholders for providing a high-quality employment experience, and a distinctive organizational identity which employees value, engage with and feel confident and happy to promote to others". Employer branding leads to reduced recruitment costs as the process of recruitment is shortened and become more flexible. This is due that more employees wants to work for the firm, and therefore it becomes easy to attract the potential employees (Heilmann et al., 2013; Kalyankar, Mathur, and Bakshi, 2014a). A strong employer brand works as a "crisis shield" when there are problems as reputed employer brand will be given the benefit of the doubt, a privilege not usually provided to anonymous or poorly regarded brands (Kalyankar, Mathur, and Baski, 2014b). A good employer brand supports the right workforce to apply. Therefore the firm can avoid those candidates whose goal and objectives do not fit with the organization (Heilmann et al., 2013; Gupta et al., 2014).

Many researchers have shown keen interest in studying the role of demographic variables on employer brand building and overall organization attractiveness. Mencl and Lester (2014) studies shows that there are differences regarding career development, diversity management, and fast feedback and quick recognition, which were more valued by Generation Y. According to Newbury et al. (2006) attractiveness is "in the eyes of the beholder" and many factors like contextual and demographic characteristics like age, gender, ethnicity, income, and education influence people's perceptions of how attractive is an organization.

Bigoness(1998) recorded the job attribute preferences of MBA students with respect to gender of United States. It was found that female respondents placed larger importance on career or professional growth than the male. While males gave more importance to pay or salary. It was seen that there was no major differences in perception for work environment across the two genders (Bigoness, 1988). Chew & Teo (1993) explored differences in male and female for job and organization attributes among undergraduates in Singapore. They found that the job attribute preferences are influenced by gender and are influenced by age, work experience, ethnicity and professional training area. Tolbert & Moen (1998) studies the changes brought by age over time across gender preferences for five important job attributes—job security, working hours, high income, promotion opportunities and meaningful work. With respect to men, women put more importance to jobs which give a sense of accomplishment than those that provided promotions or security for the job. It was also seen that women put meaningful work as a first preference, and men ranked promotion and career growth and security with the job higher (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). Konrad *et al.* (2000) studies conducted in US showed small but significant differences in preferences for job attribute for men and women. Men give more importance to earnings, leadership, freedom, and challenge, power and career growth than women. Women valued good relationship with the others, ease of commute, good hours and assisting others more than men. Gokuladas (2010) also showed that the female employees rated career development in company as crucial indicator for accepting a specific job than their male colleagues. This finding contradicts the acceptable norm for men giving importance to their career, and this shows that career is as important to women employees.

Tuzuner and Yuksel (2009) also showed perception of potential employees for an organization attractiveness differs across gender. Females like work environment which is non-competitive, while work place which is brand oriented are preferred by males. The study conducted by Robertson and Khatibi (2013) found a strong relationship between organization showing strong employer brand and level of productivity of the employees. The results indicated that there is important role of senior managers in building employer brands. Alnaicike and Alnaicike (2012) found significant difference between the factors of employer attractiveness dimensions among the different genders. The female gave higher importance to social value, application value, cooperation value and market value but not to the economic value and

workplace environment when compared to males. It was also found that there was weak but significant and positive association between the age and market value dimension.

Various studies have shown that Gen Y employees demand high salary and benefits (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Hess & Jepsen, 2009). Studies have also shown that excellent salary was considered most important for the job and organizational attributes (Ng & Burke, 2006; Phillips *et al.*, 1994; Tolbert & Moen, 1998). As also given by Morton (2002), good organization culture, proper training and equity in salary attracts Gen Y employees to organizations. Meier *et al.* (2010) suggested work place environment as the most crucial factor by Gen Y when deciding on the organization they want to work for which give them a place to be successful and provide a good time. Previous research are focusing on factors of employer attractiveness dimensions or benefits obtained among the different groups with respect to gender, age, qualification and work studies (Tuzuner and Yuksel, 2009; Alnaicike and Alnaicike, 2012; Gokuladas (2010)). There are very few studies which look into effect of age, gender, qualification and work experience on the early recruitment activities like publicity, word of mouth, advertising and sponsorship as given by Collins and Stevens (2002) and see its effect on Organization Attractiveness and Firm Performance.

This study is also focusing its attention to effect of age, gender, qualification and work experience on employer brand knowledge as given by Cable and Turban (2001) which consist of employer awareness or familiarity, employer image or job association and employer reputation on Organization Attractiveness and Firm Performance. This study is trying to fill the gap as how early recruitment activities (ERA) and employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) effect Organization attractiveness (OA) and Firm Performance (FP) across different groups. No other studies have explored this area of employer branding and using multi group analysis have seen the difference across different categories of respondents. The organization may benefit through this research in understanding how to designed focused strategy for each group.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational attractiveness (OA):

'Employer attractiveness' concept is closely related to 'employer branding'. This concept is frequently discussed in the area of vocational behaviour (Soutar & Clarke 1983), management (Gatewood *et al.* 1993), applied psychology (Jurgensen 1978; Collins & Stevens 2002), communication (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002) and marketing (Ambler & Barrow 1996; Gilly & Wolfinbarger 1998; Ambler 2000; Ewing *et al.* 2002). Berthon *et al.* (2005) described 'employer attractiveness' as the "envisioned benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific organisation". Many studies that have studied early recruitment stages and potential applicants' attraction have found that organizational attraction is decided by perception of applicants of organizational and job characteristics like, opportunities for promotion, location, organizational structure, salary and career growth programmes (Highhouse *et al.* 1999; Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Lievens, Decaestecker, Coetsier, & Geirnaert 2001; Cable & Graham, 2000; Lievens & Highhouse 2003; Turban & Keon, 1993). Many researchers have shown that decisions to apply to an organization are decided by the general impression that applicants have about the company's overall attractiveness (Belt & Paolillo, 1982; Rynes, 1991; Fombrun & Shanley, 1990).

Firm Performance (FP):

Fulmer *et al.*, (2003) study showed that the time and resources spent to create and facilitate positive employee relation is always an important and worthwhile investment. As positive employer reputation is difficult to copy and remain over a time period, they give unique and sustainable competitive advantage for the organization (Robert & Dowling, 2002). Hence even

though there is additional cost required to provide employee friendly practices, the benefits are much greater which can compensate for the extra cost (Fulmer et al.,2003).Therefore creating positive employee relations is very challenging task, but those firms who are engaged continuously and blocking investment into this practice are not regret this decision(Romero,2004). Some of the common practices of Fortune's 100 Best in (2004) included training and development, onsite athletic facilities, cafeteria, free or low-cost health care and recognition of excellent performance(Romero,2004).By using content analysis of website of Fortune's 100 best companies, Joyce(2003), argued that Fortune's 100 best companies are differentiated by employee development and engagements, fun work environment and diversity initiatives (p.77).Companies which are part of Fortune's 100 best companies list have better market values and higher return than matched firm which are not part of the list (Ballou et al.,2003; Fulmer et al., 2003).

Employer branding(EB):

For attracting, motivating, and retaining talented employees, many organizations try to become employer of choice where they are always the first choice for top talented candidates due to their reputation and status for their HR practices and corporate culture (Sutherland et al.,2002). The efforts of an organization for recruiting job seekers are same as the organization's efforts in attracting consumers for the product and services purchases.(Cable &Turban, 2001).Employer branding can be called as "the package of functional, economical and psychological benefits provided by employment and identified with the employing company" (Barrow, Ambler, 1996 quoted by Wilkinson, 2008).Ewing, et al (2002, p. 14) suggested that employment brand equity as "a set of employment brand assets linked to an employment brand, its name and symbol that add to (or subtract from) the value provided by an organization to the organisation's employees". Sullivan (2004) conceptualized Employer branding as a focused strategy to handle perception or image of potential employees, existing employees, and all stakeholders for a given organization. Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) suggested that final result of employer branding is brand loyalty which contributes towards increasing employee productivity. Tanwar. K. and Prasad. A. (2016) used qualitative analysis of an IT company and found how the employer branding efforts leads to increase retention among employees. The research also showed that employer branding play an important role in building brand advocates who spread positive word of mouth about their organization. Kashyap.V. and Rangnekar.S. (2016) investigated the interrelationships among employer brand perception (EBP), trust in leaders (TRT) and turnover intentions (TI) and showed that that EBP and subordinate's TRT were negatively associated with TI.

Employer branding does not only aid in hiring but also helps companies to retain the top talent by continuously defining itself by internal feedbacks from its employees (Biswas& Suaur, 2016).It is difficult to understand how companies brand themselves as great place to work. According to Ghadeer(2016) it is a "magic spell that allows organizations to differentiate themselves from others in the market place." Not only it provides consumer product or services but also sustainable workplace culture which is maintained through its interaction with employees and top management which provide its uniqueness (Verma & Ahmad,2016).The companies can always work better when they listen to the feedback given by employee's (Vatsa,2016).Sengupta, Bamel & Singh(2015) found out six factors for internal employer branding and five factors for external employer branding. The study also showed that demographic values do effect the work value preferences. Kuchero and Zamulin(2016) studied the IT companies in Russia for understanding how employer branding can be used to attract and retain the talent. According to them HRD managers have to identify the appropriate employer branding strategy by analyzing the core benefits (functional, economic, and psychological) provided by employment.

Aurand et al. (2005) indicate that internal branding and employer branding are synonymous and constitute the components of HRM and internal communication. According to Saleem & Iglesias (2016) internal branding and employer branding both concepts are distinct yet very overlapping. For example, Edwards (2009) suggests that employer branding activities are the application of branded HR activities towards current and potential employees. Similarly, Kimpakorn and Tocquer(2009) conceptualized employer brand as the processes that employees encounter in their daily work, such as HRM practices and management styles. Mosley(2007) also use the term “employer brand” in referring to the internal process that leads to successful consumer–brand interactions. Hence some researcher see employer brand as a process targeted towards potential employees to deliver the brand promise while other researcher see employer branding as an internally targeted process. Internal branding is also seen that begins with the recruitment of potential employees and extends to the training and management of existing employees (M’zungu et al., 2010), showing that internal branding focus across the complete life cycle of employees’ from pre-employment to post-employment.

Saleem & Iglesias (2016) found that internal branding consist of five key components as a part of corporate culture (brand ideologies, brand leadership, brand-centred human resource management (HRM), internal brand communication and internal brand communities). They also suggested that internal branding is related to employer branding with respect to its discipline, focus, components, outcome and role. Internal branding is used mostly in marketing and brand literature while employer branding is specially used in human resource management discipline, management and personnel management area. Second difference is their goal as internal branding goal is the co-creation of brand value between different stakeholders through all-encompassing internal processes whereas employer branding goal is to differentiate the brand in the minds of prospective employees and make the organization an appealing place to work and also aims to position the brand as an attractive choice in terms of talent acquisition (Rampl and Kenning, 2014). With respect to focus the internal branding facilitates employee co-creation of value with multiple stakeholders of the brand and specially towards existing employees (Mahnert and Torres, 2007). But the focus of employer branding is more towards existing and prospective employees (Knox and Freeman, 2006; Lloyd, 2002). The internal branding consist of brand ideologies, brand leadership, brand-centred HRM, internal brand communication and internal brand communities. While employer branding focus on recruitment and talent attraction by differentiating a firm from its competitors (Edwards, 2009; Wilden et al., 2010). The role of internal branding is a facilitator of employee-stakeholder relationships by providing tools to co-create brand value with the stake holders whereas employer branding act as a differentiator of corporate identity and communicator of symbolic and instrumental beliefs.

Early recruitment activities(ERA):

Collins and Stevens(2002) studied the students perception about how favourable they were towards particular organization and their applying intention for a job at these given organizations. It was seen that students have more positive attitudes towards organization that sponsor events at their institute and university and that have higher favourable corporate profile. Collins and Stevens (2002) suggested that four early recruitment activities like publicity, word of mouth, advertising and sponsorship focussed exposure will affect the decision to apply for a particular organization.

Publicity

Publicity is defined as information regarding a product or service communicated by the editorial media which is not paid by the organization (Cameron, 1994) and considered as very effective way of enhancing product brand image (Aaker, 1991). Although such publicity is

beyond the control of an organization, they can surely control the publicity received through public relations campaigns and press releases (Cameron, 1994).

Sponsorship

Corporate sponsorship activities are quite often used to increase consumers' brand awareness (Aaker, 1996). Some studies have shown that corporate sponsorships can improve both corporate images and brand by creating positive affect among people who become aware of the sponsorship activities and attend sponsored events (Johar & Pham, 1999). Hence sponsorship shows larger impact on applicant general attitudes than their job attributes or brand image perceptions.

Word-of-mouth endorsements

Word-of-mouth endorsements can play important role in also be enhancing Brand images, which is a usual approach for creating consumers' brand knowledge (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995). Research have shown that consumers like to reduce the risks of their purchases by gathering information from credible sources, like relative and friends or people having relevant expertise (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). Such sources can provide both general attitudes and specific attributes information about available brands.

Advertising

Advertising refers to "paid, professionally designed messages, channelled through various media outlets, that are used to modify consumers' perceptions" (Aaker, 1996). As advertising is directly managed by employers, it can be used to form brand-attribute associations which are favourable in mind of the consumers (Boulding, Lee, & Staelin, 1994) as well as to create favourable image toward the brand (Milgrom & Roberts, 1986; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). Recruitment advertising can be in the form of job postings and brochures which is used by the employer to distribute information about openings in the organization (Rynes, 1991).

H1: There is a significant difference in effect of early recruitment activities (ERA) on organization attractiveness (OA) among applicants of different age groups, gender, qualification and work experience.

H2: There is a significant difference in effect of early recruitment activities (ERA) on Firm Performance (FP) among applicants of different age groups, gender, qualification and work experience.

Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK):

Collins and Stevens (2002) on the basis of consumer brand equity research have shown that there are two dimensions of employment brand equity namely: employer associations and employer awareness. Collins and Stevens (2002) suggested that brand associations further consists of both attributes and attitudes. They described attitudes "as the level of general positive feelings that job seekers hold toward an organization and perceived attributes as job seekers' beliefs about specific aspects of the job and work environment of the organization". Previous research have shown the importance of employer awareness or familiarity with the employer reputation which influence the perception about attractiveness when choosing a potential employer (Collins & Stevens, 2002; Lievens, Decaestecker, Coetsier & Geirnaert, 2001). The perception about an organization is shown by its overall corporate reputation that may attract the applicants and they would like to pursue employment with the organization (Turban & Cable, 2003; Ng & Burke, 2006). Keller (1998) also showed that knowledge of brand consists of its image and awareness of the given brand. Where brand image enhances the associations which are related to either product or non-products attributes, benefits (economical, functional and symbolic) and attitudes. On similar lines Cable and Turban (2001) described "employer knowledge as job seeker's memories and association with respect to an

organization as a (potential) employer". Employer knowledge provides applicants with a template for storing and recalling organization related information. They divided employer knowledge into three broad dimensions: employer awareness or familiarity, employer image or job association and employer reputation. These related dimensions of employer knowledge impact applicants' level of attraction for an organization as a great place to work.

Employer familiarity or Awareness

Employer familiarity or the level of awareness that an applicant have about the organization is the first dimension (Cable & Turban,2001;Collins & Stevens,2002).Employer's familiarity is decided by the perception of the attractiveness by the applicants as an employer, and more familiar is the organizations more it is perceived attractive (Cable & Graham, 2000; Gatewood, Gowan, & Lautenschlager, 1993; Turban, 2001; Turban & Greening, 1997; Brooks, Highhouse, Russell, & Mohr, 2003).

Employer image

Employer knowledge's second dimension is employer image. This dimension showcase the beliefs acquired and formed by the applicant about an organization as an potential (Cable & Turban, 2001; Highhouse et al., 1999). Cable and Turban (2001) suggest that potential applicants have beliefs about job attributes which are objective of the organization which include employer information with respect to location, size, and geographical dispersion and level of centralization.

Davies et al.(2001) distinguished identity from image and said that identity is the view held by employees of the company while image as the view held by external stakeholder(e.g customers) Many researchers (Aaker,1997) have discussed the ideas of organizations having personality characteristics like symbolic and instrumental personality characteristics. Lievens and Highhouse(2003) refers to refer to organizational and job attributes as instrumental attributes as they describe the organization or job in terms of objective, factual and concrete attributes that a organization or a specific job either possess or not. Lievens et al. (2007) states that "employer branding is a specific form of managing corporate identities by creating both within and outside the firm an image of the firm as a distinct and desirable employer".Lievens and Highhouse(2003) showed that symbolic dimension of image had incremental variance above instrumental attributes in predicting bank's attractiveness as perceived by the employees. Slaughter et al.(2004) confirmed that symbolic dimensions of image were related to organizational attractiveness and specific traits assigned to organizations for students personality traits. Lievens, Van Hove and Schreurs(2005) also showed the incremental variance of symbolic image over instrumental image component in explaining students' attraction toward any organization.

Aaker (1997) developed a 42-item Brand Personality Scale (using a 1 = not at all descriptive to 5 =extremely descriptive Likert scale). Davies et al. (2001a) then went on to develop their own instrument with seven main personality dimensions: agreeableness, enterprise, competence, chic, ruthlessness, informality, machismo. Chun and Davies (2006) used that instrument to compare customer and employee perceptions of corporate brands. Slaughter et al. (2004) used various personality instruments to develop five factors, which they called: Boy Scout, innovativeness, dominance, thrift and style. Davies(2008) explored the effect of employer brand on differentiation, affinity, satisfaction and loyalty as perceived by the employee. Brand personality is a holistic view of brand association by using the metaphor of brand as a person and applying personality test to the brand. Srivastava.K. and Sharma. N.K.(2016) studied Airtel brand personality in India using Aaker's brand personality measurement framework (1997). The study measured five brand personality dimensions, namely, sincerity, excitement,

competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Results showed that the items under 'sophistication' dimension such as feminine, good-looking, glamorous and smooth were not relevant with Airtel brand personality. Thus, the remaining four dimensions, namely, sincerity, excitement, competence and ruggedness were combined to form a higher order construct, namely, Brand Personality. These dimensions were found to be important in Indian context.

Rampl, & Kenning(2014) study results indicated that employer brand trust and affect are both influenced by the brand personality trait sincerity. Further, employer brand affect was positively affected by the traits excitement and sophistication, while negatively affected by ruggedness. Hence ruggedness brand personality trait can negatively affect the employer brand. Research has also found that perceived brand personality is considered by potential employees when considering working for a company, as well as it affects the performance of current employees (Gammoh et al., 2014).

Employer Brand reputation

The Cable and Turban's (2001) third dimension of employer knowledge refers to the public image audit of an organization or overall employer reputation. Many times overall employer reputation is described by its economic success (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990), some studies recently provided an innovative trait-oriented perspective to employer reputation (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003; Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, & Mohr, 2004). These studies have indicated that potential employees reliably and meaningfully associate traits to organizations. The examples could be that people may refer to some employers as trendy and chic, while others as prestigious. As given by Lievens and Highhouse(2003) and Lievens et al.(2007), employer brand's symbolic image describes the organisation in with respect to its "subjective, abstract and intangible attributes" which is linked to the image of the organization (Lievens et al., 2007 p. S48).

H3: There is a significant difference in effect of Employer Brand knowledge (EBK) on organization attractiveness (OA) among applicants of different age groups, gender, qualification and work experience.

H4: There is a significant difference in effect of Employer Brand knowledge (EBK) on Firm Performance (FP) among applicants of different age groups, gender, qualification and work experience.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Total nine IT companies were chosen to assess their external organizational attractiveness. These companies were mix of companies having different reputations. The companies were chosen on the basis of their ranking on NASCOMM top 20 IT-BPM companies in India 2015-16. The questionnaire was circulated to 1000 students and completely filled 750 surveys were collected. Thus the respondent rate was 75.00 %. The students were chosen from different courses, age group and gender. The students were classified into three categories as those pursuing MBA, MCA and final year B.E (computer science, electronics) students. The data was collected from eight different colleges in Mumbai. Out of 750 data, 148 were collected by google form and 602 were collected by circulating hard copy of forms.

The demographic profile of 750 student's respondents. It is seen that 53.2% are in age group of 20-22 years and 40.8% are in age group of 23-25 years, 5.2% in 26-28 years and 0.8 % are in 29-31 years. With respect to gender 42.4 % are female and 57.6% are male. 10.8% are pursuing B.E, 78.3 % are pursuing MBA and 10.9% are pursuing MCA. 57.6% have no experience, 18.9 % have 1-2 years and 11.5 % have 3-5 years and 7.2% have more than 5 years. When asked how do they look for employment 51.1 % students said from internet, 22.8% from

networking,10.8% from recruitment agencies,4.7% from classified,5.9% from word of mouth and 4.8% from any other source.

Questionnaire:

Demographic details of the respondents with respect to the age, gender, qualification and work experience were collected. Employer Brand knowledge (EBK) was measured by scale used by Collins (2007) having three dimensions of employer image (job information) with eight items, employer familiarity with four items and employer reputation with four items. Respondents were ask to rate items for each measure on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Early recruitment activities(ERA) was measured by scale developed by Collins and Stevens (2002) having publicity with two items, word-of-mouth endorsements with four items, sponsorship with three items and advertising with four items. All the 13 items were measured on scale ranging from 1 {strongly disagree} to 5 {strongly agree}. Organizational attractiveness (OA) was measured by three items measuring perceived organizational attractiveness proposed by Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003).Firm Performance (FP) was measured by scale adopted from Chun (2001b).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The reliability values were good for all the variables namely ERA as 0.819,EBK as 0.875, OA ex as 0.833 and FP as 0.792.With respect to early recruitment activities (ERA) publicity has highest mean value of 3.69 followed bu word of mouth with 3.49.When considering employer brand knowledge, Functional Job Association has value of 3.75 and Employer Reputation has value of 3.65.Both External Org Attractiveness and Firm Performance have around 3.9 mean value.

Table 1:Non-parametric test for Demographic variables

	PUB	SPON	WOM	ADV	EBA	ER	FJA	OA	FP
Age						sig			
Gender	sig						sig	sig	sig
Qualification	sig	sig	sig	sig	sig	sig	sig	sig	sig
Work experience				sig	sig				

Table 1 depict that for the demographic variable of Gender there is significance difference between the variables Publicity, Function job association, Organization Attractiveness and Firm Performance. It is seen that for the demographic variable of Age there is significance difference between the variables Employer Reputation. It is also seen that for the variable Qualification there is significance difference between the all variables of ERA(Publicity, Sponsorship, advertisement and word of mouth),EBK(Employer Reputation, Employer Brand awareness and Function job association), Organization Attractiveness and Firm Performance. Similarly from Table 1 it is seen that for the variable years of experience there is significance difference between the variables Advertisement and Employer Brand Awareness.

Multi- level analysis

Figure 1: SEM- Employer Branding (General Model)

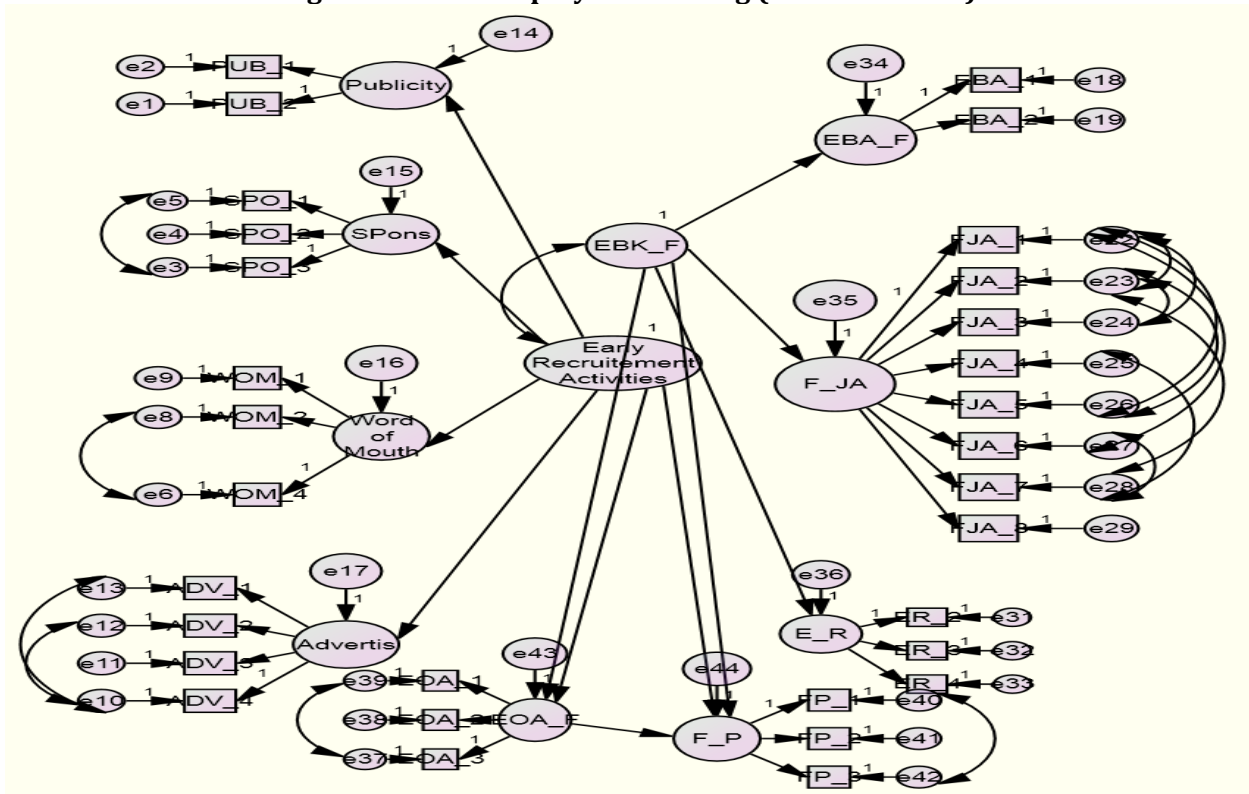


Table 2: Model fit Summary for all the Demographic variables

Variable	CMIN/DF	RMR	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Age	1.918	0.067	0.873	0.845	0.832	0.898	0.911	0.036
Gender	1.970	0.068	0.876	0.849	0.836	0.898	0.911	0.036
Qualification	2.065	0.069	0.828	0.789	0.770	0.844	0.864	0.038
Work Experience	1.827	0.081	0.833	0.796	0.778	0.866	0.883	0.035

Table 3: Hypothesis Testing for Age and Gender

Hypothesis		Age 20-22 years		23-25 years		Gender Male		Female	
		Beta values	P	Beta values	p	Beta value	p	Beta value	p
H1	(ERA) --- (OA)	-.349	***	-.408	***	-.365	***	-.404	**
H2	(EBK)---- (OA)	1.089	***	1.137	***	1.154	***	1.036	**
H3	(ERA)- (FP)	-.413		-.362		-.369		-.506	
H4	(EBK)-- (FP)	1.315	**	1.244	**	1.262	**	1.513	**

***-1% significance level

**-.5 % significance level

As shown in table 2 model fit summary for the Age gives CMIN/DF value 1.918.RMR is 0.067 and GFI value is 0.873.The AGFI value is 0.845 which should be greater than or equal to 0.80 as suggested by Chau and Hu (2001).NFI value is 0.832 which should be around 0.90 as per Hair et al.(1998).TLI value is 0.898 and CFI value is 0.911 as both should be greater than 0.90 according to Bagozzi and YI (1988).RMSEA value is 0.036 which should be less than 0.08 as suggested by MacCallum et al.(1996).

As seen in the path diagram shown in figure 1 sponsorship, word of mouth, advertisement and publicity all are significantly contributing to early recruitment activities (ERA). Similarly employer reputation, employer awareness and job association are significantly contributing to employer brand knowledge (EBK). From table 3 it seen that early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact and Employer Brand Knowledge(EBK) have significance positive impact on Organization attractiveness (OA) at 1% sig level and Employer Brand Knowledge(EBK) have significant positive effect on Firm Performance (FP) at 5% sig level for both the age groups of 20-22 and 23-25 years. Hence hypothesis H1, H3 and H4 are supported while H2 is not supported for both the groups.

The model fit summary for the Gender as shown in table 2 gives CMIN/DF value 1.970.RMR is 0.068 and GFI value is 0.876.The AGFI value is 0.849 which should be greater than or equal to 0.80 as suggested by Chau and Hu (2001).NFI value is 0.836 which should be around 0.90 as per Hair et al.(1998).TLI value is 0.898 and CFI value is 0.911 as both should be greater than 0.90 according to Bagozzi and YI (1988).RMSEA value is 0.036 which should be less than 0.08 as suggested by MacCallum et al.(1996)

From table 3 it seen that early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact and Employer Brand Knowledge(EBK) have significance positive impact on Organization attractiveness (OA) at 1% sig level and Employer Brand Knowledge(EBK) have significant positive effect on Firm Performance (FP) at 5% sig level for both the Male and Female. Hence hypothesis H1, H3 and H4 are supported while H2 is not supported for both the groups.

Table 4: Hypothesis Testing for Qualification and years of Experience

Hypothesis		Qualification MBA		MCA		B.E		Work Experience Nil		Less than 1 year		1-2 year	
		Beta values	p	Beta values	p	Beta values	p	Beta values	p	Beta values	p	Beta values	p
H1	(ERA) --- (OA)	-0.516	***	-0.006		-0.561		-0.457	***	-		-0.887	
H2	(EBK)---- (OA)	1.263	***	.885		1.156		1.130	***	28.406		1.800	**
H3	(ERA)- (FP)	-1.415		.788		-0.860		-0.367		0.666		.102	
H4	(EBK)-- (FP)	3.669		.099		1.821		1.120	**	-0.572		.170	

***-1% significance level
 **-5 % significance level

The model fit summary for the Qualification as given in table 2 gives CMIN/DF value 2.065.RMR is 0.069 and GFI value is 0.828.The AGFI value is 0.789 which should be greater than or equal to 0.80 as suggested by Chau and Hu (2001).NFI value is 0.770 which should be around 0.90 as per Hair et al.(1998).TLI value is 0.844 and CFI value is 0.864 as both should be greater than 0.90 according to Bagozzi and YI (1988).RMSEA value is 0.038 which should be less than 0.08 as suggested by MacCallum et al.(1996) .

From table 4 it seen that for MBA student’s early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact and employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance positive impact on organization attractiveness (OA) but not on Firm Performance. The early recruitment activities (ERA) and employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) do not have significance impact on organization attractiveness (OA) and Firm performance (FP) for both MCA and B.E students. Hence H1 and H3 are supported only for MBA students. Hypothesis H2 and H4 are not supported for all three groups.

The model fit summary for the Work experience as shown in table 2 gives CMIN/DF value 1.827. RMR is 0.081 and GFI value is 0.833. The AGFI value is 0.796 which should be greater than or equal to 0.80 as suggested by Chau and Hu (2001). NFI value is 0.778 which should be around 0.90 as per Hair et al. (1998). TLI value is 0.866 and CFI value is 0.883 as both should be greater than 0.90 according to Bagozzi and Yi (1988). RMSEA value is 0.035 which should be less than 0.08 as suggested by MacCallum et al. (1996)

From table 4 it is seen that early recruitment activities (ERA) have a significant negative impact on organization attractiveness (OA) for nil level of work experience and employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have a significant positive impact on organization attractiveness (OA) for nil level at 1% and 1-2 years at 5% sig level. The employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) has a significant impact on Firm performance (FP) for nil level of work experience at 5% sig level. Hypothesis H1 is for nil level of experience while H3 is supported for nil and 1-2 years of experience. H4 is supported only for group with nil experience and H2 are not supported for all the three groups.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

Early recruitment activities like Publicity, sponsorship, word of mouth and advertisement as identified by Collins and Stevens (2002) play an important role in creating the Employer Brand knowledge (EBK). The study shows that the Early recruitment activities (ERA) have a significant impact on Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK). As given by Collins (2007) Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) has three important dimensions: Employer image (job information), Brand awareness or familiarity and employer reputation.

It is seen that for the demographic variable of Age there is a significant difference between the variables Employer Reputation. Hence students with different age groups have a difference in perception about employer reputation. For the demographic variable of Gender there is a significant difference between the variables Publicity, Function job association, organization attractiveness and firm performance. With respect to gender male and female have different views regarding job association they are looking in the organization. For the variable Qualification there is a significant difference between all the variables of ERA, EBK, Organization Attractiveness and Firm Performance. Similarly with respect to work experience there is a significant difference between the variables advertisement and Employer Brand awareness. Hence students with different work experience react differently to advertisements and have varied levels of awareness about employer.

It was observed that sponsorship, word of mouth, advertisement and publicity all are significantly contributing to early recruitment activities (ERA). Similarly employer reputation, employer awareness and job association are significantly contributing to employer brand knowledge (EBK). The study shows that early recruitment activities (ERA) have a significant negative impact and Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) has a significant positive impact on Organization attractiveness (OA) while Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) has a significant positive impact on firm performance (FP) for both the age groups of 20-22 and 23-25 years and both genders. Hence early recruitment activities like Publicity, sponsorship, word of mouth and advertisement are having a negative impact on organizational attractiveness as students are not perceiving too much of publicity and advertisement as a good indicator of an employer but employer brand knowledge (EBK) is effecting both OA and FP positively as employer reputation and image leads to better perception about organizational attractiveness and firm Performance.

For MBA student's Early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact and Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance positive impact on organization attractiveness(OA) but not on Firm Performance(FP). Early recruitment activities (ERA) and Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) do not have significance impact on organization attractiveness(OA) and Firm Performance(FP) for both MCA and B.E students. This may be due to MBA students are more aware about concept like publicity, advertisement and sponsorship than other students. This show that management students are already aware about early recruitment activities used by employer and do not react too positively to them but employer brand knowledge in term of employer brand image and reputation may affect their perception about organization attractiveness and firm performance.

It was also seen that Early recruitment activities (ERA) have significance negative impact on organization attractiveness (OA) for nil level of work experience while Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance impact on Firm Performance for nil and 1-2 years of work experience. Employer Brand Knowledge (EBK) have significance impact on on Firm Performance (FP) for nil level of work experience. Organizations should focus to this fresher who would react to positive to employer brand knowledge and create positive image of the organization in mind of the potential employees. The organization need to take the cues from this research and focus on these group to promote and project themselves as attractive employers.

CONCLUSION

The skilled job seeker in a volatile labor market react very similar to consumers in market. Research on Brand equity suggest that firms can use their marketing mix to manage the brand image in mind of consumers about their products which in terms affects customer-based brand equity. Although it is seen in this study that that exposure to early recruitment activities are negatively related to organization attractiveness but employer brand knowledge and the elements of brand knowledge like employer reputation and employer image (job association) are significantly influencing organization attractiveness and firm performance. Hence employer need to consciously use and investment in recruitment activities such as publicity, sponsorship, and advertising when promoting themselves in the market. It is seen that recruitment efforts are not always decided by a thorough image audit of what factors make an organization an attractive employer (Arnold et al., 2003; Highhouse et al., 1999). Hence it is often complicated to decide the characteristics which should be promoted by the organization to enhance its attractiveness as an employer. As shown by Mencl and Lester (2014) there are differences regarding career growth, work force diversity, and continuous recognition and feedback, which were more valued by Generation Y. According to Newburry et al. (2006) attractiveness is "in the eyes of the beholder" and demographic variables like age, gender, education, race and income decided people's perceptions on organizations' attractiveness. Tuzuner and Yuksel (2009) found that potential employees' perception about employer attractiveness differentiated on the basis of gender. Females values more non-competitive work environment, whereas males preferred a more brand-oriented workplace. Alnaicike and Alnaicike (2012) found significant difference between the factors of employer attractiveness dimensions among the different genders. The female gave higher importance to social value, application value, cooperation value and market value but not to the economic value and workplace environment when compared to males. It was also found that there were significant positive but weak relationship between the age and market value dimension. Our study supports all these studies and provide and shows that age, gender, qualification and year of experience do effect the employer branding activities and employer need to focus sharply on these aspects to promote their employer brands. Those who are designing the employer brand

communication should keep in mind the different age groups, gender, qualifications and work experience

The organization focus should be to understand that employer branding efforts will help them not only in creating positive employee attitudes and attractiveness but also sustained competitive advantage which is difficult to copy in long run. The study shows that demographic variables play important role in deciding the employer branding initiatives and organization need to focus differently on different group based on age, gender, qualification and work experience for talent acquisition.

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Extent Of Reformation Of Prison Inmates Using Prison Education Programmes In Anambra State

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the extent of reformation of prison inmates in Anambra State using prison education programmes. Three research questions guided the study. Descriptive survey design was used for the study. The population of the study was made up of 500 instructors facilitating the education of prisoners in Anambra state. No sample was done because the population was manageable. Questionnaire was the instrument for data collection. The researchers administered 500 copies of the questionnaire to the respondents. Only 485 (97%) copies were completed and returned. Means was employed to answer the research questions. The findings of the study revealed that the instructors have not properly equipped prison inmates with the technical and vocational education to a fairly low extent. The findings of the study showed that the instructors have not properly equipped prison inmates to a fairly low extent with the reading and writing skills needed for acquiring information that can immediately be used for improving standards. The findings of the study further revealed that the instructors have not properly guided prison inmates to a fairly low extent with the basic knowledge and civic skills needed to become good citizens if released back into the society. Based on the findings, it was recommended among others that technical and vocational education skills should be adequately imparted to prison inmates by the Nigerian Prison Service and the Non-Governmental Organizations should foster their reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration.

INTRODUCTION

Education is a systematic process through which a person acquires knowledge, experience, skill and sound attitude. It makes an individual civilized, refined, cultured and educated. For a civilized and socialized society, education is the only means to make an individual productive in life. Every society should accord importance to education because it is the solution to all the problems of a particular situation (John, 2012). Education has been recognized by every society as the key to sustainable development and the enhancement of human welfare. It is considered as the bedrock of national development. Hence, the World Bank cited in Ogbodo(2011) asserted that:

Education is development; it creates choices and opportunities of people, reduces the twin burden of poverty and disease and gives a stronger voice to society. For nations, it

creates a dynamic work force and well informed citizens able to compete and cooperate globally, opening doors to economic and social prosperity(p.34)

One of the goals of Education For All (EFA) is equal education opportunities for all by the year 2015. The goal (Equal Education Opportunities for All) is not yet realized because presently education policies are poorly implemented in Nigerian prisons. The major limiting factors to achieving the learning goals include lack of special trained instructors as well as the nature of prison establishment which hinders the effective delivery of educational programme to the prison inmates. Reformation of prison inmates is one of the core functions of the Nigerian prison service. Reformation of prison inmates in this sense means correcting, educating, rehabilitating and re-orientating the inmates so as to become better citizens at the time of acquittal. Globally, prisons are set up by law to provide restraint and custody of individuals accused or convicted for crimes by the state.

In Nigeria, the prison system dates back to the colonial era and is modeled after the British system (Nigeria Prisons Service-Annual report, 2004). It is a system that lays emphasis on punishment, deterrence and reformation. The Nigerian Prisons Service (NPS) is not meant only to punish offenders but also to make them better citizens. It is an important arm of the criminal justice system solely charged with the responsibility of taking into custody all those who have been legally tried and convicted to correct them for eventual release and to help integrate them into the society. Prisons are designed to house people who have broken the law and to remove them to a free society. Inmates are locked away for a period of time and they have very limited time to freedoms during their incarceration.

Prisons can be classified into short sentence and long sentence prisons. Short sentence prisons are prisons designed to hold awaiting trial or to hold those convicted of low-level offences that have sentences of one year or less while long sentence prisons are prisons that hold convicts who have committed crimes and the legal system deems serious for more long-term sentences for example, repeated drunk driving offences and first degree murder (Museum, cited in Ogbodo, 2011).

According to Afujue (2004), some of the functions of the Nigerian prisons service are to treat, train and reform those legally charged and convicted so that on their discharge they could be useful to themselves and the society at large. Afujue further stated that those who have committed crimes should be assisted to live a good life rather than punish them for the crime they committed. The Nigerian Prison Service (NPS) has developed pragmatic educational strategies for reforming the prison inmates(Ogundipe, 2008). These strategies according to him include Vocational Skills Development Programme (VSDP) which aims at empowering the prisoners with the needed skills for self-sustenance and actualization and adult and remedial education programmes designed to help prisoners who were pursuing one academic programme or the other before incarceration. VSDP enables prison inmates to learn skills in various vocations such as tailoring, plumbing, carpentry, among others. The adult and remedial education programmes offer literacy education to inmates in order to equip them with the basic skills and knowledge needed to be productive in life. Through prison adult and remedial education programmes in the Nigerian prisons, 1,306 prison inmates sat for the WAEC and GCE examinations as well as NECO in 2006 while 1,198 inmates took the same examinations in 2007 (Ogundipe, 2008). The prison education programmes from which the researchers examined the extent to which the prison inmates derive reformation are technical and vocational education, basic literacy programme and civic education programme.

The technical and vocational education programmes teach inmates skill acquisition in handicraft and other trades such as carpentry, bricklaying, electrical works among others. The basic literacy programmes were designed to enable inmates acquire reading, writing and computational skills and knowledge that will help them to be productive on release. The civic education programmes teach the inmates how to become good citizens, their rights as citizens and their social obligations. To reform is to make a person better by removing abuses; to restore to a better condition, to make a person better morally, to persuade or educate an individual from a sinful to a normal life. Reformation of prison inmates can only be achieved through education and training. Many educators and psychologists believe that education is the most powerful instrument for change in behaviour.

Prison education has for sometimes been recognized as a factor in reforming lives of offenders (Braggins & Talbot, 2007). Prison education is part of the prison reform movement. It can open up opportunities, enlighten prison inmates, broaden their horizons and build their self-confidence which has been depleted by incarceration. Simply put, it is the education designed for prisoners to enable them leave the prison with more skills and be in a position to find meaningful and long-term employment (Rhode, 2004).

In Anambra state prisons, crime continues inside the prison walls. Gangs exist and develop quickly inside the prisons. Many prisoners make negative utterances against one another. Some of them do go back into their previous behaviour, especially criminal behaviour (Nigerian Prisons Service, 2004). This incidence has left some questions on the extent to which prison education programmes have been used to reform prison inmates in Anambra state unanswered. It is this situation that motivated the researchers to carry out this study. Thus, the study sought to determine the extent of reformation of prison inmates in Anambra State using education programmes in Nigerian prisons. The main purpose of this study is to determine the extent of reformation of prison inmates in Anambra State using education programmes.

Specifically, the study sought to determine the extent to which:

1. Prison inmates were reformed using technical and vocational education;
2. Prison inmates were reformed using basic literacy programme
3. Prison inmates were reformed using civic education programme

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. To what extent have prison inmates been reformed using technical and vocational education in Anambra state?
2. To what extent have prison inmates been reformed using basic literacy programme in Anambra state?
3. To what extent have prison inmates been reformed using civic education programme in Anambra state?

METHOD

The research design used for this study was a descriptive survey. The study was conducted in the four prisons within Anambra state (Aguata, Awka, Nnewi and Onitsha prisons). The population of the study was made up of 500 instructors facilitating the education of prisoners in Anambra state. No sample was done because the population was manageable. Questionnaire was the instrument for data collection. It was titled: "Questionnaire on the Extent of Reformation of Prison Inmates using Education Programmes (QERPIEP)". It has 25 items which elicited information from the respondents. The questionnaire was divided into sections A and B. Section A was designed to elicit information on the personal data of the respondents

while section B was divided into three clusters: B1, B2 and B3. Cluster B1 has six item on extent to which technical and vocational skills have reformed prison inmates in Nigerian Prison in Anambra State. Cluster B2 has seven items which elicited information on extent to which basic literacy have reformed prison inmates in Nigerian Prison in Anambra State while cluster B3 has twelve items which elicited information on extent to which civic education programmes have reformed prison inmates in Nigerian Prison in Anambra State.

The instrument for the study was validated by three experts in the Department of Educational Foundations, Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Department of Adult Education, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka. The draft copy of the questionnaire together with the topic, purpose of the study, and research questions, were given to the experts to examine and scrutinize in terms of relevance to the title of the study, coverage of the content areas, appropriateness of language usage and clarity of purpose. The instrument was corrected before producing the final copy of the instrument. To determine the reliability of the instrument, a pilot test was carried out using 10 instructors at Agbor prison in Delta state. The data collected from the pilot test were analyzed and the internal consistency of the instrument determined using Cronbach Alpha. The coefficient alpha analysis yielded reliability indices of 0.78, 0.91 and 0.85 for the three clusters:1, 2 and 3 respectively. An overall reliability value obtained was 0.84 and was adjudged high enough for the study.

The researchers administered 500 copies of the questionnaire to the respondents. Only 485 (97%) copies were completed and returned while 15 (3%) copies were not returned. Mean scores were employed to analyze the data on the research questions. Boundary limits were used to ascertain the extent of reformation of prison inmates using prison education programmes as shown below:

Response Category	Rating	Real Number Limits
Very High Extent	5	4.50 - 5.00
High Extent	4	3.50 - 4.49
Fairly Low Extent	3	2.50 - 3.49
Low Extent	2	1.50 - 2.49
Very Low Extent	1	0.50 - 1.49

Items with mean scores of 3.50 and above were regarded as transforming the prison inmates to a very high extent, items with mean scores of 3.50 - 4.49 were regarded as transforming the prison inmates to a high extent, items with mean score of 2.50-3.49 were regarded as transforming the prison inmates to a fairly low extent, items with mean scores of 1.50-2.49 were regarded to transforming the prison inmates to a low extent while items with mean scores of 0.50-1.49 were regarded as transforming the prison inmates to a very low extent. A null hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance when the calculated value of z was less than the critical value or otherwise rejected.

Data collected in respect of the research questions are presented in tables.

Table 1

Mean Responses of the Respondents on the Extent to which prison inmates have been reformed using Technical and Vocational Education.

N = 485

S/N	Item	Mean	Decision
Technical and Vocational Education			
Prison inmates can presently:			
1.	Create new ideas for self employment	2.97	Fairly Low Extent
2.	Handle electrical works	3.02	Fairly Low Extent
3.	Sew clothes with needles or machines	3.61	High Extent
4.	Operate computer effectively for better Employment	2.52	Fairly Low Extent
5.	Repair Chairs	3.21	Fairly Low Extent
6.	Be able to barb hair	3.12	Fairly Low Extent
Mean of Means		3.07	Fairly Low Extent

Table 1 shows that item 3 has mean rating above the cut-off point of 3.50 which implies that the item reformed prison inmates to a high extent while items 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6 have mean ratings below the cut-off point of 3.50. This means that prison inmates have not been reformed; hence, they have not acquired the required competencies implied in the items. The mean of means of 3.07 shows that prison inmates were fairly reformed to a low extent using technical and vocational education.

Table 2

Mean Responses of the Respondents on the Extent to which prison inmates have been reformed using Basic Literacy Programme.

N = 485

S/N	Item	Mean	Decision
Basic Literacy			
Prison inmates can presently:			
7.	Be able to read	3.37	Fairly Low Extent
8.	Make speech in public boldly	2.88	Fairly Low Extent
9.	Be able to write	3.03	Fairly Low Extent
10.	Compute numerical information accurately	2.61	Fairly Low Extent
11.	Keep records for future retrieval	2.71	Fairly Low Extent
12.	Show interest in further studies	2.72	Fairly Low Extent
13.	Communicate with one another effectively	3.92	High Extent
Mean of Means		3.03	Fairly Low Extent

Table 2 shows that items 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 have mean ratings below the cut-off point of 3.50 while item 13 has mean rating above the cut-off point of 3.50. This implies that item 13 reformed prison inmates to a high extent while others have not reformed prison inmates. The mean of means of 3.03 shows that prison inmates were fairly reformed to a low extent using basic literacy programme.

Table 3
Mean Responses of the Respondents on the Extent to which prison inmates have been reformed using Civic Education Programme

N = 485

S/N	Item	Mean	Decision
	Civic Education Programme		
Prison inmates can presently:			
14.	Have knowledge of political issues	2.87	Fairly Low Extent
15.	Resist intimidation	3.83	High Extent
16.	Be better morally	3.42	Fairly Low Extent
17.	Have regards for others	3.31	Fairly Low Extent
18.	Know their social obligations as citizens	3.49	Fairly Low Extent
19.	Avoid unnecessary talks	3.16	Fairly Low Extent
20.	Show willingness to listening to authorities	3.33	Fairly Low Extent
21.	Show willingness to take corrections	3.43	Fairly Low Extent
22.	Know their rights as citizens	3.62	High Extent
23.	Defend a citizen's right/position	4.09	High Extent
24.	Understand the rules and obligations as citizens	3.46	Fairly Low Extent
25.	Know their civic responsibilities	3.27	Fairly Low Extent
	Mean of Means	3.44	Fairly Low Extent

Table 3 shows that items 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24 and 25 have mean ratings below the cut-off point of 3.50 while items 15, 22 and 23 have mean ratings above the cut-off point of 3.50. This implies that items 15, 22 and 23 have reformed prison inmates to a high extent while others have reformed prison inmates to a low extent. The mean of means of 3.44 shows that the instructors rated most of the items on the extent to which prison inmates have been reformed using civic education programme to a low extent.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The finding from the analysis of data collected in Table 1 showed a mean of means of 3.07 which means that the instructors rated most of the items on the extent prison inmates were reformed using technical and vocational education to a low extent. Five items out of the 6 items were rated to a fairly low extent. The findings are not in direct agreement with the opinion of Kalu (2002) who found out that teaching of basic skills that would help prison inmates to be productive in life on their release is directly in line with the need to address an offender's behaviour and rate of conviction. This is because the mean of means showed that prison inmates were reformed using technical and vocational education to a fairly low extent. This implies that the instructors have equipped prison inmates to a fairly low extent with the technical and vocational education needed to be productive on their time of acquittal.

The finding in Table 2 showed a mean of mean of 3.03 which implies that the respondents rated most of the items on the extent prison inmates were reformed using basic literacy programme to a fairly low extent. Only one item out of the 7 items was rated to a high extent. The findings are not in direct agreement with the view of UNESCO (2011) which advised that the very process of learning to read and write should be made an opportunity for acquiring information that can immediately be used for improving standards. This is because the mean of means showed that prison inmates were reformed using basic literacy programme to a fairly low extent which implies that the instructors have not properly equipped prison inmates with

the reading and writing skills needed for acquiring information that can immediately be used for improving standards.

Findings from the analysis of the data generated as presented in Table 3 showed a mean of means of 3.44 which implies that the respondents rated most of the items on the extent prison inmates were reformed using civic education programme to a fairly low extent. Only three items out of the twelve items were rated to a high extent. The findings are not in direct agreement with the opinion of Ani (2003) as cited in Ogbodo (2011) who said that civic education enables an individual to learn how to do something for the betterment of his country or community, function as a socio-economic agent such as an active member of a trade union or a cooperative society and also participate in politics actively by learning how to vote or understand a new constitution. This is because the mean of means showed that prison inmates were reformed using civic education programme to a low extent. This means that the instructors have not properly guided prison inmates with the basic knowledge and civic skills needed to become good citizens if released back into the society. The finding in table 6 was tested with z test and was rejected. The z calculated was greater than the critical z at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that the instructors at the short and long sentence prisons differ significantly in their mean scores on the extent to which prison inmates were reformed using civic education programme.

CONCLUSION

From the findings, it could be concluded that technical and vocational education, basic literacy programme and civic education programme have reformed prison inmates to a low extent.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

1. Technical and vocational education skills should be imparted to prison inmates by the Nigerian Prison Service and the Non-Governmental Organizations to foster their reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration. Emphasis should be laid on educational programmes that are strongly based on skill acquisition and entrepreneurship.
2. The instructors should equip prison inmates with the reading and writing skills needed for acquiring information that can immediately be used for improving standards. Seminars on how to impart the basic reading and writing skills to the prison inmates effectively should be organized for the instructors.
3. More emphasis should be laid by the instructors on the teaching of civic education programme so that prison inmates will be properly orientated about their civic responsibilities and good citizenship.

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