

ADVANCES IN SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH JOURNAL

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Import and Export of PhDs in Europe

Takashi Sagara

Abstract

Education is recognized as one of the most significant knowledge-intensive export industries and its contribution to the trade balance cannot be ignored for many countries. Although there are a wide range of educational services for trade, this study focuses on the trade of 'Doctoral Degrees' or 'Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)' in Europe with a special emphasis on the top European universities in economics. By investigating the imports and exports of PhDs in the top European universities, this paper discovers that European countries have relatively distinctive roles in the trade of PhDs, net exporters (Belgium, Switzerland and Germany), trader in balance (the Netherlands) and net importers (Spain and Denmark), in terms of its top universities.

Keywords: Global competition in educational services, trade of PhDs in Europe, the top European universities in economics, world's university rankings.

INTRODUCTION

Many countries, especially developed countries, have currently recognized that education is one of the most important knowledge-intensive export industries. Indeed, the value of trade in educational services reached 39 billion dollars in 1999 (Saner and Fasel, 2003). Thus, the contribution of education to the trade balance is enormous and will be more in the future (Barrow, Didou-Aupetit and Mellea, 2004; Verger, 2004).

There are a wide variety of educational services in trade. Verger (2004) distinguishes trade in education into four modes of services supply: cross-border supply (Mode 1), consumption abroad (Mode 2), commercial presence (Mode 3) and presence of natural persons (Mode 4). In Mode 1, educational services are provided without physical contact between the producer and the user (e.g. e-learning). Mode 2 can be a most familiar style of educational services supply in which students go to a country to study in another country, exporter of a service to students' country. In Mode 3, the educational services suppliers are physically displaced to the importing countries: for instance, a university in one country establishes its franchise in another country. In Mode 4, a researcher, in one country, an exporter of the educational service, is employed by institutes in another country for research or teaching.

Although miscellaneous types of educational services in trade, as described above, exist, this study focuses on the trade of 'Doctoral Degrees' or 'Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)'. There are generally two types of exportation of PhDs. In one case, a foreign student who obtains a PhD in one country goes to another country for research or teaching. This may not directly contribute to the trade balance of the service supply country. In the other case, a domestic student in one country who receives a PhD in the same country goes to another country for academic jobs. This is the Mode 4 type of the educational service supply and contributes to the trade balance. Although the former case does not directly lead to the positive effects onto the trade balance, it will indirectly bring about positive effects to the trade balance through Mode 2 because highly demanded PhDs of a university in one country attract foreign students to study there. As far as universities are concerned, one of the effective ways to attract students and improve reputation is to train doctoral students and then produce 'PhDs' that are globally demanded. Especially, 'selling' PhDs to the prestigious universities can undoubtedly positively contribute

to improvement of reputation for universities. Successes in exporting PhDs can let universities lead international competition for foreign students.

The trade of PhDs may be thus one of the most concerned issues for both countries and universities, especially world's top universities because world's top universities are more ambitious in exporting PhDs than the other universities. This study then seeks to disclose the state of trade of PhDs in the top universities Europe. Europe is focused on in this study because it is an interesting region to study the trade of PhDs. European countries have a strong ambition to make Europe 'the most-favoured destination of students, scholars and researchers from other world regions' (EC, 2002:5). On the other hand, Europe seeks to stop the leaking of its own students and researchers to the other regions, especially the US (Verger, 2004). Because of both the offensive and defensive aspects of the European strategies for trade in educational services, the trade of PhDs within the region can be more active than other regions. For instance, the trade of PhDs within Northeast Asia, as Sagara (2014) identifies, takes place quite rarely. Therefore, the study examines the state of trade of PhDs in Europe, focusing on its top universities.

METHODOLOGIES

In order to examine the state of trade of PhDs in the top European universities, the study requires a subject focus. The subject on which the study focuses is 'economics'. Economics is chosen for this study because the subject is globally very popular and most of the top universities in Europe offer doctoral courses in economics. Then, the top European universities in the subject of economics is selected according to the QS University Rankings by Subject 2014: Economics & Econometrics. Though there are a variety of world university rankings and the reliability of the University Rankings are controversial (Baty, 2012; Holmes, 2013), the Rankings are used for this study because every ranking has flaws, and the QS University Rankings have been very actively revising themselves for improvements so that they are more reliable (Baty, 2012).

According to the QS University Rankings by Subject 2014: Economics & Econometrics, there are 14 European universities in the world's top 50 and 23 in the top 100. The list of the European universities in the world's top 100 is shown in the Table 1. Then, doctoral degrees or PhDs of economics researchers were investigated through their websites in September 2014.

RESULTS

Exports

As shown in the Table 2, LSE is the top exporter of PhDs among the top European higher institutes. LSE exports 31 PhDs to 13 of the top 37 European higher institutes. Because, as it is shown below, the number of PhDs Oxford exports, the second biggest exporter, is 16, LSE's achievement is quite impressive. Two Spanish universities, UPF (10 PhDs) and UC III (7 PhDs) are the largest and the second largest export destinations. Other export destinations include TSE (3 PhDs), KUL and Bonn (2 PhDs), and UCLu, Mannheim, Aarhus, UAB, TCD, Bologna, Bocconi and SSE (1 PhD).

The University of Oxford exports the second largest number of PhDs (16 PhDs) to 10 top European universities. UPF again is the main export destination (4 PhDs). Other destinations are TSE, Bologna, Tilburg and VU Amsterdam (2 PhDs), and UC III, UCLu, UAB and Zurich (1 PhD). The third largest exporters of PhDs are Tilburg and VU, both of them exporting 11 PhDs to 8 and 10 top European institutes respectively. The major export destination for Tilburg's PhDs is York (3 PhDs). Nottingham (2 PhDs), and Aarhus, Copenhagen, Oxford, Edinburgh, UAB and SSE (1 PhD) come after York. York is again the biggest export destination for VUB's PhDs

(2 PhDs) followed by Amsterdam, Aarhus, Copenhagen, Warwick, LBS, TSE, UC III, Bocconi and EUR (1 PhD).

Bonn and UCLu are equally the fifth largest exporter of PhDs (10 PhDs). The main importers of Bonn's PhDs are Aarhus and UAB (2 PhDs). Other export destinations include Maastricht, Oxford, Edinburgh, UPF and Zurich (1 PhD). UCLu's PhDs are most imported by TSE (4 PhDs). Maastricht (2 PhDs), and Aarhus, UPF, LSE and Bologna (1 PhD) follow the French university. TSE comes next with 9 PhDs exported. UPF, UAB and Mannheim import 2 PhDs respectively from TSE followed by UC III, Tilburg and Nottingham (1 PhD). Paris I and Zurich are the eighth biggest exporters of PhDs (8 PhDs). UCLu is the main export destination for PhDs of Paris by 3 PhDs. Bologna (2 PhDs), and Nottingham, UCL and WU (1 PhD) are other destinations for its PhDs. Zurich's PhDs are most imported by Tilburg and Bonn (2 PhDs) followed by UAB, Amsterdam, Copenhagen and EUR (1 PhD).

Table 1. List of the top European universities in Economics

	Institute	QS Rankings	Country
1	London School of Economics (LSE)	3	UK
2	Cambridge	10	UK
3	Oxford	12	UK
4	University College London (UCL)	17	UK
5	Bocconi	20	IT
6	Warwick	21	UK
7	LondonBusiness School (LBS)	31	UK
8	Stockholm School of Economics (SSE)	32	SE
9	Erasmus University Rotterdam (EUR)	38	NL
10	Universitat Pompeu Febra (UPF)	40	ES
11	Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule (ETH)	41	CH
12	Pantheon Sorbonne University (Paris I)	44	FR
13	Universidad Carlos III de Madrid (UCIII)	46	ES
14	Tilburg	50	NL
15	Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB)	51-100	BG
16	Université catholique de Louvain (UCLu)	51-100	BG
17	Bonn	51-100	DE
18	Toulouse School of Economics (TSE)	51-100	FR
19	Zurich	51-100	CH
20	Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB)	51-100	ES
21	Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (KUL)	51-100	BG
22	Amsterdam	51-100	NL
23	Mannheim	51-100	DE
24	Munich	51-100	DE
25	Aarhus	51-100	DK
26	Copenhagen	51-100	DK
27	York	51-100	UK
28	Maastricht	51-100	NL
29	Lund	51-100	SE
30	VU University Amsterdam (VU)	51-100	NL
31	Nottingham	51-100	UK
32	Manchester	51-100	UK
33	Trinity College Dublin (TCD)	51-100	IE
34	Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien (WU)	51-100	AT
35	Bologna	51-100	IT
36	Edinburgh	51-100	UK
37	Birmingham	51-100	UK

The tie-10th universities that export 6 PhDs to the top European universities include UAB, Cambridge, KUL, SSE and UPF. UAB most greatly exports its PhDs to Edinburgh (2 PhDs) followed by Amsterdam, Nottingham, UCL and Manchester (1 PhD). UPF, Amsterdam, Tilburg, TSE, VUB and Lund (1 PhD) are the export destination for PhDs from Cambridge. KUL's PhDs are most imported by Aarhus (2 PhDs) followed by Amsterdam, Tilburg, TSE and Maastricht (1 PhD). Aarhus, Tilburg, TSE, Cambridge, Zurich and Copenhagen are the importers for SSE's PhDs. UPF exports its PhDs to Zurich, Edinburgh, UAB, EUR, Paris I, Bologna, and Bocconi (1 PhD).

Amsterdam, Mannheim, UCL and Munich come next by 5 PhDs exported. Zurich, UAB, Mannheim, TSE and Manchester (1 PhD) are the export destinations for Amsterdam's PhDs; Tilburg, UAB, UPF, Aarhus and Birmingham (1 PhD) for Mannheim's PhDs; UPF, UAB, UC III, Zurich and Bologna (1 PhD) for UCL's PhDs; and Zurich (3 PhDs), and UAB and TSE (1 PhD) for Munich's PhDs.

Rank	Institute	Country	Number
1	LSE	UK	32
2	Oxford	UK	16
3	Tilburg	NL	11
3	VUB	BG	11
5	UCLu	BG	10
5	Bonn	DE	10
7	TSE	FR	9
8	ParisI	FR	8
8	Zurich	CH	8
10	Cambridge	UK	6
10	SSE	SE	6
10	UPF	ES	6
10	KUL	BG	6
10	UAB	ES	6
15	UCL	UK	5
15	Munich	DE	5
15	Amsterdam	NL	5
15	Mannheim	DE	5
19	Warwick	UK	4
19	EUR	NL	4
21	Bocconi	IT	3
21	Aarhus	DK	3
21	Copenhagen	DK	3
21	York	UK	3
21	Maastricht	NL	3
26	ETH	CH	2
26	Lund	SE	2
28	UC III	ES	1
28	TCD	IE	1
28	VU Amsterdam	NL	1
28	Nottingham	UK	1
28	Manchester	UK	1
33	LBS	UK	0
33	WU	AT	0
33	Bologna	IT	0
33	Edinburgh	UK	0
33	Birmingham	UK	0

Rank	Institute	Country	Number
1	UPF	ES	24
2	TSE	FR	18
3	UAB	ES	12
3	Aarhus	DK	12
5	UC III	ES	11
6	Tilburg	NL	10
6	Bologna	IT	10
8	Zurich	CH	9
9	Amsterdam	NL	6
9	EUR	NL	6
9	Copenhagen	DK	6
9	Maastricht	NL	6
13	Mannheim	DE	5
13	York	UK	5
13	UCLu	BG	5
13	Edinburgh	UK	5
13	Bonn	DE	5
13	Nottingham	UK	5
19	Oxford	UK	3
19	Manchester	UK	3
19	Lund	SE	3
19	VUB	BG	3
19	Bocconi	IT	3
19	SSE	SE	3
25	LSE	UK	2
25	LBS	UK	2
25	Cambridge	UK	2
25	UCL	UK	2
25	VU Amsterdam	NL	2
25	Birmingham	UK	2
25	TCD	IE	2
25	KUL	BG	2
33	Warwick	UK	1
33	ParisI	FR	1
33	WU	AT	1
35	Munich	DE	0
35	ETH	CH	0

Then, EUR and Warwick come with 4 PhDs exported: UPF, Aarhus, Copenhagen and VUB (1 PhD) are the export destinations for EUR's PhDs while EUR, Amsterdam, VUB and Tilburg (1 PhD) are for Warwick's PhDs. Aarhus, Copenhagen, York, Maastricht and Bocconi follow EUR and Warwick by 3 PhDs exported: Maastricht, Cambridge and SSE (1 PhD) are the export destinations for Aarhus's PhDs; LSE, Oxford and Lund (1 PhD) for Copenhagen's PhDs; UPF (2 PhDs) and EUR (1 PhD) for York's PhDs; Manchester, Aarhus and Bonn (1 PhD) for Maastricht's PhDs; and Birmingham, LBS and TCD (1 PhD) for Bocconi's PhDs. Lund and ETH are the next exporters by 2 PhDs: Copenhagen and TSE export one PhD to Lund respectively while TSE (2 PhDs) is the only one export destination for ETH's PhDs. VU Amsterdam, Nottingham, Manchester, TCD and UC III are then the exporters of one PhD: Bologna for VU Amsterdam's PhD, Lund for Nottingham's PhD, EUR for Manchester's PhD, Bologna for TCD's PhD and Mannheim for UC III's PhD. Finally, WU, Bologna, Edinburgh, LBS and Birmingham does not export PhDs to the top European universities.

Import

As demonstrated in the Table 3, the university importing PhDs from the top European universities most is UPF. UPF imports 24 PhDs: LSE (10 PhDs), Oxford (4 PhDs), York and TSE (2 PhDs), and Cambridge, UCL, UCLu, Bonn, Mannheim and EUR (1 PhD). TSE is the second biggest importer (18 PhDs). UCLu is the biggest exporter for TSE (4 PhDs) followed by LSE (3

PhDs), Oxford and ETH (2 PhDs), and VUB, Cambridge, SSE, KUL, Munich, Amsterdam and Lund (1 PhD). The third biggest importers are UAB and Aarhus by 12 PhDs. Exporters for UBA are TSE and Bonn (2 PhDs), and Oxford, Munich, Mannheim, LSE, Amsterdam, UCL, Tilburg and Zurich (1 PhD). Aarhus imports PhDs from KUL and Bonn (2 PhDs), VUB, EUR, UCLu, Tilburg, Maastricht, SSE, LSE and Mannheim (1 PhD).

UC III gets ranked fifth by importing 11 PhDs, mostly from LSE (7 PhDs) followed by Oxford, VUB, TSE and UCL (1 PhD). Tilburg and Bologna are the sixth biggest importers by 10 PhDs. Tilburg imports PhDs from Oxford and Zurich (2 PhDs), and TSE, Cambridge, SSE, KLU, Warwick and Mannheim (1 PhD). Oxford and Paris I are the biggest exporters for Bologna (2 PhDs) followed by VUB, UCLu, LSE, UCL, UPF and TCD (1 PhD). The eighth biggest importer is Zurich by 9 PhDs, importing them from Munich (3 PhDs), Oxford, UCL, Bonn, UPF, Amsterdam and SSE (1 PhD).

The ninth biggest importers are Maastricht, Amsterdam, EUR and Copenhagen by 6 PhDs. Maastricht imports PhDs from Bonn and UCLu (2 PhDs), and Aarhus, KUL and Copenhagen (1 PhD). Amsterdam imports PhDs from Cambridge, Zurich, UAB, VUB, Warwick and KUL (1 PhD); EUR imports PhDs from Zurich, VUB, UPF, Warwick, Manchester and York (1 PhD); and Copenhagen imports PhDs from EUR, Zurich, VUB, Tilburg, SSE and Lund (1 PhD). Next, UCLu, Bonn, Mannheim, York, Nottingham and Edinburgh import 5 PhDs: UCLu imports PhDs from Paris I (3 PhDs), and LSE and Oxford (1 PhD); Bonn does so from LSE and Zurich (2 PhDs) and Maastricht (1 PhD); Mannheim does so from TSE (2 PhDs) and LSE, UC III and Amsterdam (1 PhD); York does so from Tilburg (3 PhDs) and VUB (2 PhDs); Nottingham does so from Tilburg (2 PhDs), and UAB, TSE and Paris I (1 PhD); and Edinburgh does so from UAB (2 PhDs) and Tilburg, Bonn and UPF (1 PhD).

Oxford, VUB, Bocconi, Lund, SSE and Manchester comes next by importing 3 PhDs: Tilburg, Bonn and Copenhagen (1 PhD) for Oxford; Cambridge, Warwick and EUR (1 PhD) for VUB; VUB, LSE and UPF for Bocconi; Cambridge, Copenhagen and Nottingham (1 PhD) for Lund; LSE, Copenhagen and Tilburg (1 PhD) for SSE; and Maastricht, UAB and Amsterdam (1 PhD) for Manchester. 2 PhDs are then imported by LSE, Cambridge, UCL, LBS, Birmingham, VU Amsterdam, TCD and KUL: Copenhagen and UCLu (1 PhD) for LSE, SSE and Aarhus (1 PhD) for Cambridge, Paris I and UAB (1 PhD) for UCL, Bocconi and VUB (1 PhD) for LBS, Mannheim and Bocconi (1 PhD) for Birmingham, Oxford (2 PhDs) for VU Amsterdam, LSE and Bocconi (1 PhD) for TCD, and LSE (2 PhDs) for KUL. Warwick, WU and Paris I imports only one PhD from VUB and UPF respectively. Finally, the import of both ETH and Munich is zero.

DISCUSSION

In the previous section, the trade of PhDs between the top European universities was described. Then, this section seeks to discover each country's main characteristics of PhD trading by examining trade balance of both individual university and country and mutual relationship between the top European universities.

Trade Balance

Here the relationships between imports and exports of each university and each country, namely the trade balances of them, are examined. The top European universities can be categorized into universities with trade surplus (+3 or above), those with trade in balance (from -2 to +2), and those with trade deficit (-2 or below). Those universities categorized into 'trade surplus' include LSE (+30), Oxford (+13), VUB (+8), Paris I (+7), UCLu (+5), Bonn (+5), Munich (+5), Cambridge (+4), KUL (+4), SSE (+3), UCL (+3) and Warwick (+3). Five of them are British, three of them are Belgian and two of them are German, followed by France and Sweden by one university respectively.

Those into 'trade in balance' are ETH (+2), Tilburg (+1), Mannheim (0), Bocconi (0), WU (-1), Zurich (-1), Amsterdam (-1), Lund (-1), VU Amsterdam (-1), TCD (-1), EUR (-2), York (-2), Manchester (-2), LBS (-2) and Birmingham (-2). Four of the 'in balance' universities are from the Netherlands; four from Britain; two from Switzerland; and one from Italy, Austria, Sweden and Ireland. Those into 'trade deficit' then include Copenhagen (-3), Maastricht (-3), Nottingham (-4), Edinburgh (-5), UAB (-6), TSE (-9), Aarhus (-9), UC III (-10), Bologna (-10) and UPF (-18). In terms of their countries, Spain occupies three of them and Denmark and Britain account for two of them respectively followed by the Netherlands, France and Italy by one university.

From the categorization described above, the characteristics of each country in trading PhDs can be discovered though some are clear but others are not so. The characteristics of Spanish universities (UPF, UC III and UAB) and Danish universities (Aarhus and Copenhagen) are clear because all of their universities import PhDs from the top European universities more than exporting them, namely net importers. Especially, the top Spanish universities are apparently big PhD importers as the total trade loss of these three Spanish universities is -34, as that of the two Danish universities is -12. All of the top Belgian universities, VUB, UCLu and KUL, on the other hand, export PhDs to the top European countries more than importing them, a net exporter. The total trade surplus of the Belgian universities is +17. All of the top Swiss universities, ETH and Zurich, are categorized into 'trade in balance', and the total trade balance of these two Swiss universities is +1.

Table 4. Trade balance of universities

Rank	Institute	Country	Number
1	LSE	UK	30
2	Oxford	UK	13
3	VUB	BG	8
4	ParisI	FR	7
5	UCLu	BG	5
5	Bonn	DE	5
5	Munich	DE	5
8	Cambridge	UK	4
8	KUL	BG	4
10	SSE	SE	3
10	UCL	UK	3
10	Warwick	UK	3
13	ETH	CH	2
14	Tilburg	NL	1
15	Bocconi	IT	0
15	Mannheim	DE	0
17	WU	AT	-1
17	Zurich	CH	-1
17	Amsterdam	NL	-1
17	Lund	SE	-1
17	TCD	IE	-1
17	VU Amsterdam	NL	-1
23	EUR	NL	-2
23	York	UK	-2
23	Manchester	UK	-2
23	LBS	UK	-2
23	Birmingham	UK	-2
28	Copenhagen	DK	-3
28	Maastricht	NL	-3
30	Nottingham	UK	-4
31	Edinburgh	UK	-5
32	UAB	ES	-6
33	TSE	FR	-9
33	Aarhus	DK	-9
35	UC III	ES	-10
35	Bologna	IT	-10
37	UPF	ES	-18

Table 5. Trade balance of countries

Rank	Country	Number
1	UK	36
2	BG	17
3	DE	10
4	SE	2
5	CH	1
6	AT	-1
7	IE	-1
8	FR	-2
9	NL	-6
10	IT	-10
11	DK	-12
12	ES	-34

The UK has universities which belong to all three categories. However, it can be observed that the higher-ranked British universities are likely to be net exporters while the lower-ranked British universities tend to be net importers. Those British universities that export PhDs more

than importing them are LSE, Oxford, Cambridge, UCL and Warwick, all of which are the top 50 universities according to the QS University Rankings. On the other hand, those British universities that are categorized into 'trade loss' or 'trade in balance' are York, Manchester, LBS, Birmingham, Nottingham and Edinburgh, and all of them, except LBS, do not get ranked in the top 50. Nevertheless, the total trade balance of the British universities is positive, +36. Britain can achieve such great trade surpluses thanks to LSE and Oxford because the trade surpluses of these two universities are +30 and +13 respectively. By excluding the contributions made by LSE, the total trade balance of the British universities becomes only +7; if PhDs exported by both LSE and Oxford are excluded, it becomes even negative, -7. Thus, it is clear that two great exporters of PhDs, LSE and Oxford, especially the former, let Britain achieve such great trade surpluses.

As for Germany, the total trade surplus of the German universities is positive, +10, because all of them are categorized into either 'trade surplus' (Bonn and Munich) or 'trade in balance' (Mannheim). It can be thus said that the top German universities tend to be net exporters. All of the top Dutch universities, Tilburg, Amsterdam, VU Amsterdam and EUR, except Maastricht, are categorized into 'trade in balance'. Because Maastricht's trade loss is only -3, it can be nearly identified that exports tend to equal imports for the Dutch universities. The total trade balance of these five Dutch universities is -6.

As for France and Italy, it is difficult to specify the characteristics of the top French and Italian universities in PhD trading. Regarding France, while Paris I is a net exporter by +7, TSE is a net importer by -9. Concerning Italy, while the net export of Bocconi is zero, Bologna is a net importer by -10. Thus, there is a huge difference between two universities for both France and Italy. Comparing with France and Italy, the difference between the total balance of SSE and that of Lund is not so much remarkable for Sweden as the total balance of the former is +4 while that of the latter is -1. The characteristics of the top universities of Ireland and Austria cannot be appropriately identified because each country gets only one university ranked in the top 100, TCD for Ireland and WU for Austria. Further, TCD imports only one PhD and exports two PhDs, while WU does not export a PhD and imports only one PhD.

Mutual Exchange Relationship

Among the top European universities, 197 PhDs are totally exported and imported. However, the exchange relationship is not normally mutual but asymmetric. There are only 13 mutual exchanges of PhDs between the top European institutes. They have either one exchange relationship or two, and the number of PhDs exchanged is one PhD or two. The institutes holding two exchange relationships include: Tilburg (with Oxford and SSE), Maastricht (with Bonn and Aarhus), EUR (with VUB and UPF), UCLu (with LSE and UAB), VUB (with Warwick and EUR), SSE (with Aarhus and Tilburg), Aarhus (with SSE and Maastricht), Zurich (with Amsterdam and Bonn) and Bonn (Maastricht and Zurich). Those holding one exchange relationship include: UAB (with UCLu), UPF (with EUR), LSE (with UCLu), Oxford (with Tilburg), Warwick (with VUB), Lund (with Copenhagen), Copenhagen (with Lund) and Amsterdam (with Zurich).

In terms of their countries, the Netherlands (Tilburg, EUR, Maastricht and Amsterdam) occupies 7 of all the 26 universities which have mutual exchange relationships and Belgium (UCLu and VUB) accounts for four of all. Sweden (SSE and Lund), Denmark (Aarhus and Copenhagen) and Britain (LSE, Oxford and Warwick) follow these two countries, respectively occupying three of all. Switzerland (Zurich), Germany (Bonn) and Spain (UAB and UPF) individually account for two of all the 26 universities. Considering the number of PhDs exported and imported, it is regrettably said that the mutual exchange relationships between the top European universities are very weak.

CONCLUSION

In order to discover each country's main characteristics of the PhD trade in Europe in terms of their top universities, this study examined the trade balance of both individual university and country and mutual relationships between the top European universities. Then the main characteristics of some countries in the PhD trade in terms of their top universities were identified such as Spain (net importer), Denmark (net importer), Belgium (net exporter) and Switzerland (net exporter). Further, the paper argued that the Netherlands is a 'trade in balance' country and Germany is a net exporter because all of the German universities are categorized into 'trade surplus' or 'trade in balance' and all of the Dutch universities except Maastricht (-3) are into 'trade in balance'.

As far as Britain is concerned, it is maintained that the higher-ranked British universities tend to be net exporters though the lower-ranked British universities tend to be net importers or traders in balance. As for the other countries, this study could not reach a conclusion because France, Italy and Sweden did not have clear characteristics and the number of PhDs exported/imported was too small for Ireland and Austria. Further, this study found that the exchange relationships in PhDs between the top European universities are normally asymmetric as there are only 13 mutual exchanges of PhDs though 197 PhDs are totally exported/imported among the top European universities. Additionally, the Netherlands has the largest number of mutual exchange relationships, which confirms that the country is categorized into 'trade in balance'.

It is therefore concluded that European countries, in terms of their top universities, have relatively clear roles in the PhD trade as a net exporter, a trader in balance or a net importer. Indeed, there is a quasi-symmetric relationship between the net exporters and the net importers: for instance, the net export of the UK is +36, while the net import of Spain is -34; the net export of Belgium is 17, while the next import of Denmark is -12; the net export of Germany is +10, while the next import of Italy is -10. This unbalanced state of the PhD trade between the top European universities will not change at least in the near future, considering the nature of the 'goods'. Training and producing high-quality PhDs is undoubtedly costly and taking many years. Further, improving quality of PhDs may be not enough for one university to export its PhDs because traditions in employments and reputation of universities such as LSE and Oxford may not easily change. Despite these negative factors, it is still possible to change the state of the PhD trade between the top European universities in the long run because some universities have been importing PhDs from the world's best universities to produce high-quality PhDs by themselves. For instance, UPF, the biggest net importer, imports a number of PhDs from the world's top 3 universities such as Harvard (6), Massachusetts Institute of Technology (4) and LSE (10). The efforts for producing high-quality PhDs and then increasing the exports of their PhDs may change the state of the PhD trade between the top European universities.

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Foreign Brains in the Top European Universities: Import of non-European PhDs into Europe

Takashi Sagara

ABSTRACT

Europe has a strong ambition to gather the world's brightest brains into the region. In order to measure the state of the dominance of the foreign brains in Europe, the study examines the proportion of foreign Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in the top European top universities in Economics. The results of the examination on the one hand show that the top European universities are most dominated by the 'self-supplied' PhDs, namely the PhDs granted and held by the same universities and the same countries. On the other hand, the results demonstrate that the top European universities are dominated by the top American PhDs, by excluding the 'self-supplied' PhDs. Based on the results, this study concludes that Europe nearly fails to achieve the ambition and should more actively try to hold the world's best PhDs as the 'self-supplied' PhDs are dominant in the region.

Keywords: Import of non-European PhDs into Europe, self-supplied PhDs, top European Universities in Economics, internationalization of education.

INTRODUCTION

Europe wants to be 'the most-favoured destination of students, scholars and researchers from other world regions' (EC, 2002:5). European countries seek to gather the world's brightest brains into the region. The most significant benefit by employing internationally renowned academic staff is obviously to increase the level of research and education. The world's leading education and research in a university undoubtedly attracts more students, domestic or foreign, to study there and more private investments into the university.

Besides that, gathering academic staff around the world can contribute to the internationalization of universities. The internationalization of universities allows them to incorporate global, intercultural or international dimension into the functions, objective, or delivery of university education (Knight, 2003).

Further, Simmons (2014, March 11) argues that the internationalization of universities have four distinctive types of benefits. First, the understanding of global issues and their local impacts can be deepened through the internationalization of universities. Second, skills that let students move in heterogeneous environments with a wide range of people can be obtained. Third, the internationalization of universities enables students to respect differences/different values and recognize different culture as legitimate. Finally, thanks to the internationalization, students can advance and handle intercultural communication skills. Thus, it is unquestionable that internationalized universities are very attractive for both students and academics around the world (Top Universities, 2011 August 5).

Consequently, a number of universities, especially those in the developed countries, have strong ambition to 'import' holders of doctoral degrees or doctor of Philosophy (PhD) from the world's prestigious universities. As Sagara (2014) demonstrates, in terms of economics, the top universities in Northeast Asia are dominated by the holders of PhDs from the world's top universities outside Asia. However, there is a huge difference in the dominance of the world's top universities between Hong Kong, Singapore and South Korea and China and Japan, as the

proportion of the PhD holders from the world's best universities outside Asia to all the faculties is much higher in the former group than the latter.

How about Europe? Compared with Northeast Asia, Europe has more universities that get ranked in the world's top university rankings. According to the QS University Rankings by Subject 2014: Economics & Econometrics, while 18 universities in Northeast Asia get ranked in the top 100 of the rankings, 37 universities in Europe secure places in the top 100. Thus, it is possible that European universities are less dominated by the brains from outside Europe. However, because Europe is geographically closer to the US, which has the largest number of universities that are in the top 100, it is also possible that the domination of foreign brains on European universities is stronger. Then, this study seeks to investigate how much the top universities in Europe are dominated by the world's top universities outside Europe in order to understand the state of foreign brains in the top European universities, focusing on economics.

METHODOLOGIES

As discussed above, this study looks at the dominance of foreign brains on the top European universities. In addition, its subject focus is on economics. Economics seems a good subject for this research because it is globally very popular and most universities offer undergraduate and postgraduate courses in economics. Then, the top European universities in the subject of economics is chosen based on the QS University Rankings by Subject 2014: Economics & Econometrics. Though a wide range of world university rankings exist and the reliability of the University Rankings is controversial (Baty, 2012; Holmes, 2013), the Rankings can be effectively used for this study because every ranking has flaws, and the QS University Rankings have been very actively improving themselves so that they are more trustworthy (Baty, 2012).

According to the QS University Rankings by Subject 2014: Economics & Econometrics, there are 14 European universities in the world's top 50 and 23 in the top 100. The list of the world's top 100 universities is shown in the Table 1, in which European universities are blackened. Then, researchers with doctoral degrees or Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in economics in the top European universities were investigated through their websites in August 2014 in order to evaluate the dominance of non-European world's top.

Table 1. List of the top universities in Economics

QS	Institute	Country	QS	Institute	Country
1	Harvard	US	51-100	Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien (WU)	AT
2	Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)	US	51-100	Adelaide	AU
3	London School of Economics (LSE)	UK	51-100	Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB)	BG
4	Stanford	US	51-100	Université catholique de Louvain (UCLu)	BG
5	California, Berkeley (UCB)	US	51-100	Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (KUL)	BG
5	Chicago	US	51-100	Fundação Getulio Vargas (FGV)	BR
7	Princeton	US	51-100	Universidade de São Paulo	BR
8	Yale	US	51-100	McGill	CA
9	Pennsylvania	US	51-100	Zurich	CH
10	Cambridge	UK	51-100	Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile	CL
11	Columbia	UK	51-100	Fudan	CN
12	Oxford	UK	51-100	Shanghai Jiao Tong	CN
13	New York (NYU)	US	51-100	Bonn	DE
14	California, Los Angels (UCLA)	US	51-100	Mannheim	DE
15	Northwestern	US	51-100	Munich	DE
16	National University of Singapore (NUS)	SG	51-100	Aarhus	DK
17	University College London (UCL)	UK	51-100	Copenhagen	DK
18	Australia National University (ANU)	AU	51-100	Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB)	ES
19	Tokyo	JP	51-100	Toulouse School of Economics (TSE)	FR
20	Bocconi	IT	51-100	Hong Kong Polytechnic	HK
21	Warwick	UK	51-100	Trinity College Dublin (TCD)	IE
22	Cornell	US	51-100	Bologna	IT
23	Melbourne	AU	51-100	Hitotsubashi	JP
24	Monash	AU	51-100	Osaka	JP
25	Duke	US	51-100	Waseda	JP
26	Michigan	US	51-100	Sungkyuukwan	KR
26	Toronto	CA	51-100	Yonsei	KR
28	Hong Kong	HK	51-100	Amsterdam	NL
29	California, San Diego (UCSD)	US	51-100	Maastricht	NL
30	Hong Kong University of Science and Technology	HK	51-100	VU University Amsterdam (VU)	NL
31	London Business School (LBS)	UK	51-100	Auckland	NZ
32	Stockholm School of Economics (SSE)	SE	51-100	Lund	SE
33	Peking	CN	51-100	Nanyang Technological University (NTU)	SG
34	Chinese University of Hong Kong	HK	51-100	National Taiwan University	TW
35	Seoul National University	KR	51-100	York	UK
36	British Columbia (UBC)	CA	51-100	Nottingham	UK
37	Tsinghua	CN	51-100	Manchester	UK
38	Erasmus University Rotterdam (EUR)	NL	51-100	Edinburgh	UK
39	Brown	US	51-100	Birmingham	UK
40	Universitat Pompeu Febrà (UPF)	ES	51-100	California Institute of Technology (Caltech)	US
41	Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule (ETH)	CH	51-100	Carnegie Mellon University (CMU)	US
42	Kyoto	JP	51-100	Dartmouth	US
42	Queensland	AU	51-100	Pennsylvania state	US
44	Pantheon-Sorbonne University (Paris I)	FR	51-100	California, Davis (UCD)	US
45	New South Wales	AU	51-100	Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	US
46	Universidad Carlos III de Madrid (UCIII)	ES	51-100	Maryland, College Park	US
47	Boston	US	51-100	Minnesota	US
48	Sydney	AU	51-100	Southern California	US
49	Korea	KR	51-100	Texas, Austin	US
50	Tilburg	NL	51-100	Wisconsin, Madison	US

PhDs, ranked in the top 100, on the top European universities.

RESULTS

The dominance of foreign PhDs

The investigation, as demonstrated in the Table 2, found that there are 1066 PhD holders in the top European universities and the number of the PhD-granting universities is 70. European universities account for 758 (71.11%), followed by American universities (298, 27.95%), and then Singapore (4, 0.38%), Canada (4, 0.38%) and Australia (2, 0.19%). Thus, almost 99% of the PhD holders in the top European universities hold PhDs from American or European universities. Although the results seem to indicate that the top European universities are dominated by the European PhDs, it should not be forgotten that Europe is not a 'country'. By looking at the results by European countries, not Europe, we can understand the dominance of the American PhDs on the top European universities.

By so doing, it can be made clear how dominant the American PhDs are in the top European universities. Obviously, in terms of countries, the American PhDs are most dominant in the top European universities. British PhDs are the second most dominant PhDs in Europe. As British universities account for 211 of 1066 PhDs (19.79%), the difference between the US and the UK may not be so big. The Netherlands comes third by 169 PhDs (15.85%), which is nearly as half as American PhDs in the top European universities.

Then, the European followers after the UK and the Netherlands are completely defeated by the US. Belgium, Denmark and France respectively represent nearly 7% of the total PhDs: 7.41% (79 PhDs) for Belgium, 7.32% (78 PhDs) for Denmark and 7.13% (76 PhDs) for France. Though Germany, Spain and Sweden individually hold a nearly 3 percent share, Switzerland achieves a 1% share and the share of Italy, Ireland and Austria is respectively less than 1%: 3.66% (39 PhDs) for Germany, 3.19% (34 PhDs) for Spain, 3.00% (32 PhDs) for Sweden, 1.78% (19 PhDs) for Switzerland, 0.84% (9 PhDs) for Italy, 0.56% (6 PhDs) for Ireland and 0.56% (6 PhDs) for Austria.

Next, let me look at the dominance of the non-European PhDs on the top European universities by 'university'. The Table 3 shows which university dominates the top European universities. Regarding the top 10 universities, LSE comes top with 63 PhDs followed by Aarhus (57 PhDs), Oxford (53 PhDs), EUR (48 PhDs) and Tilburg (45 PhDs). The rest of the top 10 include TSE (41 PhDs), Paris I (35 PhDs), UCLu (34 PhDs), MIT (33 PhDs), VUB (30 PhDs) and Amsterdam (30 PhDs).

Table 2. The number and proportion of PhDs by country (excl. PhDs by the same universities and countries)

US	298	27.95%
SG	4	0.38%
CA	4	0.38%
AU	2	0.19%
Europe	758	71.11%
UK	211	19.79%
NL	169	15.85%
BG	79	7.41%
DK	78	7.32%
FR	76	7.13%
DE	39	3.66%
ES	34	3.19%
SE	32	3.00%
CH	19	1.78%
IT	9	0.84%
IE	6	0.56%
AT	6	0.56%
Total	1066	100%

Table 3. The number of PhDs by University

Rank	Institute	Country	QS	No
1	LSE	UK	3	63
2	Aarhus	DK	51-100	57
3	Oxford	UK	12	53
4	EUR	NL	38	48
5	Tilburg	NL	50	45
6	TSE	FR	51-100	41
7	Parisl	FR	44	36
8	UCLu	BG	51-100	34
9	MIT	US	2	33
10	VUB	BG	51-100	30
10	Amsterdam	NL	51-100	30
12	Harvard	US	1	26
13	VU Amsterdam	NL	51-100	25
14	Lund	SE	51-100	24
15	Cambridge	UK	10	23
16	UCB	US	5	22
17	Northwestern	US	51-100	21
17	UAB	ES	51-100	21
17	Maastricht	NL	51-100	21
17	Copenhagen	DK	15	21
21	Pennsylvania	US	9	20
22	Warwick	UK	21	18
23	Stanford	US	4	17
24	Chicago	US	51-100	16
24	Bonn	DE	6	16
26	KUL	BG	51-100	15
27	Yale	US	51-100	14
27	NYU	US	13	14
27	Nottingham	UK	8	14
30	Princeton	US	51-100	13
30	UCLA	US	51-100	13
30	Mannheim	DE	14	13
30	York	UK	7	13
34	Zurich	CH	51-100	12
35	Minnesota	US	51-100	11
35	UCL	UK	17	11
37	UCSD	US	51-100	10
37	Munich	DE	51-100	10
37	Mancherter	UK	29	10
40	Columbia	US	47	9
40	Cornell	US	22	9
40	Boston	US	11	9
43	SSE	SE	40	8
43	UPF	ES	32	8
45	ETH	CH	41	7
46	UCD	US	51-100	6
46	TCD	IE	51-100	6
46	WU	AT	51-100	6
49	Wisconsin	US	51-100	5
49	Caltech	US	51-100	5
49	Cocconi	IT	46	5
49	UC III	ES	20	5
53	Duke	US	51-100	4
53	Maryland	US	51-100	4
53	Michigan	US	26	4
53	Bologna	IT	25	4
57	Brown	US	51-100	3
57	Texas	US	51-100	3
57	Toronto	CA	39	3
57	NUS	SG	26	3
57	Edinburgh	UK	16	3
62	CMU	US	51-100	2
62	Southern Cali	US	51-100	2
62	ANU	AU	51-100	2
62	Pennsylvania state	US	31	2
62	LBS	UK	18	2
67	Illinois	US	51-100	1
67	Nanyang	SG	51-100	1
67	UBC	CA	51-100	1
67	Birmingham	UK	36	1

The dominance of foreign PhDs after excluding PhDs granted and held by the same universities

The results presented above looked at all the PhDs held by the top European universities. However, the PhDs examined above include the PhDs granted and held by the same institutions. If the PhDs granted and held by the same institutions are excluded, as demonstrated in the Table 4, we have a different picture, and the total number of PhDs in this case is 701. Looking at the new results by country, European PhDs again dominate the top European universities (393 PhDs, 56.06%), followed by the US (298 PhDs, 42.51%), Singapore (4 PhDs, 0.57%), Canada (4 PhDs, 0.57%) and Australia (2 PhDs, 0.29%). Where the European PhDs are categorised by country, the UK holds a 22.40 % share (157 PhDs) while the Netherland's share is 10.13% (71 PhDs). A nearly 4% share is taken by Denmark (35 PhDs, 4.99%), France (32 PhDs, 4.56%), Spain (31 PhDs, 4.42%) and Belgium (31 PhDs, 4.42%).

In terms of university, as shown in the Table 5, two British universities, LSE and Oxford, dominate the top two as LSE tops again the ranking with 58 PhDs and Oxford is placed in the second place with 36 PhDs. Tilburg and MIT are ranked in the third and fourth place with 35 PhDs and 33 PhDs respectively followed by Harvard (26 PhDs), UCB (22 PhDs), Paris I (22 PhDs), Northwestern (21 PhDs) and Pennsylvania (20 PhDs).

The dominance of foreign PhDs after excluding PhDs granted and held by the same universities and countries

Finally, the results can be further more different by excluding the PhDs granted and held by the same universities and countries (Table 6). According to the results, American PhDs dominate a 59.01% share (298 PhDs) while European PhDs hold a 39.01% share (197 PhDs), followed by Singapore (4 PhDs, 0.79%), Canada (4 PhDs, 0.79%) and Australia (2 PhDs, 0.40%). Looking at the European PhDs by country, the British PhDs hold a 13.47% share (68 PhDs), and Belgium and the Netherlands come after the UK with 27 PhDs (5.35%) and 24 PhDs (4.75%). Germany, France and Spain follow them with 20 PhDs (3.96%), 17 PhDs (3.37%) and 13 PhDs (2.57%). The rest of the European countries account for less than a 2% share including Switzerland (10 PhDs, 1.98%), Sweden (8 PhDs, 1.98%), Denmark (6 PhDs, 1.19%), Italy (0.59%) and Ireland (1 PhD, 0.20%).

Looking at the results by university, the American university, MIT, finally comes top in the ranking with 33 PhDs, followed by LSE with 32 PhDs. The following six places are then dominated by the American universities: Harvard (26 PhDs), UCB (22 PhDs), Northwestern (21 PhDs), Pennsylvania (20 PhDs), Stanford (17 PhDs), Chicago (16 PhDs) and Stanford (17 PhDs). The ninth place is held by Oxford (16 PhDs), again followed by two American universities, NYU (14 PhDs) and Yale (14 PhDs).

Table 4. The number and proportion of PhDs by country (excl. PhDs by the same universities and countries)

US	298	42.51%
SG	4	0.57%
CA	4	0.57%
AU	2	0.29%
Europe	393	56.06%
UK	157	22.40%
NL	71	10.13%
DE	35	4.99%
FR	32	4.56%
ES	31	4.42%
BG	31	4.42%
CH	13	1.85%
SE	9	1.28%
DK	9	1.28%
IT	4	0.57%
IE	1	0.14%
AT	0	0.00%
Total	701	100%

Table 5. The number of PhDs by University

Rank	Institute	Country	QS	No
1	LSE	UK	3	58
2	Oxford	UK	12	36
3	Tilburg	NL	50	35
4	MIT	US	2	33
5	Harvard	US	1	26
6	UCB	US	5	22
6	Parist	FR	44	22
8	Northwestern	US	15	21
9	Pensylvania	US	9	20
9	UAB	ES	51-100	20
11	Stanford	US	4	17
11	Cambridge	UK	10	17
13	Chicago	US	6	16
13	Bon	DE	51-100	16
15	NYU	US	13	14
15	Yale	US	8	14
15	Warwick	UK	21	14
18	UCLA	US	14	13
18	Princeton	US	7	13
20	Mannheim	DE	51-100	12
20	VUB	BG	51-100	12
22	Minnesota	US	51-100	11
22	UCLu	BG	51-100	11
24	UCSD	US	29	10
24	UCL	UK	17	10
24	EUR	NL	38	10
24	Maastricht	NL	51-100	10
24	TSE	FR	51-100	10
24	Zurich	CH	51-100	10
30	Boston	US	47	9
30	Cornell	US	22	9
30	Columbia	US	11	9
33	Nottingham	UK	51-100	8
33	Amsterdam	NL	51-100	8
33	VU Amsterdam	NL	51-100	8
33	KUL	BG	51-100	8
37	York	UK	51-100	7
37	SSE	SE	32	7
37	UPF	ES	40	7
37	Munich	DE	51-100	7
41	UCD	US	51-100	6
42	Wisconsin	US	51-100	5
42	Caltech	US	51-100	5
42	Manchester	UK	51-100	5
42	Aarhue	DK	51-100	5
46	Maryland	US	51-100	4
46	Michigan	US	26	4
46	Duke	US	25	4
46	Bocconi	IT	20	4
46	UC III	ES	46	4
46	Copenhagen	DK	51-100	4
52	Texas	US	51-100	3
52	Brown	US	39	3
52	NUS	SG	16	3
52	ETH	CH	41	3
52	Toronto	CA	26	3
57	CMU	US	51-100	2
57	Southern Cali	US	51-100	2
57	Pennsylvania state	US	51-100	2
57	Lund	SE	51-100	2
57	ANU	AU	18	2
62	Illinoie	US	51-100	1
62	Edinburgh	UK	51-100	1
62	LBS	UK	31	1
62	Nanyang	SG	51-100	1
62	TCD	IE	51-100	1
62	UBC	CA	36	1
68	Birmingham	UK	51-100	0
68	Bologna	IT	51-100	0
68	WU	AT	51-100	0

Table 6. The number and proportion of PhDs by country (excl. PhDs by the same universities and countries)

US	298	59.01%
SG	4	0.79%
CA	4	0.79%
AU	2	0.40%
Europe	197	39.01%
UK	68	13.47%
BG	27	5.35%
NL	24	4.75%
DE	20	3.96%
FR	17	3.37%
ES	13	2.57%
CH	10	1.98%
SE	8	1.58%
DK	6	1.19%
IT	3	0.59%
IE	1	0.20%
AT	0	0.00%
Total	505	100%

Table 7. The number of PhDs by University

Rank	Institute	Country	QS	No
1	MIT	US	2	33
2	LSE	UK	3	32
3	Harvard	US	1	26
4	UCB	US	5	22
5	Northwestern	US	15	21
6	Pensylvania	US	9	20
7	Stanford	US	4	17
8	Chicago	US	6	16
8	Oxford	UK	12	16
10	NYU	US	13	14
10	Yale	US	8	14
12	UCLA	US	14	13
12	Princeton	US	7	13
14	Minnesota	US	51-100	11
14	Tilburg	NL	50	11
14	VUB	BG	51-100	11
17	UCSD	US	29	10
17	Bonn	DE	51-100	10
17	UCLu	BG	51-100	10
20	Boston	US	47	9
20	Cornell	US	22	9
20	Columbia	US	11	9
20	TSE	FR	51-100	9
24	Pariel	FR	44	8
24	Zurich	CH	51-100	8
26	UCD	US	51-100	6
26	Cambridge	UK	10	6
26	SSE	SE	32	6
26	UAB	ES	51-100	6
26	UPF	ES	40	6
26	KUL	BG	51-100	6
32	Wisconsin	US	51-100	5
32	Caltech	US	51-100	5
32	UCL	UK	17	5
32	Amsterdam	NL	51-100	5
32	Mannheim	DE	51-100	5
32	Munich	DE	51-100	5
38	Maryland	US	51-100	4
38	Michigan	US	26	4
38	Duke	US	25	4
38	Warwick	UK	21	4
38	EUR	NL	38	4
43	Texas	US	51-100	3
43	Brown	US	39	3
43	York	UK	51-100	3
43	NUS	SG	16	3
43	Maastricht	NL	51-100	3
43	Bocconi	IT	20	3
43	Aarhue	DK	51-100	3
43	Copenhagen	DK	51-100	3
43	Toronto	CA	26	3
52	CMU	US	51-100	2
52	Southern Cali	US	51-100	2
52	Pennaylvvania state	US	51-100	2
52	Lund	SE	51-100	2
52	ETH	CH	41	2
52	ANU	AU	18	2
58	Illinois	US	51-100	1
58	Nottingham	UK	51-100	1
58	Manchester	UK	51-100	1
58	Nanyang	SG	51-100	1
58	VU Amsterdam	NL	51-100	1
58	TCD	IE	51-100	1
58	UC III	ES	46	1
58	UBC	CA	36	1
66	Edinburgh	UK	51-100	0
66	LBS	UK	31	0
66	Birmingham	UK	51-100	0
66	Bologna	IT	51-100	0
66	WU	AT	51-100	0

DISCUSSION

In the previous section, three kinds of results regarding the dominance of foreign brains on the top European universities are demonstrated. Then, we have now some remarkable findings.

The dominance of self-supplied PhDs

First, the top European universities are dominated by the European PhDs because 71.1% of all the PhDs are European, while 27.95% are American. The dominance of European PhDs on the top European universities is due to the 'self-supply' of PhDs within universities or countries. The proportions of the European and American PhDs change to 56.06% (decrease by 15.04%) and 42.51% (increase by 14.56%) by excluding the PhDs granted and held by the same universities: and to 39.01% (decrease by 17.05%) and 59.01% (increase by 16.5%) by further excluding the PhDs granted and held by the same countries. Thus, the top European universities as a whole tend to employ PhDs granted by the same universities and the same countries. However, rather than the 'self-supplied' PhDs, it is likely that they prefer American PhDs to the PhDs granted by other countries including those in Europe.

The relationship between non-European PhDs and world's rankings

Next, though it is closely related to the previous point, it is shown that the top European universities tend to employ PhDs from the higher-ranked universities as they need to employ them from universities more external to them. Before the PhDs granted and held by the same universities are excluded, 9 European universities, including LSE, Aarhus, Oxford, EUR, Tilburg, TSE, Paris I, UCLu and VBU, along with one American university, MIT, are in the top 10. Concerning the nine European universities, three of them are British and Dutch, two of them are French and Belgian, and one of them is Danish. Thus, six countries are represented in the top 10. However, among them, only LSE (3rd) and MIT (2nd) are the top 10 universities; Oxford is in the top 11-20, EUR is in the top 31-40, Paris I and Tilburg are in the top 41-50 and Aarhus, TSE, UCLu and VUB are in the top 51-100. Thus, although many European countries are represented in this ranking, its top 10 universities are not higher-ranked in the QS University Rankings.

By excluding the PhDs granted and held by the same universities, though the number of European countries represented in the top 10 decreases, the top 10 universities in this ranking are relatively higher-ranked in the QS University Rankings. Regarding the top 10 universities, five of them (MIT, Harvard, UCB, Northwestern and Pennsylvania) are American, while two are British (LSE and Oxford), and France (Paris I), Spain (UAB) and the Netherlands (Tilburg) respectively have one university in the ranking. Though a half of the top 10 universities are now American, their places in the QS Rankings become relatively higher. LSE, MIT, Harvard, UCB and Pennsylvania are the world's top 10 universities (increase by three), Oxford and Northwestern are in the 11-20 (increase by one), Paris I and Tilburg are in the top 41-50 (the same) and one is in the top 51-100 (decrease by three).

Then, by excluding the PhDs granted and held by the same universities and countries, though nearly all of the top 10 universities become American, their places in the QS Rankings are the highest-ranked among the three results. Regarding countries of the top 10 universities, 8 of them are American (MIT, Harvard, UCB, Northwestern, Pennsylvania, Chicago, NYU and Yale) and 2 are British (LSE and Oxford). Namely, all of them are from the English-spoken countries. Further, 8 of them (LSE, MIT, Harvard, UCB, Pennsylvania, Chicago, NYU and Yale) are the world's top 10 universities and 3 are in the top 11-20 (Northwestern, NYU and Oxford). Among the top 10 universities in the QS University Rankings, only Princeton and Cambridge are not in the top 10 in this result. Because NYU is ranked 13th, Northwestern is 15th and Oxford is 12th,

it can be said that the top 10 universities in this result are almost the same as those in the QS University Rankings.

Therefore, it can be speculated from these results that the top European universities as a whole tend to employ the PhDs granted by the same universities or the same countries, namely the 'self-supplied' PhDs. These results also suggest that they are likely to employ PhDs from the world's best universities when they choose PhDs outside their countries.

CONCLUSION

This paper examined the state of foreign brains in Europe. For that purpose, it investigated how much the top European universities are dominated by the foreign PhDs in terms of economics. Then, it was disclosed that the top European universities are dominated by the PhDs granted by the same universities or by the same countries' universities, namely the 'self-supplied' PhDs, but that American PhDs dominate the top European universities when the 'self-supplied PhDs' are excluded.

There may be a number of reasons that the top European universities prefer the 'self-supplied' PhDs. A university might employ a PhD from the same university because the university perfectly understands her/his ability in research or teaching during his/her PhD studies. It might be also possible that the 'self-supplied' PhDs are employed because of the linguistic reason as a university may want those who command its country's language. Some universities may be more interested in educating domestic students than international students and courses would be then delivered in their local languages rather than English. In this case, the 'self-supplied' PhDs would be better for them. Moreover, employing the 'self-supplied' PhDs may attract foreign students, especially those from the developing countries, because receiving PhDs in a university or a country may enable them to work there.

Employing the 'self-supplied' PhD would, as discussed above, has some merits for a university or a country. However, there are a number of demerits for the dominance of the 'self-supplied PhDs' in a university or a country. One of them is that it would obviously hamper the internationalization of universities. As argued above, a number of universities in the world try to be internationalized because of the distinctive advantages that the internationalization of universities would bring about. If a university is filled with the 'self-supplied' PhDs, it would be difficult for the university to be fully internationalized. Another significant disadvantage for universities is that the dominance of the 'self-supplied' PhDs would lead to the low proportion of the PhDs from the world's best universities. Surely, researches who hold PhDs from the world's best universities would not always be the world's best researchers. However, it is more likely that their performances in both research and education would be superior to those from the lower-ranked universities because they have the world's best education under the world's best researchers. It can be understandable that some American universities such as Harvard and MIT are dominated by the 'self-supplied' PhDs because those who hold the PhDs from the American giants are educated by the world's best researchers. Although the dominance of the American PhDs in American universities could be disadvantageous for the internationalization of them, they can claim that they choose the 'self-supplied' PhDs to be the world's best university in education and research at the expense of the internationalization.

Considering the QS Rankings, at least in terms of economics, a few universities in Europe such as LSE and Cambridge can make such a fearless claim, because they are ranked the 3rd and 10th in the Rankings. However, these European universities are not dominated by the 'self-supplied' PhDs and they, especially LSE, the top school in Europe, seek to employ the PhDs from the world's best universities, possibly in order to improve the internationalization of them and to provide the world's best education and research.

There are clearly a wide range of advantages for holding the 'self-supplied' PhDs to a certain degree and they should not be underestimated. However, as Europe itself admits the importance of gathering the world's best brains into the region (EC, 2002), Europe and the top European countries should more actively seek to hold the PhDs from the world's best universities. If Europe fails to gather the brains, they would be taken by other regions such as Asia, which would be apparently disadvantageous for Europe.

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Relative Effectiveness of Guided Inquiry and Demonstration Methods on Students Performance in Practical Chemistry in Secondary Schools in Osun State, Nigeria

Irinoye, J.

Faculty of Education
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Bamidele, E. F.

Faculty of Education
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Adetunji, A. A.

Faculty of Education
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Awodele, B.A.

Faculty of Education
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Abstract

The paper investigated the relative effectiveness of Guided Inquiry Strategy and Demonstration Method on the performance of students in practical Chemistry in the secondary schools in Osun State, Nigeria. The study also examined the effects of these methods on the retention ability of the students. The study adopted the non-equivalent pre-test, post-test, control group experimental design. There were two groups; the Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) group and the Demonstration Teaching Method (DTM) group. The population for the study consists of all Chemistry students in Senior Secondary School two (SSSII) in Ifelodun Local Government Area, of the state. The study sample was made up of seventy eight Chemistry students in Senior Secondary School two (SSSII) in their intact classes in two public co-educational Secondary Schools randomly selected in Ifelodun Local Government Area. The instrument used for the study was Achievement Test in Qualitative Analysis (ATQA). This was used for the pre-test, post-test and retention ability test of the students in qualitative analysis. Results showed that there was a significant difference in the students' performance after exposure to the treatment ($t = 62.712$; $p = 0.000$). Also, students taught with the GIS performed significantly better than those that were taught with the DTM ($t = 27.46$; $p = 0.000$). The mean scores 23.52 and 11.00 for the GIS and DTM respectively). There was also a significant difference in the retention ability of the two groups ($t = 13.047$; $p = 0.000$), with the GIS group having better retention ability of the concept taught. It was thus concluded that Guided Inquiry Strategy is a very good teaching strategy for practical chemistry because it enhanced the performance and retention of learning.

Keywords: Guided Inquiry, Demonstration Method, Qualitative analysis and Retention test.

INTRODUCTION

Chemistry is one of the science subjects which occupy a prominent place in the school curriculum. Chemistry deals with the composition, properties and uses of matters (Ababio, 2003). Chemistry is central to vocations in health services, pharmaceuticals, petroleum and petrochemical industries, agriculture, food processing, teaching services and extractive industries, In spite of the importance and utility value of Chemistry to man, Chemistry is not being taught and presented to students in ways by which the goals of learning the subject

would be achieved. This has resulted in poor performance year in, year out (Nwagbo 2001, Adeyemo, 2004, Adegbola, 2005). The West African Examination Council (WAEC) chief examiners' report (2010) adduced the poor performances of students in practical chemistry to inadequate exposure to practical works in their various schools.

Research studies have also indicated that some factors are responsible for students' poor performance in Chemistry. The most common factors identified were the inappropriate, uninspiring and non-innovative teaching methods and strategies adopted by teacher, (Keshinro, 1998; Akeju, 2001; Bamidele, 2003; Adeyemo, 2004; Adegbola, 2005; Adedeji, Oloyede, Bamidele and Bada 2012). They maintained that if novel teaching methods were employed in teaching the students practical chemistry, the students will perform wonderfully well. According to Adedeji et. al. (2012) unless a teacher adopts suitable strategies, and engage the students actively in the classroom, the students will continue to perform poorly in the sciences because students learn better when they are actively involved in the teaching and learning processes. Teachers must continue to organize instruction by using learner centred strategies that will facilitate learning. Educational theorists have continually emphasized the distinction between meaningful learning and rote learning. To facilitate meaningful learning, students are supposed to learn for their own sake through hands-on and minds-on meta-cognitive approaches, memorization leads to regurgitation of facts, poor retention ability and non transfer of knowledge all that served as evidence of lack of understanding thus cannot promote self reliance.

Observations by the researchers have discovered that in most of our secondary schools, the usual practice of most teachers is to organize practical sessions for their students some few weeks to the Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) in the subjects involving practicals.. The students are not being exposed to intensive practical session which will make them to be well vast in the practical aspects that can help them to understand the principles involved in the various concepts in the subjects. The omnipresent challenge in teaching practical Chemistry in Senior Secondary Schools is to suggest methods of organizing instruction that will facilitate learning for majority of students. A strategy which has not been sufficiently used in basic science teaching or in their practicals is guided inquiry strategy.

Guided inquiry strategy is an approach in which students are given activities in which they develop knowledge and understanding of scientific ideas, through engaging in open-ended, student centred, hands-on tasks while the teacher acts as a facilitator. According to Eniolorunda (2007), guided inquiry is an approach to inquire whereby the teacher leads his/her students with well-formulated questions that are designed to bring students face to face with knowledge they are seeking, so that they can in effect find out such knowledge. Guided Inquiry Strategy entails students given the opportunity to find out things themselves about events and scientific ideas through asking questions, investigation, observation, and construction of reasonable explanation, sharing information and experience. The teacher provides the guidance which leads to a series of developmental stages. At the beginning stage, the teacher direct materials provide a structured model for students to progress and act independently as a group.

The purpose of guided inquiry is to provide students structured experience with scientific inquiry. According to Igelsrud and Leonard (1988), four components of guided inquiry laboratory can be identified as follows:

- 1. Introduction:** A brief introduction in form of question and set goals is to be provided.
- 2. Materials:** The students are given a list of available materials.

3. **Procedure:** In the most structured form of guided inquiry, a step wise procedure is given. Sufficient direction should be provided. Less procedural detail encourages students to think about how the data will be collected and analyzed (Allen, Barker and Ramsden (1986). Bransford and Donovan (2005) warn against using lockstep approaches to inquiry which provide carefully constructed procedures and steps for students to follow.
4. **Discussion:** carefully constructed questions leads the students through data review and analysis. Students need to verify their analysis and conclusions about the topics.

The principle that learners must be actively involved in constructing personal meaning is at the core of guided inquiry activities through actively engaging in observation, imagination and reasoning. Bransford and Donovan (2005) asserted that tools and procedure are not ends in themselves but devices to promote new sights. The intrinsic motivation associated with deep learning is more likely to be activated using guided inquiry approach. Guided inquiry strategy is premised upon teaching that should be geared towards making the teacher increasingly unnecessary having developed students formal operational reasoning and learning autonomy. In quiet garden @ <http://www.quiete.garden.com/teacher>, Thomas said that a teacher is one who makes himself progressively unnecessary. There is the need for teachers to use more effective and result-oriented teaching strategies to enhance students' understanding.

Practical Chemistry (Qualitative Analysis) is a physical science that is concerned with the composition, properties, constitution and mutual interactions of different kinds of matter. It is of tremendous importance in industry since it is one of the sources of how materials are produced for human utilization. Chemistry knowledge is very useful in Medicine, Agriculture, Engineering, Pharmacy and Science Education to mention but a few. The teaching of Chemistry is therefore worth-while for meaningful living and technological development in any nation. In view of Chemistry impact and influence, chemistry should create in the learners an awareness of the impact and influence it has on the society as a means for preparing him/her for a life in technological age.

Adetunji (2007) said "The teaching of Chemistry should be based on investigation so that learners themselves discover the facts". According to Gardner, Moore and Waddington (1984) "Laboratory work is an essential component of chemical education. Students can be stuffed with facts and theories but without experiments, they cannot experience the reality of Chemistry as a science. The development of power of observation, measurement, prediction, interpretation, design and decision making are dependent on laboratory experience. Silber (1981) said that "essentials in teaching science often include good equipment, laboratory facilities, modern curriculum materials, teaching aids and limited students load". Better teaching strategy application depends upon the curriculum executors (teacher) in the teaching learning process.

Qualitative analysis deals with scientific ways of identification of chemical components that a compound, salt or substance consists of. Positively charged ions are called cations or metallic ions or basic radicals. For Senior School Certificate Examination, cations expected for identification are as follows: Pb^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Al^{3+} , Fe^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , Cu^{2+} and NH_4^+ . Negatively charged ion is called anion or an acidic radical. Similarly for Senior Secondary Certificate Examination anions required for identification are NO_3^- , CO_3^{2-} , HCO_3^- , SO_3^{2-} , SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- , and S^{2-} . There are two ways involved in the procedure for identification of chemical components, these are physical test and chemical test. Physical test is not a reliable test but only helps in suspecting a substance under test. The tests include the following (Sanda, 2005).

1. Solubility test
2. Colour test

3. Texture test
4. Odour test

Chemical test involve using solution of a chemical reagents to identify component ion(s) present to give chemical substance under test. A chemical test helps in suspecting the presence and confirmation of the ion present in a substance under test with no bias or doubt. A chemical test involves use of reagents in solution.

West African Examination Council chief examiners' report (2010) succinctly outlined candidates' weakness in Practical chemistry (Qualitative Analysis) as follows:

- I. Inability to carry out required test
- II. Non adherence to instructions
- III. Poor expressions
- IV. Poor knowledge of separation techniques
- V. Inability to record observation made and give logical inferences
- VI. Lack of proper understanding of basic principles and concepts
- VII. Inability to differentiate theoretical knowledge from practical observation

However, the following were the suggested remedies:

- I. Candidates should be well exposed to practical work.
- II. Laboratories should be well equipped with modern and relevant instruments and facilities.

Teaching can only be effective, meaningful, productive, consistent and enjoyable when the students are active participants. Bearing this in mind, the present study seeks to examine the effects of Guided Inquiry Strategies on Secondary School Students' Performance in Practical Chemistry - Qualitative Analysis.

The objectives of the study therefore are:

- a. Examine the effectiveness of Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) on students' performance in Practical Chemistry
- b. Determine the relative effectiveness of Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) and Demonstration Teaching Method (DTM); and
- c. Determine the retention ability of students taught Chemistry practical (qualitative analysis) using GIS and DTM.

Research Hypotheses

From the above-mentioned objectives of the study, the following research hypotheses were generated and tested:

1. There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught using Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS).
2. There is no significant difference in the performance of students taught the Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) and those taught with the Demonstration Teaching Method (DTM).
3. There is no significant difference in the retention ability of students when GIS and DTM were used in teaching Practical Chemistry (Qualitative Analysis)

Theoretical Framework

The constructivist theory is the spring board for this study. The central idea in the theory is on mental development as a result of what meaning one is able to make out of an idea and concepts one has come across. This study centers on the work of Vygotsky.

Vygotsky, social learning constructivist offers a framework for instruction based upon the study of cognition. Vygotsky's constructivism centres on allowing students to actively interact with others. He believes that by allowing students to actively interact with one another, there will be opportunities for investigating, experimenting and asking questions, which will lead to getting answers that will make learning real and long-lasting. Vygotsky theory proffers that knowledge is situated and collaborative, therefore knowledge is distributed among people and environment.

In Guided Inquiry Strategy, students were given opportunity to find out things themselves about practical Chemistry (Qualitative Analysis). Students carry out investigation, asking questions, observation and construction of reasonable explanation in addition to sharing information and experiences while the teacher provides guidance. These will make learning real and long lasting. According to Schunk (2000):

Constructivism is the notion that thinking takes places in Contexts and [that] cognition is largely constructed by Individuals as a function of their experiences in situations....[it] highlights the interaction of persons with situations In the acquisition and refinement of skills and knowledge.... People are active learners and must construct Knowledge for themselves. p.229

The major theme of Vygotsky's work is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition.

Another aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development depends upon the "Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)". ZPD is a Vygotsky's term for the range of tasks that are two difficult for children to master alone but that can be learned with guidance and assistance from teacher. Vygotsky states that a child follows an adult's example and gradually develops the ability to do certain tasks without help or assistance. In Guided Inquiry Strategy, the teacher carries out modelling then serves as a facilitator. The students and teacher discuss and formulates conclusion on what is learnt. The learning theory proposed by Vygotsky emphasize interactive action between the students and the source of knowledge which would assist the learner to re-establish ideas in their own minds. This allows for individual active participation in practical chemistry. This is a pointer to teachers that learners' understanding of concepts during teaching process is paramount, thus teachers use star strategies that would promote learners' active participation in order to promote learning. Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) entails the activities of students in which they develop knowledge and understanding of scientific ideas, through creation of a classroom where students are engage in open-ended, student-centred, hands-on activities (Colburn,1996) students investigate natural phenomenon, using their background knowledge and experiences. The things students do include posing questions, solving problems and creating answers or tentative generalizations.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the pre-test, post-test, control group quasi experimental design. There were two groups; one of the groups was taught using Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS). This formed (Experimental Group 1). The other group was taught using Demonstration teaching Method (DTM). This formed group 2. The design for the study is as follows:

R	O ₁	X ₁	O ₂	O ₃
R	O ₄	X ₂	O ₅	O ₆

R- Randomization

X1- Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS)

X2 - Demonstration Teaching Method (DTM)

O1 & O4 ----- Pre-test

O2 & O5 -----Post test

O3 & O6-----Retention ability test

The achievement scores for students in the experimental groups during pre-test, post test and retention test scores served as the dependent variables while the treatments given to the two groups formed the independent variables.

Population, Sampling Technique and Sample

The population of the study for the study was all Chemistry students in Senior Secondary School two (SSSII) in Ifelodun Local Government Area, Osun state. The study sample consists of seventy eight Chemistry students in Senior Secondary School two (SSSII) in their intact classes in two public co-educational Secondary Schools randomly selected in Ifelodun Local Government Area, Osun-state. The schools selected are: Holy Michael Grammar School, Ikirun and Akinorun Grammar School, Ikirun.

Research Instrument

The instrument used in this study was Achievement Test in Qualitative Analysis (ATQA) designed by the researcher. The questions for this instrument were derived from past questions of the West African Examination Council (WAEC) in practical Chemistry. It is based on experiments involving qualitative analysis. The achievement test sought for students' personal information with respect to name, age, class and sex. The remaining part of the achievement test contains three practical questions which reflect the levels of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation in the entire topic taught. Each item has correct answers (the key) based on correct observation and inferences from test of practical given. The test items for pre-test, post-test and retention ability test were made of same questions rearranged and with different fonts. The same achievement test was used for both groups.

Validation of Research Instrument

The instrument was validated through input from experts in Curriculum Studies and Chemistry, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. Based on their comments and suggestions, the original tests were screened down from five previously drafted to three practical questions. The test was then administered on 24 students of senior secondary school class II in another school apart from experimental schools. The reliability of the instrument was determined by using the Kuder Richardson Formula 20 which is 0.79.

Data Collection

The schools selected were visited by the researcher at the commencement of the term in order to obtain permission from the school authority and to be familiar with the professional colleagues. The participating schools in both schools were randomly assigned to the two strategies. The researcher familiarized the teachers with the teaching strategies to be conducted in their schools. The researcher trained the teachers on the use of GIS and DTM to be used only in their school for teaching the students. The general procedure for each teaching strategy together with the researcher's instructional guides on GIS and DTM were jointly studied and discussed in each case.

Before the commencement of the experiment, the participants were given a thirty minutes pre-test as contained in the Achievement Test on Qualitative Analysis (ATQA). Real teaching took six weeks of two periods per week. They were all taught by their different regular chemistry teachers. The researcher checked the teachers and students periodically during the treatment period to ensure that teachers were actually using the prescribed strategies. At the end of the teaching sessions, the post-test was administered. The validated marking scheme was used for marking and grading the students. The marks obtained by the students in the two groups were recorded. Retention ability test was administered after two weeks of conducting post-test. The achievement scores of students obtained in the two experimental groups during the pre-test and post-test and retention ability test served as the dependent variables. The data collected were analyzed by using descriptive and t-test statistics. The level of significance applied was 0.05.

RESULTS

To determine the possible difference in background knowledge of the two groups, the participants were given the pre-test. The data obtained were subjected to the t-test analysis. The result obtained is presented in table 1 below.

Table 1 t-test Analysis of the Pre-test Scores of the GIS and DTM Groups

Experimental groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	t	Sig.
GIS	40	1.150	0.892	0.141	0.590	0.557
DTM	38	1.263	0.794	0.129		

From the result presented in the table, it could be seen that the value of 't' is not significant. This indicated that there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups before the treatment. This implies that there was no difference in the background knowledge in practical Chemistry of the students in the two groups prior to the administration of the treatment.

Hypothesis One

The hypothesis state that there is no significant difference in the performance of students taught using Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS).

To test this hypothesis, the pre-test and post test scores of the group taught with guided inquiry strategy were compared. The result is presented in the table 2 below.

Table 2 t-test analysis of the pre-test and post-test scores of the Guided Inquiry Group

Experimental group (GIS)	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	t	Sig.
Pretest Score	40	1.15	0.892	0.141	62.712	0.000
Posttest Score	40	23.525	2.038	0.322		

From the table, $t = 62.712$ with $p = 0.00$ indicating that there was a significant difference in the performance of the group taught using the Guided Inquiry Strategy. Thus, the hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Two

The hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the performance of students taught with the Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) and those taught with the Demonstration Teaching Method (DTM). To test this hypothesis, the post test scores of the two groups were subjected to t-test analysis and the result obtained is presented in table 3 below.

Table 3 t-test analysis of the GIS and DTM groups in their Post - test.

Experimental groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	T	Sig.
GIS	40	23.525	2.038	0.322	27.466	0.000
DTM	38	11.000	1.986	0.322		

Result showed that there was a significant difference between the performance of students taught Qualitative analysis using the Guided Inquiry Strategy and those taught using the Demonstration technique ($t = 27.466$, $p = 0.000$).

Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. Since the mean score of the GIS group is greater than that of the DTM group, 23.525 and 11.000 respectively, it implies that the GIS group performed better than the DTM group.

Hypothesis Three

The hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the retention ability of students when GIS and DTM were used in teaching Practical Chemistry (Qualitative Analysis).

To test this hypothesis, the scores of the students in the retention test were subjected to the t-test analysis. The result is presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4 t-test analysis of the GIS and DTM groups in their Retention Test.

Experimental groups	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	t	Sig.
GIS	40	22.575	2.782	0.439	13.047	0.000
DTM	38	13.421	3.398	0.551		

Result indicated that there was a significant difference in the retention ability of the students with respect to the teaching approaches used, $t = 13.047$, $p = 0.000$. Looking at the mean scores, the GIS had a mean score of 22.575, while the DTM group had a mean score of 13.42. This implies that the group that was taught using the Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS) retained the materials learnt better than the group that was taught with the Demonstration method (DTM).

DISCUSSION

On the hypothesis that stated that there is no significant difference in the performance of students taught using Guided Inquiry Strategy (GIS). Result indicated that there was a significant difference in the students' performance. The students performed better after they have been exposed to the guided inquiry strategy which implied that the two methods enhance learning. However, students that were taught with the GIS performed better in Chemistry practical than those that were taught with the demonstration method. This result is in agreement with the study by Onanuga, (2001), Nwagbo, (2001), Adegbola, (2005) and EniOlorunda, (2007). They reported that the use of guided inquiry strategy in teaching and learning science subjects is superior to use of conventional teaching method. They maintained that the nature of guided inquiry that provided for activities such as: small group activities, communication with peers, role play, feedback opportunities, knowledge sharing and joint construction of conclusions made it possible to enhance the performance of learners taught with it.

CONCLUSION

The study concluded that GIS produced a significantly better performance in Qualitative Analysis than DTM. Thus, GIS is an effective method of instruction for secondary school

students especially in Practical Chemistry. This implies that students will learn better with strategies that involve student active participation.

Recommendations

- I. Chemistry teachers need to focus their methods of instruction on students' active participation. The students should be encouraged to imbibe mental construction of knowledge on their own. Active participation of students should be allowed in practical Chemistry classroom to bring about meaningful learning.
- II. Guided Inquiry Strategy should be adopted for teaching practical Chemistry in our secondary schools as they involve the students actively and makes them to retain what they have learnt. The strategy also allows for cooperative group participation among students.

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Assessment of the Trend of Secondary School Students' Academic Performance in the Sciences, Mathematics and English: Implications for the Attainment of the Millenium Development Goals in Nigeria

Dr. John Sakiyo

Science Education Department,
Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola

Dr. K. M. Badau

Science Education Department,
Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola

ABSTRACT

Students' academic performance in the sciences is crucial for national development and the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals. With a year to the end of the MDGs, this study assessed the trend of students' academic performances in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English in West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) from 2008 - 2012. The results of the entire students who sat for this examination in Nigeria in the 5 subjects were studied. Ex-Post facto research design was employed in the study. Percentages of students who obtained grade 1 - 6 in the 5 subjects were used to analyse the data. It was found that there was steady increase in the enrolment of students in the 5 subjects however, with fluctuating performances in Biology, Chemistry, General Mathematics and English language, except Physics which recorded an increased performance that fluctuated only in 2009. In terms of average academic performance from 2008 - 2012, physics recorded the best average academic performance with mean of 56.01% followed by English (52.52%), Mathematics (47.44%), Chemistry (46.30%) and the least average academic performance was in biology (37.27%). It was also found that Biology had the highest failure rate of 28.66% followed by Mathematics (24.39%), Chemistry (22.52%), English (21.89%) and the least failure rate was in physics (13.08%). The results also show that from 2008 - 2012 only 46.50% of the students obtained 1 - 6 grades in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English in WASSCE. The implication of these abysmal performances is that the pace of achieving national development and the MDGs will be slow and difficult. It was recommended that there should be a total overhaul of the teaching and learning process of these subjects.

Keywords: Assessment, Students' performance, Science, Millennium Development Goals.

INTRODUCTION

Education is a critical component of human and national development. It is in realisation of this that nations are investing heavily in education in order to be part of the global quest for sustainable development. Despite the huge investments in education, the performance of students in Senior School Certificate Examinations (SSCE) has long been a matter of concern to many well-meaning individuals, institutions and organizations as well as to various levels of government (Kpolovie, Ololube, & Ekwebelem. 2011).

Performance of students in the sciences has implications for the attainment of vision 20-2020 and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Okeshola (2010) maintained that attaining the MDG's of eradicating poverty and hunger, promoting gender equality and the empowerment of

women, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, combating HIV/AIDS and ensuring environmental sustainability are predicated on sound education. Okeshola further posited that the acquisition and dissemination of the requisite knowledge and skills and their effective application to address challenges that cumulatively result in sustainable development are highly dependent on a strong education system. The development of any nation according to Olorundare (2011) is usually barometered by the degree and extent of socio-cultural, socio-economic and political improvements that are brought to bear through the enterprise of science and technology.

In September 2000, the 189 member countries of the United Nations (UN), including 147 heads of states adopted the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) committing themselves to making substantial progress towards eradication of extreme poverty, hunger and achieving other human developmental goals by the year 2015 (Abdulgafar, Ibrahim & Alasinrin, 2013). They further stated that these goals are characterized with eighteen targets and 48 indicators. It is just a year left for the nations to attain the Millennium Development Goals; to what extent are these goals being achieved? This is the thrust of this paper, to assess the trend of secondary school students' academic performance in West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English as these subjects are germane to the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals and vision 20-2020.

The use of examinations to carry out assessment according to Alonge (2003) has been on the increase worldwide with the establishment of examination bodies like: West African Examinations Council (WAEC, 1953), National Teachers Institute (NTI, 1975), National Board of Educational Measurement (NBEM, 1992), National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB, 1992), National Board of Technical Education (NBTE, 1993) and National Examinations Council (NECO, 1998). These examination bodies were established to replace the activities of the colonial examination bodies.

WASSCE is a Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) conducted By West African Examination Council. The choice of WASSCE results was due to its credibility and acceptance by tertiary institutions for higher education. Kpolovie, Ololube, & Ekwebelem. (2011) are of the view that because of the economic and social importance attached to senior secondary school certificates, and the opportunities for higher education for those who possess such certificates, the awarding of this certificate is one of the most important events in the Nigerian academic calendar.

The utter disregard for science and technology education as an instrument of development has caused incalculable damage to our corporate existence. The problems of mismanaged economy, mass unemployment, collapse of health and educational services, insecurity, inflation, collapsed infrastructure can all be traced to the inadequate attention paid to science and technology in Nigeria (Egbogah, 2012). Strides in science and technology were catalysts in the development of many countries in the world. The assessment of students' academic performance in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English was because these subjects are the requirements for university admission in Nigeria for students who want to study medicine, engineering, pharmacy, Computer science and other science and technology related courses which are crucial for the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals.

Statement of the Problem

National and international goals can only be achieved through a well-planned curriculum (Nwakonobi & Onwuachu, 2009). The Nigeria Education Research and Development Council (NERDC) in response to a directive from National Council on Education (NCE) in 2005

developed a new Basic Education Curriculum in line with national and global reforms in education. In response to the on-going national and global reforms such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and to further consolidate the gains of the new Basic Education programme, it became imperative that the existing curriculum for senior secondary schools be reviewed and re-aligned to fit the reform programmes (Sakiyo & Waziri, 2014).

However, recent developments has shown marginal decline in students' performance. Dike (2014) reported that only 31.28% of the students that sat for 2014 May/June WASSCE obtained five credits including English and Mathematics as compared to 38.81% in 2012 and 36.57% in 2013. With just a year to the end of the attainment of the MDGs; this study was designed to assessed students trend of academic performance in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English in WASSCE from 2008 - 2012. This is because students' academic performance in these 5 subjects would determine the production of scientific literate citizens and future scientist and technologists desperately needed for national development and attainment of international reforms such as the MDGs.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted an Ex-Post facto design to assess the trend of students' academic performance in West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 – 2012 in Nigeria. In Ex-Post facto studies, variables are studied in retrospect in search of possible relationships and effects. The population of the study consisted of all the students that sat for WASSCE in the 5 subjects under study from 2008 - 2012. There was no sampling as the entire population was studied. Documentary evidence (data) from West African Examination Council (WAEC) was used in the study.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study.

1. What is the trend of the number of secondary school students who sat for WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?
2. What is the trend of the performance of secondary school students who passed WASSCE with grade 1 – 6 in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?
3. What is the average academic performance of secondary school students per subject who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?
4. What is the failure rate of secondary school students in WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2010 - 2012?
5. What is the overall average academic performance of secondary school students who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?

Presentation of Results

Data was analysed based on the research questions.

Research Question 1: What is the trend of the number of secondary school students who sat for WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?

Table 1 was used to answer research question 1 – 3 and 5.

Table 1: Number and Percentages of Students who obtained Grades 1- 6 in WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012

Subject	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Average
Biology N.	1259965	1340206	130048	1505199	1646150	
%	33.94	28.95	49.65	38.50	35.66	37.27
Chemistry N.	418423	468546	465643	565692	627302	
%	44.44	43.69	50.70	49.54	43.13	46.30
Physics N.	415113	465636	463753	563161	624658	
%	48.26	47.83	51.27	63.94	68.74	56.01
Mathematics N.	1268213	1348528	1306535	1508965	1658357	
%	57.27	47.04	41.95	40.35	50.58	47.44
English N.	1274166	1355725	1307745	1514164	1658887	
%	35.02	41.55	35.13	57.25	58.51	45.50
Average %	43.79	41.74	45.74	49.92	51.32	46.50

Source: WAEC, 2012

KEY

N. = Number of students that sat for the subject

% = Percentage of students that passed with grade 1 – 6 in the subject

Table 1 showed a steady increase in the number of students who sat for WASSCE from 2008 - 2012. The highest increase was in Mathematics from 1, 268, 213 to 1, 658, 357 (390, 148) it was followed by Biology from 1, 259, 965 to 1, 646, 150 (386, 185) candidates, then English from 1, 274, 166 to 1, 658, 887 (384, 721) candidates, which was also followed by Physics from 415, 113 to 624, 658 (209, 545) and Chemistry 418, 423 to 627, 302 (208, 879) candidates.

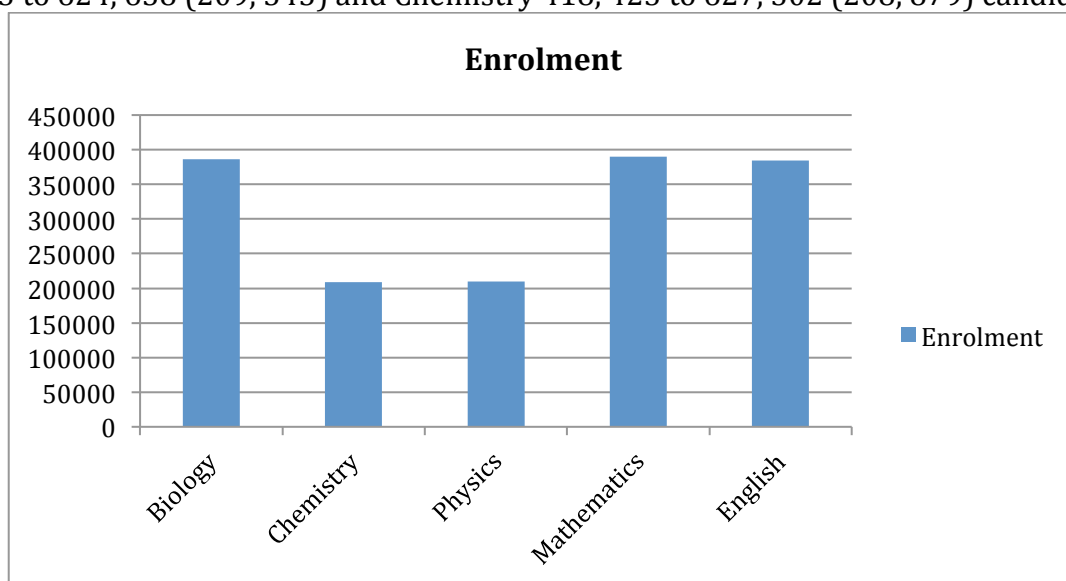


Figure 1: Bar-Chart of trend of increase in the number of secondary school students who sat for WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012

Research Question 2: What is the trend of performance of secondary school students who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?

Result from table 1 indicated a fluctuating performance in all the subjects except that physics recorded a steady increase in students' academic performance and fluctuated only in 2009 (see Figure 1).

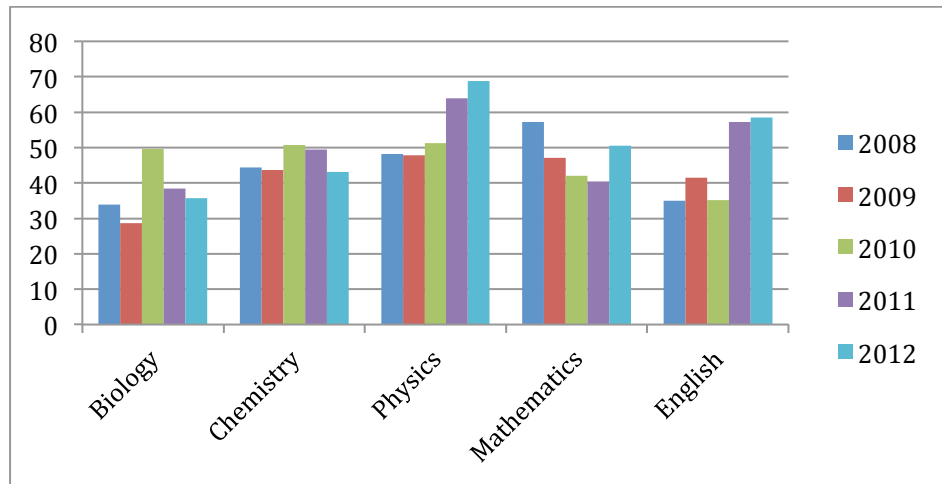


Figure 2: Bar-Chart of percentages of secondary school students who obtained 1 – 6 grade in WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012

Research Question 3: What is the average academic performance of secondary school students per subject who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?

Table 1 also revealed that Physics recorded the best academic performance with mean average of 56.01% followed by English with 52.52%, Mathematics 47.44%, Chemistry 46.30% and the least academic performance was in Biology with 37.27%.

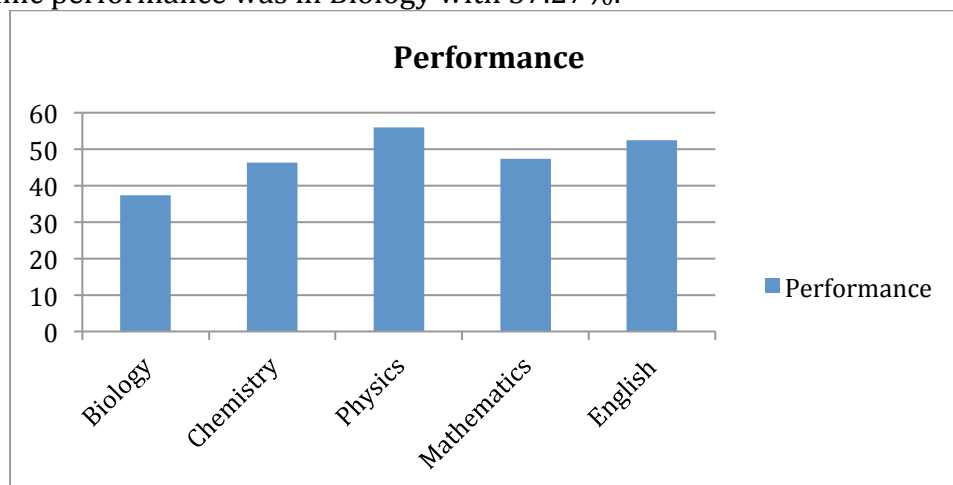


Figure 3: Bar-Chart showing the average academic performance of secondary school students who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics & English from 2008 – 12

Research Question 4: What is the failure rate of secondary school students in WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2010 - 2012? Table 2 is a presentation of the result to the question.

Table 2: Percentage of students failure rate in WASSCE from 2010 - 2012

Subject	2010	% of Failure 2011	2012	Average % Failure	Rank
Biology	22.86	29.34	33.77	28.66	1
Mathematics	27.20	27.95	18.01	24.39	2
Chemistry	21.08	22.82	23.65	22.52	3
English	31.02	18.22	16.44	21.89	4
Physics	18.27	11.76	09.20	13.08	5

Source: WAEC, 2012

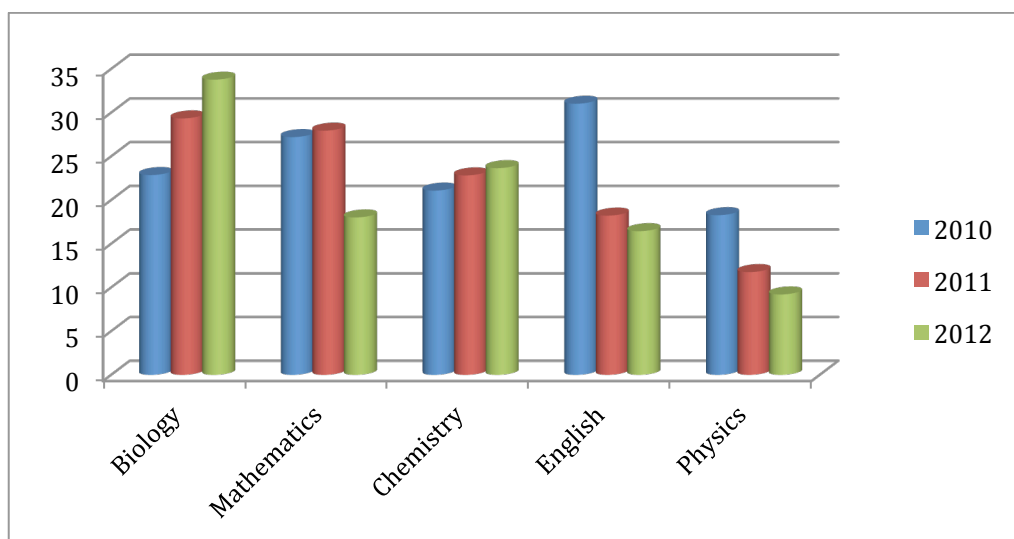


Figure 4: Bar-Chart of the failure rate of secondary school students in WASSCE in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2010 - 2012

The trend of failure rate was decreasing in Physics, English and Mathematics, while an increase in failure rate was recorded for Biology and Chemistry. The highest failure rate of 28.66% was recorded for Biology followed by Mathematics (24.39), Chemistry (22.52), English (21.89) and the least failure rate was in Physics (13.08).

Research Question 5: What is the overall average academic performance of secondary school students who passed WASSCE with grade 1 - 6 in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012?

The overall average academic performance of students in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012 is 46.50% (see Table 1). This is a below average performance and should be of great concern to educationists and other Nigerians.

DISCUSSION

The study found a steady increase in the enrolment of students who sat for May/June WASSCE in Biology Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 - 2012 in Nigeria without a steady increase in the students' academic achievement. These findings are consistent with Alaka and Obadara (2013) who reported poor students' academic performance in all geo-political zones of Nigeria. The increase in enrolment may be attributed to expansion of secondary schools and increased access to school due to Universal Basic Education (UBE) and Education for all Programmes in Nigeria.

The study showed that the best performance of the students was in Physics while the lowest performance was in Biology. This corroborates Ibe and Maduabum (2001) report that candidates performance at the Senior School Certificate Examinations (SSCE) conducted by West African Examination Council have consistently remain poor, with biology having the highest enrolments and the poorest results over the years.

Implications for the Attainment of the Millennium Development Goals

Education is crucial in liberating man from ignorance and the attainment of any vision or goal. Science and technology is the engine room that drives technological development and invariably national development. The abysmal performance of students in science portends danger for the development of Nigeria and the attainment of international reforms such as the Millennium Development Goals. Similarly, poor performance of students in science implies that

less students will pursue higher education in science and science related disciplines and careers.

CONCLUSION

The below average performance of students in Biology, chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English from 2008 to 2012 in Nigeria, suggests that the attainment of the millennium Development Goals by 2015 may be difficult and impossible. Nigeria needs scientists and technologists to grease its wheel of development in science and technology which is an index of the developed nations of the world.

Recommendations

To salvage the dwindling performance of students in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and English in Nigeria, the government should put in place right policies, infrastructure and manpower in order to improve the teaching and learning process. Similarly, new developments and skills currently in use in the field of teaching and learning to secondary school students should be implemented in order to improve the quality of teaching strategies of the teachers as well as improve the learning processes of the students.

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African Migrant Women's Understanding and Construction of Sexuality in Australia

Tinashe Dune

University of Western Sydney
School of Science and Health, Campbelltown, Australia

Virginia Mapedzahama

University of Sydney
Sydney Nursing School, Sydney, Australia

Victor Minichiello

Australian Research Centre in Sex
Health and Society, La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia

Marian Pitts

Australian Research Centre in Sex
Health and Society, La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia

Gail Hawkes, PhD

University of New England
School of Behavioural and Cognitive Social Sciences, Armidale, Australia

Abstract

This paper presents findings from an exploratory study that explored how Shona-Zimbabwean women living permanently in Australia understand and construct sexuality in following migration. Main concepts within sexuality under scrutiny in this paper therefore include: gender, embodiment and intimacy. A core finding of the study presented in this paper is how the Shona-Zimbabwean women primarily constructed sexuality in the framework of gender (womanhood) and thus understood both concepts synonymously. The women perceived that the body and intercourse were culturally constructed as means for procreation only. Intimacy and intercourse for relationship-building were perceived to be Western concepts but became a welcome addition to the migrant women's constructions of sexuality post-migration. This project was informed by feminist methodology and collected data using in-depth, semi-structured focus groups in Adelaide, South Australia from fourteen women aged 29 to 53 years, across four focus groups. A significant contribution of this research is that a better understanding of how sexuality is understood across cultures highlights the relevance, or lack thereof, of Western concepts of sexuality for ageing (African) women. It also brings to question the appropriateness of current policy, service delivery and health promotion in regards to sexual wellbeing in a contemporary and multi-cultural Australia.

Keywords: Africa, Zimbabwe, sexuality, intimacy, cross-cultural, Australia.

INTRODUCTION

According to Benjamin Franklin, the only things certain in life are 'death and taxes'. Perhaps sexuality should also be added to the list of universal certainties (Dune, Mapedzahama & Rahman, 2014). However, unlike death and taxes the parameters and inclusions and therefore constructions and understandings vary from one sociocultural group to another. Further,

cultures are ever-evolving and intermingling especially in the context of migration. As such, the constructions of sexuality from one's mother culture may absorb or influence the culture of the nation to which they migrate. Although this assertion may be generally understood it is rare to find literature which clearly articulates how people from various sociocultural groups construct and understand sexuality. Yet, such an understanding is imperative in the context of health. Without an understanding of how migrant groups in multicultural settings, like Australia, construct sexuality programs aimed at improving and supporting sexual/reproductive health and wellbeing may not be pitched in such a way which invites participants or addresses their key concerns.

Aims and Origins of the Research

Considering that sexuality is such a broad term and therefore encompasses many factors this exploratory study specifically sought to understand how migrant Shona-Zimbabwean women living in Australia constructed gender (e.g., how gender influenced understandings of sexuality), embodiment (e.g., the relevance of the body to sexuality) and intimacy (e.g., the role of intimacy in sexuality). Its inception resulted from an Australian Research Council (ARC) funded Discovery Project (DP110101199) held by the last three authors. The ARC project aimed to explore the impact of ageism and sexism on the first post-liberation generation of women to reach old age. In the course of recruiting participants for the ARC project it was noted that the majority of the women who elected to participate were overwhelmingly Caucasian Australians. The research team felt that the resultant sample was due to an assumption about sexuality which may not apply to all ageing women in Australia – namely that Australian women understood and constructed sexuality in a similar fashion and could thus interpret the foci of the ARC project in similar ways. However, before an exploration of ageism and sexism within experiences and understandings of sexuality in varying ethnic groups could take place it was important to first investigate how sexuality is constructed amongst non-Caucasian Australian women. As such, the research team developed daughter-projects using principles and methods similar to the ARC project which explore the sexual subjectivities amongst ageing African migrants living in Australia (the focus of this paper) as well as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders thereby drawing on diverse samples of women.

The concentration on gender, embodiment and intimacy were chosen as the focus of discussions about contemporary sexuality as they have been cited as the factors which may influence how women relate to sexuality and sexual wellbeing (Fileborn et al., 2014). This understanding came after research from the late twentieth century. During this time sexuality and sexual wellbeing were defined using a functional model that prevailed in sexual studies about men and was also adopted for women under the rubric of 'female sexual dysfunction' (FSD) (Marshall 2006). Further, social psychological and sexological researchers identify key ways in which female sexuality differs conceptually and practically from men (Hartley & Tiefer, 2003; Nusbaum, 2004; Basson et al., 2005). For instance, Loe (2004) purports that "[w]omen's perspectives and opinions are largely absent when it comes to the Viagra phenomenon. Sex is still seen as male terrain, with women being silent partners at best" (2004, p. 303). Loe's participants demonstrated the existence of a sexually subjective realm that existed beyond that identified by the physical performance framework applied to men. In doing so, this research showed that a woman's sexual understanding included how the woman relates to her gender, her body and the link between intimacy and sexual wellbeing. However, non-Western variations must also be recognised because how women from one cultural group understand and construct sexuality can be quite different from another.

As such, this investigation is necessary as it addresses an aspect of migrant well-being largely ignored in the social sciences to date; namely, the role of (cross)cultural understandings of sexuality for migrant women in general and for African women specifically. Doing so can

inform the relevance of these concepts for African women ageing in Australia and highlights the appropriateness of current policy and service delivery in a contemporary and multi-cultural Australia. Further, this project chose to explore the experiences of these women as they are a significant source of cross-cultural and diasporic data on sexuality as many have experienced how constructions of sexuality have shifted overtime. This is highlighted by the evolution of the term sexuality and its relevance in the Shona-Zimbabwean context.

Historical versus Contemporary Context of Sexuality

In the history of written and spoken languages the term 'sexuality' is extremely recent. For instance, in 1789 sexuality was defined as the "action or fact of being sexual" (Etymology Dictionary, 2014). In 1879 it meant the "capability of sexual feelings" and by the 1980's sexuality meant "sexual identity" (Etymology Dictionary, 2014). Considering that the term sexuality is quite recent, and that its meaning has changed over time; it follows that it has different meanings in different cultures. For example, as this paper will highlight, for Shona-Zimbabwean women, traditionally and primarily, their 'sexuality' is understood as linked to their experience(s) of womanhood, wifehood and motherhood. This reorientation in perspective (from the experience of being sexual to the experience of being a woman) highlights two issues: 1) there is little research which has explored how African women understand and construct sexuality and more importantly, 2) there is no one, clear or universal definition of the word sexuality and/or how it relates to women and their sexual wellbeing. As such, an understanding of the role of culture in the construction of sexuality can be informed by theories which focus on the role of sociocultural scripting.

Constructions of Sexuality using Script Theory

In order to understand how understandings of sexuality may influence sexual wellbeing it is important to note the pathways by which sexuality is constructed. This paper draws on research by Simon and Gagnon (1986, 1987, 2003) who found that human sexuality is constructed via public, interactional and private sexual scripts – much in the same way that cultural scripts are the product of public, interactional and private social scripts (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2004).

Public sexual scripts are historical and contemporary constructions created, influenced and reinforced by attitudes and interpretations presented in popular culture and media (Simon & Gagnon, 1986, 1987, 2003). As such, people may be encouraged to engage in sexual activity only with those who are publically prescribed as appropriate (Simon & Gagnon, 1986) - thus, fulfilling interactional schemas of sexuality. Constructions of sexuality can be created through private mental processes which involve inner dialogue (Emerson, 1983). These private mental processes can influence the way individuals internalize sexual scripts and consolidate perceptions and constructions of sexuality. Simon and Gagnon (1986) noted that private sexual scripts are "the symbolic reorganization of reality in ways that makes it complicit in realizing more fully the actor's many-layered and sometimes multicoated wishes" (p. 99).

Privatizations of sexual expectations, behaviour and constructions are bound to public and interactional social scripts (Kant, 1958). In this regard, the ways in which people think about women's sexuality is linked to how it is publically represented (i.e., cultural norms) and how women experience in interactional encounters (i.e., intimate relationships). Considering the many factors which influence how people understand and construct their sexuality, this paper provides new insight into the role of public, interactional and private sexual scripts for Shona-Zimbabwean women in the diaspora.

METHODS

In order to get at the core concepts of sexuality, as understood by the Shona-Zimbabwean migrant women, two of the researchers, Dune and Mapedzahama, both Shona-Zimbabwean migrant women themselves, deconstructed and adapted concepts of sexuality (in relation to embodiment, intimacy and gender). In doing so, the researchers translated as many words and terms as possible into Shona terminology. On occasion many words denoting whole concepts like sexuality, embodiment or intimacy did not have an equivalent and/or succinct Shona translation. As such the focus groups were conducted in both Shona and English. This strategy was highly relevant as Shona people switch between English and Shona within their day-to-day dialogue (Mapedzahama, 2007). In this respect, Shona highlights the manner in which Shona-Zimbabwean women speak about their experiences, feelings and understandings while broader and less personal Western concepts and ideologies - which the Shona women themselves understand through Western ideologies (i.e., a product of colonialism and a colonial, westernised education system) - were discussed in English.

Research Design

This project engaged qualitative design informed by feminist methodology (reference). Such methodology has proved successful in garnering phenomenological experiences from women of various backgrounds and was therefore the methodology of choice for this exploratory study. Data collection was conducted in August 2012 in Adelaide, South Australia and consisted of fourteen women across four focus groups. The focus groups took from two and a half hours to just over four hours each to complete - more time than initially predicted.

Focus group discussions explored a broad range of concepts including: 1) what it is like being a Shona-Zimbabwean woman in Australia versus Zimbabwe (cross-cultural understandings of gender), 2) how the women felt about how their bodies looked, were perceived and worked over time (embodiment), and 3) how the women experienced sexually intimate relationships (intimacy, embodiment, sexual function/performance, gender) including their role in sexually intimate relationships and how has their role changed (if at all) since being in Australia. The current paper will specifically address and present data pertaining to the third topic discussed in the focus groups.

Data Analysis

The data were analysed for content by identifying topics and substantive categories within participants' accounts in relation to the study's objectives. In addition, Nvivo 10 was used to ascertain topical responses and emergent substantive categories, coding particularly for word repetition, direct and emotional statements and discourse markers including intensifiers, connectives and evaluative clauses.

Recruitment

Participants were recruited via free plain-English advertisements through newsletters, mailing list updates and websites of Mapedzahama's existing networks which include: 1) African Studies Association of Australasia and the Pacific, 2) African Women in Australia Inc., and 3) African Professional Australia. We also employed convenience sampling to draw women from our personal contacts.

Ethics approval for the study was granted by the University of New England's Human Research Ethics Committee.

Sample

Recruitment resulted in a sample of fourteen women, between the ages of 28 and 53 (see table 1). Notably, all but one woman had completed a tertiary qualification and all were employed professionals. All the women had children and the majority had three children. All but one

participant had been married, three of whom had divorced or separated from their partners and another woman was widowed. Ten of the women were 40 years of age or older and all had migrated to Australia within the last 15 years (between 1999 and 2008). Reasons for migration were varied with the majority being linked to the perception of better opportunities available in Australia.

RESULTS

The data from the focus groups produced rich and interesting insights into how Shona-Zimbabwean migrant women understand and construct sexuality. The following section provides examples of how the women defined sexuality, the role their bodies played within a sexual context and how intimacy was viewed or experienced within Shona-Zimbabwean culture.

Constructs and Understanding of Sexuality

In order to explore how the women first understood the concept sexuality they were asked how they would describe the concept using the Shona language and within the Shona-Zimbabwean context. Initially the women's responses seemed very decisive and clear.

I would say, hukadzi (womanhood)

We think the Zimbabwean women. Sexuality might mean something to do with women in general.

When asked what the word sexuality meant in Shona-Zimbabwean culture many women seemed very sure about gender as a prime feature.

V3: Or as a gender.

V1: Gender, sex, maybe health wise.

Virginia & Tinashe : Umm umm umm.

V1: Yet in Zimbabwe probably we had something similar, but maybe we didn't understand what it really means when we say sexuality.

Virginia: What is it similar in Zimbabwe.

Tinashe: Yes, Yes.

V3: They were doing gender, gender, gender.

V1: (talking in the background) Gender.

When asked to further explain what they meant by gender with respect to sexuality the women described the context which has influenced the way they construct and understand sexuality as a concept. Interestingly, these descriptions demonstrated the cultural nature of constructions of sexuality.

Talking about sexuality in African women and Shona, I was like is that word up? Do we have a vocabulary like that in our culture?

Do we even acknowledge sexuality as that way? Sexuality the way the Westerners call it? I didn't find that we describe the word the same.

Even with the Western culture it's something that is new. Before I think it's all to do with you know, women being liberated, before we never used to have this word sexuality.

Only after independence...It's a new thing sexuality, you know. It's developing now.

Although the women had identified what sexuality meant to them in Shona-Zimbabwean culture, the evolution of sexuality as a concept in Western culture and its recent debut, there

was still confusion about what the concept actually meant. In one focus group the discussion went as follows:

- V1: We didn't understand what it really means when we say sexuality.
 V3: So I get confused between gender and sexuality. Those two.
 Tinashe: What do you think might be the difference?
 V3: Gender is more of you know; are you a girl or a woman
 V1: (Interrupting correcting her) Boy
 V3: Boy, your sex and what have you, but sexuality then...
 V2: Doesn't it encompass, sexuality encompass gender as well?
 Tinashe: Does it?
 V1: I think so
 V2: (Agreeing) I don't know. That's my understanding my thinking
 V1: Or maybe with your project which way do you want us to take it?
 Virginia: We want you to take it as you understand it. There is no right or wrong answer
 V1: Myself I'm still thinking gender describes whether you are boy or a girl but sexuality explores your feelings in your personhood.
 V2: Whether you are man or a woman, your feelings and emotions and yeah.
 Tinashe: But feeling and emotions about?
 V2: Your feelings and emotions about who you are...
 V3: (In the background) sex (laughing)
 V2: And about sex, and about
 V5: (talking in the background) Family
 V2: Family health in your person
 V4: It's more holistic

From this section of the focus groups it is clear that the women do understand that sexuality, as defined in Western cultures, is multifaceted and includes tangible and relatively intangible elements.

66h jhEmbodiment: The role of the woman's body

The women were also asked about how they perceived their bodies with respect to sexuality. Participants unanimously indicated that the female body was socially constructed, in Shona-Zimbabwean culture, as an object for one's husband and primarily for procreation.

It is about the husbands...

Your role and duties as a woman in the Shona culture is to bear children, look after and please your man, look after the household and the welfare of your children.

When it comes to sex, it's sex to have children that's all.

Following a discussion where one of the women described a situation where her relatives had insisted she stop taking a shower with her husband as it was perceived by the community to be undignified the group responded:

Tinashe: It's not just that you have to please the husband you have to please the relatives.

V4: Yes

Tinashe: And other people's families. So your sexuality and your body isn't just your husband's.

V1: No no no no the community.

V5: The community.

V1: At large.

V5: The people around you.

Tinashe: So who does your husband's body belong to?

[Silence]

V6: To me.

V1: To no one according to African culture.

[All laughing]

V1: He can do whatever he wants like for example, for me, if I sleep around [act like a prostitute] I would be an embarrassment. Everyone would just reduce me to that and that would be it. So men can sleep around and people would say 'Aha, that's what men do'.

Tinashe: Ohh so he is allowed to do it.

V1: Yes they are allowed to do it. So then his body is his but mine now belongs to him

Tinashe : And [sexual] satisfaction is his as well. So he has his enjoyment and he has his own body, but your body belongs to him and the community and your enjoyment belongs to him, is for him.

V1: Yes, it's for him.

Tinashe: Ummm.

Upon reflecting on the male and female body some women put the idea of a woman's body as belonging to her husband in a biblical, and more equal, context. The following focus group discussion highlights the advantages and realities to understanding the woman's body in biblical and cultural terms.

V1: Also going back to that of the church as well. You find that; sorry this is one part I wanted to talk about, that the bible says that a woman, your body is for your husband and your husband his body is for his wife.

V3: (Agreeing in the background) is for you as well.

V1: Which means; that means if we are intimate I am his and he is mine.

Virginia: But, in reality what we were talking about, that a woman is the one who is (interrupted)

V1: (Interrupting) in reality yes

Virginia: The husband then goes to do his things like an elephant

V1: I know. That is outside the bible.

Virginia: Therefore, culture and religion clash.

V1: Exactly

V4: It depends with whether he follows religion or the African way.

Virginia: Ahh, ok.

The 'African way' is further scrutinized by one participant who recounts a story of how the importance of having children was demonstrated and accomplished by any means necessary.

Always ready to have sex if he wants it or demands it; even if you are not interested or in the mood. He would rape you, and there is nothing you can do about it. Nowadays the man would be arrested if the woman reported him to the police. Some men depending on how much addicted to sex they were; they would demand to have sex even if you were having your period. Ha! If he is incapable of having children (impotent) (of-course him and his family/relative would blame the woman and if they know that he falls short in that area); the elders - his aunts etc. would collaborate with the woman's aunts, that is if they want them to stay together; they would arrange that at night one of the man's cousin and/or, brother come and have sex with the woman in order to produce children (top family secret). So you Guys you see, a woman was totally regarded as nothing and/or slave.

Such an account was one of the more intense examples of how women's bodies were valued for their physiological abilities. Such a process however begs the question of how women felt about such traditional norms.

Intimacy...or the lack thereof

Understanding sexuality also encompasses how an individual experiences their sexuality. In line with the research aims the women were asked about the role of intimacy in their construction of sexuality. The women's comments indicate that admissions and publicising of one's intimacy with their partners was culturally frowned upon.

V1: And back home there is no intimacy, you cannot hold your hand and people will be like "ahh" unlike here they can sit there and yeah. Even in the kitchen they are together; even when you are at home when you greet him and you hug him people will be like why is she hugging him.

Virginia: So, how do you show intimacy then in Zimbabwe?

V1: There isn't?

V3: Because it is like [traditional clapping hands greeting gesture], Good Morning in a traditional manner. Even to your husband.

[All agreeing]

V2: It is a social greeting that shows respect. Yes.

V3: No hugging and kissing.

V3: Yes, or you kneel on the ground

Virginia: To your father. Is it?

V1: My husband, I was told by my mother-in-law when I called him by [his first] name. "Who are you calling; who are you calling? Say father or someone's father".

V3: So, you do not call by [first] name, it is not dignified; calling him saying 'John'

V3 Yes, definitely he is father. People actually say father.

V2 He is father to your kids. And he will call you mama/mother as well he won't call you by your first name.

V3 "Mai Rufaro (Rufaro's mother)" "Baba (Father)"! or [women would call their husbands] "Shewe (my Lord)".

In another focus group the women's discussion revealed similar sentiments about the context within which intimacy could exist.

Tinashe: How would intimacy, so kissing, touching, holding hands, those things.

V1: When you're in your bedroom then you can kiss.

V1: But when you're in there (interrupted)

V2: (interrupting) my children say 'Mama you never kiss daddy'. But it's not like you don't kiss, but where do you kiss?

Virginia: So they don't see, the child doesn't see.

V2: So they don't see and when it comes out anywhere you're holding each other in the street, you're holding each other where, at our house I (interrupted)

V1: (Interrupting) When I came here I would feel really embarrassed seeing people walking and holding each other in the street. So much so that even knowing that people were kissing, my God! I would look down because they embarrassed me.

Tinashe: Really

V1: Eh-hey.

Tinashe: Why?

V1: I'm getting used to it. They would say you're a prostitute. You want to show everyone that you lust after each other. You show that in the bedroom. So I'm thinking I'm right there in the daylight and they're starting.

Tinashe: So in public you are being sexual...

[All agreeing]: Yes!

Tinashe: So no one is supposed to see. Your children are not supposed to see, other people are not supposed to see it.

V1: No, you do that in your bedroom.

V6: Me ahh! Myself from the family that I grew up, because they were Christians the only thing they would kiss for is when they greet and then...

Virginia: You'd be told

[Laughing]

V6: You would never see them again, holding hands, or kissing.

V4: Or only when they get married.

V5: Yaa wedding day.

[All laughing]

Virginia: First and last.

V7: I saw it so fascinating people kissing during weddings.

V4: That's the only time you ever see.

V6: (Agreeing) That's the only time you ever see.

Virginia: And socially sanctioned to...

[All agreeing]: umm umm!

Another group of women indicated that intimacy was a normal part of their sexual lives. However, displays of intimacy were mediated depending on the location and culture the women inhabited.

V6: So I think this culture will keep on going and our children will never see mum and dad kissing when they see you kissing it's when you have a function.

[All agreeing and laughing]

V3: As for me, me and my husband used to kiss in the house when my daughter was around, but not outside where there are many people, but in the house we used to kiss each other because she has to know that we are, mum and dad they kiss. If she sees it outside she has to know that even my mum and dad they kiss.

V6: It's normal.

V5: That's normal.

Tinashe: The intimacy is normal.

V3: But not in front of people it's not.

Tinashe: So would you and your husband hold hands in public?

V3: Yes, at the shops, we used to.

Virginia: In Zimbabwe?

V3: Not in Zimbabwe, only here.

Tinashe: Why not in Zimbabwe?

V4: You'd be [scared] from doing so.

V2: People would say she's fed that man a love potion [poison].

Virginia: (Laughing hard in excitement)

Tinashe: (Surprised) Really?

V2: They would say the man was being given a potent love potion [poison]!

Tinashe: Why?

V2: You don't walk holding hands with a woman.

In this excerpt the women indicate that having migrated into another culture allows the women to construct and engage with intimacy differently in Australia than they would in Zimbabwe. Sanctions on intimacy in favour of what seemed like dignified public behaviour,

and avoiding embarrassment or the presumption that one was promiscuous, was also relayed in the following story referred to in the earlier section on embodiment:

V4: (Interrupting) and another thing is that this thing is just deep for our culture. I remember one, because myself I lived in the village for a long time with my husband, because that time that we started living in the village and we, during the evening when myself and my husband go in the bathroom and have shower together, after a few days my mother-in-law called me and said its embarrassing you can't shower.

[Others laughing]

V2: And yet we sleep together so what about showing

Tinashe: Yes

V4: They don't want to see us going in the shower and shower together

Tinashe: Why?

[All answer – with same answer]: it's embarrassing!

V5: It's really embarrassing

Tinashe: Then your sexuality, because then you have a sexuality – It's clear.

[Laughing in the background and talking in chaos]

Tinashe: That you are both naked, enjoying the shower together.

V4: For sure we stopped.

Tinashe: Really?

V4: We had to stop

Tinashe: So you were enjoying it, you and your husband

V4: We were enjoying it but we had to stop. My husband would go shower himself and I would go and shower myself [laughing].

These focus group extracts demonstrate that intimacy, as the women understood it, was not constructed as a relevant part of their sexual relationships. Instead demonstrations of respect through traditional practices were of particular salience to the maintenance of traditional values and roles.

DISCUSSION

This exploratory study explored how Shona-Zimbabwean women living permanently in Australia understand and construct sexuality in the context of migrancy. This investigation sought to better understand the role of cross-cultural understandings of sexuality in sexual wellbeing for African migrant women. Key concepts within sexuality under scrutiny included: gender, embodiment and intimacy. The data suggests that sexuality cannot be divorced from what it essentially means to be a woman. The indistinct nature of how these women constructed and understood sexuality is akin to that in other cultural groups in Australia – primarily Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders – who have historically embraced the sanctity of women's and men's business (Campbell & Brown, 2004). Within women's business aspects of sexuality are defined in relation to one's biological, sociological and community roles - which cannot and should not be pulled apart (Bell, 1998). Whilst moving to Australia may have revealed another culturally specific (or Western) construction of sexuality (and thus womanhood) these women did not seem to have integrated these constructions into their everyday experiences, understandings and expectations of sexuality, their bodies and all aspects of intimacy. The expanse of data which resulted from the up to four hour long focus groups provides rich insights into the extent to which the women took on a cross-cultural approach to womanhood and sexual wellbeing and will be presented in forthcoming publications.

As mentioned, the development of Western sexual health and wellbeing frameworks are relatively recent. Within such frameworks sexuality is dissected and deconstructed in order for

the individual to better identify each area and those which may require care and attention. Sexuality is partially understood as the ways in which people use their bodies to enact their sexual desires – sexual behaviour (Moore & Rosenthal, 2006). In this sense, sexual behaviour seems to imply an element of agency which these women indicate is not how they perceive sexuality to be constructed or experienced. This was exemplified, for instance, by their perception that women's bodies are used for procreation and for the sexual satisfaction of their husbands. As such, the only area in which issues may be legitimised is reproductive health. Shona-Zimbabwean culture may thus stigmatise seeking help for intimacy or sexual satisfaction concerns as an admission of sociocultural sexual deviancy.

Although distinguishing the many and imbued areas of sexuality have proven beneficial in the development of programs to improve sexual health and wellbeing outcomes amongst Western women of all ages (Sheerin, 2000), women from non-Euro(self)-centered cultures may be confused about the role or benefit of sexual health and wellbeing programs. Although these educated and skilled women clearly have the propensity for being able to understand and intellectually navigate concepts outlined by Western frameworks sexuality remained unclear and somewhat intangible to them.

The findings from this exploratory study also corroborate the validity of sexual script theory which purports that sexuality is constructed from public, interpersonal and private scripts (Simon & Gagnon, 1986, 1987, 2003). This is noted from the fact that culture, a product of public, interpersonal and private social scripts (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2004) had such a great influence on these women's understanding of sexuality; from how they would (and were expected to) behave in public especially with regard to their sexual partners to how they defined gender and sexuality. As such, future research would benefit from the maintenance of sexual script theory at its foundation and/or analysis to better understand the role and influence of (cross)culture on sexuality for African migrant women.

Conceptually this research offers support for diverse and various understandings of sexuality as influenced by culture. As such, the recent construction of sexuality in Western contexts or the term sexuality cannot be used without scrutiny. Doing so would assume a generic and global interpretation of the term which may in fact exclude or demean other ways of engaging with the concept. Much like global feminisms, sexuality, which is influenced by social and cultural contexts, should be explored as varying and dynamic especially within multicultural countries like Australia. From this however a key issue arises. Considering the recent nature of the term sexuality it is perhaps likely that ageing women from various backgrounds living in Australia may not define or understand sexuality in the way that it has been constructed in the last 30 to 40 years. This may mean then that due to the influence of religion and socio-political factors which promoted clear sex roles and relegated women to domestic duties women over 45 in Australia may be more likely to construct sexuality in terms of womanhood than not. As such, constructions of sexuality may be more likely a result of one's generation over one's culture. More research on what influences constructions of sexuality are these required to clarify the origins of women's understanding irrespective of culture.

LIMITATIONS

This exploratory study unearthed several interesting and previously undocumented understandings with regards to cross-cultural constructions and understandings of sexuality. The study has also highlighted key areas which require further consideration and investigation. Most pertinently the participants were all well-educated and many were nurses indicating an extensive and contemporary understanding of sexuality from many perspectives due to exposure to how others navigate relationships and sexual health/wellbeing via

patient/client interaction. While these aspects of the sample helped the researchers to identify key concepts in relation to sexual wellbeing across cultures it is not representative of the many non-White migrants who may not have high levels of education, who do not speak English with enough fluency to attain mainstream employment, who do not prescribe to Christianity (which is the most popular religion in Australia and is the Eurocentric foundation upon which many Australian systems were historically founded) and are viewed as social outsiders/others by the general Australian public. People in these migrant groups may have a different configuration of views on sexuality and may have difficulty navigating health and wellbeing systems which are Eurocentric and contrary their spectrum of knowledge.

CONCLUSION

A better understanding of how sexuality is understood across (and within) cultures highlights the potentially limited relevance of Western concepts of sexuality for ageing African migrant women. Whilst there is still much to investigate and disseminate (publications forthcoming) in regards to this research it is clear that there are stories which have yet to be heard. This is highlighted by the fact that while the focus groups were predicted to take an hour and a half to two hours they in fact ranged from two and a half hours to just over four hours. This indicates that these women had much to say on their understandings and constructions of sexuality. As with many exploratory topics about women, their health and their wellbeing, silence and lack of opportunity to give voice to integral parts of womanhood remain hidden or under-represented. This is often the case with non-White migrant women (De Souza, 2004). If African migrant women's voices and understandings are not being included in the development of services the appropriateness and implications of policy, service delivery and health promotion in regards to sexual health and wellbeing must be questioned.

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Effect of Work-Family Conflict and Job Satisfaction on Quality of Work Life

OWOLABI Ademola Benjamin

Department Of Psychology
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti

ABSTRACT

This study attempted to investigate the effect of work-family conflict and job satisfaction on quality of work life. Data were obtained from two hundred (200) respondents in which one hundred and eighty-nine was found valid for analysis. The respondent used consists of (100) female workers and (89) male workers both in the public and private sectors, respondents reside and work in Ado-Ekiti. Three instruments were used in this study to measure work-family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life. Three hypotheses were tested. This study shows that there is a significant effect of work-family conflict and job satisfaction on quality of work life, but there are no significant sex differences in work-family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

Key words: Quality of work life, Job satisfaction, Work – family conflict, Organisation

INTRODUCTION

A high quality of work life is essential for organizations to continue to attract and retain employees. Sometimes abbreviated QWL, quality of work life is quick phrase that encompasses a lot, because it refers to the thing an employer does that adds to the lives of employees. Those “things” are some combination of benefits explicit and implied, tangible and intangible that make somewhere good place to work and another a bad place to work. In an organization, a high level of quality of work life is necessary to continue to attract and retain employees. Rethinam and Ismai (2006), reviewed different researches about meanings and constructs of quality of work life and designated that quality of work life is a multi-dimensional construct and is made of a number of inter-related factors. Quality of work life is a set of principles which holds that people are the most important resource in the organisation as they are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making valuable contribution and they should be treated with dignity and respect (Straw and Heckscher, 1984). Quality of work life entails the design of work systems that enhance the working life experiences of organizational members, thereby improving commitment to and motivation for achieving organizational goals.

Organizations are continuously looking for new ways of doing business in order to meet the challenges of today’s dynamic business environment. Given the amount of time and energy people expend at the workplace, it is important for employees to be satisfied about their life at work. Glass & Finley, (2002), Van der Lippe, (2007) argued that time pressure is a serious problem in today’s workforce, with ever-increasing numbers of workers bearing major responsibilities at home and meeting higher job expectations and heavier demands at work. A mismatch between family and work roles can be disadvantageous for both employees and employers. In fact as early as 1960’s researchers had begun to study and connect the dots between work and family. Numerous researcher such as Greenhaus and Powell, (2006), Owolabi and Babalola (2014) demonstrate that what happened in the workplace have significant impact on individuals and their families. Researchers have shown that the combination of a fluctuating work environment with competing job and family commitments

has negatively affect employees in the form of lowered morale and motivation, reduced productivity, and increased burnout and turnover. Moreover the inability of employee to balance the equally challenging demands of their work and personal life has contributed to the escalating stress and conflict of today's workforce, this in turn leads to significant rise in stress related health problem, which translates to financial cost both to the employer as well as the government.

These days, for an organization to be successful and achieve its organizational objectives it is imperative that its employees are satisfied with their work, since work occupies an important place in many people's lives, such conditions are likely to affect not only their physical but also a high level of social, psychological and spiritual well-being. It is well established in various researches that employees with a high level of psychological well-being are better, more committed, and more productive than employees with a low level of psychological well-being. Nonetheless, Chan and Wyatt 2007, Srivastava (2007) suggest that employees are likely to have higher wellbeing if they are satisfied with their work and organization and they perceive their quality of work life positively, since an employee's experiences in the workplace and his/her quality of work life influence his/her health and psychological well-being.

The success of any organization is highly dependent on how it attracts recruits, motivates, and retains its workforce. In the search for improved productivity, manager and executives alike are discovering the important contribution of quality of work life. The evolution of quality of work life began in late 1960s where, during this time the focus was on the quality of the relationship between the worker and the working environment.

A review of literature according to Chandrashu (2012) shows that there are twelve important factors that enhance the quality of employee work life especially when the management of an organisation works towards the development of organization's most valuable assets (employees). The factors include the following: effective and efficient communication system, opportunity for career development and personal growth, organizational committed and emotional supportive supervisor, flexible work arrangement that permit employee to have time for personal issues, a responsive family culture, a highly design employee motivation system, supportive organizational climate, organizational support system, job satisfaction; adequate rewards and benefits system and compensation.

Job Satisfaction

Research indicates that employee satisfaction is important to an organisation's success. Job satisfaction is a widely studied construct in organisational behaviour as it influences other organisational variables like productivity, turnover and absenteeism. Atchison (1999) states that many organisations are spending much time on employee satisfaction initiatives in an effort to reduce turnover, improve productivity and to help organisations succeed. Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) maintain that the popularity of this field of study is also due to its relevance to the physical and mental well-being of employees. Furthermore, Robbins (2005) postulates that managers have a humanistic responsibility to provide employees with jobs that are challenging, rewarding and satisfying. According to Alavi and Askaripur (2003), there are at least three reasons why managers must focus on the job satisfaction of its employees;

- Evidence suggests that unsatisfied individuals leave organisations.
- Satisfied employees are in better health and have longer life expectancy. Connolly and Myers (2003) further maintain that a lack of job satisfaction has been associated with symptoms like anxiety, depression and poor physical and psychological health, which have concomitant consequences for absenteeism and commitment.

- Job satisfaction in the workplace also affects individuals' private lives which in turn has an effect on absenteeism and other important work-related attitudes and behaviour.

Rhodes & Steers (1990) list seven factors related to the job situation that could lead to increased job satisfaction, namely, job scope, job level, role stress, size of the work group, style of the leader, co-worker relations and the opportunity for advancement. Job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by factors of the job environment as well as dispositional characteristics of an individual. These factors have been arranged according to two dimensions, namely, extrinsic and intrinsic factors (Buitendach & De Witte 2005). The extrinsic factors include things like pay, promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision and recognition. Intrinsic factors include personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age and marital status (Mullins, 1999). Extrinsic sources of job satisfaction are determined by conditions that are beyond the control of the employee (Atchison, 1999). The following have been discovered to affect job satisfaction namely, pay, the job itself, promotion opportunities, supervision, co-workers, working conditions and the issue of fairness

Work family conflict

Managing the conflict between family and work obligations is an important issue. The demands of family and work pose critical challenges to individuals, researchers, and organisations. In Malaysia, the percentage of women in tertiary education and, consequently, in professional roles has been rising steadily. In 1990, 45.7% of women were in tertiary education (Department of Statistics, Malaysia 1992) compared with 38.6% in 1980 (Department of Statistics, Malaysia 1983). Of the economically active population, 10.7% of women were in professional, technical and related occupations in 1992 (Department of Statistics, Malaysia 1994) compared with 4.8% in 1970 (Department of Statistics, Malaysia 1972). With these changing demographics; women have to deal with job-related demands which place limits on the performance of their family role. This trend results in work-family conflict as women try to cope with conflicting demands of work and the family (Aminah 1995). In Nigeria, men have traditionally played the role of breadwinner in the family while the women stay back to take care of the home front with little or no formal job but things have change drastically with more women become career person just like their husband. To Aryee (1999), the increased participation of married women in the labor force in the US and other industrialized countries has led to a growing realization that the work and family domains are highly interdependent. He observes that adults in dual earner and single parent households must constantly strive to balance work and family requirements.

The growing number of dual career couples and working mothers with young children has made it more likely that both men and women have both family and work obligations. With the shifts in family and work domains, individuals must face and adapt to the inter-role conflict (Frone and Rice, 1987). Family-work conflict is a source of pressure, and can cause problems with health, work performance, hereby affecting the quality of work life of the individual involved. According to Greenhaus & Beutel in 1985, these changes have led to considerable scholarship on work and families, including research on work-family conflict. Family-work conflict has been associated with a number of dysfunctional outcomes (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1990), decreased family and occupational well-being (Kinnunen and Mauno, 1998), and job and life dissatisfaction (Netermeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Netermeyer, et al (1996) observes that work and family are two important domains that are not compatible and that there are usually conflicts between the two domains. The domain flexibility hypothesis predicts that the work domain is a greater source of conflict than the family domain for both men and women. The domain salience hypothesis predicts that the family domain is a greater source of conflict for women and the work domain a greater source of conflict for men (Izraeli 1988).

Research shows that participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other (Greenhaus & Beutel, 1985). Conflict between work and family is important for organizations and individuals because it is linked to negative consequences. For example, conflict between work and family is associated with increased absenteeism, increased turnover, decreased performance, and poorer physical and mental health. Researchers make the distinction between what is termed work-family conflict, and what is termed family-work conflict. Work-to-family conflict occurs when experiences at work interfere with family life, like extensive, irregular, or inflexible work hours, work overload and other forms of job stress, interpersonal conflict at work, extensive travel, career transitions, unsupportive supervisor or organization. For example, working long hours may prevent adequate performance of family responsibilities. Family demands may also interfere with work, e.g., a child's illness may prevent attendance at work or school. Understanding the points of view and interpreting the emotional state and behavior of others depend on the ability to deal with the emotions aroused by social interaction, and are developed from information use (Welsh and Bierman, 2002).

Voydanoff (1988) posits that meeting the often incompatible demands of family and work may create family-work conflict. Dorren (2009) discovered that long work hours and the relative absence of organizational family life combine to create conflict between family responsibilities and work school with particular reference to the married male and female postgraduate students in the Faculty of Education, University Ibadan. The researcher has observed signs of worry and stress among students, especially the working parents. Some are not regular in class attendance; some even come to the lecture-room with babies, assignments were not done and submitted at the right time. All these were the result of the multiple role pressure on working students, which affects both their academic and social competence.

In the last few decades, scholars studying work-family conflict have accumulated ample evidence that work-family conflict is an important and pervasive phenomenon, with unfavorable consequences, such as stress (Allen 2000), job dissatisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), lowered performance and commitment, and turnover (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). As a consequence, prevention of work-family conflict is becoming an increasingly pressing problem for companies. In this work the aim is to investigate how work-family conflict and job satisfaction affect quality of work life.

Hypothesis to be tested

1. There will be a significant effect of work-family conflict on quality of work life.
2. There will be a significant effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life.
3. There will be a significant effect of sex on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

METHODS

Research design

A survey research using the independent group design was used for the study. This was achieved through the administration of a carefully controlled questionnaire.

Participants

The sample used in this study comprises of one hundred and eighty-nine (189) participants, ninety-one (91) from public sector and ninety-eight (98) from private sector. The sample population is made up of one hundred female (100) and eighty-nine (89) male. Workers in the public sectors including teachers, medical doctors nurses and also workers in private sector including private school teachers, medical doctors and nurses of private hospitals, They are all residents and working in Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State.

Instruments

Three main psychological constructs were measured using self-report instruments. Questionnaire with section A-D was administered to participants. Section A of the questionnaire contains the demographic information of the participants, questions relating to occupation- respondents were asked to specify their occupation as either working in the public sector or private sector, respondents were also asked to indicate their gender, age and educational qualification.

Section B contains an instrument used for measuring quality of work life called The Leiden Quality of Work life Scale developed by Margot and Stan (1999). The Leiden Quality of Work Life Scale was constructed to assess work characteristics from two influential occupational stress models, the Job Demand Control Support model (Johnson & Hall, 1988; Johnson, 1989; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and the Michigan model (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison & Pinneau, 1975). It measures 12 work characteristics, namely, skill discretion, decision authority, task control, work and time pressure, role ambiguity, physical exertion, hazardous exposure, job insecurity, lack of meaningfulness, social support from supervisor and social support from coworkers and the outcome variable of job satisfaction.

The correlations between the scales indicated that some scales were very strongly related to one another. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis, however, and the different correlations of the control concepts with the other work characteristics, gave good reason to view them as separate, though related concepts. The equal between factor correlations was .87 to .88. The validity of the questionnaire can thus be seen as satisfactory. The internal reliability of the scales was assessed by means of Cronbach alpha. The model includes 59 items, measuring 12 factors. Although the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Non normed Fit Index (NNFI) were still somewhat below the recommended criterion (.90), the RMSEA indicates a good fit of the model. The alpha coefficient of QWL as measured by the LQWLQ was .86.

Section C contains an instrument for measuring work and family conflict called Work Family Conflict Scale (WFC). It was designed by Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian (1996) to measure the relationship between work and family conflict and family and work conflict among individuals in working population. In terms of reliability, Chung et al. (2004) reported coefficient alphas ranging from .87 to .91 for country of origin subscale and .76 to .81 for European American subscale. Test-retest reliability for the two subscales were reported to be .89 and .78 respectively. Reliability data for the domain subscales ranged from .76 to .87 for language, .65 to .71 for food consumption, .67 to .89 for cultural knowledge, and .74 to .79 for cultural identity for the acculturation and enculturation measures. According to Netemeyer et al. (1996), the internal consistencies of both scales are adequate, with alpha estimates ranging from .83 to .89, and an average alpha of .88 for WFC, and of .86 for FWC).

Section D contains job satisfaction scale which was used for measuring the level of satisfaction an individual has as regards to his job. The Generic Job Satisfaction Scale was designed by Scott MacDonald and Peter MacIntyre (1997) to measure job satisfaction. The Chronbach's alpha reliability for this scale is ($\alpha = .77$). The diversity of item themes likely reduced the reliability coefficient. However, a diversity of items is consistent with the intent to include the relevant facets of job satisfaction of what was been measured.

A t-test revealed no significant difference between males and females. A one way ANOVA revealed no significant differences between different occupational groups. However, a significant effect was found for age group ($p < .001$). Correlations were computed between the scale scores and variables representing characteristics of the job and measures of workplace affect. All items of the scale were above the traditional cut-off value of .30, the job satisfaction

scale was significantly correlated with variables measuring factors outside the workplace, correlations were also computed with variables representing affective reactions to life in general such that the highest correlation was observed between job satisfaction and perhaps the most general measure of general measure of affectively, "I feel happy" ($r^2 = .37$). These results coupled with those observed for variables within the workplace, support the validity of the scale and demonstrate the potentially pervasive effects of satisfaction with one's job.

Procedure for data collection

The subjects were selected and administered questionnaires at their various workplace, because there was no special place set aside for this purpose, the difficult items were discussed with the respondents and they were also informed that the data is for research purpose. Two hundred subjects participated in the study while one hundred and eighty-nine was found valid for analysis.

Method of data analysis

Four hypotheses were tested in this study. Independent t-test was used in analyzing the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Hypothesis one which states that there will be a significant effect of work-family conflict on quality of work life was tested using the independent t-test. The result is presented in the table below.

Table 4.1: independent t-test table showing the effect of work-family conflict on quality of work life.

Variable	Level	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	P
Work Family Conflict	High	102	26.48	4.97	187	4.37	< 0.05
	Low	87	38.07	3.58			

From Table 4.1above, the result shows that there is a significant effect of work family conflict on quality of work life $t(187) = 4.37, p < .05$. A closer look at the mean score reveals that employee with higher experience of work family conflict have lower level of quality of work life as compared to employees with lower experience of work family conflict.

Hypothesis two which states that there will be a significant effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life was tested using the independent t-test. The result is presented in the table below.

Table 4.2: independent t-test table showing the effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life.

Variable	Level	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	P
Job satisfaction	High	76	35.97	6.58	187	7.67	< 0.05
	Low	113	163.07	4.58			

From Table 4.2 above, the result shows that there is a significant effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life $t(187) = 7.67, p < .05$. A closer look at the mean score reveals that employee with higher experience of job satisfaction have higher level of quality of work life as compared to employees with lower experience of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis three which states that there will be a significant effect of sex on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life was tested using the independent t-test. The result is presented in the table below.

Table 4.3: independent t-test table showing the effect of sex on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	P
Work family conflict	Male	89	25.99	9.17	187	0.19	>.05
	Female	100	26.90	8.86			
Quality of work life	Male	89	161.46	32.29	187	0.82	>.05
	Female	100	164.75	22.69			
Job satisfaction	Male	89	35.98	9.20	187	0.04	>.05
	Female	100	35.92	10.00			

From Table 4.3 above, the results shows that there are no significant sex differences in the perception of work-family conflict $t(187) = 0.19$ $p > .05$, quality of work life $t(187) = 0.82$ $p > .05$ and job satisfaction $t(187) = 0.04$ $p > .05$. The hypothesis is therefore rejected. This implies that there is no significant effect of gender on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

DISCUSSION

Hypothesis one which states that there will be a significant effect of work-family conflict on quality of work life was tested using independent t-test. The results show there is a significant effect of work-family conflict on quality of work life. The hypothesis is therefore confirmed. The result reveals that employees with higher experience of work-family conflict have poor quality of work life. This finding corroborates previous researches on quality of work life.

In a study conducted by Loscocco and Roschelle (1991), they observed that work-related stress and balancing work and non-work life domains affects quality of work life significantly and should be conceptually considered as determinants of quality of working life. In line with the suggestion by Herriot (1992) that many a time's people find themselves in conflict between family life and work and what actually they perceive as success in life as compared to what success they get. Family and work are two most important domains of life and a balance is crucial. It is observed that because of the conflicting role demands between job and family, and commitment, QWL is inversely proportional to the work conflict, meaning that the higher the work role conflict, the lower will be the quality of family life, and vice versa. Difficulties in meeting demands from the two settings work-family conflict, might be due to the amount of time spend at work (Åkerstedt, Ingre, & Eriksen, 2003; Van Rijswijk, Bekker, Rutte, & Croon, 2004) or a result traditional sex roles (Lindfors, Berntsson, & Lundberg, 2006).

Hypothesis two which states that there will be a significant effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life was tested using independent t-test. The result shows that there is a significance effect of job satisfaction on quality of work life. A study conducted by Cohen, Kinnevy & Ditcher (2007) shows that job satisfaction is one of the variables in work and is seen as an indicator of quality of work life. Warr & colleagues (1979) in their survey of quality of working life, considered a variety of factors resulting in quality of work life, including work involvement, perceived intrinsic job characteristics, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and intrinsic job motivation. They studied different correlations in their research among factors that results to quality of work life and a conclusion was made that there exists a moderate association between total job satisfaction and total life satisfaction and happiness on quality of work life. In a research conducted by Baba & Jamal (1991), he suggested a list of the determinants of quality of working life that includes job satisfaction and work-family conflicts among others. According to Danna & Griffin (1999), Quality of Working Life is a holistic concept, which not only

considers work-based factors such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and relationships with work colleagues, but also includes factors that predict life satisfaction and general feelings of well-being

Hypothesis three which states that there will be a significant sex differences on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life using independent t-test. The result shows there is no significant effect of gender on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

Given that more and more women are entering the workforce, it has become imperative to understand how men and women might differ in their job attitudes. This research study tries to observe if gender had any significant effect on work family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life. Research report by Bellavia and Frone (2005) showed that men report higher but not statistically significant level of interference than women in two national surveys, while some other researchers found significantly lower level of interference (Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald, 2002; Mennino, Rubin, & Brayfield, 2005; Winslow, 2005). Further studies showed that WIF occurred more than FIW among male employees due to commitment to work responsibilities in relation to family responsibilities (Eby, et al., 2005; Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dijkers, van Hooff, & Kinnunen, 2005). Just as studies from Berntsson, Lundberg and Krantz (2006) disclosed that men focused mainly on their work role, which seemed to be fairly resistant to feelings related to conflicting demands. Although, women are not fully exempted with this type of conflict, they however continue to spend more time on childcare and housework, while men have generally increased their contributions and reduced the gap with women as FIW is conversely more related to well-being (Bianchi, Robinson, & Millie, 2006). Given the openness of the economy, political changes, changes in societal values, the balance of job and family obligation has shifted dramatically. According to Frone and Rice (1987), the shifts in family and work domains, individuals must face and adapt to the inter-role conflict. Researches in this regard have been consistent, different researchers' reports different views on the issue of gender as either having effect or not. A study conducted by Alavi & Askaripur (2003) amongst 310 employees in government organization found no significant effect in job satisfaction among male and female employees. A possible explanation is offered by Tolbert & Moen (1998), who maintains that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job. This therefore makes it a bit difficult to measure difference of gender in work-family conflict, job satisfaction and quality of work life.

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The Impact Of National Park On Catchment Communities Development: Cross River State Scenario, Nigeria

Ukwayi Joseph. K

Department of Sociology
University of Calabar, Calabar-Nigeria.

Eja, Eja I

Department of Geography an Environmental Science
University of Calabar, Calabar-Nigeria.

Felix Ojong. E

Department of Sociology
University of Calabar, Calabar-Nigeria.

Abstract

In recent times, the concept of National Park development has not significantly impacted on the lives of the rural communities within the area. It is on this premise that this research wishes to evaluate the impact of Cross River State National Park on catchment communities development. Three communities in Akamkpa Local Government Area were selected for this study and include Mkpot, Aking and Oban and ten percent of the projected population was used as a sampled size for the administration of questionnaires in each community. Findings indicate that most of the projects embarked upon by the Cross River State National Park were poorly executed at the same vein there was also a low level of community participation in the park management. Besides, it was noticed that the people were not provided with an alternative source of livelihood and as a result, confrontations between park management and members of host communities are frequent. Against this backdrop, much is needed to be done if effective park management and community benefits from the park must be achieved.

Key Words: Catchment, Communities, Executed, National Park, Impact.

INTRODUCTION

The world's first National park , fellowship was created by an act of congress in 1872 as a "pleasuring ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people in order to protect for all times outstanding natural area. The major reason for the creation of national parks is to ensure and secure most areas from degradation of excessive exploitation by inhabitants within the zone. Accordingly, the Cross River National park (CRNP) was established in 1991 with the sole aim of conserving the last vestige of the Cross River tropical rainforest from extinction since it inhabit rich flora and fauna species which at the same time improve the livelihood of the catchment communities. The conservation of natural resources have great impact on rural communities especially as it enhance socioeconomic, ecological and cultural benefit of the rural dwellers, Bisong (2001). Anijah-Obi (2001) affirmed the imperial findings of Bisong and opined that sustainable rural development could only be achieved when wildlife conservation programmes provide international source of income and animals proteins to the rural communities. Accordingly, Oga (2011) highlighted the significant impact of forest product which according to him forest products are useful for industrial purposes as most of the industrial purposes are obtained for the conservation of wildlife including honey, and hides and skins. Today, despite the significant impact attributed to the National Park in Cross River State, the catchment communities whose livelihood solely depends on these resources are

deprived from utilizing the natural ecosystem. Besides, these communities whose livelihood solely depend on forest ecosystem rich with forest resources such as Afang, bush mango and animals which constitute the major some of proteins and vitamins, are deprive access and utilization of these laudable resources hence reducing the calorie in take of the rural community dwellers. Moreso, the communities within the National Park are equally deprived from exploiting the forest resources for construction purpose hence, the resultant effect is that majority of their houses and bridges are contracted with material that would not stand the test of time. It is on premises one would ask whether the Cross River National Park is really impacting on the socioeconomic livelihood of the people. What role is the park playing in order to better the lives of impoverish communities whose livelihood solely depend on the forest resources which is the bases of this work to critically evaluate the impact of the National Park on catchment communities development with reference to assessing the benefit from the establishing of the park, the projects executed, problems associated with National Park on catchment communities, and the socio-economic characteristic of the sampled population.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in Cross River state taking into consideration the impact of Cross River State national park on catchment communities of Akamkpa Local Government Area. Three hypotheses were tested which tried to examine if there exist a significant variation in the project executed in the catchment communities under investigation and also to evaluate whether the benefits derived by the catchment communities varies from one another in the areas. A baseline population was obtained from 2006 National population commission which further projected to 2103. A sample size of Mkpota (273) Aking (251) and Oban (309) was used which is ten percent of the projected population used as the sample size for the study. However, questionnaires were randomly distributed according to the sample size as stipulated in the Table 1 showing the communities and the sampled population.

Table 1: Population projection and sample sized

S/N	Community	Existing population of 2006	Projected population of 2012	Sample seize of 10% population
A	Mkpota	2300	2734	273
B	Aking	2110	2507	251
C	Oban	2600	3089	309
	Total	7010	8330	833

Source: Field survey, 2014

LITERATURE REVIEW

An overview of National Park

The denomination of National Parks arises from the desire to set aside particular areas of terrain from production in the conventional economic sense and to designate them as protected areas (Simmons, (1974) conservation of wildlife of individual plant and animal species, or more commonly of assemblage of species of habitats and groups of habitats are often a major reason for their setting up and subsequent management. Except for a reasonable number of tourist facilities the exploitation and development of natural resources are prohibited. Although exceptions can be made, there can be no mining, hunting, grazing or generation of hydroelectricity in a true National Park. The highest political authority in the nation establishes and enforces this requirement. The needs of education and research are functions of such areas since unaltered or little manipulated ecosystems provide reference

points. There is also their capacity as wilderness areas used for back-country recreation, usually on foot.

Although, the concept of a National Park does not imply unlimited and uncontrolled public access, the parks do exist for public enjoyment. Outdoor recreation presents the strongest and most easily quantifiable social demand, because of their outstanding qualities and beauty National Parks are special magnets for recreationists. Simmons (1974) identifies the preservation of entire landscape which are particularly valued as another concern of National Park management. Such landscapes are frequently natural but they may also be cultural in which case there are generally some productive uses.

National Park history

Yellowstone, in the United States of America was the first National Park established in 1872 by Act of congress (Kudson, 1974), to protect its 300 geysers, high waterfalls, huge lakes and other wonders in 1890, the Yosemite National Park was designated. When in 1916 the National Park service was established in the United State, there were 17 National Parks and 22 National monuments under it. The idea of National Park spread rapidly by 1917, Mill (1977) could report and Poland huge new parks were made after World War I from confiscated royal lands. Eltringham (1979) reports that President Kruger of what is now South Africa establishments, it is now the famous Kruger National Park about 350kms long and 65kms wide. This and the Par National Albert in the Belgium Congo (1920) remained the only National Parks in Africa until after the war when Kenya gazetted the Nairobi National Park in 1946, Isavo National Park in 1948, the Mount Kenya National Park in 1946, and the Aberadore Park in 1950 (Yeboah, 1991). Tanzania followed in 1951 with the Serengeti National Park and Uganda in 1952 with the Queen Elizabeth and Murchison Falls National Parks (Eltringham, Ibid).

Canada has 29 large National Parks featuring scenic values plus more than 20 national historic parks and sites. Canadian National Park Act states. The parks are hereby dedicated to the people of Canada for their benefit education and enjoyment – and shall be maintained and made use of as to leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations. The largest of Canada's – and may be the world's National Park in Wood Buffalo in Alberta and the North territories. Its 4,481, 000 has contains 12,000 bison roaming at large (Curry-Lindahl, 1974). By 1972, when the United States of America celebrated the centennial of Yellowstones, the United Nation listed 1,204 parks of equivalent reserves in 140 nations (Curry-Lindahl, Opcit).

National Park establishment in Nigeria

The history of parks in Nigeria can be traced to 1932 when the London society for the conservation of fauna and flora sent Col. A. H. Haywood to survey wildlife resources in Nigeria (Wari, 1993). The same source has it that in 1948, another survey was carried out and the recommendation made to the government of Nigeria for the creation of wildlife Department to cater wildlife in order to check/control the rapid reduction in the number of wild animals. In 1968, there was the African convention for the protection of African wildlife, where resolutions were made to protect wildlife through the establishment of Game reserves and National Park and the introduction of hunting licences in which Nigeria participated. Before and after the African convention, many Game reserves were created in the country but not until 1979 when the former Burgh Game reserve and Zugurma Game reserves were merged and up-dated to the status of the Nation's Lake National Park. Subsequently, other National Parks have been established through Degree 36 of August, 1991 of the Federal Government of Nigeria. They includes the Yankari National Park, Old Oyo National Park, Cross River National Park, Gumti National Park and Chad Basin National Park.

Park management

As noted earlier, management encompasses a broad range of purposeful decisions, intended to accomplish given objective. Planned action and planned inaction are both management in this case. The basic goal of policy toward park resource management is to offer higher quality experience for the visitor plus maintenance and restoration of high quality naturalistic environment. The United States National Park service program for instance comprises the following categories (Budget of US, 1978).

1. Overall management of park areas to accommodate visitors
2. Maintenance of buildings and other facilities
3. Interpretive programs to enhance the visitor's park experience
4. Law enforcement to protect the visitor's wellbeing and reduce vandalism and other destruction
5. Resource management to protect and preserve the unique natural, cultural and historical features

The need for management of parks resources hinge on several advantages:-

1. There can be little doubt that tourist demand has increased dramatically in the post-war period, particularly since the 1960s. Reasons for growing interest and outdoor recreation are well understood.

FINDINGS

Impact of National Park in the area

The people perception on the socio-economic activities/ benefits derived by Catchment communities from the projects of Cross River National Park as presented in table 2 shows that 16.6% of the respondents were of the opinion that conservation of medical plants are the socio-economic benefit derived, 12% respondents agreed that preservation of biodiversity was the socio economic benefits derived from the National Park. More so, 13.6% respondents were of the view that Cross River National Park reduces logging, 16.7% believed that the National Park create employment of indigenes, 11% affirm that the Cross River National Park increases productivity, 5.2% believed that it improve skills. Accordingly, 13.7% respondents were of the view that National Park improved farm output and improved access to information on new technologies by 7.8% while 3.5% respondents concluded the National Park increased access to farm inputs like fertilizers and other facilities. This mean that the host communities derive socio-economic benefit from the National Park.

Table 2: Impact of National park on catchment communities

Benefit	Community (A) Mkpot	Community (B) Aking	Community (C) Oban	Total Percentage	
Environment					
Conservation of medicinal plants	45	38	55	138	16.6
Preservation of biodiversity	39	29	32	100	12.0
Reducing logging	33	39	41	113	13.6
Welfare of rural Communities					
Employment generation	38	40	61	139	16.7
Improved skilled	10	12	21	43	5.2

Agriculture					
Enhancement of farm output	37	30	47	114	13.7
Improved access to new and technologies and information	25	21	19	65	7.8
Improved access to farm input	21	4	4	29	3.5
Total	273	251	309	833	100

Source: Field survey, 2014

However, in order to affirm the data collected on the socio-economic activities/ benefits of catchment communities in the National Park, as presented in table 3. The result from the hypothesis revealed a calculated value of 0.012 and critical value of 2.59 indicating the acceptance of the null hypothesis (H₀) which state that the socio-economic activities/benefit derived by the catchment communities from project by the Cross River National Park does not significantly vary from one community to another" while the alternate hypothesis (H_i) which state "The socio-economic benefit derived by the catchment communities from project of Cross River National Park significantly vary from one community to another was rejected as presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: The impact of the National Park on catchment communities

Source of variance	Sum of square	Cal. Value		Means of sum square	F
Between sample size	10.75		2	5.375	
Within sample mean	928	0.012	24	38.67	2.59
Total	938.7		26		

Source: Data analysis, 2014

The executed project by Cross River National Park in the catchment communities as presented in table 4 indicates that 7.2% of the respondents agreed that community members received technical training advice on cash crops production, 12.1% agreed that oil palm seedlings were distributed to farmers, 16.6% agreed that bush mango seedling were distributed to farmers. Besides, over 12.4% respondents agreed that rural feeder road were graded. More so, 8% respondent agreed that there were provision of school benches, 11-5% respondents were of the option that donation of bundle of 3mcs for rehabilitation of school buildings were made. 8.2% respondents affirmed that community's health care center were constructed while 4.8% of the respondent were of the view that, there have little or no supply of drugs to community's health center. However, Table 4 below indicates a general low trend in the percentage responses as no percentage responses were up to 50% or above. This may be due to the fact that only feed persons and host communities benefited from the intervention programme.

Table 4: Project executed by the Cross River National park to catchment communities

Subject	Community A Mkpot	Community B Aking	Community C Oban	Total	%
Agricultural projects					
Educating farmers on cash crop	17	15	28	60	7.2
Provision of oil palm seedlings to farmers	26	32	43	101	12.1
Provision of bush mango seedling to communities	49	38	51	138	16.6
Training on worldwide observation	36	34	33	103	12.4
Tree planting training	31	32	25	88	10.6
Building of bridges	5	3	10	18	2.2
Educational projects					
Provision of school facilities and equipments	15	21	31	67	8
Provision of building materials to schools	32	30	34	96	11.5
Health care projects					
Construction of community health care center	25	17	26	68	8.2
Supply of drugs to provision of basic community health center	17	10	14	41	4.9
Total	273	251	309	833	100

Source: Field survey, 2014

Accordingly, the tested hypothesis which tries to confirm the data collected on the project executed in the three communities indicate that a calculated value of 0.013 and t-value of 2.53 at 0.05 significant level. This result shows that there is a significant variation in the project execute was the three communities since the f-value was greater than the t-value as indicated in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Analysis of the impact of the National park on catchment communities

Source of variance	Sum of square	Cal value	df	Means sum of square	F
B/w sample size	6.88	0.013	2	3.44	2.53
Within sample means	531.16		30	17.7	
Total	538.04		32		

Source: Data analysis, 2014

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The age of respondents as presented in table 6 indicates that out of 833 sampled respondents in the study area (Mkpot, AKing and Oban) 14% of respondents were less than 20 years 15.7% were between 20-30 years, 31.8% were between 31-40 years, 30.1% were between 41-50 years, while 8.4% were above 50 years. This implies that majority of the sampled respondents

in the catchment communities (Mkpot, Aking and Oban) were young adult who are still in their active years of life. Younger people are adventurous and are much more receptive to new ideas than the older once. This result also revealed that respondents above 50 years were lower in number, this could be due to the fact that most adult of 50 years and above do not have enough strength to continue to participate actively in any rural development projects initiated within their communities. Accordingly, The gender distribution of the respondent in the study are as presented in table 6 shows that 55.8% of the respondent were male while 44.2% respondent were females. This mean that majority respondents in the study are were males. The marital status distribution of respondents in table 6 indicates that out of the 833 respondents in the catchment communities (Mkpot, Aking and Oban) of the study area 232.8% were single, 34.1% were married, 7.9% were divorced, 16.7% widow/divorced while 17.5% of the respondents were separated. This implies that majority of the respondents in the study area (Mkpot, Aking and Oban) are married and have family responsibilities to cope with.

Table 6: Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

<i>Age of respondents</i>	<i>Community (A) Mkpot</i>	<i>Community (B) Aking</i>	<i>Community (C) Oban</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Less than 20	35	29	53	117	14
20-30	53	37	41	131	15.7
31-40	93	76	96	265	31.8
41-50	62	88	100	250	30.1
Above 50	30	21	19	70	8.4
Total	273	251	309	833	100
<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Community (A) Mkpot</i>	<i>Community (B) Aking</i>	<i>Community (C) Oban</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Single	61	49	88	198	23.8
Married	84	91	109	283	34.1
Divorced	20	15	31	66	7.9
Widow/widower	46	53	40	139	16.7
Separated	62	43	41	146	17.5
Total	273	251	309	833	100
<i>Occupation of respondents</i>	<i>Community (A) Mkpot</i>	<i>Community (B) Aking</i>	<i>Community (C) Oban</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Farming	129	112	145	386	46.2
Small scale business	37	45	62	144	17.2
Worker (government/private establishment)	15	24	41	80	9.5
Hunting	25	24	20	66	7.9
Fishing	25	20	20	65	7.8
Logging	10	10	18	38	4.8
Other fairest resource user like non-timber forest resources	32	19	3	54	6.5
Total	273	251	309	833	100
<i>Level of income (N)</i>	<i>Community (A) Mkpot</i>	<i>Community (B) Aking</i>	<i>Community (C) Oban</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Below 1000	21	33	41	95	11.4
1001-2500	88	85	72	245	29.4
2501-4000	78	69	102	249	29.9
4001-5500	20	14	16	50	6
Total	273	251	309	833	100

Source: Field survey, 2014

Nevertheless, the occupation distribution of respondents as presented in table 6 reveals that 46.3% were farmers, 17.2% were engaged in small scale enterprises, 9.6% were workers either with the government establishment of private companies 7.9% hunters, 7.8% were engaged in fishing, 4.6% were engaged in logging activity, 6.5% were engaged in other forest resources which includes, rattan pal, canes, chewing sticks, forest foods, wrapping leaves, mushroom and medicines etc. This shows that farming is the primary and dominant occupation of the people in the study area (Mkpot, Aking and Oban) this further shows the land forest and communities.

CONCLUSION

It is clear from the empirical findings on the impact of the Cross River State National park, that although the park has significantly impacted on the catchment communities in the area as evidenced in the data collected and the tested hypotheses which shows F-value greater than the t-value indicating that there was high significant impact of the National Park on the catchment communities in the area. However, despite the significant impact of the park on the communities its activities are not devoid of socio-economic problems such as lack of community involvement, lack of government commitment and poor project execution.

Recommendations

Today, despite the significant impact of the National park on catchment communities in the area, the communities are still impoverished. Besides, the communities are deprived from effective utilization of the forest resources which is their only source of livelihood sustenance. However, in order to avert this scenario, this study put forward the following recommendations:-

- The government should provide adequate infrastructures to the catchment communities. This would help to alleviate the suffering and also better their livelihood socio-economically
- The various stakeholders should adopt a sustainable approaches to development which include participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and the Participatory Learning Action (PLA), which employs a bottom-up strategy that ensures the full involvement of the grassroots in providing solutions to environmental issues
- The government and other stakeholders involved in park management should provide an alternative source of livelihood, this could help reduce pressure on the forest resources within the National park ecosystem
- The catchment communities within the National park zone should be enlightened on the dangers associated with excessive exploitation of the forest resources in the area.
- The government should provide a framework to evaluate the success of all the measures provided to enhance community's livelihood in the area.

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It's the People, Stupid! - Formal Models of Social Interaction in Agile Software Development Teams

Andrea Corbett
Tessella, Abingdon

Mike Holcombe
Department of Computer Science. University of Sheffield

Stephen Wood
School of Management. University of Leicester

ABSTRACT

The success of modern ICT systems is not just about the technology. The human and social dimensions are also critical – especially in terms of understanding the context and environment within which the systems operate. This is true also about the environment in which the system is developed. Although much effort has been expended on building and analysing formal models of software systems, little has been done in terms of how software development teams work and how this might be studied in a formally-based way. This research looks at one of the fundamental aspects involved in collaborative teams working in projects – the transactive memory system (TMS). This, well established, concept in psychology is an approach to how the different people in a team regard the capabilities (knowledge and abilities) of each other as it changes over time. These capabilities are the basis for decision making in software projects about who does what, and when. Using a formal model of the TMS of a team, based on agent-based modelling, simulations were made of how teams might operate under different circumstances. The initial model was validated against published data. The model was then investigated in terms of how different types of project management affected the TMS of a team and on the team's performance. In particular, a comparison was made between a traditional, plan-based approach against an agile method using pair programming. The result demonstrates strong benefits in terms of performance and learning with the agile approach.

INTRODUCTION

Transactive memory theory is growing in interest but there is ambiguity regarding many of the aspects of it including, measurement, antecedents, its impact and how it fits with the larger body of team cognitive theory. Transactive memory is defined as an individual's beliefs relating to "who knows what" in their team (Wegner, 1995) and a Transactive Memory System (TMS) consists of transactive memory as well as the communication and coordination that takes place at team level to manage that knowledge. For a recent overview of TMS research see Peltokorpi (2008). Much of the research uses laboratory experiments (Hollingshead, 2000) or fieldwork (Peltokorpi and Manka, 2008) with teams carrying out repetitive familiar tasks however this paper focuses on teams in the current fast moving knowledge economy, specifically, software development teams who face novel tasks as a matter of course. To take a new perspective on research in this area this paper describes an agent-based modelling approach.

This paper describes how we have used agent based modelling to simulate the knowledge processes and transactive memory systems in software development teams. We have used this method to compare the different processes present in Agile and traditional methodologies and evaluate the outcomes.

Agent-based modelling

Increasingly agent based computational models have been used that can simulate behaviour in a system allowing it to be observed and measured over time. In this way experiments can be designed and the results interpreted by examining the way the model behaves.

Often the models are used to investigate emergent behaviour. Emergence is the way that complex systems and patterns emerge out of many simple interactions with no central command or control. These complex patterns have their own behaviour that is characteristic of an autonomous entity. The emergent behaviour is grounded in, yet transcends, the behaviour of the contributory agents. The many simple entities that interact to generate emergent behaviour will operate according to simple rules and as the number of agents grows the potential for unpredictable or emergent behaviour will increase. There are many examples of emergent behaviour in areas such as nature, physics, biology, economics, and technology including ant colonies, flocks of birds, traffic behaviour, economic systems and weather.

An agent is a small autonomous software program that has internal memory and decision-making functions, which communicates with other similar agents. As they communicate with each other, agents exhibit behaviour that follows the rules that are encoded within their functions. As the individual agents operate, the system as a whole may exhibit emergent behaviour. The individual agents are said to be acting at the lower, micro level of a system and the emergent behaviour is said to be acting at the higher, macro level. Agents are usually not omnipresent and only act in their immediate environment, in their own interests.

There are many benefits to agent-based modelling (Fum et al., 2007). By modelling a system the modeller is forced to decompose the system being modelled and by extension needs to fully understand that system. Computers will not tolerate any vague or imprecise instructions therefore the model will be based on logical reason producing clarity and completeness. As a product of this any theoretical output will also be based on logical, clear statements. Secondly, agent-based models enable researchers to experiment with highly complex or inaccessible systems. This can take place in a controlled manner without the messiness of the real world. Another benefit to this method is that it can provide data at both the agent level and the system level. And finally, the property of emergence is perhaps the major benefit to agent-based modelling, allowing new ways of understanding complex systems or phenomena that may have been unexpected.

There are some limitations of agent-based models that should be highlighted. Of course agent-based models are abstractions of human phenomena and the extent to which we believe the results depends on how well we feel the model simulates reality (Hutchins, 1992). Another limitation is related to the highly specialised nature of agent-based models. Nearly everyone can understand narrative but only those familiar with programming languages and environments will understand the intricacies of a model. Finally, 'Bonini's Paradox' (Fum et al., 2007) is the tendency of models, as they become more realistic, to become more and more complex, until they are so complex that they are as difficult to understand as the real world system being modelled. Agent-based modelling has been used to simulate, amongst others, ants (Georghe, 2001), cells (Walker et al., 2004), and the human immune system (Baldazzi et al., 2006).

FLAME stands for Flexible Large-scale Agent-Based Modelling Environment (FLAME) (Pogson M, 2006) and it is based on a formal X-machines architecture. Agents can reside in states, have memory and operate according to rules. States change by using transition functions. Also, communicating X-machines are used to communicate using messageboards managed as part of the agent functions. The model will run through a predefined number of iterations where the

agents interact with each other. Every iteration a states file will be generated containing the memory for each agent. This figure shows the transition functions between states accessing memory, and sending and receiving messages to a messageboard.

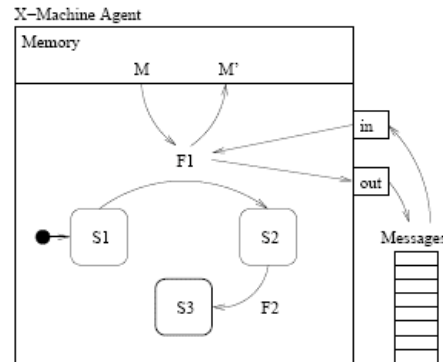


Figure 1. X-Machine agent

Agile and traditional software development techniques

Traditionally, and most commonly, the development of software follows a methodology known as the waterfall method. This entails a strict pre-planned sequence of steps that can take months or even years for very large software development projects. The first stage captures the requirements of the client, secondly, the requirements are analysed in detail and thirdly the software is designed and documented. At this point, no actual software development has taken place. The subsequent stage develops the whole software system as defined and then the software is tested. Finally, the software is delivered and maintained.

Due to the inflexibility of the separate stages this method does not easily allow changes in requirements, which are fixed early in the project and as these stages are often long the client's requirements can change over the course of the project. The result of this could be the delivery of an obsolete system or the high cost in terms of time and money of going back and changing requirements.

Agile methods, in contrast, produce small completely developed and tested features every few weeks. The emphasis is on obtaining the smallest workable piece of functionality to deliver business value early, continually improving it and adding further functionality throughout the life of the project. If a project being delivered under the waterfall method is cancelled at any point up to the end, there is nothing to show for it beyond a huge resources bill. With the Agile method, being cancelled at any point will still leave the customer with some worthwhile code that is likely to have already been put into live operation.

One element of an Agile programming project is Extreme Programming (XP) (Beck, 1999), which is intended to improve software quality and responsiveness to changing customer requirements. XP has some basic practices that include, test first programming, pair programming, small frequent releases, continuous integration and collective code ownership. Pair programming is fundamental to XP and it encourages discussion and continuous review, minimises mistakes, pools intellect, and promotes knowledge sharing.

Knowledge processes and transactive memory

Teams are used for excessive task complexity, when errors lead to severe consequences or in situations where collective insight is required. They are commonly used in most organisations and also in many other walks of life to achieve results beyond individuals' capability. For team cognition to emerge the task requirements of the team must be sufficiently complex for

cognitive interdependence to be essential (Akgun et al., 2005, Zhang et al., 2007). To have cognitive interdependence with another team member an individual needs to know about that teammate's knowledge, have the ability to anticipate how the teammate will behave and have trust in the influence that the teammate will exert on the outcome of the shared task (Akgun et al., 2005).

Transactive memory is an individual's beliefs relating to "who knows what" in their team (Wegner, 1995) and a transactive memory system (TMS) is the transactive memory, communication, and coordination at team level (Faraj and Sproull, 2000). A TMS can help team members: compensate for each other, reduce redundancy of effort, share cognitive labour, facilitate sharing of knowledge, and allocate resources. Studies have shown that a good TMS is positively related to team performance (Akgun et al., 2005, Austin, 2003, Lewis, 2004, Littlepage et al., 2008, Zhang et al., 2007) with accuracy of transactive memory being found to be the most significant predictor of team performance (Austin, 2003). The maturation of a TMS will be influenced by the initial conditions of the team and the task processes that the team undertakes.

Transactive memory within a team is constantly changing in response to greater familiarity with teammates and also the changing knowledge and expertise within the team. This highlights issues such as accuracy, consensus and completeness. As teammates work together, their beliefs relating to their teammates are likely to become more complete (Cannon-Bowers and Salas, 2001). As transactive memory in the team becomes more accurate, complete, and consensus is achieved the team is described as having convergent expectations (Hollingshead, 2001). Convergent expectations occur when team members have cognitive interdependence and accurate beliefs relating to each other's knowledge resulting in efficient fulfilment of the task. A team that has a fully convergent, or perfect, TMS will demonstrate the most efficient processing of tasks entering the group. Tasks will be allocated to experts and information will be shared as required for the optimum performance of the team. Recently it has been identified that there is a cyclical relationship between the developing TMS and team knowledge where each affects the other (Brandon and Hollingshead, 2004) and both the knowledge and TM not only grow, but change.

Definition. Let there be N members of a team, and suppose that there are M areas of expertise that are relevant.

$E_{ijk}(t)$ represents the level of expertise of team member j at time t in area k according to team member i , $E_{ijk}(t) \geq 0$.

The TMS of the team at time t , is:

$$T(t) = (T_1(t), T_N(t)) \text{ where } T_i(t) = ((e_{i11}(t), e_{i1M}(t)), (e_{iNM}(t)), e_{iNM}(t)))$$

As the knowledge in a team develops there can be a tendency for experts to emerge as tasks are directed at the team member perceived to have expertise in a particular area. This is known as differentiation. For differentiation structures to develop there must be cognitive interdependence and team members must have convergent expectations that others will learn in areas of relative expertise. As team members' beliefs relating to each other's knowledge become more accurate and complete over time this produces consensus between teammates, in other words maturation of the TMS, resulting in convergent expectations. This means that, as well as developing differentiated knowledge structures, the team will also be developing a shared or integrated set of knowledge relating to 'who knows what' (Brandon and Hollingshead, 2004).

As team members gain experience working together and become more familiar with each other their ability to recognise knowledge and expertise increases (Lewis, 2004). Lewis found that initial differentiation was positively related to TMS emergence and this effect was stronger when the team members had some familiarity with each other before entering the team.

With heterogeneity of knowledge team members need to know who knows what, implying that TMS is more effective when differentiation is larger. Baumann and Bonner argued that the size of the performance benefits deriving from transactive memory will be greater when group members have large differentiation because it facilitates the recognition, utilisation and impact of team member expertise (Baumann and Bonner, 2004). However, extreme differentiation may be detrimental to team performance as some overlap in expertise allows effective communication and better understanding of each other's knowledge and expertise (Peltokorpi, 2008).

TMS is likely to be less useful when the knowledge is homogeneous (Brandon and Hollingshead, 2004). With very low differentiation, each member of a team would have no incentive to use other members of the team for knowledge therefore there would be low cognitive interdependence (Palazzolo et al., 2006) and no motivation to develop a TMS.

Inevitably there is some disagreement regarding the impact that differentiation of knowledge has on performance within a team. It is suggested that diversity lowers the capability for coordination and cooperation within the team and this improves for more homogenous teams (Ancona and Caldwell, 1992, Smith-Jentsch et al., 2009) and while it does have some advantages in terms of internal processes and communication, overall the effect of diversity on performance is negative.

In contrast an alternative opinion states that group performance is higher when members differ in ability. Highly differentiated groups are more successful at identifying and utilising expertise in the group therefore the advantages that TMS bestow are greater when group members' knowledge is more diverse (Littlepage et al., 2008, Baumann and Bonner, 2004). This supports the general literature on TMS - that the reliance on TMS is increased with greater differentiation because cognitive interdependence is elevated. However, this is not necessarily the case as it has been shown that in traditional software development projects interaction declined over the course of the project as team members' roles became more specialised (Levesque et al., 2001). It is suggested that the division of labour due to specialisation exacerbates this differentiation resulting in a reduced reliance on TMS.

It may be the type of work that the team is undertaking that determines which type of knowledge structure is optimum for performance. Gupta and Hollingshead found evidence to suggest that knowledge structures with low differentiation resulted in higher performance for intellectual tasks (Gupta and Hollingshead, 2010).

Often teams are constructed from members with a diverse range of skills to leverage the unique expertise of different members. Performance will depend on each team member's contribution of knowledge to the team and the formation of a successful TMS. Expectations within the team relating to individual expertise will have an impact on TMS development and team members tend to learn more in their own specialisation if they believe that others hold different knowledge. They will often take responsibility for a particular area of expertise in the team. Likewise, other team members will defer to an individual who is perceived as the expert in a particular area (Hollingshead, 2001, Wegner, 1995). So the extent to which a team's knowledge is initially distributed is likely to define the initial structure of the TMS, and this

should encourage information sharing leading to its further development (Lewis, 2004). Initially differentiated expertise is positively related to TMS emergence suggesting that more differentiated expertise helps define an initial framework of member-expertise associations. Teams with initially differentiated expertise were better at developing a TMS than those with overlapping expertise and this was even stronger when teams had initial TMS. For teams with overlapping expertise prior knowledge of each other (TMS) hindered TMS production suggesting that initial knowledge not initial TMS is responsible for the development of TMS (Lewis, 2004).

It is widely believed that a group with initial knowledge of each other, or a partially or fully developed TMS will have higher performance than a newly formed group where the members have no prior knowledge of each other, or no TMS (Akgun et al., 2005, Espinosa et al., 2007, Lewis, 2004, Liang et al., 1995). For example studies have shown that teams that are trained together, and thus develop a TMS, perform better than those that are trained individually (Liang et al., 1995). This makes sense intuitively as the coordination and cooperation within a team would be improved if the team members have some knowledge of each other. Much of the literature on TMS makes the assumption that more differentiation is more beneficial to teams (Wegner, 1995, Austin, 2003) but Hollingshead suggests that there may be circumstances where differentiation may hinder group performance.

Pair programming works well when the pair has to work on a challenging problem and a study found that novice-novice pairs are much more productive against novice solos in terms of elapsed time and software quality than expert-expert pairs against expert solos (Lui and Chan, 2006). This agrees with a meta-analysis of papers on the effects of pair versus solo programming which considered the relationships between juniors, intermediate and senior pairs (Hannay et al., 2009). It found that the improvement in quality was most significant for juniors. This study also found that pairing up juniors resulted in elevated performance, to near senior performance, suggesting that pair programming is most beneficial for novice programmers. In a study looking at pairs with different educational backgrounds and hence skill sets, forming pairs with similar skills enhanced the pair programming benefits (Bellini et al., 2005). However, pairs formed with very different backgrounds and skill sets reduces the more skilled member to a lower level. This contradicts Hannay et al. above and much existing work into the benefits of pair programming (Hannay et al., 2009, Muller, 2005, Muller, 2007, Nosek, 1998, Williams et al., 2000, Williams, 2000).

The TMS literature has conflicting views relating to differentiation in a team, and the resulting TMS and performance. This model will examine the behaviour of performance, TMS accuracy and differentiation for initial conditions relating to a variety of levels of initial knowledge and TMS. It will model teams containing all experts with the same knowledge and all experts with discrete knowledge. For both of those scenarios there will be a condition each for no initial TMS and complete TMS. The model will have pair programming versus solo programming conditions and small task versus large tasks conditions.

Hypothesis 1. Initial differentiation will have different effects on TMS accuracy and differentiation for different working conditions.

Hypothesis 2. Initial TMS will have different effects on TMS accuracy and differentiation for different working conditions.

Hypothesis 3. XP factors will moderate the relationship between initial TMS and performance. It is expected that for pair programming conditions, the presence or not of an initial TMS will

have no effect on performance but for solo conditions the existence of an initial TMS will have a positive effect on performance.

Hypothesis 4. XP factors will moderate the relationship between initial differentiation and performance. Lower initial differentiation will result in higher performance for pair programming conditions and lower performance for solo conditions.

METHOD

This model is written in FLAME. Each simulation runs over a number of iterations as specified at the start of the simulation. For each simulation there are a number of predefined variables such as number of agents (team size), range of knowledge allowed, task size, working mode and other variables that relate to communication and administrative processes.

Each agent has pairs of numbers in memory. In each pair one number represents a 'chunk' of knowledge and the other represents the level of expertise in that knowledge. This knowledge can grow as the agent learns and the expertise levels can increase as the agent gains experience. Each agent's memory also holds information relating to the knowledge and expertise of the other agents in the simulation. This memory represents TM and this can also develop over the course of a simulation as the agent learns about the other agents. Each iteration, each agent is given a task consisting of numbers representing the knowledge required to complete that task. Each agent values their task in relation to their own knowledge and expertise, and also their beliefs about the knowledge and expertise of other agents, and may decide to offer their task to another agent. They do this if they believe that the agent will gain more team value doing the task than them. Each agent then chooses from the tasks, if any, that have been offered and decides which to keep and reject based on the value of them doing each task. This results in tasks being redistributed based on not only knowledge and expertise, but also beliefs relating to other agents' knowledge and expertise. After task redistribution each agent increments the expertise level for each of the numbers in their task that they hold in memory by a random number between 0 and 1. This represents them carrying out the task and becoming more expert in those areas. They also share some information relating to their task with other random agents to allow them to update their TM.

Each iteration produces measures of performance, knowledge and transactive memory. A controller agent aggregates the output from each agent and calculates team level results. The task values for team members are aggregated to give a score per iteration. The optimum performance score is also calculated as if the tasks were perfectly distributed in the team for maximum performance. The ratio of aggregate score and optimum aggregate score is used as the measure of performance. This ratio is a measure of learning as well as team efficiency in matching tasks to agents. Differentiation is the variance of the knowledge within the team. TMS accuracy is the level of agreement of the team TMS with the actual knowledge of each team member. The parameters used for this model were, work mode, task size, initial TMS and initial differentiation. They are shown in the following table.

Table 1: Parameters for model

Task size	4 or 20
Work mode	Solo or in pairs
Knowledge range	1 to 100
Initial differentiation	4 agents with same 25% of knowledge OR 4 agents with discrete 25% each of knowledge
Initial transactive memory	None or complete

The set of conditions for this model is detailed in the following table. For each condition 16000 task elements were delivered to the team, which defined the number of iterations for each condition. Each condition was simulated 50 times.

Table 2: Description of conditions

Condition no.	Task size	Work mode	Initial TMS	Initial differentiation	No. of iterations
1	4	Pair	TMS	High	2000
2	4	Pair	TMS	Low	2000
3	4	Pair	No TMS	High	2000
4	4	Pair	No TMS	Low	2000
5	4	Solo	TMS	High	1000
6	4	Solo	TMS	Low	1000
7	4	Solo	No TMS	High	1000
8	4	Solo	No TMS	Low	1000
9	20	Pair	TMS	High	400
10	20	Pair	TMS	Low	400
11	20	Pair	No TMS	High	400
12	20	Pair	No TMS	Low	400
13	20	Solo	TMS	High	200
14	20	Solo	TMS	Low	200
15	20	Solo	No TMS	High	200
16	20	Solo	No TMS	Low	200

RESULTS

Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics and the correlations among the constructs in the model giving some preliminary overall indications of the behaviour of the model. It shows that working mode (coded 0 for solo programming; 1 for pair programming) is positively, significantly correlated to performance indicating that pair programming is highly positively correlated with performance as expected. Task size (coded 0 for large tasks; 1 for small tasks) is significantly positively correlated with differentiation and TMS accuracy but not performance. The relationships between differentiation, TMS accuracy and performance show that overall performance has a significant negative relationship with differentiation and a positive one with TMS accuracy resulting in a negative relationship between TMS accuracy and differentiation. Regarding the factors of initial TMS and initial differentiation, both are significantly negatively correlated with performance indicating that no initial TMS and low initial differentiation have positive relationships with performance. Neither of them have significant relationships with TMS accuracy or differentiation.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics and correlations - Notes: n=200, *p<0.01

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Working mode								
2 Task size								
3 TMS or not								
4 Initial diff'n								
5 Differentiation	40.89	39.42	-.882	* .123	* -.009	-.039		
6 TMS accuracy	.96	.03	.888	* .330	* -.066	-.009	-.709	*
7 Performance	.97	.05	.628	* .001	-.260	* -.390	* -.576	* .523

To review the model results in more detail the following graphs show the behaviour of the model over time. There are four graphs for each of performance, differentiation and TMS accuracy, showing results for conditions with high and low initial differentiation and the presence of an initial TMS or not. Each graph shows results for the four working conditions for task size and work mode.

The following four graphs show the model behaviour over time for performance. For pair programming the existence of an initial TMS seems to have little effect on performance, and high initial differentiation slightly lowers performance. For solo conditions the presence of an initial TMS and low initial differentiation both have a substantial positive effect on performance. This means that conditions with low initial differentiation and an initial TMS result in highest performance for solo conditions and those with high initial differentiation and no initial TMS generate the lowest. For pair programming conditions large tasks generate slightly greater performance than small tasks however the significance of this will be tested by the t-tests. For solo conditions, large tasks generate significantly greater performance than small tasks other than conditions when initial differentiation was high and there was no initial TMS where performance is substantially higher for small tasks. The results shown in these graphs support hypotheses 3 and 4.

Graphs for performance over time

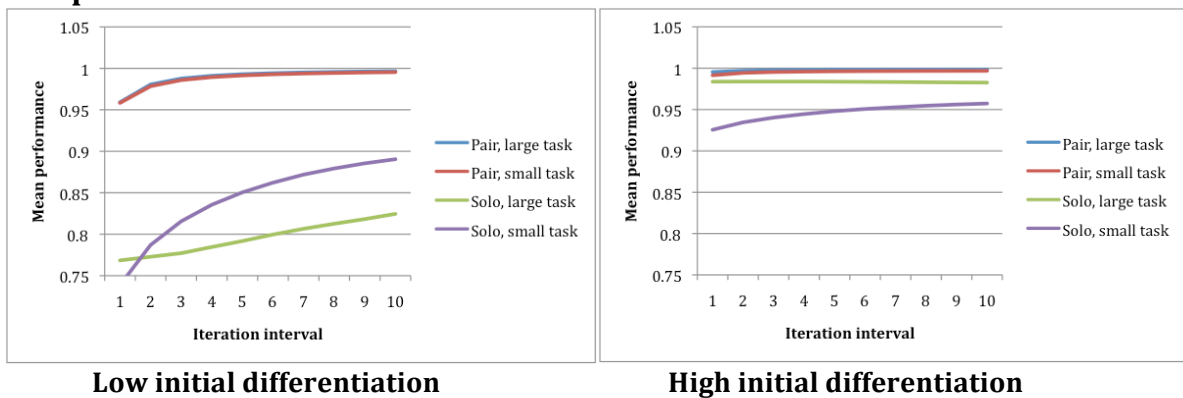


Figure 2: Performance, no initial TMS

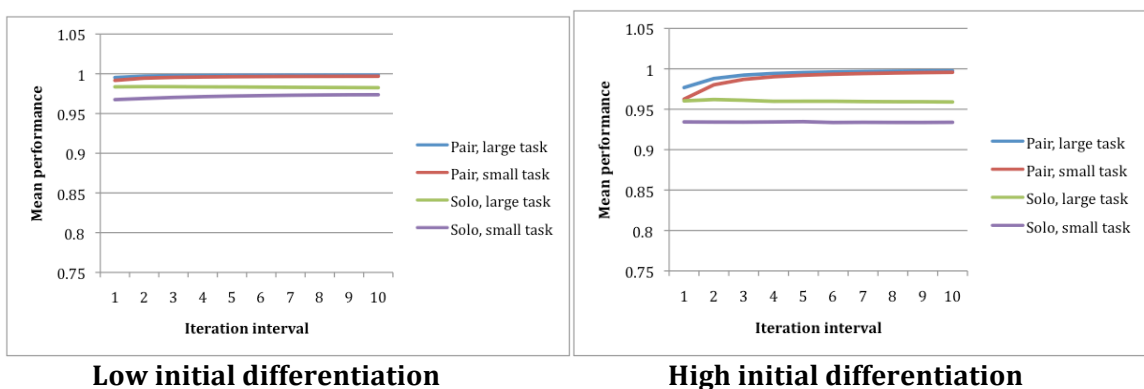
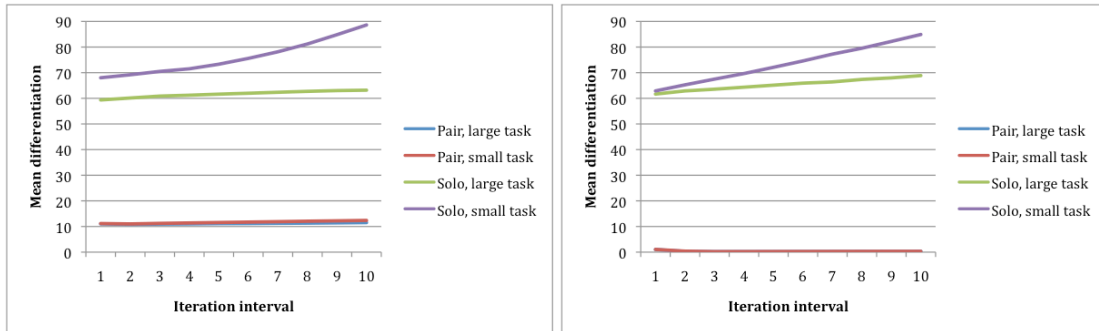


Figure 3: Performance, complete initial TMS

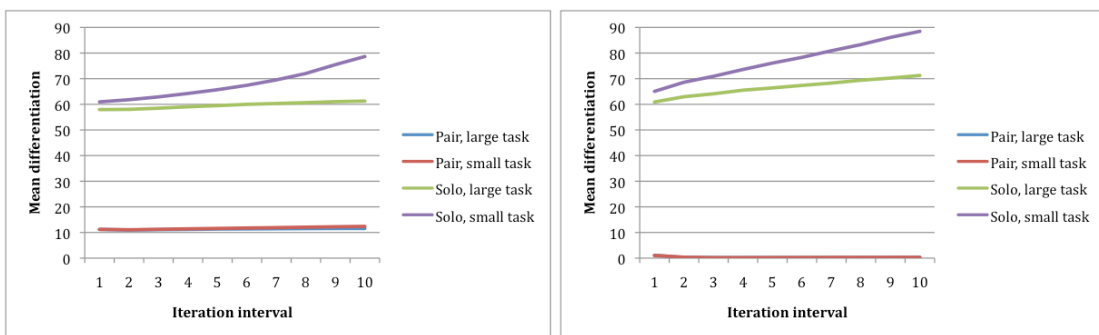
The following four graphs show the model behaviour over time for differentiation. It can be seen that differentiation over time for pair programming conditions remains level for the whole simulation with lower differentiation over time for conditions with high initial differentiation. Task size appears to have little effect for pair programming conditions. For solo conditions differentiation is generally higher than for pair programming and rises over time, rising faster for large task conditions. There does not seem to be much difference between high

and low initial differentiation, and initial TMS conditions. This will be tested by the t-tests following. The results in these graphs support hypotheses 1 and 2.

Graphs for differentiation over time



Low initial differentiation High initial differentiation
Figure 4: Differentiation, no initial TMS

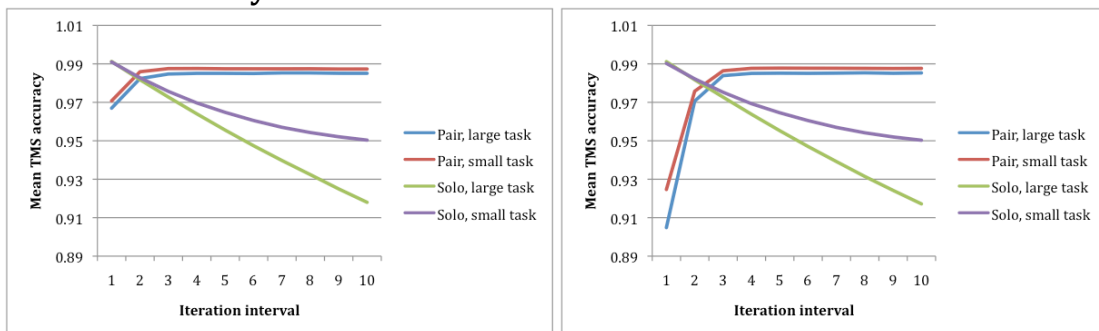


Low initial differentiation High initial differentiation
Figure 5: Differentiation, complete initial TMS

The following graphs show the model behaviour over time for TMS accuracy. TMS accuracy, for pair programming conditions, rises quickly and remains level, whereas for solo conditions it continues to drop with the reduction being greater for large tasks. There appears to be little difference between the high and low initial differentiation conditions, although the TMS accuracy takes longer to develop for high initial differentiation for pair conditions. For solo conditions TMS accuracy appears to drop lower for conditions with an initial TMS.

Within solo and pair programming conditions small tasks result in higher TMS accuracy than large tasks for every condition of initial differentiation and TMS. Again, t-tests will determine if this is significant. The results in these graphs support hypotheses 1 and 2.

Graphs for TMS accuracy over time



Low initial differentiation High initial differentiation
Figure 6: TMS accuracy, no initial TMS

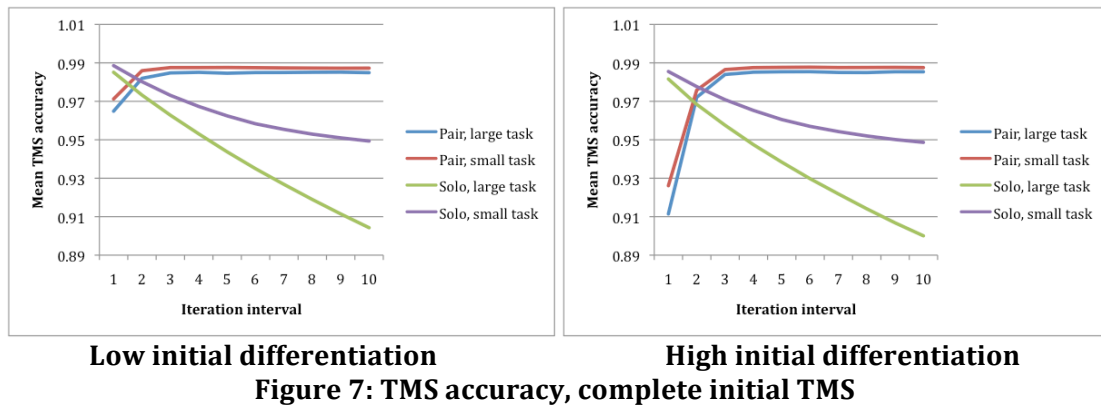


Figure 7: TMS accuracy, complete initial TMS

T-tests were carried out on the data for the final iteration to determine any significant differences in means. They were carried out separately on each set of conditions of working mode and task size to give an indication of the impact of initial differentiation for each scenario.

From the table below (Table 4) it can be seen that low initial differentiation generates higher performance for every condition of working mode and task size however by looking at the graphs above, and the differences in means in the table, this effect is greater for solo working conditions. Task size also has a greater effect on solo conditions than for pair conditions with the difference in performance for solo conditions being greater for high initial differentiation.

Regarding differentiation over time, low initial differentiation generates higher differentiation over time for pair programming conditions. For solo conditions there is less significance but in contrast high initial differentiation has a positive effect on differentiation for solo large tasks. Although it is not clear from the graphs, the t-tests determine that TMS accuracy is higher for pair programming when initial differentiation is high, and conversely TMS accuracy is higher for solo programming when initial differentiation is low.

In summary, low initial differentiation has a significant positive effect on performance and although overall performance is lower this effect is larger for solo programming. Differentiation over time is unaffected by initial differentiation for solo programming, but high initial differentiation reduces differentiation over time for pair programming conditions.

Finally there is an inverse effect of initial differentiation on TMS accuracy where low initial differentiation has a positive effect for pair programming and a negative one for solo programming. These results support hypotheses 1 and 4.

The table on the next page (Table 5) shows that the existence of an initial TMS results in higher performance for all working conditions apart from pair programming with small tasks when there is no significant difference.

Regarding differentiation over time there is no effect attributed to the existence of an initial TMS for any condition. For TMS accuracy, the presence of an initial TMS has a negative effect on TMS accuracy over time for solo programming conditions and no significant effect for pair programming conditions. These effects can be easily seen on the graphs above showing model behaviour over time.

Table 4: Independent t-tests for initial differentiation, separated by working conditions.

	Work mode	Task size	Initial differentiation	Mean	SE	t	df	
Performance	Solo	4	High	0.912	2.2 E-3	22.53	126.29	***
			Low	0.965	8.3 E-4			
		20	High	0.892	6.8 E-3	13.35	99.03	***
			Low	0.983	8.8 E-4			
	Pair	4	High	0.996	2.7 E-5	45.99	107.24	***
			Low	0.997	5.5 E-6			
		20	High	0.997	5.8 E-5	21.62	102.77	***
			Low	0.998	8.0 E-6			
Differentiation	Solo	4	High	86.68	2.75	-0.814	198	
			Low	83.63	2.56			
		20	High	70.06	2.22	-2.72	191.23	**
			Low	62.22	1.83			
	Pair	4	High	0.313	3.8 E-3	151.09	99.45	***
			Low	12.38	8.0 E-2			
		20	High	0.29	3.5 E-3	159.68	99.49	***
			Low	11.54	7.0 E-2			
TMS accuracy	Solo	4	High	0.949	1.3 E-4	2.11	198	*
			Low	0.950	1.2 E-4			
		20	High	0.909	8.7 E-4	2.24	189.96	*
			Low	0.911	7.1 E-4			
	Pair	4	High	0.988	5.4 E-5	-4.09	198	***
			Low	0.987	5.3 E-5			
		20	High	0.985	8.8 E-5	-2.38	198	*
			Low	0.985	1.0 E-4			

Notes: n=200, *p<0.05, **p<0.005, ***p<0.001

Hypothesis 3 is partially supported as both pair programming and small tasks have to be in use before the existence of an initial TMS is not significant. Also, hypothesis 2 is partially supported as differentiation over time is unaffected by the presence of an initial TMS but there is an inverse relationship between initial TMS and TMS accuracy for work mode.

Table 5: Independent t-tests for initial TMS separated by working conditions

	Work mode	Task size	Initial TMS	Mean	SE	t	df	
Performance	Solo	4	No TMS	0.924	3.4 E-3	-7.60	161.74	***
			TMS	0.954	2.0 E-4			
		20	No TMS	0.903	8.0 E-3	-8.33	103.75	***
			TMS	0.971	1.2 E-3			
	Pair	4	No TMS	0.996	7.2 E-5	-1.33	191.29	
			TMS	0.996	5.9 E-5			
		20	No TMS	0.997	9.2 E-5	-4.92	138.21	***
			TMS	0.998	4.2 E-5			
Differentiation	Solo	4	No TMS	86.76	2.54	0.854	198	
			TMS	83.55	2.76			
		20	No TMS	66.02	2.07	-0.082	198	
			TMS	66.26	2.08			
	Pair	4	No TMS	6.34	0.61	-0.01	198	
			TMS	6.35	0.61			
		20	No TMS	5.91	0.56	-0.022	198	
			TMS	5.92	0.57			

TMS accuracy	Solo	4	No TMS	0.950	9.3 E-5	9.11	191.290	***
			TMS	0.949	1.1 E-4			
		20	No TMS	0.918	1.7 E-4	50.90	71.89	***
			TMS	0.902	2.5 E-4			
	Pair	4	No TMS	0.987	5.6 E-5	1.11	198	
			TMS	0.987	5.4 E-5			
		20	No TMS	0.985	9.7 E-5	.356	198	
			TMS	0.985	9.8 E-5			

Notes: n=200, ***p<0.001

DISCUSSION

As described in the theoretical framework the behaviour of teams is likely to vary with different knowledge structures and the extent to which the initial knowledge in a team overlaps is one area that has been addressed in previous studies (Ancona and Caldwell, 1992, Austin, 2003, Baumann and Bonner, 2004, Gupta and Hollingshead, 2010, Lewis, 2004, Hollingshead, 2000, Hollingshead, 2001, Levesque et al., 2001, Littlepage et al., 2008, Wegner, 1995). Also, the initial development of the TMS is likely to have an influence on the performance of the team (Akgun et al., 2005, Espinosa et al., 2007, Lewis, 2004, Liang et al., 1995).

This model introduced the dichotomous parameters of low and high initial differentiation and the presence of an initial TMS or not. The hypotheses presented for this model predicted that the impact of initial differentiation and initial TMS on performance, differentiation and TMS accuracy will be moderated by the XP factors of work mode and task size. The results showed that the hypotheses were partially supported.

In support of a number of studies (Ancona and Caldwell, 1992, Gupta and Hollingshead, 2010, Smith-Jentsch et al., 2009) the results of this model showed that low initial differentiation had a more positive effect on performance than high initial differentiation. This advantage was stronger for solo programming than for pair programming demonstrating a moderation effect. This is in contradiction to Lewis (Lewis, 2004) who found that teams with initially diverse knowledge produced higher team performance. In addition, as theory predicts, results show that the existence of an initial TMS gives higher performance for all working conditions apart from pair programming with small tasks when there is no significant difference. So, according to the model, XP factors compensate for the advantage that the initial TMS bestows on the team, but only if pair programming is used in conjunction with small tasks. Hypothesis 4 is supported and hypothesis 3 is partially supported as both pair programming and small tasks have to be in use before the existence of an initial TMS is not significant.

The positive effect of low initial differentiation can be explained by the functioning of the model. Performance is measured as the ratio between actual performance and optimum performance. As each of the agents has identical knowledge the potential detriment from allocating tasks to the wrong agent is reduced. The advantage from the presence of an initial TMS is clear as tasks are directed to the most qualified agent for the task from the outset, however, pair programming together with small tasks compensates for this as both practices bring the task value closer to the optimum. Pair programming does this by pooling the resources of two programmers, and small tasks by focussing the allocation of tasks to the most qualified agent.

In terms of the theoretical framework, the model supports the theory that low initial differentiation predicts higher performance because diversity lowers the ability of a team to cooperate and coordinate (Ancona and Caldwell, 1992, Smith-Jentsch et al., 2009). Also, pairing programmers with similar knowledge was found to improve performance (Bellini et al., 2005), which may explain the additional advantage that pair programming had over solo programming for low initial differentiation in the model.

Agents that work together will exchange knowledge that differs. In the case of low differentiation there is no difference in agents' knowledge, therefore, there will be little or no exchange of knowledge and each will retain their own knowledge. In the case of high differentiation as agents work in pairs there will be high levels of exchange of knowledge due to the high diversity, resulting in a flatter knowledge structure. In reality, if all team members have the same knowledge, so have little reason to exchange knowledge, low initial differentiation reduces the interdependence in the team. For high initial differentiation there is high interdependence and with pair programming this results in large amounts of knowledge sharing.

For pair programming TMS accuracy was not affected by initial TMS but for solo conditions the presence of an initial TMS actually reduced TMS accuracy over time. The former is not a surprise as the elevated sharing of knowledge also includes greater TMS accuracy meaning that the TMS 'gets up to speed' very quickly for pair programming conditions. The initial presence of a complete and accurate TMS reducing the TMS accuracy over time for solo programming is more difficult to explain as it seems counterintuitive. It is possible that as changes to knowledge happen in the team it is more difficult for agents using solo programming to maintain the complete accurate TMS than if they were building the TMS from scratch. This is contrary to the literature (Akgun et al., 2005, Espinosa et al., 2007, Lewis, 2004, Liang et al., 1995) which states that groups with an initial TMS will have higher quality TMSs and perform better. Hypothesis 1 is supported and hypothesis 2 is partially supported as differentiation over time is unaffected by the presence of an initial TMS, but there is an inverse relationship between initial TMS and TMS accuracy for work mode.

In pair programming, team members having worked together before, and so having initial knowledge of each other, is unlikely to have an effect on the accuracy of their TMS or knowledge diversity over time. In contrast, for new pair programmers, homogenous initial knowledge is likely to have an effect on the accuracy of TMS and the diversity of knowledge in the team, increasing them both to a greater degree over time.

In summary, performance was increased with lower initial differentiation and an initial TMS, however, this reliance on the initial TMS was reduced by XP factors to a degree. For pair programming initial TMS had no effect on TMS accuracy or differentiation over time; and low initial differentiation increased both TMS accuracy and differentiation over time. For solo programming the picture is a little different, initial TMS and initial differentiation had no effect on differentiation over time and they both had the effect of reducing TMS accuracy over time.

CONCLUSIONS

This model introduced cognitive realism by using agents that had existing knowledge and TMS with varying characteristics. Both heterogeneous and homogenous initial knowledge in the team was simulated, and the presence or absence of a complete TMS simulating team members that have prior knowledge, or not, of each other. Comparisons of pair versus solo programming, and small versus large tasks were carried out to test how various initial conditions relating to knowledge and TMS affect the team in terms of TMS, differentiation and performance over time.

The results showed that team members with similar knowledge, who had worked together before, would result in higher performance. This is less important when using XP techniques, which seem to compensate for this.

If pair programming, team members having worked together before, and so having initial knowledge of each other, is unlikely to have an effect on the accuracy of their TMS or knowledge diversity over time. In contrast, for pair programmers, homogenous initial knowledge is likely to have an effect on the accuracy of TMS and the diversity of knowledge in the team, increasing them both to a greater degree over time.

For solo programmers, previously working together and diversity of initial knowledge will have no effect on diversity of knowledge over time but they both are likely to reduce the accuracy of the team members' TMS over time to a greater extent.

Software development teams are often newly formed for each project and as such team members may not have worked together before meaning a lack of TMS relating to each other. A lack of initial TMS has been shown to reduce performance, however, this simulation has demonstrated that the use of XP techniques can mitigate this disadvantage.

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Architecture as a Human Right Matter

Hoshiar Nooraddin

Canadian University of Dubai

United Arab Emirates

Abstract

The history is crowded with destruction of cities and their architecture following wars and conflicts. As a consequence, large number of architectural cultures had been removed from the earth or ended as ruins. Unfortunately, this problem is not only from the past but it is also taking place in the present civilized age. This paper is building on case studies to show how this phenomenon is rooted in the history and which consequences it has into the continuity of the local architecture in forming the present built environment. The case studies are historical evidences-based explanation, prediction and theory about the extent to which elite groups or dominating ethnical groups contribute to form the architecture of the multi-ethnic countries. The study's evidences show the necessity of finding solutions for this problem in education, decision making and applied projects. To make the solution sustainable, the study is suggesting considering the architecture as a human right for all ethnical groups. Such shift can help us to secure all nations' architecture as human resources for present and future generations

Keywords: Architecture, Architectural heritage, History of Architecture, Human Right; Multi Ethnic country; dominance; elite, Sustainable Development.

INTRODUCTION

After 1st and 2nd World War large number of new countries had been established by the new major powers mainly USA, UK, and France, without considering the ethnical and cultural realities. In the contemporary, the World has more than 7 billion people and speaking more than 7000 languages, yet they live in only 193 states. Since these countries are composed of multi-cultural and ethnical nations, so they also have multicultural architectural heritages . Several studies showing this finding among them is The Encyclopaedia of Vernacular Architecture of the World edited by Paul Olive. The architectural development of these countries has been resulted from the new imposed power realities. Parallel with this process UN had issued The Universal Declaration of Human Rights on December 10, 1948. It came after several destructive wars with large consequences to our world's social, economy and environment. One of the focal issues of the declaration is bring human and ethical considerations in considering all nations equal rights where all members of human family are entitled to these rights without distinction of any kind .

In large number of countries the multi ethnic reality is ignored and the country is considered as one unified culture defined by the dominating ethnical group culture . As a consequence architectural heritage of the dominating ethnical group is considered as the national architectural heritage. It is applied in architectural knowledge, architectural changes and transforming the cities. As a consequence the architectural heritages of the ethnical minorities have been ignored, deteriorated and even destroyed because they are belonging to minorities who have no access to decision making. It is common among scholars to consider culture as a resource that needs to be considered in local sustainability of cities. Yet in multi-ethnic cities, this consideration is limited to a particular culture in the country not cultures of all ethnical groups.

The birth of modern architecture and modern city planning has brought the abstraction and the international architecture as new basis for the new generation. But this trend has faced large problems since it ignored the local tradition and the community’s architectural heritage. Although we have developed several trends to solve this dilemma such as regional architecture , yet the problem is continued in the cities because the living quality is not considered. The Death and Life of Great American Cities by Jane Jacobs is considered as a landmark in the changing the modern city architecture towards more user friendly city. Yet, all projects that have been applied and studies about the liveable city and architecture in multi ethnic countries are mostly considering the majority’s architecture.

Thematic approach

The Man started the civilization by architecture. It was his wonderful achievement to turn the earth into a home by forming living built environments of villages and cities. It was from this home the civilization story had started. Along with this achievement the early established civilizations had also inherited the desire to dominate and control others. In some cases the goal was to secure the continuity and most other cases the goal was only to be larger, wealthier, and stronger. To achieve that, they had started with the culture of war to dominate, control and demolish other cities and cultures. Almost all old civilizations had their own War Gods to assist them in their wars, win and dominate or destruct the enemy cities and their gods. Therefore, establishing empires was started from building a strong city then, expanding and controlling other cities under protection of their war god (fig.1).

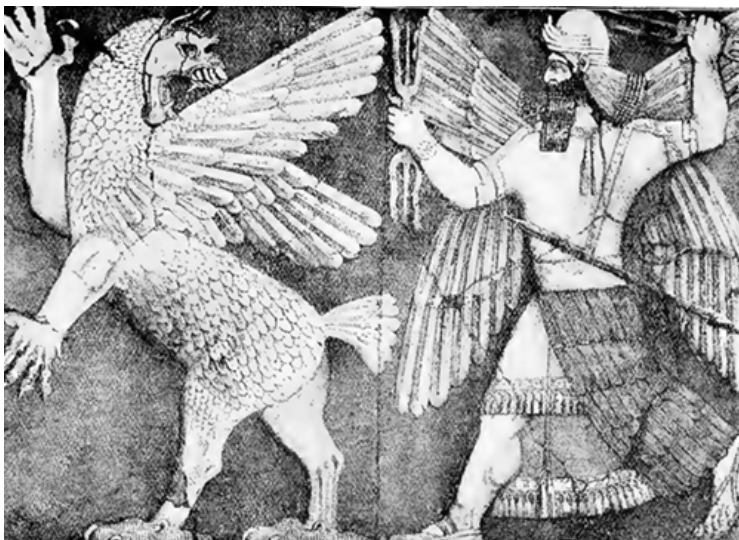
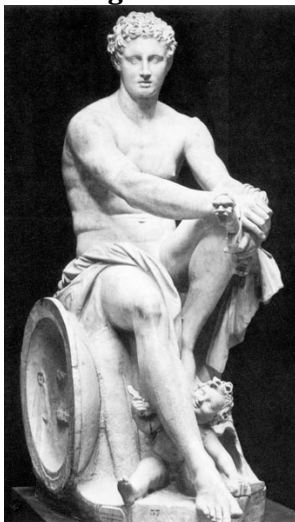


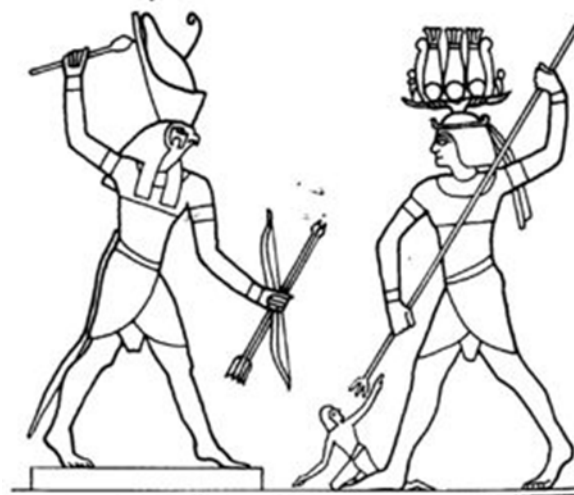
Figure 1 War Gods: Marduk Babylon’s war god



Mars Rome’s war god



Ares Greek war god



Horus Ancient Egypt’s war god

It was then the conflicts, terrors and had started along with rules to justify punishing the others cities and destructing them. The cities that had lost a war should accept being ruled by the winner city (or cities) or accept particular obligations. Once the pact was violated (some time even without violation) the city could face a new war that could end with destroying the whole city and its population. The result of these events had resulted in disappearing large number of architectural heritages and their cultures from our planet. Among these cities are (fig. 2) Nineveh 612 BC and Jerusalem in 587 BC destroyed by Babylon. Troy the ancient Greek city founded in 3000 BC and destroyed in 1250 BC in Trojan war, Palmyra in Syria became a city around 1st century and ended in 275 AD by the Roman, Hatra in Iraq founded during 2nd or 3rd century BC and ended in 241 AD by Sasanian rulers in Mesopotamia. Chan Chan in Peru built in 850 AD (fig. 3) and destroyed in 1470 by the Inca. All these cities ended as dead cities, because the buildings had been destroyed and their people forced to abandon them. The only remaining things from these cities are ruins of dead architectural heritages. Some cities had experienced better fate because people had returned to them and rebuilt new cities on the devastated sites such as Athens, Jerusalem, and Baghdad. Although these cities have managed to continue yet their previous architectural heritages were also changed and in many cases only few buildings were managed to continue as landmarks from the past.

Figure 2:



Destroying Nineveh in 612 BC by Babylon



Destroying Jerusalem in 587 BC by Babylon



Troy 3000 BC (modern Hisarlik, Turkey)



Destroyed in 1250 BC by Achaeans ended as ruins



Figure 3: Chan Chan in Peru, south America built in 850 AD and destroyed by the Inca in 1470 AD ended as ruins

Baghdad was built by the Abbasids in 762 AD (fig. 4) as a predesigned rounded city and became a centre of culture and power in Middle East and North Africa and Central Asia. The Mongols sacked Baghdad in 1258 and destroyed the city and most of its architectural, educational, religious and literary monuments, including the irrigation system that had initiated the region's prosperity. The people had managed to rebuild the city but with different city structure that continued till the end 19th century.



Figure 4 Baghdad built in 8th century destroyed in 1258 AD

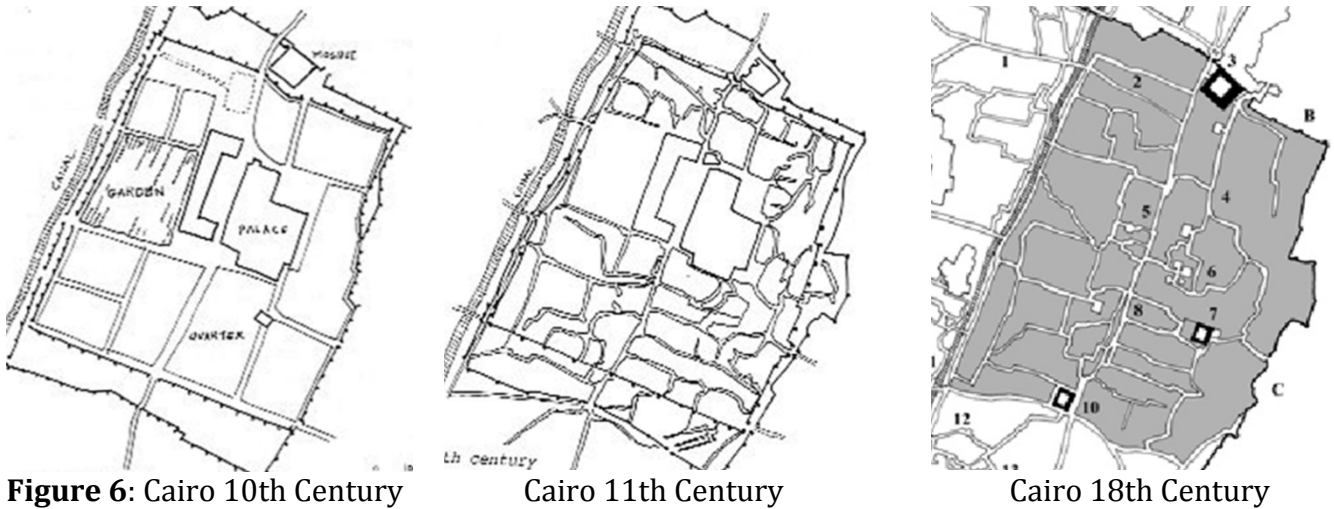
Baghdad 19th century

Same situations had been repeated in the contemporary history following destructions of the 1st and 2nd World Wars such as in London, Berlin, and Hiroshima (fig 5). Despite of rebuilding these cities after the war, the original architecture had been lost and new forms of architecture and city forms had been replaced the old architecture.



Figure 5: Hiroshima following the atom bomb attacks in 1945.

On the other hand, changing of ruling powers had often contributed to change architectural identity and architectural heritages of existing cities. Cairo in Egypt (fig 6) had been built by the Fatimids in 10th century as a royal city with a regular semi-rectangular shape, predesigned streets and buildings. The Fatimids built this Royal city outside the existing city of the defeated capital city. In 1171 the Ayyubids had defeated the Fatimids and had started demolishing their buildings which had transformed city's architecture. This process was continued by the next ruling powers, the Mamluks in 1250 then the Ottomans in 1516. Similar phenomenon can be found in many other cities in the world where political struggles and power shifts were contributed to transform the cities architecture according to the dominating powers demands



Reconstruction following WW1, and WW2 (table 1) had played a similar role in changing and transforming architecture of the old cities and their architectural heritages rapidly and on global level by replacing them with new urban design and architecture such as London, Paris, Berlin, Rome and Hamburg. But their influences have much larger global dimensions, higher speed and global consequences on humanity compared with the previous cases of the pre-industrialization.

Bastogne	Berlin	Nuremberg	Cassino, Italy	Nagasaki
Coventry	Braunschweig	Stuttgart	Civitavecchia	Kobe
Gdansk	Cologne	Szczecin	Foligno	Tokyo
Manila	Dresden	Wroclaw	Fusignano	Kiev
Nanjing	Dusseldorf	Berlin	Gaeta	Minsk
Rotterdam	Hamburg	Chemnitz	Milan	Kharkiv
Warsaw	Hanover	Freiburg	Pescara	Rzhev
Caen	Kaliningrad	Magdeburg	Terni	Smolensk
Calais	Kiel	Schweinfurt	Velletri	Volgograd
Dunkirk	Mainz	Wuppertal	Zadar	Vyazma
Le Havre	Munich	Xanten	Hiroshima	

Table 1: Cities that had been destroyed during 2nd World War

The same phenomenon took place in many other places in developing countries during the 20th century such as Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Syria, Afghanistan, Vietnam, Korea, Israel, Palestine, Bosnia, Croatia, Cypress, and South Africa. Followings are examples from around the world which show existing of this phenomenon which are justified by different ways but all are resulted from similar desire of domination and ignoring the multi ethnical architectural reality of the country.

Soviet Union: Architecture and Socialist Realism

The Bolshevik revolutions in Russia in 1917 had replaced old political system. It had led to creation the Soviet Union in 1920 which was total controlled by a Bolshevik (Communist) government. The Communist government had applied ideas of communism in all society's sectors including how they will live and which kind of architecture will form their living built environment. This should be based on the communism's principles not on local heritages or traditions. The architecture of the Soviet Union during Stalin is a unique example of the total enforced architecture of the elite group in a multi ethnic country. The architecture type during Stalin was called Stalinist Architecture and its major characteristics are Stalin's role as the key person in describing the required architecture and selecting the design. This central role of Stalin was practiced in single buildings, urban design, and town plans. Among these projects are Moskva Hotel, Mokhovaya Street Building and Red Army Theatre in Moskva. On the other hand, socialist realism was an architecture style that was developed in Soviet Union and communist countries to realize principles of the communism and socialism. In 1934 it became state policy and called the official style of Soviet Culture and it was enforce ruthlessly. Therefore, architecture and urban planning was directed by these ideological, political, social as well as small elite groups. It was a restricted centrally controlled architecture and urban development plans with simplified methods. It was applied across the Soviet Union regardless the local architecture of the cities in the different regions and ethnical groups' architecture. The same policy and styles where applied in all Eastern European countries. The images bellow shows social housing projects that had been imposed and built during the Soviet era in Soviet Union and East European Countries and shows strong similarities despite the multi-ethnic realities of Rusia itself and the large differences between communist countries (Fig. 11). The goal was remove locality in order to create unity of architectural style and society (fig. 7-10).



Figure 7: Communist Romanian apartment blocks in Bucharest



Figure 8: Prague-Hostivař, the Czech Republic.



Figure 9: A House quarter in Moskva <http://cultureru.com/category/architecture/page/2/>

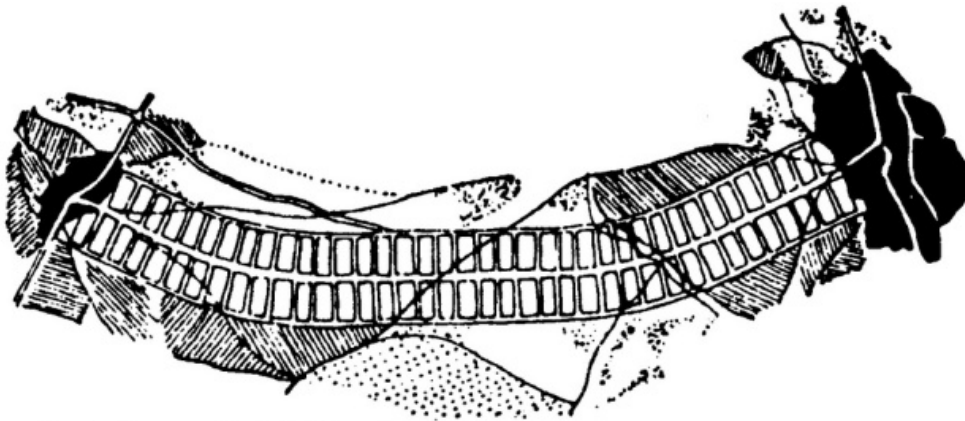


Figure 10: The Linear City: An Option for the socialist cities to applied in the whole of Russia, proposed by Miliutin in 1930

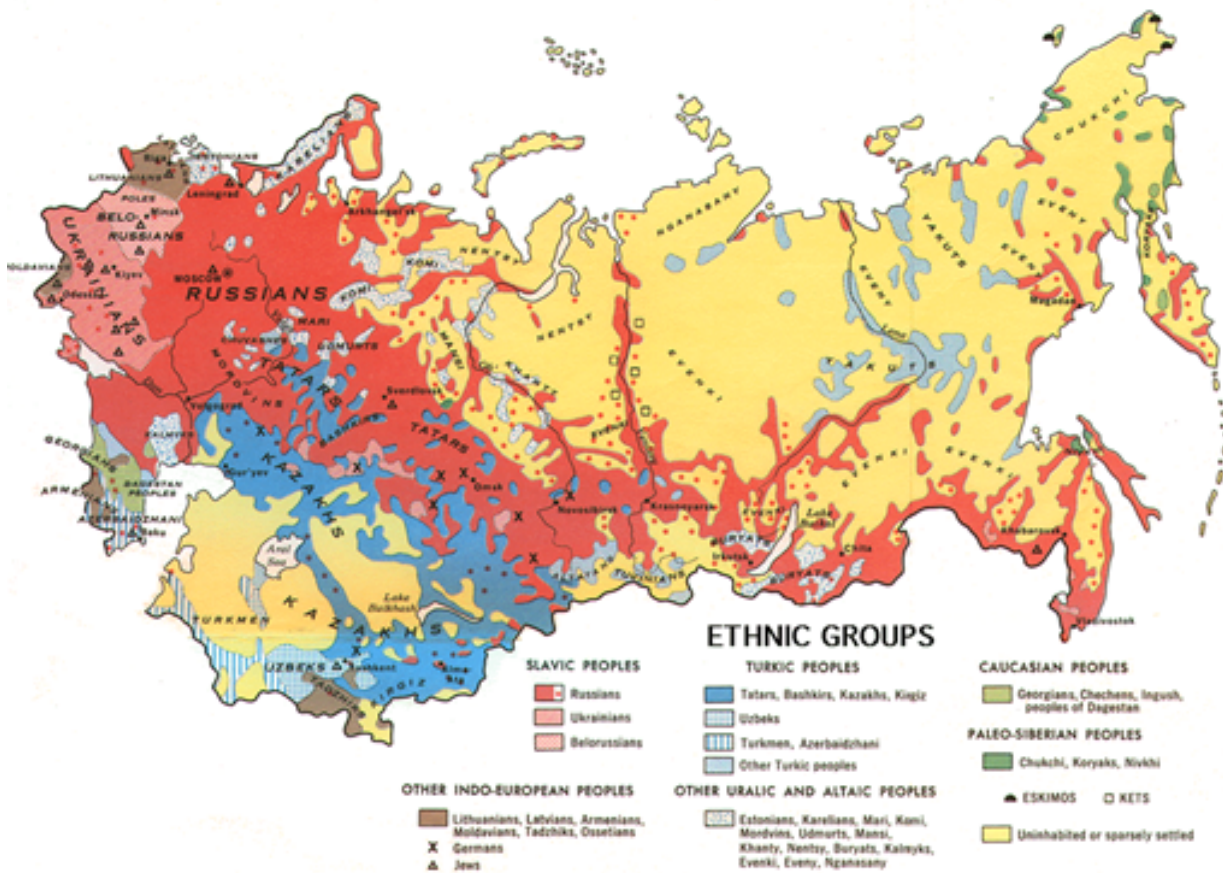


Figure 11: Multi-Ethnic Map of Asia And Rusia <http://www.uiowa.edu>

Israel-Palestine: Ethnical Discrimination Architecture

Israel represents a unique example of changing the architecture as a consequence of changing ruling powers. Israel was attacked twice by the Babylonians and in 587 BC was totally destroyed and its population had been relocated. Since then new settlements were emerged or built by people or new ruling powers It's long urban history shows several powers and civilizations who controlled the region including Canaanits, Israelites, Romans, Byzantines, Arabs, Crusaders, Kurds, the Mamluks, the Ottoman Turks and currently Israel. Establishing Israel in 1948 has created the desire to build own architectural identity and revive it's the architectural heritage.

But practicing this is done on ethnical bases which is a typical example of imposed architecture in a country with multi-ethnic social structure. Cities and settlements within Israel are built in a style that considers heritage and local situation creating a contemporary local identity (fig. 13), but architectural heritage of the occupied areas are either destroyed or left for deterioration (fig. 14). Even the names of the cities differ between the Jewish society and Palestinian Society. This issue is rooted in the history and it shows that names were changed following changing the ruling powers during the history. For example city of Nablus was founded by the Roman Emperor in in 72 CE and called flavia Neapolis and since then it has been ruled by different empires. In 244 Philip the Arab named the city Julia Neapolis. In 636 CE, Neapolis became part of the Islamic Caliphate and its name changed to Nablus. Since Israel was established in 1948 most of Arabic villages and cities were either demolished or their architecture was totally changed with new and different architecture to show their belonging to Israel (fig 13). This strategy is not only applied in Israeli area but also in the occupied Palestinian territories which are declared as Palestinian since 1967.



Figure 13: Israeli settlement in Westbank



Figure 14: Demolishing Islamic Heritage site-Jerusalem

Iraq: Architecture of the Ethnical Dominance

Iraq has three main ethnical groups Arabs, Kurds and Turkmens (fig 15). Each ethnical group has its own territory and culture. Some cities have mixed ethnical groups. This multi ethnic situation is can be shown also in Turkey, Syria, and Iran. In Turkey the Turks are the major ethnical group while in Iran the Persian are the majority. The national borders of all these countries had been created after 1st World war.

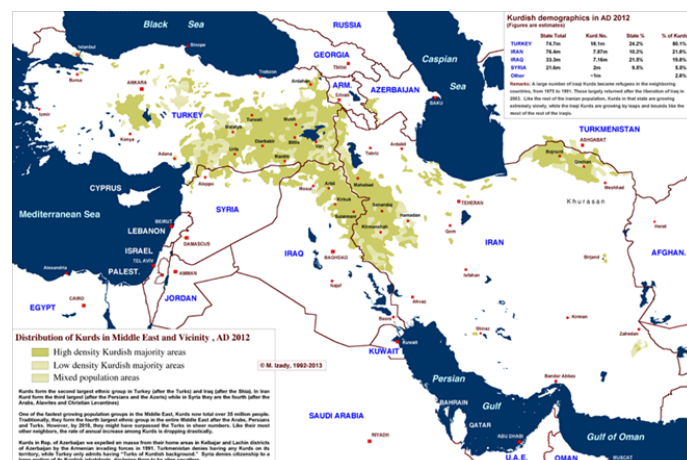


Figure 15: Distribution of Kurds in four countries in the Middle East

The historical evidences in Iraq show that since the ancient time many cities had been destroyed following power struggle such as Hatra and Baghdad. The present Iraq had been

established as an independent country in 1921. It has a multi ethnic society where each ethnical group has its own culture, cities and geographical areas. Yet, the multi-cultural realities of Iraq's architecture, heritage, and cities have been ignored by the authorities and the architects. In many cases cities, small towns, and historical sites, have been demolished and enforced people to resettle. The dominating groups have decided which architecture to be applied, what to be transformed and developed as the result of the total centralized decision making process. The system has also decided which heritage to be maintained and what to be ignored or even demolished. The local governments had also contributed to change the existing architectural heritage of many Kurdish cities by destroying some historical sites such as the ancient Kirkuk citadel and enforced its residents to move out. In other cases, they have demolished old heritage buildings and monuments such as Gate of Erbil City in order to change its identity.

Kirkuk Citadel

City of Kirkuk is located south of Iraqi-Kurdistan and has a multi ethnic society (Kurds, Turkmen, and Arabs). Its citadel is an ancient settlement which had developed its unique city form and architecture. In 1990s the authority had demolished the citadel arguing that the buildings were deteriorating and dangerous for living. But in reality was a punishment against its Kurdish and Turkmen population who opposed the central authority. The second goal for the demolishing was to remove the historical identity of the city (fig 16-19).



Figure 16: Ancient Citadel of Kirkuk City



Figure 17: Demolished in 1998



Figure 18: The citadel's buildings after their destructions





Figure 19: View of the Kirkuk citadel after the destruction

Erbil Citadel

Erbil city is the capital town of Kurdistan Region in Iraq. It has a unique round city form which is resulted from building around the citadel. The citadel is considered as one of the oldest urban living settlements in the world. In June 2014, the Citadel has been listed in UNESCO World Heritage list. The citadel has a clustered structure with houses of different sizes and narrow streets which have very organic shapes (fig. 20-21). The clustered houses at the outer side form the city wall. In 1960 the main gate of Erbil Citadel (fig. 26) was demolished (Fig. 22) by the local authority as part of its effort to open a main straight street across the citadel. The street has divided the citadel to two parts. This was done parallel with applying a new city plan that totally ignored the existing historical city network

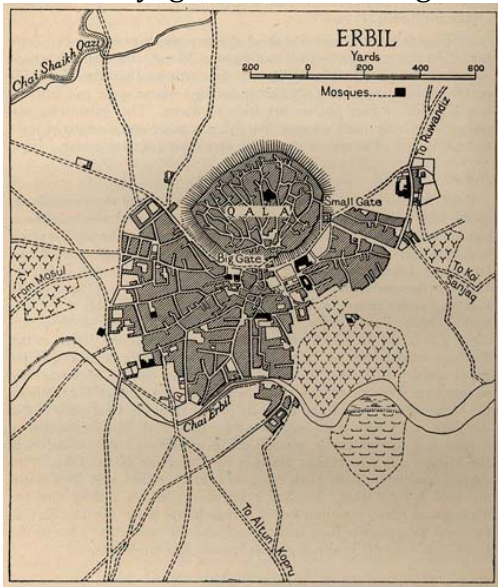


Figure 20: Erbil city and its Citadel in 1900



Figure 21: Erbil Citadel in 1950



Fig 22 Erbil Citadel 1960, demolishing its historical gates

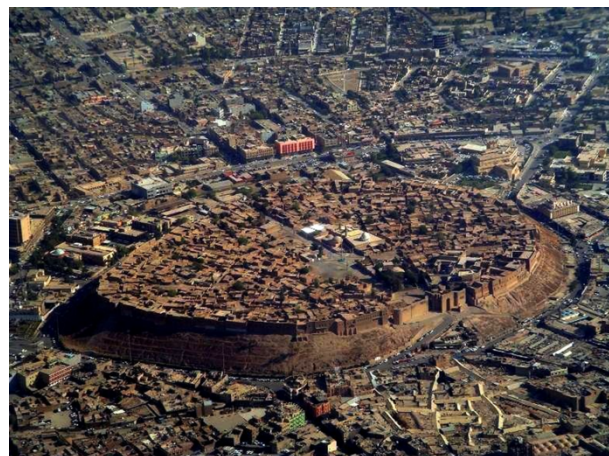


Figure 23: Erbil Citadel 1985: Building a new gate

In 1981, the authority had rebuilt the gate with a new design done by Architect Rifat Chadirji (fig. 23 and 27) which had reflected principles of Babylon Gate (fig. 24-25). The design was both unrespecting the local architectural heritage and its historical value. The same process

have been applied in developing the city's new town plan and designing the monumental buildings which all have been done in Baghdad with the central authorities selected architects.



Figure 24: A model of Babylon gate



Figure 25: Babylon gate in Berlin Museum

It is an example of how architecture can be used in political struggle. The new change in Iraq after 2003 has created a possibility to conserve the historical site of the citadel where many international heritage centres started with conservation of the citadel. In May 2013, the local authority has decided to demolish the gate to replace it with the original gate using its old and original architecture (fig. 28-29).



Figure 26: The Citadel gate in early 20th century



Figure 27: The Fake Gate 1981(Copy from ancient Babylon)



Figure 28: Demolishing the Gate in 2013
Photo: Noor Nooraddin & Osama Nooraddin



Figure 29: Rebuilding the original Gate in 2013-2014

America: Architecture of the immigrants

Although the contemporary architecture of America can be identified as a unique example of imposed colonists' architecture, yet historical evidences of large number of nations that have been mentioned earlier in this paper had practiced same way of architectural process. Discovery of America in 1492-1493 and the start of European migration had reduces the native populations (The Indians) to underclass and almost wiped out. The history of America up till 19th century and particularly during the slave trade and Great Removal has large ethnic cleansing where large ethnic groups being forced to resettle to other places and their homes were destroyed such as during the Great Removal where thousands of main five clans (Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Seminole and Creek) were resettled to the west where large number had died. All countries of present North and South America share this phenomenon. Yet in South America the Indians had gradually managed to be integrated with the new migrant society creating a different social structure situation than USA and Canada. There are large disputes about the Indian's architecture because it has been considered as a shelter architecture. The Indians have developed different types of architecture. But their settlements had been systematically demolished or neglected and replaced by the architecture of the immigrants or the new comers or what is called the Colonial Architecture (fig 32-33) and the later styles architecture (fig 34-35). Each particular group of ethnical colonists had built a settlement using architecture of their original home country. Few settlements were managed to survive and continue with its Indian architecture and population. One of these sites is Pueblo de Taos from 13th century in New Mexico (fig. 30-31), USA. It is the only living community in the list of UNESCO World Heritage of the Native American sites. Its population is 150 person only.



Figure 30: Pueblo Inians Architecture, New Mexico,

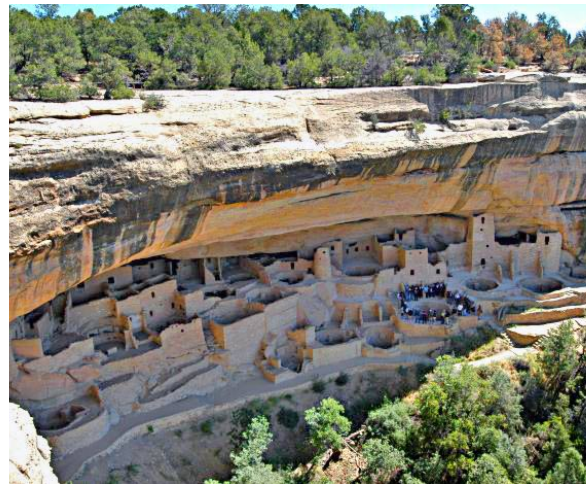


Figure 31: Pueblo de Taos Ancient Pueblo Peoples (Ancestral Pueblo peoples)



Figure 32: Corwin House, Salem, MA 1660 English



Figure 33: Gonzalez-Alvarez, Fl. 1723 Spanish



Fig 34 Trinity Church, New York, 1839



Figure 35: Collins Street, Melbourne (The Victorian era buildings)

CONCLUSIONS

The historical and present evidences of violations against cities and heritages that ended with demolishing whole cities and cultures need a paradigm shift in understanding the city and its architecture as a human right. The historical learning shows that demolishing and punishing the city and its architecture had often been and still used as a tool and target in ethnical power struggle. This has been practiced globally and during the whole history. It has been applied mainly in two ways: first by physical destruction of the entire city and relocate its population, Second by demolishing heritage sites and buildings to change the city's identity. It is also common to see that during the whole history new ruling powers may even change names of cities and historical building's names to re-identify them. This issue is directly influenced by a tradition that is rooted in the mankind's history which uses the architecture as a tool in the power struggle and applies the strategy of (name it tame it). It also reflects the user's limited or no ability to participate in decision making process within the city. There is need to give all nations (not only dominating ethnical group) equal rights in considering the UN human rights declaration (Each particular cultural group shall get the possibility to decide how to conserve, reuse, and develop its architectural heritage in the present city to create a living domain with identity) . The conflict starts when one particular ethnical group dominates on the architectural decision making and neglects the other cultural groups' rights. Such situation has contributed to deteriorate and/or to destroy architectural heritages of the other cultural groups in the same country. This problem requires more study about how architectural heritages are researched and reused in urban development of multicultural countries. Although, this phenomenon had been existed since earliest human cultures yet the present knowledge, experiences and requirements to establish sustainable development in each particular country rises the issue of correcting this historical mistake and violation. Doing this will require among others understanding role of the present architects and the contemporary architectural knowledge. Such change is also necessary to realize equal sustainable development for all nations which considers architecture of each nation as an important resource for future generations.

The case studies are showing a serious global architectural problem that needs correction. The human civilization had started with architecture which had created cities. Yet, there are large numbers of cities and architectural heritages of different nations had been destroyed as result of power struggle and dominance since earliest civilizations till the present.

In the present, most of the world's countries are composed of multi ethnic groups, yet the world is full with example of neglecting cities and architectural heritages because of the multi ethnic conflicts. This phenomenon is a direct reflection of dominating a particular cultural group or an elite group on the decision making and ignoring the other cultural groups. Since this is a global phenomenon and rooted in history, it needs a global effort to correct it and stop it by giving all cultural groups equal rights towards developing their cities and maintaining architectural heritages.

Both the architectural education, regulations, decision making and the architectural practice in each particular country need to be reformed in order to consider the multi-ethnic architectural realities of the country and how architecture of each particular ethnic group be used and developed in a way that can support its sustainable development. The contemporary cities do not need the ancient models of War God but equity and social justice in applying architecture to build sustainable cities with high life quality for all cultures on this earth.

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Satisfaction Levels, Opinions, and Experiences of Asian Faculty on Campus: Does Citizenship Status Make A Difference?

Patricia G. Boyer

University of Missouri-St. Louis
269 Marillac Hall St. Louis, MO 63121 (314)516-7396

Shawn Woodhouse

University of Missouri
269 Marillac Hall St. Louis, MO 63121

Pi-Chi Han

National Kaohsiung Normal University
No.116, Heping 1st Rd., Lingya District
Kaohsiung, Taiwan 80201

Abstract

The increasing complexity and diversity of U.S. society has enhanced the challenge of accommodating the needs of immigrants. University campuses in the United States are also becoming increasingly diverse, yet we cannot assume that diversity of numbers equates with acceptance of and respect for differences. The purpose of this study was to determine if there are differences in the perceptions of the campus and academic environment of Asian faculty employed in U.S. higher education institutions. There were three groups of Asian faculty members studied (1) U.S. citizens; (2) citizens, foreign born; and (3) non citizens using NSOPF:99 self-reported database. The theoretical framework utilized for this study is Herzberg's work on hygiene theory, which explains the differences between employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as well as workplace factors that cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Several Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) were conducted to determine if there were statistically significant differences among the three groups of faculty focusing on 17 satisfaction and 12 opinion variables. The overall findings of the study revealed that Asian faculty members were both "somewhat dissatisfied" and "disagreed" with the majority of opinion variables related to the campus and academic environment. The study concludes with implications for administrators who will support Asian faculty members employed at higher education institutions.

"Every human who speaks a language has an accent, and every human who listens to others talk perceives an accent" (Kavas & Kavas, 2008, *College Student Journal*, p. 879).

INTRODUCTION

Globalization demands are transforming the boundaries of the world, resulting in fundamental implications for the mobility of people across geographical boundaries (Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri, 2007). The increase in globalization has caused dramatic shifts and rapid changes in the U.S. population and transformed the demographics of educational institutions, society and the workplace.

The foreign-born population has been a crucial element in the development of the history of the United States with immigrant labor being the underpinning of this country's economic success (Lin, Pearce & Wang, 2009, p. 717). The U.S. continues to attract large number of foreign-born people. In fact, in 2010, fourteen million foreign-born people lived in the U.S. (ACS as cited by Walters and Trevelyan, 2011, p. 1), with 40% of the foreign-born population coming from Asia (China & India) and another 40% coming from Latin America and the Caribbean

(p.2). The increasing complexity and diversity of U.S. society has enhanced the challenge of accommodating the needs of immigrants.

The U.S. Census Bureau (2007) released a report in the publication *American Community* which indicated that Asians represented 4.7 percent of the U.S. household population. The increase represented a continuation of this population's rapid growth since 1970, when it numbered about 800,000. The total percentage of Asian/Pacific Islanders more than tripled in the 1970s, and subsequently doubled in the 1980s (U.S. Census Bureau). According to Lee and Kumashiro (2005), "The Asian American and Pacific Islander [AAPIs] category is very diverse with over 50 ethnic groups, 100 language groups, and numerous religious groups. Some AAPIs are multiple-generation Americans, some are from immigrant families, and some are refugees" (p. 12).

Purpose of the Study

A close analysis of university campuses in the United States confirm they are becoming increasingly diverse, yet we cannot assume that racial diversity represented in quantitative terms equates with acceptance of and respect for differences. For instance, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2011) revealed that Asian Americans comprise approximately nine percent of higher education faculty and lag behind their White counterparts (79%) in rank as the second largest. Unfortunately, although our campuses are ethnically and racially diverse, intolerance and exclusion are too often the experience of ethnic and racial minority faculty members (Johnsrud & Sadao, 1998; Milem, Chang & Antonio, 2005), staff, and students. A number of research studies have been conducted regarding faculty productivity (e.g. Jung, 2012; Herzog, 2010; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2009; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Tack & Patitu, 1992) and productivity by gender (e.g. Sax, Hagedorn, Arredondo, & DiCrisi, 2009; Hagedorn, 2001). A limited amount of research has been conducted regarding satisfaction levels, opinions, and experiences of Asian faculty, especially those who are temporary residents of the United States and foreign-born citizens. Specifically, the purpose of this study is an attempt to better understand Asian faculty members based on citizenship status (U.S. born, foreign-born, non-citizen) and to evaluate similarities and differences in their satisfaction levels, opinions, and experiences on the college campus. Spector as cited by Daly and Dee (2006) define job satisfaction as "an affective response that an organizational member has toward his or her particular job, and results from the employee's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are expected" (p. 785).

Literature Review

According to *Open Doors*, a publication released by the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2009), 113,494 international scholars were teaching or conducting research on U.S. campuses, an increase of 7% from the previous year. *Open Doors* indicated that the top four leading places of origin of international scholars, China, India, South Korea, and Japan, respectively, comprised 46.8% of the entire pool. Madhavan (2001) argues that in postsecondary institutions, the need for highly qualified scholars has grown dramatically. Asian international scholars in science and engineering ranked very high on the list of international scholars and many of them have held non-immigration visas (see Freeman, 2006). Many universities and colleges have recruited highly competent faculty from Asian countries such as China and India to fill these positions (Galladay, 1989; Madhavan, 2001; Freeman, 2006) and address a void. Although the pursuit of an academic career has been a vital path for Asian foreign-born scholars in the U.S. (Pang & Appleton, 2004) and has nstigated a growing presence of these faculty on college campuses, they have been largely ignored in higher education literature (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2009).

Ali (2009) asserts that a higher proportion of Asian/Pacific Islander faculty members have been recognized as a high-achieving group who is committed to a high level of responsibility, and they performed better than other races in his study. A “typical” minority profile for Asian Americans has emerged in many studies (Fujimoto, 1996; Lee, 2006; Ng, Lee, & Pak, 2007; Lei, 1998; Suzuki, 2002; Lee & Kumashiro, 2005). Specifically, Ng, Lee, and Pak assert that Asian Americans have been persistently considered as the perpetual foreigners (Tuan, 1998) and model minority stereotypes in the mainstream culture of the U.S.

“Asian American faculty... have been stereotyped to be passive and hard-working but they are incapable of leadership” (Ng, et al., p. 118). They have also been described as “the silent group” in predominantly White colleges and universities (Stanley, 2006) and the definition of “white” was expanded to include Asians (Omi, 2008). Saigo (2008) questions the fact that although Asians are represented in the STEM fields, they do not hold positions of leadership in higher education institutions or in professional organizations. Lee (2002) proclaims that Asian faculty members have experienced many problems such as the glass ceiling effect. Moreover, many research studies consistently report that Asian foreign-born faculty have to work harder than their American colleagues to achieve their goals (Sieu, 1990; Madhavan, 2001).

In a recent study, Stanley (2006) contends that the feelings of isolation and low satisfaction regarding professional accomplishments have affected the lives of faculty of color including Asian American faculty. A review of the literature revealed that faculty of color experience higher levels of work stress than their White counterparts (Bronstein, 1993; Ruffins, 1997; Smith & Witt, 1996; Stanley, 2006); the fear of not achieving tenure and promotion (Turner, 2002); and they struggled with lower tenure rates (Hune & Chan, 1997). Therefore, in order to be successful in academe, faculty of color have to work twice as hard to be treated as equal (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000). Jackson (2004) stated that the problem experienced by faculty of color and some women include feelings of being “discouraged, less supported, and perceived the tenure process to be less fair, than their white male colleagues” (pp. 179-180).

Several problems inundate the literature regarding Asian faculty, especially those who are not permanent citizens, such as the topic of limited English proficiency and its effect in the academy and their daily life activities. Another problem for temporary citizens is the experience of a certain degree of culture shock (Bockner, 2003), stress, and sociocultural disruption. Kavas & Kavas (2008) contend that “cultural differences are sometimes misconstrued as a language barrier; therefore, method and styles of teaching may negatively affect communication in the classroom” (p. 882). Similar to Asian American faculty, Asian foreign-born faculty also present some unique problems related to their cultural adaptation and assimilation to the American culture (Madhavan, 2001). Many of them reported a feeling of being outsiders and a concern with having communication issues and misunderstandings, and experiencing discrimination (Madhavan), which can lead to job dissatisfaction.

Research on Asian Americans and similar research topics have been marginalized (Chan, 2005; Nakanishi, 1993). There is limited literature regarding Asian faculty, specifically research that pertains to job satisfaction and opinions among this faculty population, thus the purpose and importance of this research.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Faculty perceptions of job satisfaction in the work environment is the focus of this study, therefore it is important to discuss the concept of motivation and its implications regarding faculty job satisfaction. Motivation is a “major individual level variable” (Kreitner & Kinicki, as cited in Zhang & von Dran, 2000, p. 1255) that is indicative of productivity and job satisfaction. Kreitner and Kinicki explain that motivation is an individual level variable because “job

satisfaction is defined as an affective or emotional response to one's job" (p. 1255) that is predicated upon intrinsic motivational factors that motivate an individual to perform work tasks. Conversely, job dissatisfaction can be associated with external motivational factors that are linked to contextual or external factors. The constructs of satisfaction and dissatisfaction have also been explained in relation to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with regard to academic employment (Iacocca, Schumacher & Li, 1995).

Herzberg (1987) developed the motivation-hygiene theory, one of the most widely used theories consulted in the redesign of work. This theory explains the differences between employee satisfaction, which he also refers to as motivation, and dissatisfaction, as well as those factors in the workplace that cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The workplace variables that caused satisfaction presumably motivated employees to perform their work and were thus referred to as motivators, and the factors that caused dissatisfaction were referred to as dissatisfaction-avoidance or hygiene factors. Herzberg (1987) characterized "achievement, recognition, characteristics of the work itself, responsibility, and advancement" (p. 92) as motivators that are associated with job satisfaction. The term "hygiene" refers to factors that have the potential to lead to employee dissatisfaction because if they are present, they only qualify to meet the basic human needs that characterize a normal work environment such as physiological, safety and social demands, which alone are not sufficient to produce employee satisfaction (Zhang & von Dran, 2000). These factors include "company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status and security" (p. 92).

Herzberg (1987) postulates that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) should be differentiated from those factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg also claims that because separate and distinct factors should be considered when examining the two constructs, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites of each other. Therefore the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, according to Herzberg, but, rather, no satisfaction and similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, two separate and distinct sets of human needs are involved. One set of needs involve the built-in drive to avoid pain from the environment and the learned drives that become conditioned to basic biological needs. Herzberg provides the example of hunger as a basic biological drive, which makes it necessary to earn money, and subsequently money becomes a specific drive.

Herzberg defines the other set of needs as related to the unique human characteristic of the ability to achieve and as a result of this achievement, the individual ability to achieve psychological growth. He further clarifies that the stimuli necessary to meet individual growth needs in the workplace is the job content, and the stimuli necessary to induce pain-avoidance behavior are found in the work environment.

The level of satisfaction is important because it impacts the retention of faculty, especially faculty of color (See Herzog, 2010; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009; Tack & Patitu, 1992). Institutions invest so much time and money in recruiting and developing faculty that it behooves them to retain all faculty, especially faculty of color.

METHODOLOGY

Data Source

We analyzed data from the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF: 99) database. It is the most comprehensive study of

U.S. faculty in postsecondary educational institutions ever undertaken, with data collected from sampled faculty in a multistage effort (NCES, n.d.). According to NCES, the purpose of collecting NSOPF data was to provide data about faculty to postsecondary education researchers, planners, and policymakers and to understand who faculty are; what they do; and whether, how, and why they are changing. Approximately 28,600 faculty and instructional staff from 960 degree-seeking postsecondary institutions completed the self-reported survey (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

It is important to understand that utilizing secondary data restricts the researcher to using variables or data originally collected (Herron, 1989) and secondary data is not collected to answer the secondary user's specific research questions (Kozoil & Arthur, 2011; Crossman, n.d.). The advantages of time and money, breath of data available (Kozoil & Arthur, 2011; Crossman), and oversampling of certain groups transcends the disadvantages of using secondary data.

VARIABLES AND MEASURES

Three groups of Asian faculty members were studied in this research project according to their citizenship status and they included (1) U.S. citizens; (2) citizens, foreign born; and (3) non-citizens. The purpose of this study is to better understand Asian faculty members based upon their citizenship status and to evaluate similarities and differences in their satisfaction levels, opinions, and experiences on the college campus. This study will aid in determining if there are differences in Asian faculty perceptions of the campus and academic environment.

For this study, two demographic variables from the 1999 NSOPF database were used - "Asian faculty" and "citizenship types." Asian faculty in the NSOPF database were coded as "Asian" if they responded to the race/ethnicity question that they were Asian or Pacific Islander (NCES). Asian or Pacific Islander faculty responding to self-reported surveys are usually a small sample size, therefore the various Asian groups responding to the NSOPF database were collapsed into one group classified as "Asian." Another variable utilized from the NSOPF database was "citizenship types" and it was coded in the NSOPF database as U.S. citizens, citizens, foreign born or non-citizens (See NCES).

Data for the current study were analyzed using SAS Statistical Tools and Thomas and Heck's (2001) research that is ideal for handling large and complex data such as NSOPF. The margin of error for this study is at the $p < .05$ level. The research questions that are germane to this study are as follows: 1) Are there statistically significant differences in level of satisfaction and experiences of Asian faculty by citizenship status; and 2) Are there statistically significant differences in the opinion and experiences of Asian faculty by citizenship status.

Dependent variables utilized in this study are satisfaction variables and opinion variables. There are 17 satisfaction variables (e.g., satisfaction with undergraduate students, satisfaction with workload, satisfaction with job overall) and the responses were coded as are "1=Very dissatisfied"; "2=Somewhat dissatisfied"; "3=Somewhat satisfied"; "4=Very satisfied." Additionally, there were 12 opinion variables (e.g., opinion about teaching as promotion criteria, opinion of workload increase, opinion of atmosphere for expression of ideas) and the responses were coded as "1=Strongly disagree"; "2=Disagree"; "3=Agree"; "4=Strongly agree" (For a list of the variables see Table 1 and Table 3, respectively).

Data were analyzed using SAS Statistical Tools. Presented in Table 1 are the means and standard deviations of the 17 satisfaction variables studied. Variables were selected from a restricted set of variables. In Table 2, a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were statistically significant differences among the three

groups of faculty and their perceptions of the satisfaction variables. The tables consist of the sum of squares, the F-values and p-values for the 17 satisfaction variables.

Table 3 displays the means and standard deviations of the 12 opinion variables studied. In Table 4, a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were statistical significant differences among the three groups of faculty and their perceptions regarding the opinion variables. The tables consisted of the sum of squares, the F-values and p-values for the 12 opinion variables.

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study is to better understand Asian faculty members based on citizenship status and to evaluate similarities and differences in their satisfaction levels, opinions, and experiences on the college campus. There were a total of 480 Asian faculty members in this study, of which 15% were U.S. citizens (n=71); 45% were citizens, foreign born (n=215); and 40% were non-citizens (n=194). The majority of the faculty members were married with dependents (76%) and male (72%). Additionally, the faculty members in this study were tenured (44%), on the tenure track (25%), not on the tenure track (25%), and 5% were employed at institutions with no tenure system.

There were 17 satisfaction variables studied in this research (See Tables 1 & 2). On average, Asian faculty members by citizenship status were either “somewhat satisfied” or “somewhat dissatisfied” with the campus environment. Of the 17 satisfaction variables, there were 12 variables in which the faculty were similar in their responses and the remaining five variables they were mixed in their responses. On average, faculty were “somewhat satisfied” in regards to the variables - decide course content, decide course taught, available to advise students, class prep, and job security. Moreover, faculty were “somewhat dissatisfied” in regards to the variables - quality of undergraduate students, workload, time to keep current in the field, effectiveness of faculty leadership, salary, benefits, and spouse employment opportunity. They were mixed in regards to the variables - job decision, quality of graduate students, advancement opportunity, freedom to do consulting, and job overall (See Table 1).

Specifically, the five somewhat satisfied variables were “satisfaction with the authority to decide course content” (M_{citizen} = 3.69, M_{foreign}=3.59, M_{non}=3.58); “satisfaction with the authority to decide course taught” (M_{citizen} = 3.37, M_{foreign}=3.24, M_{non}=3.17); “satisfaction with time available to advise students” (M_{citizen} = 3.09, M_{foreign}=3.16, M_{non}=3.00); “satisfaction with time available for class preparation” (M_{citizen} = 3.09, M_{foreign}=3.16, M_{non}=3.01); and “satisfaction with job security” (M_{citizen} = 3.20, M_{foreign}=3.37, M_{non}=3.01).

The seven variables with which faculty specifically expressed dissatisfaction were satisfaction with quality of undergraduate students (M_{citizen} = 2.90, M_{foreign}=2.77, M_{non}=2.63); satisfaction with workload (M_{citizen} =2.80, M_{foreign}=2.85, M_{non}=2.85); satisfaction with time to keep current in the field (M_{citizen} = 2.58, M_{foreign}=2.69, M_{non}=2.63); satisfaction with effectiveness of faculty leadership (M_{citizen} = 2.49, M_{foreign}=2.47, M_{non}=2.50); satisfaction with salary(M_{citizen} = 2.41, M_{foreign}=2.44, M_{non}=2.21); satisfaction with benefits (M_{citizen} = 2.77, M_{foreign}=2.80, M_{non}=2.60); and satisfaction with spouse employment opportunity (M_{citizen} = 2.87, M_{foreign}=2.81, M_{non}=2.58). The remaining five variables revealed differences in their satisfaction level: satisfaction with authority to make other job decision (M_{citizen} = 3.18, M_{foreign}=3.01, M_{non}=2.93); satisfaction with quality of graduate students (M_{citizen} = 2.97, M_{foreign}=3.01, M_{non}=2.92); satisfaction with advancement opportunity (M_{citizen} = 3.09, M_{foreign}=2.88, M_{non}=2.72); and satisfaction with freedom to do

consulting(Mcitizen = 3.03, Mforeign=3.13, Mnon=2.96); and job overall(Mcitizen = 3.06, Mforeign=3.06, Mnon=2.95) (See Table 1).

Of the 17 satisfaction variables studied, only four variables were statistically significant. These variables were satisfaction with job security ($F=7.97$, $p=.0004$); satisfaction with advancement opportunity ($F=4.46$, $p=0.120$); satisfaction with salary ($F=3.49$, $p=.0314$) and satisfaction with spouse employment opportunity ($F=3.69$, $p=0.0256$). The Wilks' Lambda is 0.7559 (76% of the variance was unaccounted for by the response variable) and Pillai's Trace is significant at .0001 (See Table 2).

In sum, the satisfaction levels of the Asian faculty in this study are mixed. Approximately one-half of the variables studied revealed faculty are somewhat satisfied in relation to such variables as "decide course content," "time available for class preparation" and "job security," and the remaining variables revealed they are dissatisfied with such variables as "workload," "time to keep current in field" and "salary & benefits" (See Table 1). On the other hand, one-half of the variables studied revealed faculty are somewhat dissatisfied in such variables as "satisfaction with workload," "satisfaction with time to keep current in the field" and "satisfaction with benefits."

Another set of variables studied in this research were related to Asian faculty members' opinion about the academic environment. There were 12 opinion variables studied and 10 of them in which the faculty displayed similar opinions (See Tables 3 & 4). Moreover, there are only two of the opinion variables in which the faculty were mixed in their responses ("disagree" and "agree").

There was only one variable that revealed a statistically significant difference, the opinion that faculty workload had increased (Mcitizen = 3.05, Mforeign=3.08, Mnon=3.10). In relation to this variable, Asian faculty agreed that workload has increased. Nine of the 12 variables revealed that the faculty members disagree regarding the opinion about the opinion variables studied: teaching as promotion criteria (Mcitizen = 2.87, Mforeign=2.74, Mnon=2.65); research as promotion criteria (Mcitizen = 2.37, Mforeign=2.72, Mnon=2.91); research rewarded more than teaching (Mcitizen = 2.45, Mforeign=2.75, Mnon=2.64); post-tenure review of faculty (Mcitizen = 2.91, Mforeign=2.90, Mnon=2.96); treatment of minority faculty (Mcitizen = 2.77, Mforeign=2.76, Mnon=2.76); undergraduate education at institution (Mcitizen = 2.55, Mforeign=2.51, Mnon=2.55); atmosphere for expression of ideas (Mcitizen = 2.37, Mforeign=2.38, Mnon=2.39); quality of research at institution (Mcitizen = 2.27, Mforeign=2.25, Mnon=2.25); and full-time faculty replaced by part-time faculty (Mcitizen = 2.66, Mforeign=2.44, Mnon=2.48) (See Table 3). There were two variables for which Asian faculty member opinions differed—treatment of female faculty (Mcitizen = 2.90, Mforeign=3.10, Mnon=3.04) and the ability to obtain funding (Mcitizen = 2.86, Mforeign= 3.05, Mnon= 3.10) -- but they were not statistically significant.

In sum, the Asian faculty in this study was very dissatisfied with the opportunity to express their opinion about issues (e.g. "opinion about research rewarded more than teaching," "opinion about ability to obtain funding," & "opinion about undergraduate education at the institution") (See Table 3). Of the 12 opinion variables studied, only one was statistically significant: opinion about research as promotion criteria ($F=11.45$, $p=.0001$). The Wilks' Lambda is 0.7559 (76% of the variance is unaccounted for by the response variable) and Pillai's Trace is significant at .0001 (See Table 4).

Overall, the findings of this study revealed that Asian faculty, regardless of citizenship status, are both "somewhat dissatisfied" and "somewhat satisfied" with their workload, productivity

and experiences at their particular institution. There are only four variables in which they differ in their views regarding satisfaction at their institution and they are related to finances (job security, advancement opportunities, salary, & spouse employment opportunity). Additionally, these faculty are very similar, despite their citizenship status, regarding their opinions about what is ensuing at their institution. As a group, they generally “disagree” with the opinions variables in this study when they are provided opportunities to express their opinions about issues related to their institution.

LIMITATIONS

This study, like other studies utilizing secondary data, has some limitations with regard to the sampling techniques employed. Asian faculty selected in this study were not stratified by institutional type because the sample size for this group was small, which is another limitation of the study. It should be noted that satisfaction levels, opinions, and experiences could possibly be different for the Asian faculty based on their institutional type. Faculty at two-year institutions encounter different experiences than faculty at four-year institutions.

Another limitation of the study is the use of self-reported data. According to Cook and Campbell (1979) as cited by Yu (n.d.), “Subjects (a) tend to report what they believe the researcher expects to see, or (b) report what reflects positively on their own abilities, knowledge, beliefs, or opinions” (¶ 1). One must also be careful in interpreting and generalizing the results of this study due to the limitations.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The role of American higher education has evolved. Higher education will continue to evolve in the future in response to the dynamics of diversity and globalization. The purpose of this study is to better understand the impact of satisfaction and opinions of Asian faculty in U.S. institutions by citizenship type. This research is important because we need to understand the experiences of international scholars in order to best accommodate their needs and retain a diverse faculty. There is a very limited amount of research that focuses on the satisfaction or opinions of Asian faculty. There are a couple of current research studies that focus on foreign-born Asian faculty and Asian American faculty using the NSOPF databases, but there are not any studies that emphasize the three citizenship types discussed in this study. We will attempt to understand and address the similarities and differences among Asian faculty in this study.

The findings of this study revealed that Asian faculty, regardless of citizenship status, are mixed in the level of satisfaction regarding their experiences at their particular institution. The responses by citizenship type revealed that the U.S. citizens and foreign-born citizens were similar in their responses regarding the satisfaction level. Both groups were “somewhat satisfied” in response to nine variables and “somewhat dissatisfied” in response to eight variables. On the other hand, non-citizen Asian faculty were “somewhat dissatisfied” with 12 of the 17 variables.

Moreover, the findings in this study revealed that the non-citizen Asian faculty members were more dissatisfied than the Asian faculty who were U.S. citizens and foreign-born citizens. Moreover, Asian faculty members’ opinions were not very positive about the environment in which they work (See Table 3). Asian faculty also appeared to be more similar as a group regarding every variable except for the variable “opinion about research as promotion criteria.” These findings were consistent for the three citizenship types that were explored in this study. Interpreting the results of this study raised more questions than providing answers regarding the three groups of faculty according to citizenship status.

Non-citizen Asian faculty members may have been more dissatisfied than the U.S. citizen and foreign-born Asian faculty groups because according to Bockner (2003), temporary citizens experience a certain degree of culture shock, stress and sociocultural disruption as they attempt to adjust to U.S. culture. Many non-citizen Asian faculty members are not familiar with the academic culture and educational system of the U.S., which tends to be very different than the Asian academic culture. Additionally, the academic culture of postsecondary institutions can be intimidating, and the process of simply teaching courses in the U.S. can promote a certain amount of insecurity and discomfort. This is consistent with a report by Wells, Seifert, Park, Reed, and Umbach (2007) that stated Asian faculty are less satisfied with overall job satisfaction. Skachkova (as cited in Mamiseishvili, 2011) indicated that judgments regarding foreign-born faculty members' teaching effectiveness were associated with their linguistic proficiency.

The findings revealed that foreign-born citizens and non-citizens were similar in their responses to opinion variables when compared to U.S. citizens. They "agreed" on the same three opinion variables and "disagreed" on the same nine opinion variables. U.S. citizens were similar in their responses to the other two groups but differ in the variables related to the treatment of female faculty and the ability to obtain funding.

Asian faculty members may not have very positive opinions about the environments in which they work because as Stanley (2006) discussed, faculty of color experience feelings of isolation and low self-esteem regarding their professional accomplishments. They also experience high levels of work stress and they have to work twice as hard to be treated equal to their counterparts (Hagedorn, 2000). Additionally, Jackson (2004) stated that the problems experienced by some faculty of color included being discouraged and less supported..." (pp. 179-180).

Asian faculty appeared to be more similar as a group regarding every variable except the variable "opinion about research as promotion criteria," and this held true for the three citizenship types under study. The emphasis placed on research as a promotion criteria will vary across institutions depending upon the mission, goals and institutional type, which could explain the lack of consensus among the groups regarding this variable. The reward structure and value assigned to research at a given institution will alter faculty perceptions of these promotion criteria. This faculty group is not necessarily privileged to important information about the campus culture such as criteria for promotion and tenure and the implicit norms that constitute a significant proportion of the process; they are more apt to be uncertain about their future because they are not citizens; and finally, they do not feel they have the same academic freedoms as other colleagues. Moreover, one huge barrier discussed in the literature about non-citizen Asian faculty is the inability to appropriately communicate with colleagues and students.

In this study, Asian faculty were satisfied with the authority to decide course content; courses taught; time available to advise; and time available for class preparation.. These variables, which can be defined as "responsibility for certain aspects of the job," are consistent with Herzberg's (1987) motivation-hygiene theory which describes the motivators associated with job satisfaction as "achievement, recognition, characteristics of the work itself, responsibility, and advancement" (p. 92). There were also several variables related to workload, leadership, salary and benefits with which faculty were dissatisfied, and these variables were consistent with Herzberg's explanation of hygiene factors that have the potential to lead to employee dissatisfaction such as "company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status and security" (p. 92).

There were only four significant variables in this study and they were related to job security, advancement opportunity and salary. According to Herzberg's model, they would be characterized as hygiene variables which could provoke dissatisfaction because they are extrinsic motivators. The constructs of satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been explained in relation to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with regard to academic employment (Iacua, Schumacher & Li, 1995).

The authors are not saying that these barriers exist for all non-citizen faculty members but they do exist at an alarming rate. It is assumed that having citizenship in the U.S. can be a form of security for some Asian faculty. It has implied that the hygiene factors in Herzberg's theory lead to dissatisfaction in terms of overall job satisfaction for Asian faculty. In addition, the feeling of being otherness and excluded from the White dominating academy were reported by Asian faculty members in the Wells et al. (2007) study. Apparently, citizenship could reinforce both feelings of job security and non-otherness for non-citizen Asian faculty. Also, critical racial theory might be able to provide a theoretical conceptualization to understand their dissatisfaction in U.S. higher education.

As these different barriers are taken into consideration, what can postsecondary institutions do to obliterate the barriers or provide a more comfortable academic environment, improve satisfaction and provide opportunity to express opinions? Listed below are implications that administrators should consider in order to successfully acculturate Asian faculty members into campus and academic environment of higher education institutions.

1) Institutions do not effectively acculturate new faculty of color into the academic environment. Therefore, administrators should make sure that this faculty group is aware of the established values, beliefs, and assumptions that characterize the academic culture and environment. These components form the basis of reality for organizational participants and are established after faculty undergo the process of interpreting their experiences within the academic environment (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

2) Research seems to be the major mechanism by which faculty can display their scholarly competency. Higher education institutions clearly need to rethink their reward structures, value systems, and the expectations regarding faculty work in order to keep highly productive faculty more satisfied with their jobs, and thus provide them with the academic workplace that is more appealing and attractive.

3) The role of faculty and the factors that affect their teaching experiences and job satisfaction have progressed and will continue evolve to cope with change (Drysdale, 2005). Research on conditions that influence job satisfaction for faculty will not only contribute to the development of a faculty of excellence but also to the well-being of higher education as a whole (Fife, 2000).

One issue should be considered for future consideration. There are only 24% of the respondents for this study who are female. It would be interesting to know if the responses would differ if there were more Asian female respondents. Finally, the researchers found that citizenship status contributed very little to the variance of the satisfaction variables and even less in the opinion variables.

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Table 1 Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction Variables for Asian Faculty by Citizenship Status

Variable	Faculty		
	U.S. Citizen n=71	Citizen, Foreign born n=215	Non-citizen n=194
Satis w/auth to decide course content	3.69 (0.60)	3.59(0.75)	3.58(0.64)
Satis w/auth to decide course taught	3.37 (0.74)	3.24(0.84)	3.17(0.73)
Satis w/auth make othr job decision	3.18 (0.76)	3.01(0.91)	2.93(0.84)
Satis w/time avail to advise students	3.09 (0.83)	3.16(0.81)	3.00(0.72)
Satis w/time available for class prep	3.09 (0.70)	3.16(0.79)	3.01(0.73)
Satis w/quality of undergrad students	2.90 (0.85)	2.77(0.84)	2.63(0.94)
Satis w/quality of grad students	2.97 (0.84)	3.01(0.83)	2.92(0.87)
Satis w/workload	2.80 (0.85)	2.85(0.91)	2.85(0.87)
Satis w/job security	3.20 (0.98)	3.37(0.85)	3.01(0.92)
Satis w/advancement opportunity	3.09 (0.85)	2.88(1.02)	2.72(0.89)
Satis w/time to keep current in field	2.58 (0.87)	2.69(0.89)	2.63(0.85)
Satis w/effectiveness of fac ldrshp	2.49 (0.92)	2.47(0.94)	2.50(0.88)
Satis w/freedom to do consulting	3.03 (0.94)	3.13(0.78)	2.96(0.78)
Satis w/salary	2.41 (1.02)	2.44(0.94)	2.21(0.82)
Satis w/benefits	2.77 (1.00)	2.80(0.88)	2.60(0.91)
Satis w/spouse emp opportunity	2.87 (1.01)	2.81(1.00)	2.58(1.02)
Satis w/job overall	3.06 (0.89)	3.06(0.76)	2.95(0.67)

Source: National Center for Statistics, 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty

Note: Possible responses are "1=Very dissatisfied"; "2=somewhat dissatisfied"; "3=somewhat satisfied"; "4=Very satisfied"

Table 2 MANOVA for Satisfaction Variables of Asian Faculty by Citizenship Status

Variable	SS	F-value	p-value
Satis w/auth to decide course content	0.716	0.75	0.4711
Satis w/auth to decide course taught	2.024	1.65	0.1934
Satis w/auth make othr job decision	3.292	2.21	0.1104
Satis w/time avail to advise students	2.564	2.12	0.1215
Satis w/time available for class prep	2.235	1.94	0.1449
Satis w/quality of undergrad students	4.446	2.84	0.0595
Satis w/quality of grad students	0.849	0.59	0.5540
Satis w/workload	0.156	0.10	0.9058
Satis w/job security	12.972	7.97	0.0004***
Satis w/advancement opportunity	8.018	4.46	0.0120*
Satis w/time to keep current in field	0.819	0.53	0.5869
Satis w/effectiveness of fac ldrshp	0.097	0.06	0.9431
Satis w/freedom to do consulting	3.020	2.31	0.1003
Satis w/salary	5.768	3.49	0.0314*
Satis w/benefits	4.403	2.63	0.0728
Satis w/spouse emp opportunity	7.490	3.69	0.0256*
Satis w/job overall	1.386	1.25	0.2888

Source: National Center for Statistics, 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty

df = (2, 477), Wilks' Lambda =0.7559; Pillai's Trace=.0001

Note. $p < .05^*$; $p \leq .01^{**}$; $p \leq .001^{***}$.

Table 3 Means and Standard Deviations of Opinion Variables for Asian Faculty by Citizenship Status

Variable	U.S. Citizen n=71	Faculty Citizen, Foreign born n=215	Non-citizen n=194
Opin abt teaching as promotion criteria	2.87 (1.03)	2.74 (0.90)	2.65 (0.83)
Opin abt research as promotion criteria	2.37 (0.86)	2.72 (0.87)	2.91 (0.78)
Opin abt resrch reward more than teaching	2.45 (0.93)	2.75 (0.95)	2.64 (0.88)
Opin abt post-tenure review of faculty	2.91 (0.75)	2.90 (0.81)	2.96 (0.73)
Opin abt treatment of female faculty	2.90 (0.76)	3.10 (0.75)	3.04 (0.69)
Opin abt treatment of minority faculty	2.77 (0.76)	2.76 (0.76)	2.76 (0.72)
Opin abt ability to obtain funding	2.86 (0.85)	3.05 (0.68)	3.10 (0.69)
Opin of fac workload increase	3.05 (0.79)	3.08 (0.74)	3.10 (0.66)
Opin of undergrad ed at institution	2.55 (0.73)	2.51 (0.85)	2.55 (0.83)
Opin of atmosphere for expression of ideas	2.37 (0.74)	2.38 (0.77)	2.39 (0.70)
Opin of qual of research at inst	2.27 (0.61)	2.25 (0.74)	2.25 (0.65)
Opin of F/T fac replaced by P/T faculty	2.66 (0.92)	2.44 (0.82)	2.48 (0.85)

Source: National Center for Statistics, 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty

Note: Possible responses are “1=strongly disagree”; “2=Disagree”; “3=Agree”; “4=strongly agree”

Table 4 MANOVA for Opinion Variables of Asian Faculty by Citizenship Status

Variable	SS	F-value	p-value
Opin abt teaching as promotion criteria	2.57	1.61	0.2001
Opin abt research as promotion criteria	16.03	11.45	0.0001***
Opin abt resrch reward more than teaching	4.85	2.86	0.0582
Opin abt post-tenure review of faculty	0.46	0.39	0.6805
Opin abt treatment of female faculty	2.17	2.04	0.1313
Opin abt treatment of minority faculty	0.02	0.007	0.9870
Opin abt ability to obtain funding	2.98	2.93	0.0544
Opin of fac workload increase	0.12	0.13	0.8819
Opin of undergrad Ed at institution	0.14	0.10	0.9005
Opin of atmosphere for expression of ideas	0.04	0.04	0.9622
Opin of qual of research at inst	0.01	0.01	0.9877
Opin of F/T fac replaced by P/T faculty	2.60	1.80	0.1699

Source: National Center for Statistics, 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty

DF = (2, 477), Wilks' Lambda =0.7559; Pillai's Trace=.0001

Note. $P < .05^*$; $p \leq .01^{**}$; $p \leq .001^{***}$.

Context And Erection Of Legal System In Ghana

Victor Selorme Gedzi

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST)
Department of Religious Studies. Faculty of Social Sciences. Kumasi. Ghana.

ABSTRACT

The paper has analyzed the erection of the formal legal system in Ghana. The research based its analysis on relevant textual and field materials, including observation. The finding has shown that socio-economic context of the colonial period has frame-worked the legal system Ghana inherited from the British. For example, the British have seen the courts as the appropriate way of dealing with cases associated with trade and resentment of local people at the sharp deals of their merchants. The erection of the legal system helped the British assume a broader and more lasting political control in the trading posts to defend and protect their merchants. Today, Ghana faces new challenges. To overcome them, Ghana needs to erect and enforce new laws that are contextually relevant to meet and direct the ongoing socio-economic processes. It means a restructuring and reforming the entire inherited colonial legal system. The study is important because, among other things, it has highlighted the context of the British colonial era which frame-worked the formal legal system in Ghana which needs contextualization to meet present realities for a more desirable micro and macro socio-economic transformation.

Key Words: Context, Erection, Legal System, Socio-economic, Trade motive, Restructuring.

INTRODUCTION

Context counts in the erection of a system of law. Every society has its own set of laws that governs its people's social, economic, political and other dimensions of life (See also Pospisil 1971: 107). It means socio-economic practices and law symbiotically relate. In other words, a legal system in many ways is context specific if it is to bring about desired socio-economic development. In many African countries, including Ghana, however, the colonial context seems to shape the frameworks for current legal systems, making legal principles and procedures contextually different from prevailing socio-economic situations. This legal problem of juristic kinds seems to confront leaders of many post-colonial African societies, including Ghana, who widely regard their complex legal systems as not only frustrating, but also messy and obstructive to progress (see also Merry 1988:871). Thus, the question confronting the analysis is: what is the context that frame-worked the legal system in Ghana and what can be done to make it context-specific? The research will find answers to this discuss the findings and conclude. The study is important because, among other things, it has highlighted the context of the British colonial era which frame-worked the formal legal system in Ghana which needs contextualization to meet present realities for a more desirable micro and macro socio-economic transformation.

Anthropological study of law shows in many ways how "legal norms and institutions are conditioned" by contexts. This is important because "we see law as in and of society, adapting to its contours, giving direction to change" (Selznick 2003). Erlich also argues the location of law within social life and maintains that norms are always social norms and as such are the products of social relations. Because of this, legal norms must not be treated as if they belong to a higher order of social norms since they constitute one of the rules of conduct like any other rule. "It follows therefore that all legal operations are social operations; that is, operations that

reproduce social structure” (Gedzi 2009: 30; Ziegert 1998). Erhlich’s main argument seems to indicate that law is made of the same material as social life at large. In order to describe, understand and explain law, one must refer to social operations at large (Ziegert 1998: 5-6).

METHODOLOGY

The achieved domain of this study is to analyze how erection of any legal system such as that of Ghana needs to be conditioned and renewed by the specific contexts of a people and at any given time. The approach is anthropological qualitative study of law and society. The research is extensively based on relevant textual materials, and supplemented by interviews and general observation on the legal and socio-economic contexts of Ghana. Observation on current actual legal and socio-economic practices has validated information obtained from the interviews. This strategy of supplementing theory with current actual practices of people (context) seems important because, in my opinion, any legal decision should be viewed in line with what people think is normal or not normal, acceptable or unacceptable in everyday life (see Gedzi 2009: 18; Friedman 1969-1970: 34). For instance, in every society there is a legal consciousness peculiar to the culture of the people (Merry 2006) on issues like how land and other natural resources should be sustainably used; and on what is lawful and what is not. This approach may lead to context renewing or updating ‘the law-in-the books’ with current development issues in the social and the economic universe, and not the other way around (see also Holleman 1986: 123). This is necessary because there is a danger of the law slipping out of its social and economic contexts with the passage of time.

One way of helping to counteract this danger, and to contribute to a wisely directed evolution of customary law and creation and effective reception of more unified modern law, is constant and vigilant research into the different ways of law observance and its enforcement on all levels (Holleman 1986: 125).

RESULT/DISCUSSION

The section has discussed findings on the context of the legal system in Ghana.

Context and Legal System

In Ghana, the emergence of the formal courts system started out of a desire of the British colonial power to protect its gains and its merchants in the lucrative trade in the then Gold Coast. As in so many other colonies, the British saw the courts as the appropriate way of dealing with cases associated with trade and “with the growing resentment of local people at the sharp deals of merchants” (Yeboa 1998: 311). With this trade motive, the British colonial government decided to assume a broader and more lasting political control in the trading posts. Thus the context which precipitated the erection of the legal system in Ghana was mainly economic – that is, how the British could benefit from trade and whatever they could do to protect their merchants against locals’ resentment.

With the arrival of Sir Charles McCarthy as governor of the Gold Coast in 1822, the British set in motion their programme of establishing law courts in the colony. McCarthy began his programme by establishing petty debt courts, which were restricted only to the workers in the British forts. With time, the jurisdiction of the courts extended to the immediate vicinity of the forts. The British Settlement Act in the early 1840s gave power to the Queen of England to create her own institutions, ordinances, laws and courts to determine matters and to make rules or regulations for the administration of justice in the Gold Coast (now Ghana (Gedzi 2009). Consequently, a judicial assessor’s court was created and Governor George Maclean became the judicial assessor. His duty was to sit with and to act as adviser to the court of Amanhene (Yeboa 1998: 313). Technically speaking, this court was neither a British nor an

indigenous court but its very existence depicted a useful liaison between the two courts systems (Gedzi 2009).

It is significant to note that the superimposition of indigenous courts by the British courts started as a gradual but premeditated process (Gedzi 2009). This is revealed in Governor Pine's confidential letter of 31 August 1857 to Labouchere advocating, 'If the country were directly subject to the Crown, and British magistrates were scattered over it, the sooner the native authority (were) destroyed, the better' (Yeboa 1998: 314). Accordingly, in 1853, the first British Supreme Court began in Cape Coast.

On 4 April 1856, the Crown provided an order-in-Council under the Settlements on Coast of Africa and Falklands Act 1843 that made it possible for the British to extend their rule to other areas where the Queen wanted to exercise jurisdiction without cooperation of any native chief or authority. In 1865, on recommendation from the Select Committee, the four British West African colonies consolidated under one supreme government in Sierra Leone. The British government, therefore, abolished the Gold Coast Supreme Court and replaced it with a chief magistrate's court, presided over by a chief magistrate as the highest judicial officer of the British courts (Acquah 2006; Gedzi 2009). At the end of the Sagrenti War of 1875 with the demolition of the Asante threat, the way was cleared for a more meaningful and fruitful involvement in the administration of the country. In 1876, therefore, the Supreme Court Ordinance passed. The Ordinance led to the establishment of a Supreme Court for the Gold Coast Colony (Bennion 1962; Yeboa 1998: 315-16). The Supreme Court comprised: a) a Court of Appeal or Full Court, which could be duly constituted by any two of the judges of the Supreme Court, one of whom must either be the Chief Justice or a person for the time being discharging the functions of the Chief Justice, b) the Divisional Court, which might be constituted by any one of the judges of the Supreme Court, authorised under section 6, for exercising the original jurisdiction, civil or criminal, of the Supreme Court. Now the colony stood divided into three judicial parts namely the Eastern, Central and Western Provinces and a divisional court opened in each provincial capital, according to the provisions in sections 23 and 24 of the ordinance (Gedzi 2009).

Even though the Gold Coast administration joined with that of Sierra Leone in 1866, the courts of the judicial assessor and magistrates operated until 1876. The Supreme Court Ordinance of 1876 removed this anomaly and transferred the powers of these courts to the new Supreme Court. With the power transfer, new magistrate courts opened and with most of their personnel district commissioners, who exercised judicial powers, became regarded as *ex officio* commissioners of the Supreme Court (Acquah 2006). This situation severed the links indigenous courts had with the British ones. By the beginning of 1877, there appeared a rigid dichotomy between the British and indigenous courts even though chiefs played an advisory role in the British courts whenever the former needed their advice on questions touching on indigenous law. The British court system needed a large measure of co-operation from the natives and their rulers. Moreover, in spite of the fact that the British justice system was becoming popular, there were all sorts of cases or disputes that natives might prefer local rulers and not the white man to handle disputes for them (Yeboa 1998: 316-19). Due to this, it was necessary for the colonial government to recognise indigenous courts. The proper administration of the country demanded they work out some sort of legal and administrative relationship.

The Native Jurisdiction Ordinance passed in 1878 with the purpose of facilitating and regulating judicial powers of chiefs within the protected territories. The ordinance relapsed between 1879 and 1882 due to opposition by the chiefs, but in 1883, it was re-passed. By 1910,

under the ordinance, approximately 39 paramount chiefs formed into local legislative councils and judicial tribunals (Acquah 2006; Gedzi 2009). Having legislative capacity, the chiefs' council enacted by-laws to promote peace, welfare and law and order within their respective areas. There were also sanctions for breach of peace and order. In their tribunals, the chiefs heard and determined cases based on violations of the by-laws. Beyond the by-laws, the tribunals enjoyed an extensive civil jurisdiction including hearing and deciding all personal cases in which the debt, damage or demand did not exceed 25 pounds and others that were fixed under the rules governing the exercise of jurisdiction. Generally, many of these suits related to the ownership and possession of land according to customary law as well as 'suits and matters relating to the succession to the goods of any deceased person where the whole value of the good ... does not exceed ... fifty pounds' (Yeboa 1998: 319). Nevertheless, the native courts had no jurisdiction in suits relating to land succession of deceased natives. Additionally, personal suits and suits relating to succession of goods of deceased natives were not expressly limited to suits involving customary law.

Thus, the ordinances of 1873 and 1883 created few statutory customary courts while the vast majority of the non-statutory indigenous courts in the country could not function. The personnel in the statutory customary courts were mainly native chiefs and rulers. These few customary courts constituted a separate system and were subordinated to the British courts system and controlled by the Secretary for Native Affairs and the superior courts of the British system (Gedzi 2009).

Owing to constitutional differences between the Colony and Asante, a different system existed there. However, after the political amalgamation of the various sectors of the country in 1935, the pattern of courts in the colony extended over the whole country including the northern territories. It is important to emphasise here that interference of the judicial power of chiefs by the British began as far back as 1844, and passage of the Native Administration Ordinance (No. 23) in 1927 considerably curtailed it (Gedzi 2009). From this time onwards 'aboriginal judicial tribunals ceased to exist, and every tribunal that should exercise judicial functions as distinct from arbitral functions, had to be one which derived its jurisdiction from enactment' (Acquah 2006: 67).

Passage of the Local Courts Act (No. 23 of 1958) finally ended the judicial powers of the chief under colonial rule, and subsequently by section 66 of the Chieftaincy Act (No. 370 of 1971). The Local Courts Acts (No. 23 of 1958) stripped chiefs of their customary courts. In 1958, the local courts were later absorbed into the British and therefore, the national courts system as district courts grade II replaced the customary courts. Since then, chiefs have lost all statutory powers to adjudicate on civil and criminal matters except disputes that concern the chieftaincy institution in Ghana (Acquah 2006: 68-9).

Thus, it can be seen that the imposed British colonial system of law with its principles and procedures, was forged for the colonial industrial capitalism and was not for an agrarian economy in Ghana. In other words, the laws emanating from the legal system evolved from the British settings that were sociologically different from the Ghanaian way of life. For example, the British criminal law system does not see anything wrong with a divorced man having sexual relationship with a daughter of his former wife's sister. The Ghanaian society interprets this as incest and does not allow it. Secondly, while the English law forbids bigamy, polygamy (polygyny) is allowed in Ghana. This, among other things, may be an indication that although there may be laws that are universally applicable, legal systems to a large extent are context-specific (see also Selznick 2003). Unfortunately, the issue of context-specificity of legal systems was not considered when the colonial framework of law was imposed to subsume indigenous legal frameworks in the colonized societies like Ghana (See also Merry 1988: 869).

For the proponents of empire in the nineteenth century, the imposition of the colonial system of law was a something to celebrate. This is because, for them it substituted “civilized law for the anarchy and fear that they believed gripped the lives of the colonized peoples, freeing them from the scourges of war, witchcraft, and tyranny” (Ranger 1983). In African countries like Ghana, the British and the French superimposed their law onto indigenous law, incorporating customary law as long as it was not “repugnant to natural justice, equity, and good conscience”, or “inconsistent with any written law” (Okoth-Ogendo 1979:160; Merry 1988:870). The repugnancy principle was enforced to outlaw the so-called unacceptable African customs. In doing this, the British usually took strategic decisions about the extent and nature of legal controls (Benton 2002) and made conscious efforts to retain elements of existing institutions that might benefit her ambitious exploitation of resources in the colonies. This pragmatism helped limit the call for legal change - a mechanism of sustaining social order for British merchants to carry out their sharp deals. In addition, the British legal system helped to mould a cooperative labour force to serve the new extractive industries and to produce cash crops in the colonies for export (Chanock 1998; Moore 1986a).

Today , Ghana is no more under colonial rule. But there is neo-colonialism in many ways that encourages an African country like Ghana to hold on to and relish her past even if it is obsolete and detrimental to her socio-economic survival. Liberalism, for example, has brought into being the free markets. But while its proponent, the West, advocates the liberal market, it always interferes in the inflow and outflow of the market, holding on to the age long strategic principles and procedures that must benefit them. In addition, Ghana currently faces many challenges in her economy. The economy to a large extent is still agrarian. There is also the illegal mining saga, which does not only remove the vegetation cover and fertile soils for farming, but also destruction of water bodies in geometric proportions. For example, Akwatia and Obuasi, once villages in the eastern and Ashanti regions and regarded as food baskets of Ghana, have been turned into a diamond and gold mining towns with most of their farms destroyed through reckless mining activities; and which is causing shortage of food and hardship on locals. Besides, Ghana has the challenge of sanitation. In 2014, many died through cholera as a result of insanitary conditions in cities and towns. To overcome these challenges, there is need to erect laws that are contextually valid, and enforced to curb the anomalies and direct the socio-economic process. These laws must be periodically reviewed in consonance with social, economic and political changes. This means that the law in this sense is semi-autonomous since it is made valid or invalid by contextual realities of each age. It also calls for a relook at the entire legal system that has been the legacy from the British colonial government, which must be restructured and reformed to make it relevant to the ever-changing socio-economic and political contexts and aspirations of Ghana.

CONCLUSION

The paper analyzed the British legacy of legal system in contemporary Ghana. The research based its analysis on relevant textual and field materials. The finding showed that socio-economic context of the colonial period seemed to shape or frame-work the kinds of legal system the colonial master, the British erected in the then Gold Coast, now Ghana. For example, as in so many other colonies, the British saw the courts as the appropriate way of dealing with cases associated with trade and resentment of local people at the sharp deals of its merchants. The erection of the legal system helped the British colonial government to assume a broader and more lasting political control in the trading posts for their trade agenda. Today, Ghana faces new challenges in the form of neo-liberalism. Her economy is still predominantly agrarian. There is the reality of illegal mining that destroys mining environment in geometric proportions. There is also the challenge of sanitation. To overcome these challenges, Ghana needs not only to erect new laws that are relevant but also enforced to meet and direct the

socio-economic process currently taking place. There is need for periodic review of existing laws in consonance with ever-changing social, economic and political processes. It means a relook at the entire legal system inherited from the British colonial government for restructuring to meet ongoing socio-economic contexts of Ghana.

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Possibilities For Improvement Of Pedagogical Work Of Teachers In The Process Of Further Education In The Conditions Of The Slovak Republic

Vlasta Cabanová

University of Žilina in Žilina (SLOVAKIA)

Abstract

The present paper deals with the professional development of Slovak primary and secondary school teachers. The author provides the analysis of the qualification growth process and of expanding professional competencies in accordance with the latest scientific knowledge, social needs and requirements for the teaching performance in various institutions of Slovakia. It is realized in the form of actualized education ensuring the latest knowledge mediation, deepening, development and dissemination of professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills. Innovative education will enable improvement of the performance standard of pedagogical or professional activities. The author compares the possibilities of further education in Slovakia with the possibilities of further education in other countries on the basis of experience obtained during her participation in the international project Leonardo da Vinci No. 113421512. **Keywords:** application in teaching practice, improvement of pedagogical work, expanding competencies, credit system, formal and informal education, continuing education, adaptive, actualized and innovative education of teachers.

INTRODUCTION

The end of the 20th century was generally characterized by the change in the perception of the teaching profession also in the CEE countries. The teaching profession in the countries building socialism based on the Communist ideology was closely linked to the ideology of the state up till the 1990s. This approach influenced the selection of candidates for teacher education, the content of the university preparation as well as the practical performance of the teaching profession in practice. After the Velvet Revolution the Slovak education policy focused on creating a legislative framework for more space for autonomous work of schools and more independent work of teachers. Joining the European Union sped up the connection of the Slovak Ministry of Education to European trends. Based on these trends the key European documents in the field of education have been adopted. This new understanding of the teaching profession (neo-professionalism) built on a high-level vocational training is aimed at building up the professionalism of teachers as a lifelong career education system. Such an understanding significantly departs from earlier academic approaches which mainly focused on a strong theoretical component of the subject field that was acquired during university studies. A teacher was traditionally considered to be the main subject of education providing knowledge transfer to pupils in the process of education. The current conception of teacher based on the advanced professional model stresses the teacher's subject-object role in interaction with pupils and the environment; the conception of a teacher comes from a broader professional model [1]. The importance of his/her social role in interaction with pupils, parents and the teaching staff has been increasing. In their work, teachers are also determined by the economic environment, social composition, habits and standards of living [2]. At the same time they co-create an educational environment and atmosphere in the class, they organize and coordinate the activity of pupils and manage and evaluate the learning process [3].

The definition of a graduate profile is largely understood as the determination of the claims and the requirements for the performance of a particular profession. In this sense, *professiography* is "a teaching that deals with identification and description of the claims and requirements of the work (imposed) on man [4] ". In social practice more is being required of the teaching profession than what is defined by the frequent term "graduate profile" these days, in particular as regards the personal dimension, character, willpower and character traits of a teacher education graduate.

Successful completion of university studies does not mean the end of an educational process although a lot of graduates at the moment of getting a university degree think it is. Only at the moment of getting a degree, each graduate's acquired knowledge, its quality and the ability to apply it in practice are directly confronted [5]. Requirements on theoretical knowledge and practical skills of a teacher education graduate in scholarly literature and binding educational documents are determined in a mandatory performative way, such as: they have to manage, know, understand, supervise, be able to, and the like. Similarly, the practical skills of graduates are most commonly defined by the parameters of their performance, how objectively they can diagnose, demonstrate, supervise, use, apply in a creative way, respect etc. Such definitions are of high information value for teacher trainers, supervisors and future employers. However, they represent only one side of teachers' performance. Definitions of required personality qualities of beginning teachers are absent in these parameters [6].

An important factor in solving the current problems of mankind is an effective educational process. Its application is inferred by the authors of the sixth report to the Club of Rome J. W. Botkin, M. Elmandrija and M. Malitza from the need for new forms of learning and learning in the context of constantly changing conditions. The report was published at the end of 1979 and entitled "No Limits to Learning". A new concept of education which is characterized by innovative education is important for the contemporary era. Its essence consists of two basic characteristics: anticipation which is oriented towards preparation for the possibility of emergence of situations, takes into account alternatives extending far into the future (it involves an element of foreseeing consequences of human behaviour for the evolution in form of projections, situational models, scenarios) and participation, thus fellowship of the widest range of people possible, seeking to involve individuals in this process as well, with the aim of making this century not only a century of rights but also of responsibility. This attitude is characterized by collaboration, dialogue and maintenance of active communication. Anticipation is a mental activity, participation is a social one [7]. An effort to theoretically affect the transformation of the contemporary society and its perspectives of development is represented by the concept of a knowledge-based society, or the concept of a learning society. It has been intensively developing in the social sciences and stresses the importance of knowledge for the society, which is also reflected in science and education [8].

The professionalism of a professional teacher in the learning society of the 21st century is not possible without constant reflections on the constantly changing needs of the society. Therefore, the position of the institutions providing continuing education has been reinforced. An important feature of the reinforcement of their activities is connection and integration of various types of institutions dealing with teachers, too. The current model of continuing education in the Slovak Republic is based on important international documents:

- a) Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966) recognizing the essential role of teachers in educational advancement and the importance of their contribution to the development of man in modern society.

- b) Memorandum on Open Distance Learning in the European Community (1991) highlighting the needs for and the benefits of distance learning as the main way of expanding access to education for everyone during biocultural development.
- c) The Bologna Declaration (1999) unifying and simplifying multi-stage education systems of 31 countries and enabling the mobility of students through the established system of ECTS credits.
- d) A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning (Brussels, 2000) and the follow-up documents relating to the conditions for lifelong learning, permanent learning and developing skills and interests by people of any age.
- e) The Lisbon Strategy (Lisbon, 2000) postulating a strategic goal for the next decade aimed at raising the quality of human potential in the field of employment and social cohesion against social exclusion.
- f) Raising the Quality of Learning for All (Dublin, 2004) perceiving the teaching career as a lifelong learning programme that integrates undergraduate teacher education, entry into work and continuous professional development, whereas teachers have to be motivated, encouraged and stimulated by constant professional development.
- g) The European Qualifications Framework EQF (2005), the goal of which is to define and form a tool in Europe that will enable to establish relationships between qualifications frameworks among Member States and thereby create recognition of individuals' qualifications.

National documents constituting the basis for continuing education are represented by the National Report on Lifelong Learning, Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic, 2001 which declares Slovak schools to be the main institutions of the lifelong learning network. The document also contains a proposal to develop a system of standards and accreditation for teaching positions and educators in the system of continuing education. In the part about teachers within the frame of the Milénium project (2002) it is stated, inter alia, that quality education of teaching staff concerns their entry into work, lifelong learning, motivation for learning and compliance with the Teacher Code of Ethics. The document *Národný program výchovy a vzdelávania* (the National Programme of Training and Education) defines teacher as the decisive factor in training, indicates strategic aims in the process of professionalisation of teachers – concerning mainly areas of teachers' career development. It postulates the need for standardisation of the requirements for their qualification. It also prioritises development of teaching staff profiles and standards for the assessment of their competencies in practice, for their career paths and creating incentive policies for improving the quality and efficiency of educational work. The importance of these requirements were increased by the Manifesto of the Government of the Slovak Republic 2006-2009 underlining high professionalism of teachers as a condition for the development of education in the Slovak Republic, provided an incentive system of remuneration is created.

In the context of implementation of the Manifesto in 2004 the above mentioned *Koncepcia profesijného rozvoja učiteľa v kariérnom systéme* (the Conception of Professional Development of Teachers in the Career System) was developed. In accordance with the trend of building systems of continuing teacher education, as it is in other so-called genuine professions, these systems create prerequisites for teachers' professional development through continuing education as a system element of national training systems [9]. Teachers' professional development is an essential condition for their professionalism in a biocultural aspect. This is a continuous process which includes all the dimensions of professionalism (the professional, personal, and operational one) and relates to the development of professional competencies. As it has been the case with the foreign literature already since the end of the

last century, there is an effort to identify the essence of professionalism of teachers by means of key competencies in the currently valid Slovak model. A systematic attention has been devoted to the concept of competency both in theory and research in the last decade. It is understood as a kind of competency which, according to Švec (2002), is affected by a number of factors (Fig.1) [10]:

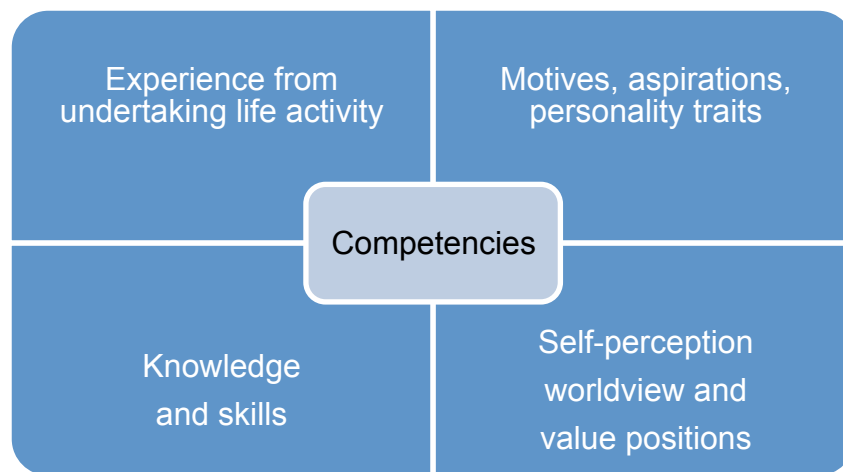


Fig. 1 Competency profile of a teaching staff member

The created competency profile of a teaching staff member is elaborated on in professional standards and follow-up competencies in the individual categories of teaching staff, in key competencies and capabilities and their quality indicators [11]. The competency profile of a teacher is the foundation for the development of professional standards of the individual categories of teaching staff (e.g., teacher in primary education, teacher in the lower secondary education, educator, etc.). The competency profile [12], drawn up by experts, respects the following basic conceptual starting points:

- The priority of holistic personality development of a teacher.
- The consistency of national policies and European documents laying down the requirements for building a learning society based on the principles of lifelong learning.
- Establishment of measurable objectives in the area of teacher professionalism, in the professional and personal dimension. Competency profile and standards of the profession are a matter for the expert domain.

The rudimentary areas of pedagogical staff member's work concerns the key competencies. It is efficient to divide the required teacher competencies of the above mentioned conceptual starting points into three main broad groups (dimensions):

- 1) Teachers' competencies in relation to pupils: their input, process and output characteristics of and conditions for the development of the pupils' personality.
- 2) Competencies orientated towards the education process, concerning the conditions and areas of the way teaching theory transforms teaching contents by strategies that facilitate teaching and learning processes of pupils.
- 3) Competencies orientated towards teachers' self-improvement (for more [12] and [13]). Professional development of teachers covers both dimensions of professionalism (professional and personal one) as it concerns their professional competencies development as well as respecting the principles of the professional ethics of a teacher.

Objectives Of The Career System Concept

The role of the career system concept is to maintain and sustain the high quality of education in accordance with the understanding of the mastery of teaching. It is a profession that is being

carried out in the public interest. Its professional and decisive autonomy should be protected as such; one should clearly articulate professional competencies, skills and abilities based on the formalized knowledge gained during long-term preparation and the subsequent continuing education. Newly formulated objectives are designed to improve the processes, with an emphasis on:

- 1) The personality of a teacher as a self-improving entity. The career system should create the opportunity for teachers to develop themselves, to meet the needs of self realization, personal and professional satisfaction and give them the certainty of social valuation of their efforts and their work on themselves. It is related to the prevention of negative phenomena – professional stagnation, burn-out, sense of professional inadequacy, loss of the ability to compete on the labour market [14].
- 2) The school institution as a tool of improving the quality of the teaching staff. The school management can rely on such a system in planning, implementation and evaluation of the vision and objectives for the development of a school. Such a system can be an argument when implementing the vision and objectives of the school. It is related to the prevention of negative phenomena – loss of school's reputation, students leaving, reduced ability to compete, up to dissolution of school.
- 3) The overall social development, the quality of teachers as the prospect of societal development and sustainable development of the society. Respecting documents that support the development of teachers is a prerequisite for the development of society as a whole. It is related to the prevention of negative phenomena – referred to in connection with a crisis of the teaching profession (for more [14]).

Continuing education in the Slovak Republic forms a part of the lifelong learning programme and is considered to be a process of acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies with the aim to maintain, restore, improve, expand and update the professional competencies of a pedagogical staff member and of a professional staff member. Those competencies are necessary for the performance of educational and professional activities. Continuing education is an effective tool for teachers' professional development which ensures the process of deepening, improvement and expansion of both qualification prerequisites and professional competencies within the defined framework (scientific knowledge, societal needs and requirements). They are necessary for high-quality performance of teaching and professional activities (for more [15]).

The Level Of The Slovak System Of Continuing Education In An International Comparison

What is the quality of the continuing education provided to teachers in the Slovak Republic in comparison with other European countries? Is it possible to create an effective standardized model of a professional teacher education which would be effective in different countries of the European Union? On what basis should be continuing education built, if it is to become an instrument improving and developing the competencies of teaching staff in the education sector?

There was an attempt to provide answers to these and other questions by a group of scientific and pedagogical workers who participate in education of students in teaching programmes of the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Žilina in Žilina. It was done in terms of mapping out and analysing the situation concerning continuing education in selected EU countries,

together with writing a guide about the best models of teacher education. These tasks were carried out by the Žilina team in cooperation with seven Leonardo da Vinci international research partners, led by a team of researchers from the Birmingham City University. Other university offices involved in the Leonardo project included departments of the University of Beira Interior of Portugal, the Capa Anatolio Teacher Training School in Turkey, the National Institute for Training and Career Development in Education in Bulgaria and the Novancia Business School in Paris.

The motivation behind this international project, initiated by the British team led by Alex Kendall, was a document issued by the UK Government about education entitled "the Importance of Teaching". There is a postulate in it, resulting from the analysis of educational systems, that "all the evidence from different educational systems around the world shows that the most important factor in determining how well children do" is the fact that teachers have access to lifelong learning, with the possibility to "observe and work with other teachers and (receive) appropriate training for leadership positions." According to the statistical data from 2010, only 25 % of teachers regularly participate in post-graduate studies and three quarters of all teacher activities are included in the category of passive learning. Such a situation with continuing education of teachers is more or less similar in all countries of the European Union.

The objectives of the first phase of the Leonardo project focused on mapping out the situation of teachers' postgraduate education in selected countries of Central and Western Europe. It also concentrated on the follow-up comparison and comprehensive analysis of the systems of further education of teachers in the participating partner countries. To meet these objectives, it was necessary to "map out the terrain" and get an adequate amount of information on the modalities for further education of teachers of all school grades in seven partner countries and to produce a clear idea about functioning of the continuing education in the respective countries. The survey was based on combined research methods. During the data collection phase, quantitative methods were represented by e-questionnaires which are available for the respondents on a wikispace website of the project. Qualitative methods were represented by managed, structured interviews and processes of selective and systematic observation. An additional analysis of the national documents and legislation related to the continuing education of teachers in the respective countries was used. It served to create an overall picture of the status and roles of institutions and systems which provide such an education.

The online questionnaires for teachers were statistically processed. The conditions of teachers for education in individual countries were examined by means of respondents' – teachers of all grades of education and their answers: Bulgaria (437), Slovakia (210), the UK (148), France (40), Portugal (28) and Turkey (48). In terms of the target group analysis, it was predominantly female teachers who took part in the research (83 %), which reflects a strong feminization of school systems. The vast majority of the investigated group consisted of teachers of pupils over the age of 11 years (72 %) with more than 10 years of experience (63 %). The basics of the qualitative method were represented by managed interviews with teachers who had a different length of practice. They were chosen as representatives of all school levels of the given country. The particular sets of questions were orientated towards the key areas of further education such as:

- decisive aspects of educational offerings, ascertaining who the initiators of the continuing education of teachers are, more factors of the decision-making process,
- creating pre-concepts of the conceptualization of work/education/pupils,
- ascertaining, what teachers consider to be of high value (beneficial) in continuing education,
- defining of the surplus, the unbeneficial, or what teachers consider to be of low value in the continuing education,

- the impact (the benefits) of continuing education on the quality of particular pedagogical work of teachers,
- existing ways and the most commonly applied forms of professional growth of teachers,
- external and internal motivational factors affecting continuing education,
- the relation of continuing education to initiatory (preparatory) education of teachers, and
- the institutional framework of ongoing forms of continuing education of teachers.

The translation of the managed interviews transcripts with the representatives of teachers of all three degrees were carried out on the basis of the so-called Grounded theory. After processing the data collected and a causal analysis, the participants from the respective countries compared the results of the research to the results of other countries. There were several interesting findings which were described in the final report of the project and which allowed to:

- use positive experience with progressive and effective forms of education that support teachers' professional growth in their respective countries,
- create optimal offerings for further teacher education,
- create a model for effective access to possibilities for continuing teacher education

The next step was writing and sharing the guide to the best programmes of this kind in Europe that provide continuing education in the education sector, with regard to the contents and models of these programmes. These objectives were met by:

- 1) an established partnership that brought together education providers and employers in the sector who support their employees in development, and
- 2) writing of a practical guide to the models of similar continuing education for the education sector,
- 3) compiling a report which can be used as a draft for political decisions regarding education in each region. That concerns projects with the purpose of emphasizing the specific needs of the European educational market and of providing education that can meet those needs.

In June 2013 the team published a report which mapped out the key skills required from employees in the education sector. The communication of the results and findings was ensured on the local and European level as well. The implementation strategy of research findings was carried out by means of small teams in each region with relevant members: schools, local authorities, education providers, and self-government. Each subgroup representative is a member of the partnership and actively participated in the individual events of the project. The conclusions of the comparison and the interesting findings were presented corporatively by the international team of organizers at the IPDA Conference in Birmingham. Alex Kendall and Phil Taylor represented the project team of the University. The subsequent discussion and feedback of the audience were very incentive when completing the project and preparing a new one which should build on the research findings.

CONCLUSION

There are differences in the field of continuing education of staff in the European education sector. The participating representatives apprehended them in a more thorough way thanks to the project. The results of the project showed a number of discrepancies but also enabled to present continuing education systems to employees in the European education sector without losing the necessary regional specificities. The project promoted increased European

cooperation also by enabling 30 employees and educators to personally experience a different culture through teacher exchanges. At the same time it allowed the teams from each region to gain a new experience with a European region similar to their own, which helped to build common awareness in the process of acquiring and implementing project results into educational practice. By sharing the research results with a wider public, the participants of the project succeeded in at least partially changing the idea in the minds of teachers that the work of a teacher after graduation is represented by focusing on teaching pupils, without the need for further work on oneself. Dissemination was also a part of the output – providing the research results to a wider professional public, increasing the importance of continuing education for teachers at governing bodies – school managements, boards of education and school policy representatives of each country. The social impact of teachers' work far exceeds the boundaries of school, the resort and the sector, and extends to all areas of life and society. It seems as though the school policy representatives are only a little aware of this fact, as the social significance of the work of teachers does not correspond to their social status and prestige of their profession at all.

The overall frustration of Bulgarian teachers at the state of education as well as at the present continuing education conveyed a negative impression. That on the whole corresponded to our Slovak reality and it probably reflects the situation of the post-socialist countries. In comparison with this reality (interviews with teachers from practice) the formal lectures given by experts from the Bulgarian Ministry sounded artificial or at the very least incongruent. It was on the ground of the fact that these experts who take care of further education portrayed the conditions for teacher education as optimal.

Maybe therefore we reflected on the efforts to improve the quality of the of continuing education processes. Improving the quality of the provided continuing education should be supported by accreditation of continuing education programmes which the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic decided on with effect from 1st January 2014. Representatives of school policy should focus more on improving conditions for teachers in the nearest time, because as research has shown, the conditions and characteristics of this profession in relation to teacher's person are not only positive. We are aware of such ones that attract teachers to the profession, and increase the degree of their identification with the profession, the so called identification factors. Other conditions put teachers off from the profession, make it difficult for them to work and the teachers do not recognize future perspectives. We called them factors of teacher's discontent with the profession. Unfortunately, the second group of factors that negatively affect the work of teachers has been on the rise in recent decades, which contributes to the unattractiveness of the profession among prospective university students in the Slovak Republic.

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HIV Testing for PMTCT in Tanzania: Time to move from 'Voluntary' to 'Mandatory'?

Kahabi Ganka Isangula

The Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health & Triangle Solutions, Tanzania

Audrey Holmes

Griffith University, Social and Population Health Program, Gold Coast Australia

Sharon Brownie

Griffith University Gold Coast, Australia & Oxford PRAXIS Forum
Green Templeton College, Oxford University, UK

Abstract

Introduction: Every year, many infants are infected with HIV, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa. This is predominantly attributed to mother-to-child or “vertical” transmission during pregnancy, labor and delivery, and breastfeeding. Advances in antiretroviral therapy (ART) and funding have made the prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) of HIV more affordable in sub-Saharan Africa. However, despite this advance and its potential in PMTCT, the uptake of HIV testing among pregnant women as an entry point to PMTCT services remains unsatisfactory in many countries. **Methods & Results:** In the present paper, authors' present a viewpoint that supports mandatory HIV testing for pregnant women and argue that a mandatory HIV testing policy should be adopted in Tanzania. The ongoing debate about implementing mandatory HIV testing for all pregnant women is discussed in terms of a parental obligation towards protecting a newborn child. Evidence for mandatory HIV testing in prisons (e.g., for prostitution related crimes and sexual offenses), as well as mandatory pre-marriage testing is considered. The way in which the legal framework in Tanzania could support mandatory testing is discussed. **Conclusion:** Authors' highlight how a national policy of mandatory HIV testing will increase the enrollment of pregnant women into PMTCT services, minimize the risk of HIV transmission to newborn children, improve health outcomes for both parents and children, and contribute to reducing the burden on limited health resources.

Keywords: HIV Testing, PMTCT, Voluntary, Mandatory, Tanzania

BACKGROUND

HIV testing for pregnant women is the optimal entry point to prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) services, especially when HIV is diagnosed during the early stages of the antenatal period. More recently, Globally, HIV testing has been moving from client-initiated “opt in” (voluntary testing and counseling) or routine testing to provider-initiated testing and counseling, with the right to refuse or “opt out” as a scale-up and gateway to PMTCT services (1). With an opt out approach, it is expected that HIV testing is more difficult to avoid and greater numbers of women find out about their HIV status, meaning more informed choices about appropriate care can be made (2). However, many countries continue to face poor enrollment into PMTCT programs. In part, this can be attributed to poor uptake of HIV testing as the first step of entry into care as a result of being voluntary or having an opt out option. Poor enrollment into PMTCT services therefore follows the low uptake of HIV testing, particularly in resource-limited settings. New policy approaches must be considered to address this issue.

HIV/AIDS is a serious disease that has high health costs for pregnant women and infants. In pregnant women, HIV increases the chances of infections that may lead to unfavorable pregnancy outcomes. In addition, the immature immune system of a newborn makes the infant highly susceptible to the consequences of HIV/AIDS illnesses, particularly the opportunistic respiratory infections common in infants less than 6 months of age (3). The health costs are even higher for infants born to a mother who is unaware that she is HIV positive, and is therefore not receiving treatment. HIV-infected newborns have a much-reduced life expectancy (about 2 years) and a reduced quality of life, including an increased risk of various life threatening illnesses (2). A further potential harm if a HIV-infected mother does not access PMTCT services is the risk of AIDS-related death for her and her partner, making the infant one of a growing number of AIDS orphans and increasing the burden on already strained resources.

Access to HIV screening in early pregnancy means that women with HIV and their infants are able benefit from appropriate and timely interventions such as antiretroviral medications, scheduled cesarean delivery, and alternatives to breastfeeding (4). Antiretroviral (ART) prophylaxis or treatment helps to boost a pregnant woman's immune system and allows her to complete her pregnancy normally. This forms a foundation for the first argument about benefits of mandatory HIV Testing for Pregnant women. Nicholson (5) comments that most advocates for mandatory HIV testing reason that "the detection of HIV in a pregnant woman is a first step in getting both her and her fetus on the treatment protocol so as to protect the mother's health and hopefully prevent the transmission of HIV to the baby before, during (and soon after) child birth" (p.175). HIV testing will therefore help to identify those who should receive ARV prophylaxis or treatment for the benefit of both infant and mother.

The introduction of mandatory HIV testing has also been debated in view of the obligation of parents to protect an infant. However, human rights activists, the Center for Disease Control and Prevention, and the World Health organization embrace policies in which provider-initiated routine HIV testing processes explicitly state the right of an individual to refuse or opt out (6). While this position may have initially been based on the global view that a woman has a right to authority over her own body, it does not take into account the obligation of both pregnant women and health authorities to reduce the number of children born with HIV, particularly in countries or areas where there is access to preventative care and treatment (2).

In Tanzania, in 2009, over 1.6 million women aged 15–49 years were estimated to be pregnant. In the same year, 86,000 pregnant women in the same age range were estimated to have tested positive for HIV (7). However, in the same period, the number of children (0–14 years) estimated to be living with HIV was 160,000; twice the number of women who tested HIV positive (8). In a study in southern Tanzania, Harms et al. (9) found that the awareness and knowledge of mother to child transmission and preventive methods was 67%, and that although the "expressed acceptance" of HIV testing was greater than 90%, only 14% of interviewees had taken a HIV test (pp.262–264). In 2010, the estimated number of pregnant women in Tanzania estimated to have tested positive for HIV was 114,906 (p.19), meaning that the number of HIV positive pregnant women increased significantly in a one-year period (10).

The Tanzania PMTCT Surveillance Report (10) noted that about 97% of health facilities that have Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) services also provide PMTCT services. While this is promising, and an estimated 98% of pregnant women attended an antenatal care (ANC) clinic at least once, not all were tested for HIV. Of those who attended an ANC clinic at least the four recommended visits, only 47% were likely to undertake an HIV test, while 10% will never be

tested for HIV. In addition, the prevalence of HIV (6.9%) in those women who attended an ANC clinic who had been tested was much higher than the national HIV prevalence of 5.1% (10).

Likewise, while 98% of pregnant women attended an ANC clinic at least once, approximately 50% of births occurred at home (10). The discrepancy between women attending ANC and facility-based births highlights the need for mandatory HIV testing at ANC clinics to “capture” and make treatment available to HIV positive pregnant women who may otherwise deliver at home. HIV testing at any ANC visit will allow initiation of PMTCT services for pregnant women, especially those who may not deliver at the facility, reducing the chances of HIV transmission to infants regardless of the place of birth. This information highlights the need to implement new approaches for HIV testing for all pregnant women, to improve outcomes for mothers and their infants. The low uptake of HIV testing in ANC clinics is not a problem that Tanzania faces alone. In Zimbabwe, only 55% of women who attended ANC took a HIV test, and 21% of those who did not take the test, would not have taken it even if there was an opt out option (11).

According to the Tanzanian Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (12), the vision guiding the national health policy is “to improve the health and well being of all Tanzanians with a focus on those most at risk, and to encourage the health system to be more responsive to the needs of the people” (p.4) Given this national health aspiration, mandatory HIV testing for all pregnant mothers is a reasonable public health policy response to infants’ need for protection from HIV transmission during pregnancy.

Armstrong (13) noted that there have been proposals for mandatory testing in South Africa. Some researchers report that mandatory testing may be the only promising option, particularly in high-prevalence settings. In most previous cases, mandatory testing has been applied in the context of “low HIV prevalence and a well-resourced health care system” (pp. 2–4). There is also evidence for mandatory HIV testing for other groups such as travelers to specific countries, pre-marital couples, and newborns of mothers of unknown status. The present paper presents a viewpoint in support of mandatory HIV testing for pregnant women and argues that Tanzania needs to adopt a national approach to mandatory HIV testing. This is a view that has been expressed by a number of other researchers.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A review of publically available data was undertaken to identify documents and publications presenting information about PMTCT Services in Tanzania and Africa, as well as evidence for mandatory HIV testing in different settings. A search of relevant reviews and articles was conducted via the internet and included PubMed, BioMed Central, and the databases of agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO), Tanzanian Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, and a general search on Google Scholar. Combinations of keywords (e.g., Tanzania, PMTCT, HIV Testing, Mandatory) were used to define the search. Due to the limited material available, strict inclusion and exclusion criteria were not set. Abstracts were screened for keyword relevance.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Mandatory HIV testing in Prisons and for Sexual offenses

HIV infection has been reported to be a significant health problem faced by many prisons around the world (14). There is a range of evidence for mandatory HIV testing in the prison contexts (15). Mandatory HIV testing in prisons has been suggested to be an important adjunct to minimizing the impact of the spread of the virus, both within prisons and in the non-offender population (16). A study conducted in Brazil found that incarcerated sexual offenders with HIV showed a higher recidivism risk than non-infected offenders, and higher general and sexual impulsiveness (14). This highlights an important implication of adopting a mandatory

testing approach, in that such a policy allows health care providers to intervene early and control the spread of the disease. For example, the AIDS Policy Law journal (17) notes that in the US state of Washington, although the law makes HIV testing voluntary for convicted offenders and pretrial detainees, the test is mandatory for prostitution-related crimes and certain other sex offense convictions. Currently, mandatory HIV testing is not a requirement in prisons in Tanzania, although a test may be required for sexual offenders (HIV and AIDS Prevention and Control Act, 2008)(18). However, experience from other settings may indicate that there is a need for mandatory testing in specific high-risk groups.

Mandatory Pre-marital HIV testing

Another example of a mandatory HIV testing policy is that of premarital HIV testing. Mandatory HIV testing before marriage is a premarital requirement common in many countries around the world, particularly in places that have strongly faith-based organizations (19, 20). However, mandatory premarital testing is a topic of debate as it is considered an infringement of the fundamental human rights of those who are infected and a possible cause of social stigma. Despite the global controversy, mandatory premarital HIV screening remains a practice in Tanzania. Arulogun (19) reports that 82.8% of youth believed that mandatory premarital HIV testing could reduce the spread of HIV, about 52.6% did not think it would increase stigma, and the majority had a positive attitude toward mandatory premarital testing. Premarital couples often agree to form a relationship through a decision making process. The couple, their families, and at times their wider community are included in this decision making process, and even if it is not a religious requirement, the decision to test for HIV is often reached based on individual obligatory responsibility of protecting one another.

Ethics and Human Rights in Mandatory HIV Testing

Debates about mandatory HIV testing for pregnant women frequently focus on the human rights of a pregnant woman, including her right to autonomy and privacy. However, a point that much of the research literature fails to articulate is that in pregnancy, a fetus does not have opportunity to decide whether to be born to a particular mother. This raises the question that if couples have an obligation or responsibility to protecting one another from HIV infection, why would mother's responsibility to protect an innocent infant (who did not have a choice about being born) be unethical?

Globally, only 7% of WHO member states report having legislative measures for HIV prevention to address testing pregnant women in the prenatal period, and only 9% have set measures requiring quarantine, isolation, or coercive hospitalization of HIV-infected people or AIDS patients (21). Some governments restrict people with HIV/AIDS from entering their countries with the aim of reducing HIV transmission, although HIV-related border restrictions is considered to be a violation of the human right of freedom of movement (22,23).

According to MMWR (4), if a mother's HIV status is still unknown after birth, CDC guidelines recommend rapid antibody testing of newborns as soon as possible to allow for immediate initiation of antiretroviral prophylaxis. If the infant tests positive in antibody tests, it implies that the mother is positive, and efforts are made to confirm this and enroll her into care. The unanswered questions in much of the literature are: Is it a newborn's responsibility to protect mother's health? Should we wait for the newborn to disclose its mother's status? Or, should we test a mother as a parental obligation to protect the newborn? This last question is vital, as a newborn's tests do not conclusively show the baby's HIV status, as all babies born to HIV positive mothers have maternal HIV antibodies. Babies who are uninfected do not lose their

antibodies until 18 months of age, and the majority of babies with HIV antibodies are actually uninfected by the virus.

A PCR test that detects the actual presence of viral DNA can also be done, but cannot give an accurate result until a baby is at least 6 weeks old. Moreover, babies found to have HIV antibodies would be given antiretroviral prophylaxis, which may prevent HIV developing, but may also potentially have detrimental effects in the long term because of its toxicity.

A Legal Perspective on Mandatory HIV Testing for Pregnant Women

Around the world, law courts are often confronted with the issues surrounding the conflict between the rights of a pregnant woman, and the prevention of harm to the unborn child. This is further complicated by a commonly held viewpoint that an infant only acquires legal status on being born alive. However, in some parts of the US, there is a developing legislative framework that criminalizes prenatal harm through actions such as alcohol abuse and illegal drug use (2,27).

The risk of HIV transmission begins during pregnancy and continues through breast-feeding. Early detection of the mother's HIV status will provide opportunity for early initiation of PMTCT services, and consequently significantly reduces MTCT. If a mother were to object to this, she is therefore "intentionally" transmitting HIV to an infant, and risks legal action according to the Tanzania HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act (18), which requires a person with HIV to protect others from infection (Part VIII: 33:2:1 (a)).

Legal Justifications for Mandatory HIV Testing in Tanzania

Therefore, the key document that justifies mandatory HIV testing for pregnant women in Tanzania is the Tanzania HIV and AIDS Prevention and Control Act (18). While this legislation prohibits compulsory HIV testing, it also removes the legal protection for people required to take the test under court order, for those donating human organs and tissue, and for sexual offenders. The Act also details the rights and obligations of persons living with HIV and AIDS and requires these people to protect others from infection (Part VIII: 33:2:1 (a)). As HIV is mainly transmitted through unprotected sexual intercourse, pregnancy itself is also a result of unprotected sexual intercourse. Thus, a pregnant woman rejecting an HIV test can be considered HIV positive until proven otherwise, particularly where there is a prior history of high-risk behavior (herself or her partner).

Section 15:8 (b) of the Act authorizes medical practitioners to conduct an HIV test when they "believe that such test is clinically necessary or desirable in interest (of a mother and her infant)", giving a legally justifiable mandate for HIV testing at ANC and labour and delivery clinics in Tanzania. As an innocent infant is involved, knowing if a pregnant woman is HIV positive or not, especially when there is evidence of prior history of risky behavior of a mother or her partner, HIV testing should not be a voluntary option.

While health care workers are supposed to "do no harm", the Tanzania HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control Act (18) mandates medical professionals to conduct HIV testing if they believe that it is reasonably desirable for the benefit of a mother and a growing infant. In addition, the Act mandates a pregnant woman with a parental obligation to "do no harm" and "protect" the baby. This makes mandatory HIV testing professionally as well as legally justifiable in ANC and labour and delivery clinics in Tanzania.

In China, providers were most likely to endorse mandatory HIV testing for patients with high-risk behavior and for all patients before surgery, with over 43% of providers endorsing mandatory testing for anyone admitted to hospital. Controlling for demographics, multivariate

analyses indicated that providers with higher perceived risk of HIV infection at work, higher general prejudicial attitudes toward people living with AIDS, and previous contact with HIV patients were more likely to endorse mandatory HIV testing for anyone admitted to hospital (24).

As chances of post-exposure prophylaxis among health care workers are high as a result of poor working conditions (medical doctors' reasons for strike in Tanzania are predominantly poor working conditions (25), mandatory HIV testing is justifiable. From a legal and ethics perspective, an individual's right to privacy and informed consent is certainly violated when HIV testing is something that is required. However, the flip side is when an infant could be spared the infection if the mother's status is revealed. In Tanzania, a low skilled birth attendant rate (47%) makes it difficult to protect exposed infants, particularly as about 53% of pregnant women that attend ANC at least once in the early stages of pregnancy are not tested for HIV and deliver their babies in non health care settings.

Infants can contract the virus through breastfeeding as well as during childbirth. However, in Tanzania, exclusive breastfeeding for infants less than 6 months old is 41% (10), meaning that breastfeeding is an unreliable and unpredictable method of protecting exposed infants from acquiring HIV through breastfeeding. Early detection of HIV during the antenatal period therefore remains the golden opportunity, As if the proper preventative measures are taken during the antenatal period, that child's life has the potential to be free from HIV, despite its mother's seropositive status.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

HIV transmission risks begin during pregnancy and continue through breast-feeding. Early detection of mother's HIV status will provide opportunity for early initiation of PMTCT services, consequently significantly reducing mother to child transmission (MTCT) of HIV. Newborn tests do not conclusively show the baby's HIV status, as all babies born to HIV positive mothers have maternal HIV antibodies. Babies who are uninfected do not lose their antibodies until 18 months of age and the majority of babies with HIV antibodies are actually uninfected by the virus. A PCR test that detects the actual presence of viral DNA can also be conducted, but cannot give an accurate result until a baby is at least 6 weeks old. HIV testing of pregnant women is therefore the best option to curb uncertainties surrounding HIV exposure in newborns. Mandatory HIV Testing may be the only way to achieve increased HIV test uptake, increased enrolment in PMTCT, and increased protection for new-borns against MTCT.

Although mandatory HIV testing is justifiable in view of the evidence presented here, there several considerations. A key issue is the sustainable supply of test kits. A study in Mwanza, Tanzania, found that although all health care facility staff received HIV testing training, only 60.7% of the facilities had readily available HIV test kits (26). Logistical issues in the procurement and supply of HIV test kits, currently centralized at the Medical Stores Department needs to be resolved before mandatory HIV testing can be implemented. In addition, post-test issues such as sustainable ARV treatment, treatment of opportunistic infections, and addressing social and other barriers need to be resolved in order to meet the service demand once the mandatory testing is institutionalized.

In conclusion, although it may be difficult for a mother to face the reality of mandatory HIV screening, the question we should ask ourselves as public health officials is: Would the benefit of protecting an infant from contracting the virus not outweigh the shame or stigma that may accompany such action?

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no financial or non-financial competing interests.

Authors' Contributions

Isangula, K contributed the initial manuscript concept, accessed local data, provided substantive local insights and interpretation and was the lead writer of the article. Brownie, S and Holmes, A assisted by expanding the literature review, undertaking data interpretation and was the secondary contributing author while also providing editorial advice and review of developing drafts.

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Disoriented Temporalities: Narrating postcolonial Progress(ions) in the Novels of Ngugi wa Thiong'o and Ahmadou Kourouma.

Gilbert Ndi Shang

Bayreuth Academy of Advanced African Studies
University of Bayreuth

Abstract

The African novel is one of the prescient prisms through which social, cultural and political transformations on the continent can be apprehended. As such, it is not merely a site of reflection on the society, but a pole of constructive imagination on the intricate link between the past and the present, the global and the local, the ephemeral and the enduring. In this paper, we examine artistic representations of “moments of change” and historical progression in Ngugi’s *Wizard of the Crow* and Kourouma’s *En Attendant le Vote des Bêtes Sauvages*. Through diverse narrative techniques, characterization and thematic articulations, we examine how the two novels expose the ‘disturbed movement’ of historical “progression” in the postcolony wherein the new era of hope often carries shades of the past and seeds of future disillusionment. Transitions therefore become instances where past practices are embedded and complexified in the present. However, despite the tendency towards historical determinism in the two novels whereby any moment of change is fictionalized as a repetition of history, both authors, through different artistic forms and with different intensity, expound an open-ended and equivocal future where hope is juxtaposed with despair and optimism contrasted with uncertainty.

Key words: temporality, subversion, memory, progress, transition

INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL INTERROGATIONS

The African novel is one of the prescient and memorial prisms through which social, cultural and political transformations on the continent can be apprehended. As such, it is not merely a site of reflection on the society, but a pole of constructive imagination on the intricate link between the past and the present, the global and the local, the ephemeral and the enduring as far as African cultures, politics and histories are concerned. This article discusses creative representations and interrogations of transitional moments in the works of African authors in the light of the aesthetic of change, that is, recurrent forms of narration that are noticeable in artistic renditions of political change in Africa. In this regard, the present article analyzes the dialectical relationship between the text as an aesthetic project and its transfiguration of political reality into its structures of meaning.

Before analyzing the artistic narrations and interrogation of notions of progress in the texts of Ahmadou Kourouma and Ngugi wa Thiong'o, it is necessary to underline some of the fundamental considerations within "postcolonial" theory with regard to temporal connotations of the notions of progress and progression. In other words, it is important to examine the implications of the term 'post'coloniality as a marker of progress beyond colonialism. The prefix 'post' as a semantic fragment refers to the surpassing, aftermath, distancing from a process, phenomenon or event that is characteristic of the past. The major anxiety around the terminology is its simplistic division of time along a linear horizontal paradigm of past, present and future. The prefix “post” prima facie denotes the presumption of “temporally coming after and ideologically, supplanting” colonialism (Loomba 1998:7). Loomba asserts that it is the

ideological sense of the word which is contestable for a society can be both "post-colonial (in the sense of being formally independent) and neo-colonial (in the sense of remaining economically and/or culturally dependent) at the same time" (1998:7). The controversy of the concept therefore lies in the fact that though formally decolonized, formerly colonized societies still undergo new forms of colonization, internally and externally. As Bhabha puts it, the inherent ironies and paradoxes that characterize 'post' - colonial criticism come from the fact that "the 'beyond' is neither a new horizon, nor leaving behind of the past. Beginnings and endings may be the sustaining myths of the middle years" (1994:1). It is this "disturbance" of the progression of time from a secured and disavowed past to a redeemed present/future that accounts for the interrogation of notions of progress, change and modernity in postcolonial texts. Instead of regarding transition as a 'beyond', Bhabha's criticism suggests a more complex form of temporality that underlines the hybridity of the postcolonial historical moment.

The prefix "post" also pre-supposes an underestimation of internal layers of oppression and alienation within the colonized societies that have replaced the formal and former colonizer/colonized relationship. Some of these patterns of internal domination can either be traced back to pre-colonial and colonial societies or may be analyzed as recent phenomena, coming after independence. Post-colonial literature therefore does not only seek to address the colonial and neo-colonial situation, but also to reveal often overlooked but persistent patterns of dominance and subjugation within and amongst colonial and neo-colonial societies. One of the most poignant and comprehensive criticism of post-colonialism is contained in Anne McClintock's "Angels of Progress: The Pitfalls of the Term 'Post-colonialism.'" McClintock engages in a critical interrogation of the prefix 'post' when interpreted as 'coming after' colonialism. In her view, colonialism is not a thing of the past for "Colonialism returns at the point of its disappearance" (2010:629). As such, she argues for the primacy of power relations over temporal movement. The 'post' merely underlines a temporal relation, ignoring the power imbalance that still characterizes the relationship between colonial masters and their neo-colonies (2010:633). McClintock makes an epistemological attack on the linear representation of time and underscores that "alternative times experience of time, histories and causalities are required to deal with the complexities that cannot be served under the single rubric 'post-colonialism'"(2010:633-4). Such alternative conceptions generally interrogate the 'pastness' of the past and expose practices that traverse temporal demarcations of past, present and future. As a critique of linear temporality that marks the movement of the Angel of Progress, alternative and subversive timelines are created that are both circular and secular. She goes ahead to assert that "most problematically, the historical rupture suggested by the preposition "post"- belies both the continuities and discontinuities of power that have shaped the legacies of the formal European and British colonial Empires (2010:633). It is due to such continuities and discontinuities that representations of the postcolonial State and colonial States refer to similar metaphorical texts with regard to creative subversion of subject formation and hegemonic construction under the postcolonial dispensation. The paradox of postcolonial condition on the configuration of the postcolonial novel is fundamental. The normalcy of time as a division between past, present and future becomes a subject of aesthetic innovation and complexity in the novels under examination. This point is important as it accounts for the various experimentation of temporal representation in postcolonial novels that posit as a contestation of the ideology of time itself. The (ab)use of particular verbal tense in postcolonial text is not a mere grammatical but also an ideological choice. In the writing of resistance literature, various experiences of time in the expression of the post-colonial conditions are crucial. On the question of postcolonial texts and the transfiguration of the notion of time, Said refers to the "disquiet" of what T S Eliot calls the 'cunning history and contrived corridors' of time – the wrong turns, the overlap, the senseless repetition..." (1984:281) which must be

factored into the narrative process. This underlines the examination of postcolonial texts as propitious spaces for the disorientation of linear temporality as a subversion of totalizing notions of progress.

The novels of the Ivorian author Ahmadou Kourouma and the Kenyan writer and critic Ngugi wa Thiong'o provide appropriate platforms on which to capture and interrogate aspects of postcolonial notions of progress. Ahmadou Kourouma and Ngugi wa Thiong'o are perennial voices on the African literary scene especially with regard to the novelistic genre. For close to half a century, their works have continued to solicit sustained critical attention in scholarly circles. While critics on Kourouma's works have often focused on the linguistic materiality of his texts (Koné 2007; Ndiaye 2007), Ngugi's novels, plays and critical works have continued to draw critical engagement especially with regard to their more or less overt revolutionary tonality (Indangasi 1997; Elliot 2003). Whatever their peculiarities, one of the unifying traits in both authors' works is their continuous engagement with socio-political issues of African societies from a *longue durée* perspective. As such, a recurrent trend in their works is the figuration of the interconnections between historical antecedence and actuality/contemporaneity wherein the realities of the past are dialectically refracted through the mirror of the present. It is from this analytical disposition that we examine Kourouma's *En Attendant le Vote des Bêtes Sauvages* and Ngugi's *Wizard of the Crow*, two artistic re-creations of socio-political realities in post-colonial African societies.

Kourouma's *donsomana* for postcolonial leaders: On the circularity of temporal movements.

The central plotline of Kourouma's *En Attendant le Vote des Bêtes Sauvages* represents the genealogy and exploits of the hunter cum president Koyaga of the Republic of Gulf as narrated by his "praise singer", Bingo and his apprentice/companion, Tiekoura. In line with the tenets of the epic song, Koyaga is portrayed as an exceptionally brave character, possessing magical powers and destined for "greatness". However, his hunting dexterity is intertwined in the narrative with the shrewdness with which he emasculates his foes who are, in his deluded imaginary, less worthy than beasts. The manner of his accession to power, after the assassination of his predecessor Fricassa Santos, and later his fellow coup plotters (Tima, Ledjo and Crunet), heralds the form of the regime of violence that he later on institutes in the post-independence Gulf Republic. The narrative form used in the text reveals a peculiar conception of historical movement that questions and challenges the discourse of progress propagated by the forces of domination in the political scene.

The structure of Kourouma's text constitutes the primary entry into his subversive aesthetics. The story takes the form of a *donsomana*, a traditional Malinke purificatory song performed in honour of great and accomplished hunters (*En Attendant*, 21). It moves forth and back in a systematic, recurrent vicious cycle. This *retour-en-arrière*, a major characteristic of the epic, underlines the nature of the story that is being told in the text in which the past continues to reproduce itself in the present (Borgomano 2000:29). There are neither true beginnings nor definite endings in this novel. This antinomic narrative form constitutes a structural subversion of Koyaga's notion of progress and his claimed indispensability in the redemption of the Republic of Gulf and Africa as a whole from its dehumanizing past: "Sans lui, le pays retomberait dans la misère, l'Afrique retournerait à la colonisation, à l'esclavage, à sa sauvagerie congénitale." (Without him, the country would recede into misery, Africa would fall back to colonization, to its congenital barbarism) (*En Attendant*, 275). Koyaga's rule thrives on the same "civilizing mission" that characterized certain colonial conceptualizations and othering of the subject as a patient that has to be rescued from his suicidal instincts. The *donsomana* turns out then to be a satire and a veritable chant of indictment where the falsely euphonic life-story of Koyaga written by his official biographers is subverted by the insider-

narrative of the sora. Though Koyaga, the protagonist stands as the figural character through whose eyes events are perceived and judged, the sora remains the narrative voice that betrays and ridicules his jaundiced perception of reality. The voice of the sora thus achieves a mimic effect - that of subverting the master-perspective of the ruler while simulating his (Koyaga's) authoritative voice. This is particularly related to Koyaga's use of violence against his enemies.

Koyaga's treatment of his antagonists reflects an idiosyncratic cruelty, a peculiar form of "necro-power" (Mbembe 2000:32) based both on superstitious traditional ritual and modern political violence which seek to dehumanize and annihilate both the somatic and spiritual self of the "other". The narrator's rendering of the following scene captures the orgy of Koyaga's violent practice:

Tranquillement les tirailleurs déshabillèrent le président ; l'homme était lui aussi incircconcis [...] C'est sur le vif que Koyaga procéda à l'ablation du sexe et à l'introduction du pénis et des bourses ensanglantées entre les dents, dans une bouche tenue ouverte par les bras de fer de deux tirailleurs hilaires. (En Attendant, 112)

(The musketeers slowly undressed the president; he was also uncircumcised [...] Koyaga immediately went on to ablate his sexual organ and insert his penis and his testicles between his teeth into the mouth drawn open by the hands of the two hilarious musketeers)

Being uncircumcised reduces his victim to the level of an effeminate man, incomparable to the phallic prowess of Koyaga. Kourouma's dexterous use of the imagery of hunting as an underlying metaphor in the text portrays the eccentric and syncretic mindset that characterizes Koyaga's practice of political victimization. His imaginary conception of power is informed by long traces of the past to which he is heir. This concurs with Mbembe's claim that certain forms of post-colonial violence are a hybrid conjunction of imported tactics and a perverted ancestral imaginary (2000:96). It is however important to note that somatic violence is employed here both to ethical and aesthetic effects and it is the latter that explains the ubiquity of violence and blood in the text. His use of detailed and picturesque description of violent scenes conforms to what Richard K. Priebe characterises as "copia" and "syndesis", rhetorical figures used to amplify the numbing effect of violence through an abundance of detail (Priebe 2005:8). In effect, this stylistic device should enable us appreciate the use of violence from a symbolic and cathartic perspective.

It is through the devices of copia and syndesis that repetitions in the text can be understood. Such repetitions include the parallel texts that recount the biographies of the various dictators in the text, anaphoric representations that enhance the musicality of the *donsomana* performance as well as underline the similarity between Koyaga and his counterparts. The narrator re-hashes in a rather monotonous but purposeful manner, the feigned miraculous rescue of Koyaga in his string of plane crashes and the mechanistic reactions of his fellow dictators (En Attendant 254, 287). Due to the nature of recurrences in the text, it is difficult to assert if the repeated events are mere verbal re-iterative creations of singular incidents or a faithful recounting of repeated events. This blurred line represents the role of confabulation in fictional narration whereby the power of discourse overshadows and clouds the veracity of the primary story. As Bisanswa asserts, in the epic, "there is exaggeration of facts and the structure of the epic itself reflects this pre-eminence of music over text because to everyone of the main themes developed in the story, there is a corresponding musical sentence" (2007:4). In En Attendant discourse creates reality as well as it displaces it. This leads to a structure

characterized by splintered and dispersed narratives. The text is therefore not a single but a series of embedded and competing *donsomanas*, narrating the lives of several dictators who, though claiming to be collaborative comrades, are in effect vying against each other in their bid to distend both traditional and modern forms of absolute power. The distortion of the linear narrative is a critique of the horizontal movement of history along a progressive paradigm. Kourouma's non-linear narrative is thus an aesthetic representation of the interrogation of logical progression as a means of conceiving discourses of change and transitions.

In as much as the narrative is laterally dispersed, it nevertheless retains vertical unity through genealogical and filial metaphor of the "mother". The mother image is a symbolic aspect of this text that need not be overemphasized. Though he is presented as a virile president and symbol of phallic authority, Koyaga is ironically tied to the umbilical cord of his mother Nadjouma, who maintains a sinister presence in the text. Despite the fact that the narrator explains the influence of Nadjouma by referring to the primordial role of the mother in the life of a child in the traditional society represented in the text, there is evidence to purport that there is more to the mother image. Bingo's explanation therefore glosses over the political undertones suggested by the mother image. The innuendo of incest between Koyaga and Nadjouma is repeated severally in the text. Bingo tells Koyaga that "Les relations entre vous et votre maman sont trop étroites. On vous accuse d'amour incestueux. Accusation à laquelle vous ne répondez jamais" (En Attendant, 279). (The bond between you and your mother is too strong. People accuse you of incestuous love but you never respond to such accusations). The subject of his relationship with his mother, Nadjouma is never addressed in public (except through rumours), yet without her magical influence, his rule is bound to wane. A mysterious presence whose role can only be clarified through the magical and superstitious mode that underlies Bingo's narrative, Nadjouma can be disputably considered the heroine of the text. Her mystical disappearance is responsible for the purificatory ceremony on which the text is constructed. The identity of Nadjouma becomes inseparable from and inherent in that of his son. The worship of the mother, which prevents the progeny from developing a separate identity, is a revealing metaphor in both texts. Though it would be too sweeping to consider postcolonial regimes as mere puppets of the former colonial master (Garnier 2009:16), Kourouma's use of the mother/son relationship could be a hyperbolic representation of neocolonial relationship that deconstructs the "beyond" of the postcolonial. Writing on the colonial situation, Mbembe asserts that a filial relationship exists between the colony and the motherland, a relationship which is inherited by the post-colonial nation-state (2000: 57). Though the narrator uses cultural motivation to account for the overwhelming presence of Nadjouma behind the scenes, the implicit political undertone is quite evident in other parts of the text (En Attendant 77, 78) where authorial intrusion reveals the continuous though hidden influence of the former colonial master in the politics of the Gulf Republic and the other congenial dictatorships in the text. Kourouma's artifice is revealed in his dexterous interweaving of layers of discourses into the filial and genealogical back-cloth against which this text is set.

This filial analogy is again seen in Bingo's narration of the national conference that is held to negotiate the democratic transition that follows the civic demonstrations against Koyaga. The narrator's rendering of the politics of the national conference brings to light the re-staging of history, a history of betrayal and usurpation of the cause for change. Though the victims of the revolution that takes place at the end of the text are downtrodden subjects of the Gulf Republic, those who benefit from the cause are a new breed of immigrants who have been leading luxurious lives in the Diaspora while the dispossessed masses endured untold destitution under the dictatorship of Koyaga. Those who pose as youth leaders do not hesitate to betray the system when they are offered bribes by the system in place. The vicious cycle of the subject classes continue while some privileged members of the youth groups join the government forces. The betrayal of the pre-colonial times is therefore carried over to transitions in the

post-colony. Such a representation reflects Achille Mbembe's interrogation of the progressive connotation of the « post- » in the post-colony which he describes as "un emboîtement des présents, des passés et des futurs qui tiennent toujours leur propre profondeur d'autres présents, passés et futurs, chaque époque portant, altérant et maintenant tous les précédents" (2000:36). (an embeddedness of presents, pasts and futures which always retain the depth of other presents, pasts and futures with each epoch carrying, altering and maintaining all the preceding ones). In effect, Kourouma uses genealogical imagery as a trope to present the re-emergence of past realities in contemporary post-colonial societies. The genealogical trope of recurrence is re-enforced in the text by the narrative tonality of the sora.

Bingo's narrative tonality converts the dramatic climax in the text into an inconsequential anticlimax where the revolt against Koyaga fails. The sudden uprising of the unemployed youth, the bilakoros that arouses hope as a moment where the past would give way to the future, is saddled with contradictions and the expectations raised by the national conference turn out to be chimerical. After the highly rhythmic and pseudo-martial recounting of the stand-off between the disenchanting youth and Koyaga's wild dogs (les lycas), the narrator's tone turns sarcastic. The image of "revolutionaries" (En Attendant 327) cedes into that of "dancers", portraying the theatricality of the moment and its fulfillment of a circular progression. Behind the drama and the violence, lies the unhappy continuity of past norms and practices. The transition from the class of the "oppressed" to that of "oppressors" is dramatically and graphically represented. The revolution is therefore betrayed at the dawn of the supposedly new beginning and the bilakoros are portrayed as a new set of actors entering the circus of performance (En Attendant 296). As such, Kourouma's text does not only portray societies in a flux, but also constitutes a literary consideration of the phenomenal stability of debased political habits that resist even apparently decisive upheavals. In the narrative, the continuity of the past seems to be a question of fatality and pre-ordination. This can be illustrated through the nature of proverbs that run through the text.

The reproduction of the past is evident in Kourouma's use of proverbial expressions which constitute part of the cultural aesthetics and the enunciatory medium through which this text is woven. As Bingo claims, "Le proverbe est le cheval de la parole; quand la parole se perd, c'est grâce au proverbe qu'on la retrouve" (Proverbs are like horses to words, lost words are recovered with the help of proverbs) (En Attendant 41). They are taken as bearers of immanent traditional wisdom as opposed to the hypocritical discourses of Koyaga and his closest minister, Macledio. Each section of the text ends with a series of three proverbs related to a particular theme. This constitutes a reflective interlude for the significance of the ensuing episodes. Though the narrator makes use of a variety of metaphorical analogies in his choice of proverbs, they maintain a thematic unity. Below are some examples:

L'eau ne manque jamais l'ancien chemin de son cours. (28)

(A stream does not miss its course)

L'antilope cob ne bondit pas pour que son petit traine. (28)

(As the kob antelope springs, so does its young one.)

Le singe n'abandonne pas sa queue, qu'il tient soit de sa mère où de son père. (46)

(The monkey does not abandon its tail be it from its mother or father)

L'enfant devient toujours ce qu'est sa mère, possède toujours ce qui appartient à sa mère. (38)

(The child takes after his mother and possesses what belongs to her)

Le veau ne perd pas sa mère même dans l'obscurité (47)

(Even in the dark, the calf does not lose track of its mother)
 L'éléphant meurt mais ses défenses demeurent(47)
 (The elephant dies but its trunks remain)

As witnessed in the above examples, proverbs are woven around the metaphors of re-occurrence, fatality, pre-destination, filial continuity and genetic reproduction. They represent the filiation between past and present. If the use of cultural aesthetics through the allegory of hunting and filial genealogy is the macro-structural stylistic device employed by Kourouma to convey the irony of transitions, Ngugi resorts to burlesque political satire in *Wizard of the Crow*.

Ngugi's the Second Ruler and the Politics of Postcolonial Memory

The text narrates the power games that take place in the government of the larger-than-life Ruler of the (ironically named) Democratic Republic of Aburiria. In this text, the concepts of change and progress are parodied through the physiological and ideological transformations of the Ruler who entraps the past, the present and the future of his country under his queer political imagination. Just like Koyaga in Kourouma's text, in *Wizard of the Crow*, the history of the nation is a subsumed sub-plot under the mantle of the Ruler's biographical meta-narrative. The dubious character of transition in the life of the Republic is represented through the metamorphosis of the Ruler. As the narrator says, "the Ruler's rise to power had something to do with his alliance with the colonial state and the white forces behind it" (*Wizard* 233). As a ploy to obtain the post of vice-president under the First Ruler, he forms a party claiming to improve the working conditions of blacks in higher ranks and to champion the cause of "pastoral communities and fight for their right to wear traditional clothes and carry cultural weapons like bows and arrows, spears and knock-berry clubs" (*Wizard* 232). The First Ruler, who is supposed to represent the independence of a new nation is just an element of a faulted transition after which the country reverts into the hands of the colonial masters through the corrupt regime of the Second Ruler. He (Second Ruler) symbolizes the continuity of colonialism and is portrayed as the hand tool of the former colonial masters whom he has served as an official in the colonial army. It is therefore not surprising that he and his ministers are accountable not to the citizens but to the authorities of the Global Bank. The text presents a continuation of subjectification that is rendered more complex by the synergy between a corrupt ruling class and the international capitalist system. The change of names of the Ruler's political party symbolizes the regression of his regime into personalized power. Eboussi Boulaga asserts that the magic of power in the post-colony lies in the act of "naming" (1993:114). The constant change of the name of the Ruler's party runs through the text. The name changes from the "United Party" to the "Ruler's party" (234) and with the "democratic transition", it is simply renamed the "Ruling Party". The change only serves to strengthen the Ruler's grip on power. This demonstrates the false nature of progress promised by the Ruler who claims to have given birth to Baby democracy at the end of his self-induced pregnancy. If anything, after the false wind of democratic change, the power of the regime becomes even more personalized and the citizens have to continue under the yoke of his oppression.

The reign of the Second Ruler is ironically presented as transcending human notion of temporal chronology: "His rule had no beginning and no end; and judging from the facts one may well believe that claim. Children had been born and given birth to others and those others to others and so on, and his rule had survived all the generations" (*Wizard* 5). This hyperbolic assertion reveals the psychic dimension of The Ruler's power which effaces the historical memory of the citizens of the Republic of Aburiria. Time under the Ruler has lost its movement and dynamics and is statically and tightly glued to an eternal "Present", a present which the Ruler considers redemptive whereas the citizens view it as a long night of stasis. Hedged behind a phantasmagorical wall, the Ruler's pathology prevents him from realizing that he is

being overtaken by events. He finds it difficult to connect with his allies after the end of the Cold War, a period to which he looks with remorse for it was a time when political opponents could be silenced and decimated with impunity so long as they were indiscriminately labeled as "Communists" or "Marxists". When ambassador Gemstone advises him to resign and hand over power to Machokali due to growing discontentment against his rule in Aburiria, the Second Ruler is deeply unnerved and looks back to the Cold War days with nostalgia: "For a moment, he missed the Cold War, when he could play one side against the other. But now, there was no superpower and he knew only how to be wooed, not how to woo" (Wizard 583). The Second Ruler finds it difficult to adapt within the new dispensation where there is a certain respect for human rights. The fact that the pressure for the Ruler to hand over power is coming from a US ambassador whose government had supported the Ruler's hunt against "communists", is tangible proof of the subsequent continuity of the neo-colonial tutelage that had characterized the regime of the Ruler. It shows that the new forms of relations that follow the Cold War would still be marked by imprints of the past. The change is therefore equivocal for it only reconfigures past relations and re-adapts them to new forms of tutelage.

The character Tajirika is very central in the entangled plot lines that make up Wizard of the Crow. As the director of the abortive Marching to Heaven project around which the text is constructed, his will to power is symbolic. When he is appointed as Governor of the Central Bank by the Ruler, he recedes into a hallucinatory state of narcissism: "The sound of the word governor thrilled him, recalling as it did the long line of colonial governors of territorial Aburiria. What had started as a playful act of self-affirmation now became a need, and more and more he found himself conversing with his reflection." In this moment of self-congratulation, his wife Vinjinia asks him, "Why are you talking to the mirror? Have you forgotten the past?" (Wizard 614). Tajirika's obsession with the mirror symbolizes an internal dialogue with the post-colonial self against the backdrop of colonial trajectory. His fascination with the sound of the word "governor" and the historical memory it retrieves, reveals the subconscious traces of the "concatenation" of the colonial and the postcolonial (Bayart 2010:88) with regard to the practice of power. His summoning of the historical connotation of the title and the epiphany of the aura of greatness it confers, is premonitory to his subsequent seizure of power at the end of the text. Wizard of the Crow therefore posits as a memorial palimpsest which Friedman defines as "the textual unconscious of the published horizontal narrative" (2002:224). The "mirror" represents the refraction of the colonial past in the post-colonial present. It vividly brings out the sedimentation of power practices that straddle across different temporalities. The end of the Ruler's regime, a supposedly climactic point in the text, is narrated listlessly as a non-event due to the resemblance of the new regime to the old:

The climax of Tajirika's ascension to power came when he addressed the nation and pronounced the end of Baby D. A new era of imperial democracy had dawned, he said, and ordered the construction of a modern coliseum on the site once earmarked for Marching to Heaven. (Wizard 754)

The insignia of "change" in the fictional Republic of Aburiria is portrayed in the architectural representations of power. The architectural impressionism that both regimes engage in lends itself to the chronotopic analysis of time and space. The narrator makes use of biblical and historical allusions related to the contest for power through architecture. Architecture in the text acquires the symbolism of a chronotope which Bakhtin defines as "the primary means for materializing time and space", "a centre of concretizing representation" and "a force giving body to the entire novel" (Richardson 2002:22). From the chronotope of Marching to Heaven to the modern Coliseum, the narrative constructs a stratum of allusion that symbolizes the

fulcrum of mundane power. The failure of Marching to Heaven represents the collapse of the biblical Tower of Babel with its ambition to defy divine authority. Tajirika's coliseum is reminiscent of the ancient Roman Coliseum and the fact that it is built on the same spot previously reserved for the construction of Marching to Heaven is a symbol of time-space that epitomizes the reversion that has come with Tajirika's accession to power and his attempt to capture both the antiquity and futurity of absolute power as contained in the oxymoronic use of "imperial democracy" above.

Even though *En Attendant le Vote des Bêtes Sauvages* and *Wizard of the Crow* preponderantly focus on the dark side of societies under dictatorships, the novels by the same token (but in different forms) strike notes of optimism. Both novels can still be posited as media of the quest for "an enabling beginning point and a vindicating goal" for societies that seem to be "enclosed by a circle" (Said 1994:26-27). In *Wizard of the Crow*, the refusal of the army to use force against the protesting crowd towards the end of the text symbolizes the turning over of a new page that defies the tradition of the past whereby the army obsequiously followed the orders of the autocrat against fellow citizens (Wizard, 645). The Movement for the Voice of the People re-appropriates the public sphere and turns it into a space for counteracting the demagoguery and propaganda of the Ruler and his regime. The determination of the protesters to compel the Ruler to adopt democratic reforms also showcases a new wave of citizens' consciousness that cannot be underestimated. Though Tajirika's coup means a continuation and even a worsening of the dictatorial yoke, there is a growing civic consciousness and unity against oppression. This is conveyed through the strong bond between Kamiti and Nyawira. It is a symbol of love and political commitment that will bring to life a new future for the Republic of Aburiria. The Ruler is therefore not in charge of the future, a new world is opening before his eyes though his autocratic power blinkers his perception of the unfolding realities.

The idealistic representation of the headquarters of The Movement for the Voice of the People depicts an atmosphere of regeneration. The headquarters of the movement is located near the "forest", a chronotope of liberation and renewal. The narrator asserts that:

The forest was a school to which they always came to hear what it had to tell them: You take, you give, for if you only take without giving back, you will leave the giver exhausted into death. The gardens were nurseries for healing plants with seeds that could be planted on farms elsewhere; the healing of the land had to start somewhere. (Wizard, 758)

The forest imagery with its verdant surroundings symbolizes hope. It is a memory metaphor of the space for recovering traces of resistance, the rekindling of betrayed hopes and the re-imagining of an alternative vision for Aburiria. Ngugi, in his traditional positivist bent, idealises the peasants as the architects of genuine change. This can be accounted for by the symbolic name of the heroine of the text, "Nyawira" which literally means in Gikuyu, "She who works". This is contrasted to the character "Tajirika" ("becoming rich"). As such the text is based on a Manichean clash of absolute qualities which evolves simultaneously in a conflictual plot. Though the germ of dictatorship seems to have triumphed in the short term, the future seems to elicit hope and opportunity incarnated by the Movement for the Voice of the People. On the other hand, Kourouma's irony bears a measure of skepticism to any note of idealization. His text is underlined by a deep suspicion of human nature and intent. Even characters whose subject status is depicted with pathos like the unemployed youth come under the same ironic gaze of the narrator as those who represent oppression like Koyaga and Maclélio. That notwithstanding, there is still a signal of hope in Kourouma's text. The introductory proverbs to the last part of the text illustrate this point:

Au bout de la patience, il y a le ciel. (358)
(There is light at the end of the tunnel)
La nuit dure longtemps mais le jour finit par arriver. (358)
(The night may be long but the day will finally break)

The above proverbs underline the inevitability of change and the fact that even the dismal conditions expressed in the text are time-bound. It can therefore be said that the retrogressive progression deduced throughout Kourouma's text coexists with optimistic notes based on a "nomological-deductive" worldview (White 1973:12) of axiomatic, universal and inviolable truths. By ending with such proverbs that connote hope and change, the text positions itself as a prologue to events that are situated beyond its ambits, considering human conditions as definitely succumbed under the cosmic law of change and impermanence. In effect, his text functions within and is framed by traditional wisdom with its belief in hope, the background against which it is set.

Note

1-All translations are mine.

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The Role of Multilevel Marketing (MLM) in Poverty Alleviation in Calabar – Cross River State, Nigeria: A Case Study of Forever Living Product (Nig.) Ltd

Lionel Effiom and Francis Archibong Effiong

Abstract

This study assessed the role of multilevel marketing (MLM) in poverty alleviation in Calabar, Nigeria, using Forever Living Products (Nig.) Ltd. (FLP) as a case study. Structured questionnaires were served on a total of 300 respondent distributors of the company and the data generated were analysed using the Pearson Product Moment correlation statistical technique. The result of the hypotheses tested showed that there is a strong positive relationship between MLM and job creation on the one hand, and MLM and income generation on the other. Although MLM was found to be a means of wealth creation and a good source of residual income, it is by no means a business targeted at poverty alleviation. Significantly, 75% of respondents spent above the poverty benchmark (\$1.25/day) before joining FLP. Most MLM distributors were found to be confronted with the challenges of recruiting new downlines, and high cost of products. However cases of exploitation and inventory loading were minimal. The study recommends that government provide incentives to MLM companies to establish production plants in the country to exploit local economies and stem the tide of unemployment, among many other benefits. MLM companies should initiate business packages that are targeted at the poor.

Keywords: Multilevel marketing, Forever Living Products, Poverty Alleviation, Job creation

INTRODUCTION

Poverty alleviation has become the loudest cry in the development cycle. It is the top priority on the list of the United Nations millennium development goals (MDGs). In 2013, the Spring meeting of the World Bank Group/IMF ended with a target of reducing the number of people living on less than \$1.25 a day to 3% by 2030 – Ubi and Effiom [29]. This was clearly as a result of the ever increasing presence of poverty despite several governmental and non-governmental programmes to tackle it.

In Nigeria, the 2011 poverty survey report of the Nigeria Bureau of statistics (NBS) revealed that an estimated 71.5% of Nigerians were relatively poor, 61.9% were absolutely poor, and 62.8% lived below the dollar per day poverty line of the United Nations – UNDP [31]. This is shocking and paradoxical, given the apparent growth rates posted by the Nigerian economy in recent years. It appears that the numerous anti-poverty campaigns instituted by government at various levels have not produced the desired results.

There is a consensus of opinion that job creation by the private sector is fundamental in alleviating poverty. IFC Open Study [14] and Klein [15] posit that profitable inclusive businesses and markets are pathways for the private sector to make important contributions to poverty alleviation. Job creation and employment is unarguably a requirement for any sustainable development and poverty reduction – [10, 15].

Multilevel Marketing (MLM) is one among such businesses that professes to empower the people by providing them opportunities to partake in easy to start businesses which provide appreciable income returns. Their operations in Nigeria and specifically Calabar have not gone

unnoticed except that they are still young in the country compared to some other Western and European countries where their operations have spanned over three decades. The direct selling industry to which Multilevel Marketing Companies (MLMs) belong released its 2012 outlook survey which reported that its global sales reached \$166.9 billion – a 5.4% growth over its \$158.3 billion sales in 2011. In the United States alone, 15.9 million people were involved in direct selling in 2012 which represents an increase of 1.89% over 15.3 million people in 2011(www.directsellingnews.com). Coughlan and Grayson [5a] noted that “70 per cent of direct selling revenues are generated by network marketing Organizations” – i.e. multilevel marketing companies.

With these figures, it appears that Multilevel Marketing (MLM) has the potential of being a good source for job creation, income generation, and a means to crossing the poverty line. If the claims of Multilevel Marketing Companies (MLMs) were to be upheld, it appears that they could have a significant role to play in poverty alleviation. But is this the case? Upon the claims of multilevel marketing companies, this study seeks to examine if multilevel marketing indeed enhances poverty alleviation. Specifically, the study seeks to determine if MLMs deliberately target the poor as their recruits. What role does MLM play in income generation? Is there any relationship between MLM and job creation? Does MLM lead to skill and personal development of MLM distributors?

The study is structured into five sections. Following the introduction, section two discusses relevant literature and conceptual issues; research methodology is treated in section three; findings and discussion of result is done in section four, and section five concludes the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

Approaches to Poverty Alleviation

There are several approaches to poverty alleviation. Examining them provides a necessary understanding of the nature of poverty and the requisite intervention to tackle it. There are five main approaches to poverty alleviation: the Economic Growth Approach, the Basic Needs Approach, the Rural Development Approach, the Target Approach and the Employment creation approach.

The Economic Growth approach is hinged on the trickledown theory of development which explains that economic growth would lead to increased per capita income, reduced unemployment, and even distribution of income – Fajingbesi and Uga, [8]. Emphasizing this point, Ndiyo [19] remarks that economic growth should be pursued alongside a deliberate policy of equity and income distribution promoted by the participation of the poor. It views economic factors as the root of all forms of poverty, and the non-economic factors as secondary and arising from the primary economic factors. Thus, tackling the economic problems by employing appropriate economic policy tools will have a multiplier effect of improved standard of living on the poor based on the trickledown theory. Olayemi [21] however noted that economic growth is a long term process and as such, will delay before the benefits of growth trickle down to the poor who are rather in need of short and medium term strategies. Economic growth is not a sufficient condition to achieve poverty reduction.

The task of alleviating poverty is extended beyond the scope of individuals. It engulfs whole communities particularly, rural communities which are deprived of basic infrastructures and face stunted development. The rural development approach recognizes that poverty is multidimensional. Thus, it aims at providing basic necessities of life such as food, clean water, shelter, education, health care, and employment to rural dwellers in general, particularly the poor – Daramola [6].The limitation of this approach is that it does not directly target the poor but takes on rural areas generally. Again, decisions on rural areas to target may be done from

ill-political motives. Ndiyo [19] contends that this approach will be more effective if management capabilities of community-based initiatives are strengthened. This can be through seminars and workshops to enable communities participate in the Poverty alleviation Programmes (PAPs) at all levels.

Target approach specifically aims at certain groups in the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes like provision of social safety nets, micro credits, and school meal programmes. A major set-back to this approach is the inability to properly identify the target beneficiaries. Proper targeting is necessary to minimize leakages. Two major targeting techniques exist: the perfect targeting and the total transfer targeting. Whereas, the former seeks to accurately identify the poor households just to raise their income above the poverty line, the later involves the transfer of funds to households simply assumed to be poor with a view of eliminating poverty completely.

Identifying the actual target group can be done using several measures. The use of specific characteristics which have strong correlation with poverty is a good criterion to adopt in selecting programme beneficiaries. These characteristics include: size, sex, age, educational level and so on. Another criterion is to adopt disincentives that will encourage only the poor to participate but discourage the non-poor, for instance queuing to get health subsidy or announcing the name of beneficiaries of a programme.

Employment Creation Approach emphasises the need to eliminate unemployment and underemployment. This will be achieved by creating employment for those who are apparently unemployed and better employment to the underemployed. In this vein higher institutions of education should focus on employment generation in their bid to develop human capital. Also public expenditure should target on priority areas that affect the poor as this will increase the people's productivity.

Employment is regarded as the most effective way to get people out of poverty and it is the core of the growth process – Klein [15]. An inclusive employment is beneficial to the poor, and particularly the less educated and the uneducated in rural areas. From this review, the target approach and the employment creation approach stand out as more effective strategies to alleviate poverty, although no approach is in itself exclusive. With over 60 per cent of the population of Calabar living below the poverty line – Ubi and Effiom [19], poverty alleviation needs a multidimensional approach and no one theory is exhaustive enough in explaining its dynamics – Ubi, Effiom and Okon [30].

Overview of Private-Sector Role in Poverty Alleviation

Over the years there have been numerous interventions by the government and several NGOs (national and multinational) in the campaign against poverty. However attention is gradually shifting to the profit private sector for active participation in poverty alleviation. This section examines the role of the sector in poverty alleviation.

The profit private-sector refers to a range of economic activities set-up to create value with the primary aim of making profit for the business owners. There has been an increasing advocacy in the development literature for the active participation of the private sector in poverty reduction. UNDP [31]. Its key contribution is in the area of job creation. The World Bank and development scholars maintain that the goal of reducing extreme poverty rate to 3% by 2030 “will not be achieved without a robust private sector creating the jobs critical to lifting people out of poverty” – [34, 15]. The private sector can involve the poor as (a) Producers (i.e. direct

suppliers, employees or distributors; (b) consumers (i.e. special products and markets can be created for them) and (c) indirect involvement (value chain or outsourcing – [15, 33])

The involvement of the private sector in poverty reduction has not escaped criticism. Mahmud [17] noted that the profit motive of the private sector is in direct conflict with any poverty reducing goal and that, unless the private sector growth will ensure a reduction in income inequality, it will be ineffective in poverty reduction. London [16] observes that corporate social responsibility of the private sector will not have much impact on poverty reduction since the income generated from such are collected by third-party partners. Hierli [12] however suggests that businesses done with the aim of alleviating poverty should be operated with “a clear policy of honesty, transparency and a long term vision that allows for win-wins for both parties”. Other attributes of a successful private-sector led poverty reduction strategy include: scalability, sustainability; inclusiveness, genuineness, local capacity building and defined targets.

Thus the above evaluation of the private sector's role in poverty alleviation provides a good framework with which to assess the role of Multilevel Marketing Companies (MLM) in poverty alleviation.

An Overview of the Direct Selling Industry (DSI) and (MLM)

The whole concept of (MLM) is relatively new in Nigeria when compared with some other European and Western Countries where they have existed for over three decades. The DSI is a conglomerate of all firms that distribute consumer goods and services through personal (Seller to buyer) contact in a location away from fixed business areas (like retail stores) particularly at home. It is the locational characteristic that distinguishes it from other forms of personal selling.

MLM is a subset of the DSI. Distributors are used in selling company products, and also in recruiting other distributors. As a result, they receive compensation for their sales and from sales of those individuals they recruit. The senior distributors are called uplines while their recruits are called downlines – Peterson and Wotruba, [24].

Common products sold through Multilevel Marketing (MLM) include: health and fitness products, cosmetics, cleaning agents, electrical appliances and several others. It is very important to note that many Multilevel Marketing Companies (MLMs) do not incur any cost on advertisement since they do not engage in such. Middlemen (Wholesalers and retailers) are usually boycotted by MLMs, and as such, MLMs rely heavily on the activities of their distributors to promote their products through direct sales, party plans and demonstration. Among the various MLM companies in Nigeria are; Trevo, Tiens/Tianshi, GNLD, Green world, FLP and several others.

MLM Structure and Operation

The distributors in MLM are usually organized into network structures that are interwoven and connected. Two main types of such structures are the binary structure, and unilevel structure. The former allows just two direct downlines at each level, and other direct recruits are to be placed at different levels in the network of downlines. On the other hand, the unilevel structure permits the recruitment of an unlimited number of downlines. Beasley [3] applied statistical analysis to show that the binary structure is unethical.

Direct selling firms usually opt between two choices, either employees or independent distributors. There are no salaries or other fixed costs associated with recruitment of independent distributors. In the United States, over 99% of direct sales people are

independent distributors. Cruz and Olaya [5] observed that most distributors are predominantly end users of the product in MLMs. Peterson and Wotruba [24] pointed out that a non-selective recruitment used with a straight method of compensation often tends to draw people “with naive hopes for large and easily earned incomes from only a modest commitment in time and effort”.

There are basically three grounds on which income is earned in a multilevel marketing business. Cruz and Olaya [5] noted the categorization of Coughlan and Grayson [5a]: distribution, via earning of a mark-up profit between 30% to 50% of the whole sale price of the purchased products; Personal Volume (PV) – commission based on the value of every product bought or sold during a period; Group Volume (GV) – commission earned by uplines for their group cumulative sales, made up of their personal volume (PV) plus the volume of the products that are bought or sold by their downlines during the same period. There are also incentives or earnings that usually accrue to a few distributors that are on the top of the MLM pyramid. These include cars, houses, international vacation, and their likes.

The recruitment of a new distributor allows for only a single connection with his upline; double registration of a single distributor is not compatible with the MLM compensation plan. A distributor is allowed to partake in the three activities of the MLM company: purchase of the product as end-users; sale to customers and access to mark-up profit; and recruitment of new sales persons. It is primarily through recruitment that expansion of the network occurs. The diffusion of the product or service in the market is stimulated strictly by the consumption or purchase of the product.

There are several benefits that MLM offers to distributors, the company, and the consumers. These include low start-up cost; leverage Factor (distributors can enjoy from the income of others i.e. the downlines benefit in the distribution network); multiple source of income (profits from retails, group volume, and other bonuses and incentives); personal development via trainings and business support materials, enhanced entrepreneurial spirit, improved interpersonal skills, and increased self-confidence; and job creation. It is indeed a win-win business model. For the company, there is no cost of advertisement. It is therefore able to reinvest such savings by offering the product at a lower price or / and producing higher quality products.

Challenges and constraints do also exist. Beasley [3]; Vander and keep [32] fault MLM on the grounds that the more emphasis is placed on recruitment, the more likely it is that the company is fraudulent. Muncy [18] and Barret [2] submit that products of most MLM companies are often over-priced. Some products' claim are often not established and not scientifically verified except for word-of-mouth testimonies which are not reliable. Cruz and Olaya [5] attribute the failure of MLM distributor to different reasons – income expectations, budget investment in the business, different product benefits, difficulty in recruitment, the constraint of the target population which is finite, which may lead to the collapse of the programme in the long run. Taylor [27] discovered that the loss rate of recruiting MLMs is approximately 99.6% for all participants after subtracting profit. Eisenberg [7] avers that the cost of business associated with training, maintaining inventory and product promotion reduces profits or even erodes profit especially for the poor distributor.

Other constraints include the fact that the distributor often becomes the end-user of the product, especially when there is pressure to make purchases for rewards whereas there are no available customers for the products; market saturation – new recruitments become

impossible, where for instance everybody is convinced to join an MLM company in a country. Exploitation, deceit and falsehood is also common as some MLM companies and practitioners exploit the economic aspirations and vulnerability of the masses to lure them into the business which often becomes unprofitable for them – [2, 7]. This can be likened to the “get-rich-quick” schemes. Beasley [3] and Barret [2] observed that sales persons are pressured to make monthly purchases for their personal use rather than sell to end-users in the open market. In addition to this is the exaggerated probability of making significant income.

Having looked at the direct selling industry and multilevel marketing, and their associated problems, are there any chances that it can still contribute to poverty alleviation? This again reinforces the need to undertake an empirical analysis of the role that MLM plays in poverty alleviation in Calabar.

Forever Living Products (FLP): An Overview

FLP was founded by Rex Maughan in 1978. He is the present chief executive officer of the company. The first FLP meeting had about 33 persons in attendance but today, it has about 10 million distributors in its distribution network with its presence in over 150 countries.

Forever living products (Nig) Ltd. was incorporated in Nigeria and began full scale operation in April 2000. The Nigeria/Benin region has over 300, 000 distributors registered with it. The region currently has over 26, 000 recognized managers, 11 sapphire managers, 4 diamond sapphire managers, and 4 diamond managers. Between 2000 and 2012 the Nigerian/Benin region recorded its highest yearly sales turnover of N6.3 billion. In that same year it ranked fourth position in the world and first in Africa for 2009, 2010 and 2011.

Its products include: Aloe Vera drinks, bee hive products; weight management, nutritional supplements, personal care and hygiene products; Sonya cosmetics and Sonya skin care products. The company has distribution centres in Lagos, Abuja, Calabar, Benin city, Enugu, Niger, Chad, just to mention a few (www.flpnigeria.com)

The company's policy allows for refund and buy-back of unsold products that are in good condition. If after a 12-month period a distributor intends to leave the company, his unsold inventory can be returned to the company and his money refunded. However, any bonus or promotion that was given on such purchase shall be deducted from his upline's account. A new distributor registers and picks a start-up pack for N62 000.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The case study design was adopted with elements of the survey design. Ndiyo [20] notes that case study has a long history in social science. Among its benefits are that it helps to carry out detailed description, and observation of a single unit, subject or event – Idaka and Germany [13]. It allows for the retention of holistic and meaningful features of real life events. “Case studies are often based on a notion that a choice case is typical of many other cases, and as such once it is studied it can provide insights into the class of events from which the case has been drawn”. This is very true for the MLM industry. The inclusion of survey design was based on its role in addressing questions about what is happening. This is typical of descriptive survey research.

Study Area

The study area is Calabar Metropolis. Calabar is the capital city of Cross River State of Nigeria. Cross River State lies in the South-South region of the country. The city is popularly known as the “Canaan City” located between latitude 4°59' and 46°20'N, and longitude 8°19' and 05"E.

Calabar Metropolis is divided into two local government areas for administrative convenience, viz: Calabar Municipality, and Calabar South, with headquarters in Calabar Municipality and Anantigha respectively. The city has an area of 406km², and a population of 371 022 as at 2006 census. The occupational distribution of the city covers civil servants, professionals, traders and services, and the unemployed. Towns within the metropolis include Akim, Ikot Ansa, Ikot Ishie, Ikot Omin, Anantigha, Mbukpa area, etc. The larger Calabar area extends to Akamkpa, Odukpani, and Biase local government Areas.

Population of the Study

The study population includes all multilevel marketing distributors of the selected company-FLP. The choice of this population is because there are several multilevel marketing companies in Calabar (Trevor, Edmark, Green World, Herbal Life, etc.) whose operations in the country are relatively young compared to that of the selected company. Furthermore, extending the population to cover all MLM distributors in Calabar metropolis may be a hindrance to observing the peculiarities of each company and could unnecessarily broaden our scope and lead to bias due to large variations.

The Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The quota sampling technique was used together with the survey sample. This was done to capture the distribution of MLM distributors on the basis of sex, age, and educational level. 300 distributors were contacted based on the quota which is a good representation of the population of active FLP distributors in Calabar estimated at 1000.

Sources of Data, Instrument and Method of Data Collection

Primary and secondary data were both used in the research. The former included questionnaires given out to respondents. Their responses were collated and analysed. Secondary data, which provided the materials for the literature review, were sourced from the internet, textbooks, periodicals, journal articles and the library.

The instrument for data collection was structured questionnaire, composed of both closed and open-ended questions. Contingency questions were also asked. The merit of this instrument is that respondents are given the same set of questions posed in exactly the same way. It is also less-time and energy consuming. Primary data collection was done without the use of enumerators. Respondents were met at the venue of their weekly meetings. This was done to reduce cost considering that it was relatively easy to distribute the questionnaires personally.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data was analysed using descriptive and non-descriptive (inferential) statistical tools. The descriptive tools used include: tables, bar chart, frequency distribution and percentages. Inferential statistical tool used was the Pearson Product Moment correlation which is applied in determining relationship existing between two variables (independent and dependent). This was important in helping to draw inference from which generalizations were made. The significance of the coefficient of correlation in each case was computed before inference was made about the variables under consideration. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is obtained as:

Where:

n=the sample size

x₁=the x measurement of for the ith observation

\bar{x} =the mean of the x measurements

S_x =Standard deviation of the x measurements
 y_1 = the y measurement of for the ith observation
 \bar{y} = the mean of the y measurements
 S_y =Standard deviation of the y measurements

OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES

Poverty Status of MLM Distributors.

This was determined using the dollar-per day poverty line. Presently the World Bank benchmark is \$1.25. This is based on an exchange rate of \$1=N165, an average of the International Foreign Exchange Market (IFEM), Dutch Auction System (DUC), and the Bureau De Change (BDC). Therefore, N206.25 was multiplied by 31 days in a month which gives, N6390 approximately. This produces the naira equivalent of the monthly expenditure poverty line used in categorizing respondents into poor or rich.

Data Analysis, Presentation of Result and Discussion of Findings

The data generated for the study, its analysis, and interpretation are presented in this section. A total of 300 questionnaires were successfully distributed, filled, and returned. Table 1 and Table 2 show the demographic data of respondents.

Table 1: Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	120	40
Female	174	58
No response	6	2
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Specifically, the gender distribution of respondents on Table 1 reveals that 40% of the sample population is male while a higher proportion is female who make up 58% of all respondents.

Table 2: Educational Level of Respondents

Educational level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Primary	45	15
Secondary	36	12
Certificate	18	6
Tertiary	192	64
No response	9	3
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Table 2 shows that the largest number of respondents has attained tertiary education. This represents 64% of the sample population while 15%, and 12% had attained primary and secondary education respectively, with 6% obtaining other certificates (like N.C.E).

Data Presentation Based On Objectives

Data explaining the 5 specific objectives of this study are presented in this section.

MLM and Poverty Status of Distributors

Table 3: Monthly Expenditure of Respondents before Recruitment.

Responses	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Yes	225	75
No	51	17
Neutral	24	8
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Table 3 shows respondent’s answer to the assertion: “before joining MLM, I spent above N6, 390 monthly”. 75% of respondents spent above the poverty benchmark (\$1.25/day), 17% spent below that, while 8% were neutral.

MLM and Income Generation

Table 4: (a) Reason for Joining MLM (income)

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Basic income	33	11
Additional income	219	73
None	48	16
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Table 4 above reveals that 73% of respondents joined MLM primarily for additional income, 11% joined for basic income and 16% were neutral on this. Following from this, Fig. 1 below shows their responses to the achievement of their objective.

Fig.1 achievement of income objective by mlm distributors

Source: fieldwork (2014)

From Fig.1 above, 57% of respondents agreed that their objectives had been met, 4% indicated that their objectives had not been met, 16% indicated not really, while 23% were neutral.

Table 5 (b): Award of Incentives to Distributors

Responses	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Yes	69	23
No	225	75
Neutral	6	2
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

From the table above, 23% of respondents had received incentives, 75% had not received any incentive, while 2% were neutral.

MLM and Job Creation

With regards to the third objective, questionnaire item 11 probed the reason for joining MLM and the following were revealed.

Table 6: Reason for Joining MLM (Job)

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Full-time job	51	17
Part-time job	138	46
None	111	37
Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

From the table above it is evident that only 17% of respondents chose MLM as a full-time job, 46% took it up as a part-time job, and others did not opt for any.

FIG. 2 ACHIEVEMENT OF JOB OBJECTIVE BY MLM DISTRIBUTORS

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

63 respondents joined either for full-time job or part-time job. 62% of them achieved their objective, 22.2% had not really achieved their objective, while 13.7% did not achieve their objective, and 3.17% were indifferent.

Challenges faced by MLM distributors

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

As shown above, 69% of respondents had difficulty with recruiting down lines, 29% did not encounter such, and 2% were indifferent. As for excess inventory, only 21% of respondents faced such problems, 65% did not really encounter this, while 14% were indifferent. The problem of high cost was encountered by 61% of respondents, but 35% did not agree, leaving 4% indifferent. Lastly, respondents' answers to the problem of exploitation showed that only 4% accepted they had been exploited and misled, 88% disagreed, while 7% did not respond.

HYPOTHESES TESTING AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULT

Hypothesis one

H0- There is no significant relationship between joining Multilevel Marketing (MLM) and job creation.

Table 7: Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of the relationship between joining MLM and job creation

Variables	Mean	S.D	R. calc.
Joining MLM	2.53	1.35	0.70
Job creation	2.80	0.71	

P < 0.05; D.F=98

Critical r = 0.196

Decision rule:

Accept H0 if critical r > r-calc. and reject H1 or

Accept H1 If critical r < r-calc. and reject H0.

Interpretation

The correlation co-efficient, (r=0.70) indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between joining multilevel marketing and job creation. However, to ensure that this result is statistically significant and not merely a product of chance, the calculated r-value of 0.70 was found to be greater than the critical r-value of 0.196 needed for significance with 98 degrees of freedom. Hence we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a significant relationship exists between multilevel marketing and job creation.

Hypothesis Two

H₀ - There is no significant relationship between joining Multilevel Marketing (MLM) and income generation.

Table 8: Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of the relationship between joining MLM and income generation

Variable	Mean	S.D	r-cal
Joining MLM	3.12	1.25	0.57
Income generation	2.96	0.53	

P < 0.05, D.F = 98

Critical r = 0.196

Decision rule:

Accept H0 if critical r > r-calc. and reject H1 or

Reject H0 if critical r < r-calc. and accept H1

Interpretation

It was discovered that multilevel marketing has a fairly positive relationship with income generation as indicated by the correlation co-efficient ($r = 0.57$). However, to verify that this positive relationship was not an outcome of chance, the critical r -value of 0.196 was found to be less than r -calculated 0.57. Hence we reject H_0 and conclude that joining MLM has a significant relationship with income generation.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In line with the study objectives, the study assessed the role of MLM in poverty alleviation within Calabar. It was discovered that 75 per cent of the respondents lived above one dollar per day poverty benchmark of \$1.25/day (www.worldbank.org - poverty analysis) before joining MLM, hence most of them were not considered poor. This implies that the MLM Company does not target any particular welfare group as recruits into its network of distributors, and as such both the poor and rich face equal opportunity of joining the business. There is no strategic attempt to distribute income equally between the rich and the poor. The business is not necessarily aimed at poverty alleviation but serves as a means of wealth creation.

Of significance is the fact that majority of those who joined MLM for either basic income or additional income achieved their objective. Hypothesis one confirms this by showing a positive relationship between MLM and income generation. This conforms to the company's claim that one "can enjoy multiple opportunities to earn money" (www.foreverliving.com). 75% of respondents joined MLM primarily to get additional source of income. This supports the fact that sourcing for additional (residual) income is a major reason why people join MLM as indicated by Selladura [26].

Of the 300 respondents, only 23% had received incentives (cars, houses, international vacation and company profit share). This implies that the MLM business also creates other forms of wealth other than generating income alone. The low percentage may be associated with the length of time distributors were recruited and the weight of personal investment put into the business. The study confirms that there is a role for the private sector in poverty alleviation.

The second hypothesis tested showed that there is a strong positive relationship between MLM and job creation. This is concurrent with the findings of the IFC open study [14] that job creation by the private sector is fundamental in alleviating poverty. Indeed by recruiting individuals as distributors, MLM was able to create jobs for 62% of respondents which affirms Klein's [15] opinion that private sector can involve the poor by recruiting them as distributors. A very remarkable discovery relating to job creation is that, there is no educational criterion to register as a distributor in the selected case-study of MLM- Forever Living Products (FLP). This opens room for people to register irrespective of their educational status.

However, the problems of difficulty in down-line recruitment, and high cost of products were encountered by 69% and 61% of respondents respectively. This supports the findings of Beasley [3]; and Vander and keep [32] who remark that when much emphasis is placed on recruitment by an MLM company, then there is a likelihood of fraud. Although this was not established, but since recruiting is part of the business strategy it means most respondents faced that challenge. This is a factor that is capable of limiting the success rate of affected distributors.

Inventory loading was not a major challenge faced by respondents. This negates, although not absolutely, the claim by Selladurai [26] that it is a common problem among MLM companies. Nevertheless, its occurrence indicates its existence. Also a great number (87%) of respondents clearly disagreed about being exploited or deceived. This case is quite rare as opposed to Barret [2] who submitted that MLM companies exploit the economic aspirations and vulnerability of people. Forever living products (FLP), the case study of this research, meets the prescription of Hierli [10] who suggests that businesses done with the aim of alleviating poverty should be operated with a "clear policy of honesty, transparency and a long-term vision that allows for win-wins for both parties".

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends that FLP and other MLM companies should evolve strategic policies of targeting the poor within the framework of their overall marketing strategy. It is unfortunate that the current structure of recruitment admits of only the rich or middle income earners who can afford registration as a distributor with about \$394. While it can be argued that one can start with a lesser amount, the truth remains that this path is a difficult way to the top. Not only that, the requirement of spending about \$196 every month on products for personal use, besides monthly recruitments, is indeed beyond the reach of the poor.

Incidental to the burden of poverty alleviation is the compelling need of FLP (Nig) Ltd to domesticate its industrial production plants in Nigeria. Thus governments at the various levels might consider providing incentives that will induce MLM companies to set-up production plants in the country. This would encourage job creation for citizens not only as distributors, but also in form of labour needed to work in the companies' farms and plants, considering their huge annual sales turnover nationally and globally.

Extant institutional mechanisms like the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) should beam their search light on the activities of dubious business schemes and companies that exploit the economic vulnerability of the masses. This could help in nurturing the growth and effectiveness of genuine MLM companies like FLP (Nig) Ltd, and prevent exploitation of the people. The proliferation of MLM companies across the country calls for an agency to regulate the entry into the industry and operations of MLM companies to ensure standard ethical practice.

MLM companies might consider making products that are relatively cheaper and price competitive with other substitutes in the market. This would enhance effective market penetration, given the large size of the Nigerian market. Finally, MLM companies might consider creating business packages that are targeted at specific groups with common interest. This would provide the ease for groups with varying interest to reach their desired objectives; it will also help in building stronger business networks.

CONCLUSION

The study was conducted to examine the role of Multilevel Marketing (MLM) in poverty alleviation in Calabar, Cross-River state, Nigeria, using Forever Living Product (FLP) as a case study. It was premised on arguments in development literature that there exists a role for the private sector in poverty alleviation. Two hypotheses were formulated to determine the relationship between MLM and income generation on the one hand, and job creation on the other, from which inferences were made. Secondary and primary data were used in the study. Data for the study was generated from a sample population of 300 respondents out of an estimated 1000 FLP distributors in Calabar. The survey cum case study research design was employed. Data were analysed using statistical tools such as bar charts, tables and percentages while the hypotheses were tested using Pearson Product Moment correlation technique

Major research findings were that: there exists a fairly strong positive relationship between MLM and income generation, job and wealth creation. Significantly the study revealed that although MLM is a means of wealth creation, it is not necessarily a business targeted at poverty alleviation. Indeed one needs a strong financial foundation for sustainability in the business. Further findings indicate that there exists no particular educational criterion for joining MLM. While majority of MLM distributors joined the business for additional income and part-time job, most MLM distributors face challenges such as high cost of products and difficulty in recruiting downlines. Exploitation problems and excess inventory were not common among the distributors. The study recommends, among others, the need for government to provide incentives towards inducing MLM companies to set their production plants within the country in order to exploit the advantages of local economies and also stem the tide of unemployment. We recommend future efforts in this area of research to be directed to verifying if the traditional means of distribution (marketing by indirect sales using middlemen and advertising) is inferior to MLM in terms of cost, effectiveness, and income generation for both middlemen and distributors. This will prove if indeed MLM is sustainable and true to its claims of rewarding distributors with savings from boycotting advertisement.

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The Interactive Nature of Business Development Services in The Relationship Between External Business Environment and Firm Performance

Washington O. Okeyo

P.O Box 20530 – 00200, Nairobi Kenya

ABSTRACT

This study focused on the interaction of business development services in the external business environment and firm performance relationship. The study adopted a cross sectional survey design on 800 small and medium manufacturing enterprises in Kenya. Data were collected using structured questionnaires from a sample of 150 enterprises and 64% responded. The instrument was tested for reliability using Cronbach's approach while data was tested for normality and homoscedasticity before applying regression methods to test hypotheses. Principal component analysis was used to determine suitable predictor variable factors for regressions. The study established that external business environment has a significant positive but partial effect on performance and that business development services partially mediate this relationship. The study recommends that small and medium enterprises should embrace business development services practices to leverage the effect of external business environment on their performance.

Key words: External, business, environment, services, mediation, small, medium, enterprises, performance

INTRODUCTION

Background

Research focusing on small and medium enterprises (SMEs) has gained tremendous momentum over the past several decades. Most of this research has been concerned with investigating SME performance (Williamson, 1985; Venkataram & Ramanujan, 1986). According to Okeyo, Gathungu and K'Obonyo (2014:40), performance may be viewed as "the extent to which a firm competes, takes its products to the market, appeals to the community, attracts potential employees and makes profits for its stakeholders." Jensen and Meckling (1976) argue that the main objective of a commercial firm is to maximize shareholder wealth in order to increase its overall performance. Performance is thus a fundamental issue which all firms regard as an important measure of shareholder wealth.

However, studies have reported constrained performance among SMEs (Adeniran & Johnson, 2011; Fatoki, 2012). The constrained performance has been attributed to lack of scale economies to acquire resources for SME activities. Penrose (1959) stated that organizations differ in performance based on resources possessed and how they use them. Rare, valuable, and inimitable resources give organizations competitive advantage (Barney, 1997; Cardeal & Antonio, 2012). Therefore, SMEs need to embrace prudent business practices to maximize resource acquisition and use. A practice known as business development services (BDS) is said to exist among SMEs that embrace technology and product development, are located close to markets, have appropriate infrastructure facilities, and espouse proficient procurement services aimed at improved resource utilization.

Business development services are viewed as a multiplicity of activities through which SME practitioners enhance management of their enterprises (McVay & Miehlebradt, 2003). Price, Stoica and Boncella (2013) argue that BDS can enable SMEs identify and access appropriate markets for their goods. Quick market access makes SMEs reach their customers proactively leading to first-mover advantage, and superior customer relationship and retention (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). BDS also means having appropriate infrastructure facilities for warehousing and preservation of finished goods. White, O'Connor and Rowe (2004) suggest that SMEs may hire, or own warehouses to secure their products before channeling to destination markets.

Furthermore, through BDS SMEs can negotiate favourable procurement terms and conditions by making group purchase arrangements. Humphrey and Schmitz (1995) argue that the needs of firms organized into a group can more easily be felt in institutions and markets. For example service providers like suppliers, banks, training providers and other institutions may feel more comfortable responding to the requirements of a group rather than individual firms. Therefore, adopting BDS practices may provide SMEs with ability to possess valuable resources for their activities. Resource dependence theory reasons that organizations depend on the external environment for their resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), thus conditions prevailing in the environment can dictate the quest of SMEs to access resources.

Figure 1- Conceptual Model

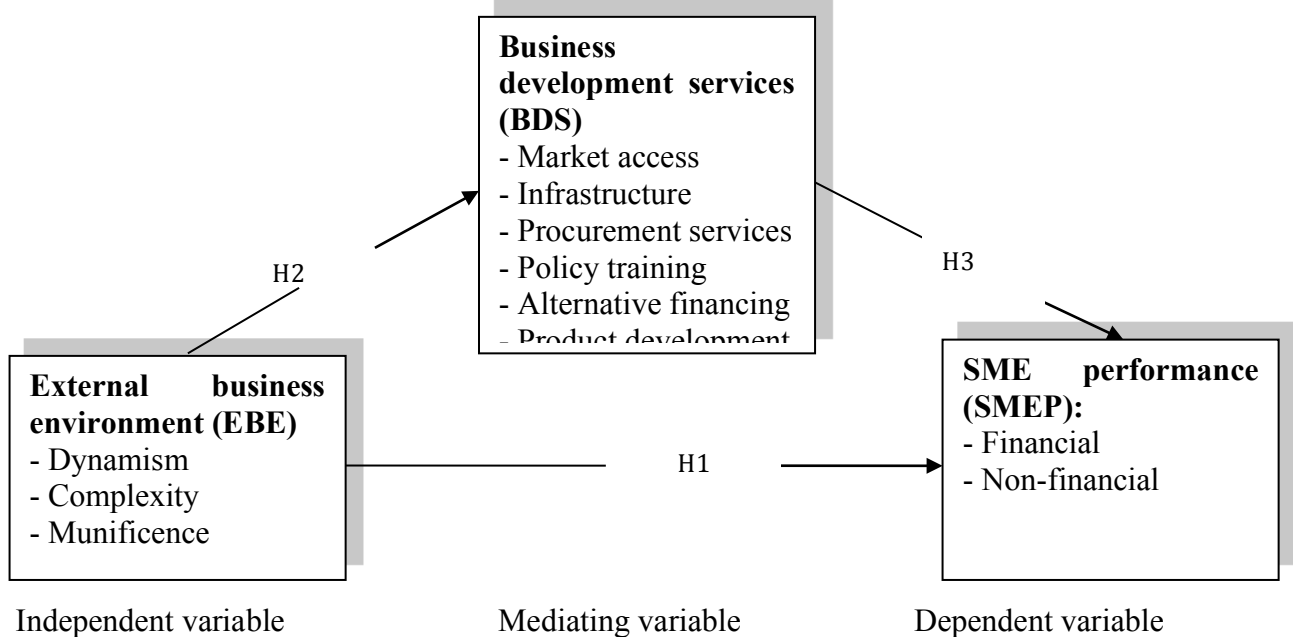


Figure 1 shows the linkages among variables and the hypotheses that guided the study

Johnson and Scholes (2002) suggest that external business environment may be viewed as a composite of political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, ecological, and legal/regulatory factors. Past studies for example Bluedorn et al (1994), and Bajari and Tadelis (2001) have analyzed how these factors affect firm performance. However opinions regarding this relationship are still divided (Shane & Spicer, 1983; Chittithaworn, Islam, Keawchana & Yusuf, 2010). Shane and Spencer (1983) found a negative effect while Chittithaworn et al (2010) reported a positive relationship. As such SMEs can tame the ubiquitous hostile environment by adopting business development services to improve their performance. Therefore this study investigates the interactive role of business development services in the link between external environment and performance of SMEs in Kenya as conceptualized in Figure 1. The study seeks

to answer question: Does external environment have any impact on performance of SMEs in Kenya and does business development services intervene in this relationship?

Objectives

The broad objective of this study was to establish the role of business development services in the relationship between external business environment and firm performance. Specific objectives were to:

- I. Establish the effect of external business environment on performance of SMEs
- II. Determine how business development services influences the effect of external business environment on performance of SMEs

LITERATURE REVIEW

External business environment

Osborne and Hunt (1974) describes business environment as the infinite set of factors in the periphery of a firm's borders; together with other organizations, broad forces and associations of individuals. According to Li (1998), all organizations depend on the environment as an important source of essential business resources and information. But SMEs face challenges such as lack of capacity and resources, and inadequate knowledge of environments. SMEs also experience constrained scale economies which limit their effectiveness. Thus external business environment is a critical and relevant issue for SME performance. Although the environment has been analyzed in past studies in several forms, the most common concerns in extant literature are its dynamism, complexity, and munificence. This is consistent with organizational literature (Dess & Beard, 1984; Goll & Rasheed, 2004) which indicates that dynamism, complexity, and munificence are the three critical states of external business environment for SME performance.

Dynamism

Goll and Rasheed (2004) argue that the extent of SME performance depends on how they manage environmental changes. Managing such changes depends on observing their dynamics, complexities and consequences; and establishing requisite strategies to obtain appropriate resources. Past research suggests that the vibrant nature of these environmental dimensions is a crucial factor in resource availability for SMEs and their performance. For example, dynamism, a key aspect of business environment has been observed to be of significant consequence to SME performance (Gilley & Rasheed, 2000). Research also indicates that SMEs operating in dynamic environments require more resources to plan and manage changes pertaining to political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, environmental, and legal cum regulatory activities (Okeyo, 2014; Machuki & Aosa, 2011).

Aluko (2003) found that changes in political landscape and socio-cultural dynamics, among other factors, play a key role in the formation, management, and growth of SMEs in Nigeria. On a similar note, economic analysis reports on Kenya indicate that politically influenced policies and resource allocations have led to serious marginalization of counties located in north eastern, western, and northern regions of the country (Fitzgibbon, 2012) while cultural influences have been observed to spur entrepreneurial startups only in some communities. Furthermore, empirical analyses show that fluctuations in economic factors such as interest rates, inflation, exchange rates, and foreign currency shortage have resource implications for SMEs in Zimbabwe. In another study, Matambalya and Wolf (2001) state that increased adoption of technologies such as mobile phones, internet and computers is a major factor for improved firm performance. These studies suggest that environmental dynamism is a crucial issue that gobbles up much of SME resources.

Complexity

Studies also indicate that environmental complexity may force organizations to deploy more resources towards dealing with the situation. Empirical literature suggests that environmental business complexity may be viewed in terms of large numbers of business related issues that firms have to address. In other words, it is the large array of factors in the environment that makes it complex. As such, differences and dissimilarities in these issues pose a serious challenge to many SMEs. Johnson and Scholes (2002) argue that arising from political dimension of the environment, SMEs need to deal with the government's (in)stability, taxation policy, foreign trade regulations and social welfare policies whereas economically, firms are faced with business cycles, gross national product (GNP) trends, interest rates, inflation, unemployment, and disposable income constraints.

The scholars further point out that important socio-cultural factors which are also crucial to SME businesses are demographic changes, social mobility, lifestyle changes, consumerism, and levels of education while technology issues relate to government spending on research, focus on technology, new discoveries/development, technology transfer and rates of obsolescence. Also of interest to SMEs are laws protecting the environment, waste disposal, and energy consumption and finally, legal issues which encompass legislations on monopoly, employment, health and safety, and product safety (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). Thus, complexity represents an important environmental condition for SMEs.

Munificence

The last environment state of significant importance to SMEs is munificence. Munificence is regarded as the tendency towards abundance or availability of resources in the business environment (Goll & Rasheed, 2004). In an empirical study, Patel and D'Souza (2009) infer that, as opposed to larger firms, "liability of smallness" in SMEs can constrain their initiatives to acquire resources in the environment. In particular, SMEs in the manufacturing sector often require a substantial amount of resources to fund their operations yet returns from such investments are usually not expected until way into the future (Busienei, K'Obonyo & Ogotu, 2013). Moreover, conditions in the environment often undergo rapid changes making the once favourable resource sources uncertain. Furthermore, because SMEs are often constrained of knowledge of their environment and linkages with suppliers and customers their ability is limited. Thus SMEs are in a disadvantaged position in the marketplace.

In such a vulnerable position, a key challenge is to manage the obstacles impeding SME efforts to access necessary resources for their activities. Literature suggests that environmental munificence is of serious importance to SME survival and growth (Goll & Rasheed, 2004). But this important phenomenon seems to have attracted relatively little attention (Gilley & Rasheed, 2000). It is in this light that this study used perceptual measures of munificence to examine how the environmental condition affects SME performance. Perceptual approaches to environment find support in "enactment theory" which posits that, through decision making in organizations, environmental situations may be perceived or experienced (Weick, 1969). Arising from the foregoing reviews and views, it is evident that changes in external business environment affect SMEs and may impact on their performance. Therefore, this study predicts that -

H1: External business environment has a positive impact on SME performance

Business development services

Business development services are concerned with provision of development services to improve performance of small businesses. Development services are used to identify and analyse opportunities for an enterprise and supporting them through implementation. Miehlabradt and McVay (2003) defined business development services as an array of activities that SMEs use in managing their operations to enhance their efficiency, effectiveness and improve their performance and competitiveness. UNCTAD (2005) has described BDS as the SME support services related to training, infrastructure, consulting, technical, and management as well as advocacy and policy development.

The need for SMEs to improve their performance, create wealth for their owners, and contribute to economic development has been given prominence in literature. For example Atieno (2012) examined factors related to linkages and performance of SMEs in Kenya and established that inadequate capacity hinders SMEs from bidding for business contracts. Brijlal (2008) point out that SME performance can be improved by enhancing demand and supply side factors around their operations and specifically identifies “skills, networks, access to resources, infrastructure, and availability of information and government regulations and policies (p 49)” as the main constraints facing SMEs. Also Okeyo (2014) citing Moorthy et al (2012) argued that organizations having close proximity to markets may experience superior performance through easy market access. Therefore, SMEs that embrace BDS practices through adequate infrastructure facilities, product development, prudent procurement services, easy market access, and suitable policies may have competitive advantage.

External business environment, business development services, and SME performance

Performance of SMEs has been a major area of concern to entrepreneurs, business practitioners, managers, and policy makers. Equally, it has been of great interest in academic research the world over (Li, 2001; Sum, Jukow, & Chen, 2004; Nyangori, 2010 Bhamani, Kaim & Khan, 2013). This demonstrates that SMEs are viewed as important organizations in many economies. Literature (Okeyo, 2014:60) argues that “SMEs have for a long time been regarded as engines of growth in many countries.” Atieno (2012) attributes the growth of the Kenyan economy partly to SMEs through employment and income generation, especially among youth and women. This view was supported in the 1999 national economic survey which reported that the total number of households involved in diverse small businesses in Kenya stood at 26%.

However, despite this impressive role and contribution to employment, income generation, and economic growth, SMEs experience very high failure rates (Adeniran & Johnson, 2011; Nyangori, 2010). Sources and cost of finance, uncontrollable conditions in the business environment and inadequate internal capacities are some factors that have been blamed for SME underperformance and failures (Suh, 2010; Yusuf & Dansu, 2013). It has also been argued that SMEs that embrace business development practices may experience improved performance. Brijlal (2008) reports that proactive SMEs having quick access to markets can overcome market failures, and enjoy first-mover advantage when delivering their innovative products to markets. Therefore the interplay between business environment and business development services is a critical issue for SME performance. But it is not clear from past studies how business environment and business development services interact in a contingency framework to affect performance.

Mediating role of business development services

The effect of business development services on firm performance has mainly been studied as a direct relationship. Mehta et al (2007) however point out that although a strong direct relationship exists, the impact is not always conclusive. Therefore, business development services may interact with other business phenomena to impact firm performance. Baron and Kenny (1986) argue that apart from primary functions, variables may play a third interactive role in an inter-variable relationship. They specifically point out that where this relationship is inconclusive, other mediating or moderating variables may be involved. However, extant literature shows that there is a dearth of studies investigating the mediating role of business development services on performance. Shehu et al (2014) paid attention only to selected aspects of BDS and found that the aspect of advisory services partially mediates the link between owner/manager complexity and marketing decision. Therefore, to examine the interactive role of BDS in the external business environment and performance relationship, it was hypothesized that:

H2: External business environment positively impacts on business development services

H3: Business development services partially mediates the relationship between external business environment and SME performance

METHODOLOGY

Study design and data collection

This was a cross sectional study and it targeted over 800 small and medium enterprises in the manufacturing sector operating in Nairobi County who were members of Kenya Manufacturing Association as at the end of 2012. This smaller and younger population formed an ideal context to study interactive nature of business development services. Also focusing on one sector, manufacturing reduces heterogeneity in other variables likely to affect performance variance (Wales, Patel, & Lumpkin, 2013). This focus further acts as a mitigating mechanism for other industry based factors likely to have an effect on performance. Data was collected from a representative sample of 150 enterprises which were chosen using stratified random and sequential sampling techniques. Structured questionnaires which were administered through drop and pick methods were used to collect primary data from the SME senior managers or owners.

Measurement of variables and data analysis

At the end of data collection, 95 questionnaires were returned giving a response rate of 64%. Before this however, the instrument was pilot tested on ten enterprises with similar characteristics as the population but not part of the final sample. The questionnaire was designed in a five point Likert type scale format and had three sections for external business environment, business development services, and SME performance respectively. External business environment was measured using a total of 18 questions of which six focused on complexity and asked "how frequently your organization has to deal with issues related" to politics, economy, social/culture, technology, ecology and regulations.

Dynamism was determined by asking the extent to which the SME was able to predict the same issues while for munificence, the organizations were asked to rate how developments in the same environmental issues favoured them. Business development services was likewise determined based on a five point Likert type scale but using a total of ten questions two on; market access, procurement, financing, technology and product development, policy, and infrastructure respectively. Finally, SME performance was measured based on financial

indicators comprising percentage growth in; profits, sales, and return on assets, and non-financials consisting of improvement in customer, and employee satisfaction respectively.

In order to arrive at the final value for external business environment, factor analysis was used to determine a suitable factor combination from the original 18 questions. The analysis identified ten factors, shown in Table 1, whose aggregate was calculated and used as a measure of external business environment.

Table 1: Principal component analysis for external business environment

Factors	Component 1 – values
Regulatory complexity	0.506
Ecological complexity	0.605
Economic dynamism	0.500
Technological dynamism	0.630
Socio-cultural dynamism	0.563
Regulatory dynamism	0.580
Ecological dynamism	0.705
Economic munificence	0.503
Technological munificence	0.535
Ecological munificence	0.607

Similarly, during factor analysis for BDS, the dimensions were reduced by half to five factors, as shown in Table 2, which were then totaled to give the final value for BDS. Lastly the value for performance was determined by adding up the responses from all the questions.

Table 2: Principal component analysis for business development services

Factors	Component 1 – values
Access to advertising facilities	0.620
Linkage to technology suppliers	0.591
Access to product design services	0.756
Group purchasing arrangements	0.694
Storage/warehousing facilities	0.677
Training on policy skills	0.603

RESULTS

Results for this study are based on data received from 95 out of a sample of 150 respondents giving a response rate of 64%. Analysis of the respondent characteristics shows that most of the organizations which answered had 200 or fewer employees while the oldest enterprise had been in business for 20 years. The analysis further indicates that sub-sectoral response was proportional to the respective samples. These characteristics show a balanced representation of the entire manufacturing sector in the analysis and confirm that this was a youthful population of SMEs in which BDS practice could manifest hence suitable for studying the phenomenon.

Tests for reliability, homoscedasticity and normality

Data for the study were tested for reliability, normality, and homoscedasticity respectively to verify their suitability for further analysis. Homoscedasticity tests on performance using

Z*pred were normal while Cronbach's alpha values for the results of reliability tests are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of Cronbach's alpha test results

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha (Standardized)	Number of Items
External business environment (EBE)	0.813	0.813	10
Business development services (BDS)	0.761	0.764	6
SME performance (SMEP)	0.868	0.874	6

As shown in Table 3, Cronbach's alpha values are 0.813, 0.764, and 0.874 for EBE, BDS, and SMEP respectively. According to Nunnally (1967), an alpha value of 0.70 or more is considered a good indicator of instrument reliability. Since the scale values from the tests are all above 0.70, this confirms that the instrument used was reliable across different respondents and hence the data accurately depicts consistent respondents' views regarding the three factors in all the organizations under study.

Descriptive statistics

Data were analyzed to determine their means and standard deviations. The aim was to establish the perception of respondents regarding importance and disparity in their opinions about the study variables. The values for the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (μ)	Standard Deviation (σ)
External business environment (EBE)	18.00	46.00	36.20	5.73
Business development services (BDS)	11.00	31.00	21.63	4.71
SME performance (SMEP)	6	26	16.09	5.18

According to the results in Table 4, EBE had lowest and highest values of 18.00 and 46.00 respectively and a mean score of 36.20. The mean value is skewed towards the maximum score of 46.00 indicating that most respondents preferred high scores for EBE thus perceiving the variable to be important in their businesses. Similarly, the table indicates that BDS values range from 11.00 to 31.00 with a mean score of 21.63 indicating that businesses perceived BDS to also be important. Finally, the respondents were somewhat indifferent about the importance of SMEP since the mean value of 16.09 is the same as the median. The standard deviation was however higher for EBE ($\sigma = 5.73$) than BDS ($\sigma = 4.71$) indicating greater variation in respondents' opinions regarding EBE compared to BDS and performance respectively.

Tests of study hypotheses

The main approach used for analysis in this study was linear regressions on the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. They were used to test all the study hypotheses at significant levels of 1%, 5% and 10% or $p \leq 0.001$, $p \leq 0.05$, and $p \leq 0.10$ respectively. Hypothesis H1 which stated that "external business environment has a significant positive effect on SME performance" was tested using model 1: $SMEP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EBE + \epsilon$ while hypothesis H2 which

predicted that, BDS mediated the effect of EBE on SME performance, was tested by combination of models 2: $BDS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 EBE + \epsilon$ and model 3: $SMEP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 BDS + \beta_2 EBE + \epsilon$. The regression results for the three models may be expressed in the following three equations.

$$0.064 \text{ SMEP} = 7.780 + 0.231 \text{ EBE}; p \leq 0.02 \text{ ----- (1)}$$

$$0.117 \text{ BDS} = 11.487 + 0.279 \text{ EBE}; p \leq 0.002 \text{ ----- (2)}$$

$$0.176 \text{ SMEP} = 2.885 + 0.132 \text{ EBE} + 0.385 \text{ BDS}; p \leq 0.001 \text{ ----- (3)}$$

The results of these tests are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: Tests of study hypotheses

Variables ⇔	EBE	BDS	ANOVA
Models ↓			
Model 1:			
β	0.231	-	
R ²	0.064	-	
p	p ≤ 0.02	-	
F	5.627**		
Model 2:			
β	0.279	-	
R ²	0.117	-	
p	p ≤ 0.002	-	
F	10.331***		
Model 3:			
β	0.132	0.383	
R ²	0.176	0.176	0.176
p	p > 1.0	p ≤ 0.003	p ≤ 0.001
F			7.919***

The results from statistical tests for all hypotheses are shown in mathematical form in equations 1, 2, and 3, and summarized in models 1, 2, and 3 in Table 5. The modeling of the equations to test for mediating effect of business development services in the relationship between external business environment and performance was carried out in accordance with Baron and Kenny (1986). First, a direct effect of external business environment on performance was evaluated. Model 1 shows the results for regressing SME performance on external business environment. The second test involved determining the relationship between external business environment and business development services and results shown in Model 2. The third and last test entailed testing the simultaneous effect of external business environment and business development services on performance which gave the results in model 3.

According to the results, R² for model 1 is 0.064. The model also shows a statistically significant effect (p ≤ 0.02) and that the regression coefficient of the independent variable - external business environment, is positive (β = 0.231). This indicates that the model may be used to explain variations in performance such that a unit change in external business environment causes a corresponding 6.4% variation in SME performance. Although positive and statistically significant, this effect is however weak (F = 5.627). Model 2 which tested the

effect of external business environment on business development services shows a positive regression coefficient ($\beta=0.279$) and an R^2 for the model of 0.117. These results show that changes in external business environment affects business development services favourably. Specifically, a unit change in the environment makes the elements of business development services fluctuate significantly to the level of 11.7%. These variations in performance were major ($F=10.331$) and statistically significant ($p\leq 0.002$).

Lastly, model 3 presents the results showing how the interaction between external business environment and business development services affect performance. According to the results, business development services have a relatively large, positive and statistically significant effect on performance ($\beta=0.383$, $p\leq 0.003$). However, external business environment depicts a relatively small but positive effect on performance ($\beta=0.132$). This effect is though not statistically significant ($p>0.10$). The model nevertheless shows that the contribution of external business environment on performance variation is relatively strong and statistically significant ($p\leq 0.001$). From this model 3, the simultaneous variations as a result of external business environment and business development services account for 17.6% of the changes in performance ($R^2 = 0.176$). This effect is relatively strong ($F=7.919$) compared to external business environment alone ($F=5.627$).

These results demonstrate that changes in external business environment cause a positive and significant variation on performance. This supports hypothesis H1 which predicted that "external business environment has a positive impact on SME performance." The results further show that external business environment has a positive influence on the proposed mediator, business development services. This indicates that the independent variable - external business environment, affects the proposed mediator - business development services showing the possibility of business development services being a partial mediator for external business environment and thus showing support for hypothesis H2. Lastly, the effect of external business environment on performance ($\beta=0.132$) in the simultaneous case (model 3) is less than its effect on performance ($\beta=0.231$) in model 1. This suggests that the introduction of business development services lowers the effect of external business environment on performance which confirms that business development services mediates the relationship between external business environment and performance thus supporting hypothesis H3.

DISCUSSION

Broadly, this study aimed to determine the function that business development services play as firms interact with the external business environment. Three hypotheses were tested to interrogate this thought. The results show that external business environment had a positive and significant effect on performance. This finding is consistent with extant literature (Porter, 1980; Kibera, 1996) which demonstrates that firms operating in dynamic and hostile environments report superior performance. According to Johnson and Scholes (2002), factors in the external business environment like economy, government regulations, environment, technology, and social/culture determine the level and type of resources that SMEs need to manage their dynamism, complexity, and munificence. The findings support hypothesis H1 which stated that "external business environment has a positive impact on SME performance." This study thus establishes that changes in the external business environment are likely to have a positive impact on SME performance.

The study also aimed to establish the interactive role of business development services in the external business environment and performance relationship. This was tested in hypotheses H2 and H3. The tests show that external business environment has a positive and significant

effect on performance. According to Baron and Kenny (1986) and later Wales, Patel and Lumpkin (2013), a variable can only play a mediating role if its effect depends on the independent variable. Tests for this relationship show that external business environment has a positive and significant effect on business development services. This confirms the view that business development services may be a mediator in this relationship and supports hypothesis H2.

However, according to the conditions documented in literature for detecting mediation effects, the introduction of a proposed mediator in the independent and dependent variable relationship should have the effect of reducing the impact of independent variable on the link. This condition was tested in hypothesis H3. The results show that when the proposed mediator - business development services, is introduced in the equation, the effect of external business environment becomes not statistically significant ($p > 0.10$) while the effect of business development services is positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.383$, $p \leq 0.003$). The test therefore supports the view that business development services mediate the effect of external business environment on performance. This finding is consistent with existing studies (Thompson, 1967; Williamson, 1979) which show that although external business environment has an impact on performance, this impact is only partial. It is also consistent with literature (Johnson & Schools, 2002) which suggests that there could be other factors that dictate how firms react to changes in the external environment. This view is supported by Goll and Rasheed (2004) who found that external environment plays an indirect role on performance of organizations.

LIMITATIONS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study experienced some limitations in spite of the reported results. Firstly, performance, the dependent variable was measured using perceptual indicators ostensibly because SMEs are averse to giving information showing their performance. Even if they do, SMEs consider this data confidential and hence do not give it out easily. Secondly, this was a cross sectional study which may involve comparing out of phase data – for example previous years' performance against current business development service practices and environmental conditions. Furthermore the population was narrowed to manufacturing enterprises yet SMEs in other sectors are also likely to embrace business development services. Future studies may therefore improve on these results by adopting other performance measures and focusing on populations in other sectors of the economy.

Despite these limitations, the study achieved its objectives and concludes that external business environment has a positive influence on performance such that changes in external environment are associated with better SME performance. The study also established that these effects are only partial indicating that other factors may play a role. More importantly, the study established that business development services are related to external environment such that environmental changes affect business development services in organizations. According to the study, this interaction between business environmental factors and development services causes a positive impact in performance of firms. This study therefore concludes that although external business environment has a positive effect on performance of small and medium manufacturing enterprises, this effect is only partial. Thus, it is established that business development services mediate this relationship resulting in improved performance of the enterprises.

Arising from this conclusion, the study recommends that SMEs should embrace business development practices to achieve improved performance given the dynamic, complex, and munificent environments in which they operate. Specifically, establishing operations within close proximity to markets to facilitate quick access and capitalize on first-mover advantage should be a priority to these SMEs. Moreover, SMEs may benefit by adopting prudent procurement practices such as group purchasing arrangements which can lead to discounted prices.

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Communication Challenges of Culture and Stigma in the Control of Cervical Cancer among Rural Women in Kenya.

Victoria Chepkemai Kutto,

Moi University, School of Human Resource Development
Communication Studies. P.O Box 3900, Eldoret, Code 30100

Dr. Abraham Mulwo

Moi University, School of Human Resource Development
Communication Studies. P.O Box 3900, Eldoret, Code 30100

Abstract

The paper is part of the literature review of an ongoing doctorate research on communication challenges in the control of cervical cancer among rural women in Kenya. The paper looks at communication challenges arising from culture and stigma, which contribute to setbacks in the control of cervical cancer among rural women. Culture and stigma are discussed in this paper because they address some of the concerns of the research questions in the study. Cervical cancer is preventable and also treatable at early stages, but statistics from various credible sources worldwide indicate that it is one of the cancers that is high in morbidity rates especially in sub-Saharan Africa. This paper interrogates how culture and stigma pose communication challenges that prevent women from seeking the necessary healthcare in order to achieve the four components of cancer control which are: prevention, detection, treatment and palliative care. The paper uses a qualitative approach in its methodology because the main research takes an interpretivist –constructivist philosophical stance. Recommendations and conclusions made are hoped to contribute knowledge to the field of cervical cancer control especially in rural communities.

Key words: cervical cancer, culture, stigma, communication, and qualitative research

INTRODUCTION

Cancer control is fast becoming a global issue of concern, as the disease is still a phenomenal challenge to humanity. According to International Agency for Cancer Research (IARC) (2013), cervical cancer is an avoidable cause of death among women in sub-Saharan Africa, but with 528000 new cases every year, control measures need to be put in place and implemented. This paper looks at the role that communication can play by first attempting to bring out some of the communication challenges that abound, and thus singles out for the purpose of this paper, culture and stigma. By discussing culture and stigma as brought out in the literature reviewed, the research puts into perspective the perception of cervical cancer by rural women. This will give an opportunity for debunking myths and beliefs that have been a setback to open communication about cervical cancer, consequently enabling rural women to appreciate the need to seek information, embrace preventive practices, and attend screening for cervical cancer.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The paper collected most of the materials from literature reviewed on culture and stigma as far as cervical cancer communication is concerned. Focus was mainly on research and publications done on developing countries especially in sub-Saharan Africa which is most affected by

cervical cancer morbidity. The literature was reviewed from a qualitative perspective with an aim of bringing to focus the perceptions of rural women about a disease that is categorized under reproductive health, an area that is largely affected by culture and considered a taboo subject in rural African communities.

CULTURE AND CERVICAL CANCER COMMUNICATION

The influence of culture on communication of cervical cancer in rural communities is an important aspect of this research. Rural women to a great extent live lives that are guided by cultural norms and beliefs. Discussing personal matters like a disease of the reproductive system in public is taboo in most rural communities.

According to Katrak (2006), traditions most oppressive to women are located within the arena of female sexuality. The normative forms of objectification according to Katrak include customs like dowry, multiple childbearing and fulfilling traditionally expected roles as a daughter, wife and mother. These expectations make women desire to aim at perfecting their roles to keep their places in the home. A woman who is diagnosed with a reproductive disease like cervical cancer will want to hide it from the spouse in order to try and remain relevant. Most rural folk quickly replace a woman who cannot bear children or is incapacitated as not to perform day-to-day chores. According to Dunleavy (2009) a case study in Uganda with two Hospice Ugandan nurses, revealed that culture plays a major role in cervical cancer communication. Culturally the patients still feel obliged to fulfill their duty as women in matrimony, which according to Dunleavy is a real problem for the women as the ordeal is physically punitive. In the event that the woman is unable to play her role as a wife, she is eventually replaced. In Dunleavy's case study, cervical cancer communication faces challenges from a cultural perspective because of taboo and belief in witchcraft. There is the question "why me?" Some patients would think they are bewitched and a lot of money is spent in looking for the witch, and the patient will also seek all forms of divine intervention, but not information on cervical cancer that can aid prevention, detection, treatment, or palliative care.

Another aspect of culture that poses a communication challenge in the battle against cervical cancer is the issue of disclosure. According to Moore and Spiegel (2004) most cultural communities find disclosure of cancer a very sensitive issue. To many it is seen as cruel because it robs the patient of hope and is likely to provoke rapid decline and death. In a preliminary interview with a prospective participant, this study discovered that disclosure was an issue of concern. A young man preferred not to disclose to his mother and siblings the fact that their mother was ailing from cervical cancer, and he was proud that she lived peacefully until her time of death. Moore and Spiegel (2004) also note that in most rural communities, families are often made up of many members from immediate family to extended relations. Cancer disclosure is seen as having the potential of impacting negatively on so many people that it is found better to keep it secret even from the patient. Being largely patriarchal, African communities leave all decisions to the male head of the household. This includes disclosure of a terminal illness. In the case of cervical cancer, a man may not be in a position to understand a woman's illness and decisions hurtful to the woman may be made. This could include decisions that prevent her from seeking treatment or care and hence suffer in silence (Ibid)

Dunleavy (2009) and Moore et al (2004) observe that in spite of apparent advances in medical science that have led to prevention, detection and treatment of cancer, myths and beliefs about causation, expectations regarding the meaning and the cause of illness pose communication challenges. These serve as barriers to early detection, treatment and recovery. Reinforcing these points are negative attitudes towards cancer and its treatment. This can also

perpetuate a cultural barrier to communication between patients and clinicians and may influence decision-making about referrals and treatment. In many rural communities people are averse to surgical treatment for cancer claiming that once a cancer patient is surgically operated, they will die (Moore et al, 2004).

Issues of gender and body politics were explored in this research study to find out how they influence the challenges of communicating cervical cancer among rural women. In this literature review factors that have influenced how women communicate about their bodies were interrogated. These included what causes women to avoid talking about and/or displaying their bodies even if for medical purpose, consequently refusing to consume positively, information about attending well being women's clinics for screening.

As much as the modern world wishes to close in on the gender gap between men and women in various aspects of society, various differences in communication still exist. This is even more pronounced among rural women. Kramarae (1981) in Griffin (2000) maintains that language is literally a man made construction. She insists that the language of a particular culture does not serve all its speakers equally, for not all speakers contribute in an equal fashion to its formulation. Women and other subordinate groups are not as free or as able as men are, to say what they wish because the dominant group (men) has constructed the words and the general names for their use. (Kramarae, 1981).

According to Kramarae and other feminist theorists, what women say in most societies is discounted and their thoughts are often devalued or ignored. In a situation where women attempt to overcome this inequality, the masculine control of communication puts women in a great disadvantage. Man-made language "aids in defining, depreciating and excluding women" (Thorne, Kramarae & Henley, 1983). Thus according to Kramarae, women are a silent group and this is the basis of the Muted Group Theory. Communication challenges arising from the muted nature of women as far as communicating cervical cancer is concerned is explored in this review of literature. To a great extent women in rural communities do not often speak for themselves and will often seek authority from their husbands or whoever is the head of the family in order to do most of the things in their daily lives. This is seen overtly when women are unable to take contraception to plan their families even when they desire to do so. If their spouse does not allow, then they will not do so. Dunleavey (2009) in a research for a guide for nurses who handle cervical cancer patients in a Ugandan hospice, notes the importance of including decision makers of the households in cervical cancer communication. Dunleavey finds it necessary that husbands need to be involved, as they are often the decision makers in most homes in developing countries. Through them the caregivers will reach to the ailing woman. Kramarae (1981) in Griffin (2000) however does not see a dead end in the muted group theory. In this theory she contests the masculine agenda by proposing a reformist agenda in which she advocates for women to become less muted in order to increase control over their own lives. This study aims to investigate whether rural women are truly muted and how they can help their situation to communicate more openly about cervical cancer.

Harding and Wood (1997) in Griffin (2000: 447) however do not view women as a monolith whose nature is simply one entity. Instead they are of the view that one's situation is often dependent on one's perspective, or outlook in life, hence the Standpoint Theory. According to Wood et al (1997) our standpoint affects our worldview. Harding and Wood see the gender difference between men and women, not as a biological difference but mostly as a result of cultural expectations and treatment that each group receives from the other. In relation to this

study, rural women have probably been socialized according to cultural norms to leave issues to the family decision maker. African families are largely patriarchal and therefore the man is often the decision maker. Since men may not understand issues of women's sexual health, understanding and speaking for a woman suffering from cervical cancer may not be possible. It would be justified in the view of the Standpoint Theory to classify women as a marginalized group if they cannot communicate about their health and therefore suffer and die in silence, a silence that Kramarae and Trelchler (1992) define as 'not golden' in their Feminist Dictionary. They note that there is no agony like bearing an untold story inside oneself. In a world where language and naming are power, silence is oppressive, is violence.

According to Ellingson and Buzzanell (1999), physician-patient communication is critical to quality healthcare for women. They note that research demonstrates that physicians do not listen to women carefully. They claim that physicians will often take women's concerns less seriously than men's concerns. An asymmetrical relationship places physicians in authority over patients, a power dynamic that is exacerbated further when the doctor is male and the patient is female (Borges and Waitzkin, 1995). Physicians have a tendency to often get distrustful and dismissive of women with vague and chronic symptoms. The fact that cervical cancer is an intrusive disease lodged in a woman's most private part of the body makes it even more vague for the woman to understand and explain the disease. Deborah Tannen's Genderlect Theory (Griffin, 2000) brings out to some extent, why there is trivialization of women's health concerns. In this theory, women's way of talking is not understood in the society, particularly by men. In general socialization to language use, Tannen notes that women are taught to use language in ways that end up making women diminutive. Language used on women is characterized with triviality. This could be the reason why women will often be heard saying 'you just don't understand' as Tannen's text is titled. Men and women have different language codes. According to Wear (1997) women's experiences are marginalized in all aspects of conventional healthcare. Research education and practice of diagnosis, treatment and illness management have focused on the bodies and experiences of men (Ibid). This could be the reason why women shun their health issues, more so, if it is to do with invasive disease like cervical cancer.

This research also looked at some African feminists and writers, and the outlook they give to feminism, and communication. This was explored in the light of challenges and opportunities that African women have in communicating cervical cancer from their perspective as African women. This should also broaden the opportunities for caregivers to approach cervical cancer communication from the African women's point of view. Nfah-Abbenyi (1997) notes that in as much as African women are pulled down by tradition in largely patriarchal societies, they are not necessarily totally muted. She expounds on the many ways in which women in many African communities come together in various gatherings that are purely female and no men are allowed. These are some of the opportunities which women can take advantage of, to discuss among other issues, matters on health such as cervical cancer screening.

According to Shapiro (1999) the female body is a private issue, a fact that is quite pronounced in the societies of most developing countries. Katrak (2006), in politics of the female body notes that in third world countries, there is 'this loud silence around issues of sexuality' (Katrak 2006:12). When it is mentioned, sexuality in third world societies is 'equated often rather narrowly with lesbianism' (Katrak, 2006:12) and any other negative notions around sexuality. In Kenya for example, after the Beijing Women's conference of 1996, the president at that time dismissed the outcomes of the conference insinuating that the women have come to propagate homosexuality and lesbianism.

Shapiro (1999) notes that human beings view disease as a failure of the body to function as it is supposed to. This becomes more complicated for women who have reproductive disease such as cervical cancer. According to Shapiro, the female body is subjected to policing by the male gaze. Consequently the female body is objectified so that it has always been “remade and reshaped into an ornament of desire for the male’s image.” (Shapiro, 1999:16). The policing gaze of the female anatomy has been with humanity for centuries. In South Africa in the early nineteenth century, two Boers; a farmer and a doctor, tricked a voluptuous native South African woman to a trip to France. There, the woman Saartje Baartman was subjected to treatment akin to an animal in a circus, caged and taken around for displaying her naked body. Even in death her genitals were bottled and preserved in a museum for viewing (Hall 1997). This reduction of women to an aspect of their anatomy only serves to discourage them from coming out publicly about an ailment of their reproductive system yet cervical cancer can only be treated if detected early.

The rejection of imperfect bodies is evident in all human culture, (Couser 1997). The rejection is evidenced in popular media and manifested in attitude towards disabilities, disfigurements and other aspects deemed unattractive by social standards. According to Buzzanell et al (2004) women who survive cancer, have to live most of the time with chronic illness, impairments and disfigurements caused either directly by cancer or as side effects of invasive medical treatments. The picture in the rural set up could be worse because as Katrak (2006) puts it, women’s bodies in third world are a site of oppression in a largely patriarchal society. A girl or a wife’s sexuality is sanctioned and restricted through carefully codified behavior and roles, such that in an event of illness such as cervical cancer, a woman feels incapacitated. For fear of being seen as a failure such a woman will keep silent about her illness. The objectification of the female body has consequently contributed to the silence around a disease like cervical cancer. This situation is aggravated by the fact that schooling and education does not have in its curriculum, sound issues on female bodies or sexuality (Katrak 2006). This silence about female sexuality will most likely contribute to communication challenges in the control of cervical cancer.

It is difficult for women in rural communities to communicate about the complex issues about cervical cancer, such as the foul smell, leaking bowels and general discomfort in their lower abdomen (Dunleavey 2009). Most literature and studies on cervical cancer in developing countries dwell majorly on limited resources (Dunleavey 2009), but leave out communication challenges. Although it may be linked to resources, communication carries its own strength. Rural communication on cervical cancer and how it affects a woman’s body is shallow and women are often left to their own devices.

CERVICAL CANCER AND STIGMA

One of the issues of concern in communication of cervical cancer lies in the domain of stigma. This literature review looks at how stigmatization of cancer in public sphere contributes to health communication challenges in the control of cervical cancer. In a study in Recife, Brazil on sexual strategies and cervical cancer Gregg (2003) found that cervical cancer is stigmatized particularly because it is often regarded in most rural societies as a sexually transmitted disease. Further, the diseased are often isolated because of layers of metaphors. Society distinguishes the diseases, but unfortunately also distinguishes the diseased. Thus they are made different from, and less desirable than the rest of the population. The diseased person becomes, ‘reduced in our minds from a whole and usual person to a tainted, discounted one’

(Goffman 1963:3) and the condition becomes a master status that overshadows all other personal attributes.

According to Gregg (2003) cancer is metaphorically loaded. The patients suffer not only the physical effects of the disease, but also from the isolating effects of stigma surrounding cancer. Terrified by the notion that cancer is perhaps incurable and often unpredictable, people despise and fear it, leading to a lot of silence around the ailment. In rural settings, Gregg noted that cervical cancer and its association with sexually transmitted disease, reduces women with cervical cancer to being blamed for being promiscuous. They consequently become embarrassed and therefore even if unwell, such women will keep silent about their condition instead of seeking treatment. In one case study Gregg noted that the patients will always have written themselves off and any treatment procedures are treated with suspicion of being ridiculed. One woman who refused to continue with treatment said 'it is like someone putting a finger in an open wound and messing it up.'

Mason (2001) on stigma and social exclusion in healthcare observes that until recently, cancer was discussed in hushed terms. The word itself carried a powerful emotional message promoting feelings of anxiety, fear and dread. According to Mason cancer is mysterious to humanity in general, it is a silent killer, its origin is unknown and the facts available are both ominous and terrifying. Cancer challenges not only a person's resilience to withstand disabling and invasive disease and disruptive and disagreeable treatment, but also confronts an individual with a tenuous hold upon life itself. Cancer forces a person to look into the face of death against our reflective instinct to look away (Ibid). Cervical cancer faces more challenges than all other types of cancer because its nature and treatment is most invasive and the stigmatization is more profound.

Buzzanell et al (2004) looks into the lives of women cancer survivors and how they make meaning of chronic illness, and disability. Stigma stands out as a communication challenge because the rejection of imperfect bodies and a disease they hardly comprehend leaves them feeling isolated. Cancer survivors with persistent physical and/or emotional effects of the disease and treatment are stigmatized and dehumanized by society in the way they are handled. Female cancer survivors who have chronic impairments are often not easily categorized by self or others. These women occupy the boundary areas between health and illness; ability and disability; wholeness and loss; femininity and 'damaged goods' (Harrison 1999). In the society there is always the assumption that people are either completely able or healthy, or they are completely disabled and are an object of charity. There is still not enough middle ground (Wendel, 1992). In this light rural women are in a more complex situation because their setting often leaves them much more disadvantaged as they are mostly illiterate and are often addressed on various issues about their lives by authorities that do not allow them to participate in their own development issues.

CONCLUSION

Culture and stigma have largely contributed to the silence with which rural women have chosen to suffer the ravages of cervical cancer. This is brought out from the literature reviewed in this paper. IARC (2013) recommends the need to implement the available tools and methods of cervical cancer control, citing for example, the HPV vaccines available, the less invasive and affordable easy to administer screening and treatment procedures, in order to curb the upward morbidity trends of cervical cancer. This paper however is of the recommendation that until myths and beliefs about cervical cancer and reproductive health in general, are debunked, it is still going to be an uphill task for cervical cancer control to be achieved as rural communities

will still be barred by cultural and stigmatization factors from seeking the necessary healthcare for cervical cancer control. By seeking amicable participatory communication, rural communities will be able to embrace and participate in the implementation processes of advocacy and campaigns as they will feel they are part of the process, and consequently identify with, and own decisions made.

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The Formation of The Image of Conflict Situations By The Way of Mass Media

Demilkhanova Angelina,

PhD, Associate professor, psychology department
Kyrgyz-Russian Slavic University, Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, tel:+996556352517

Denisova Oksana,

Senior lecturer, philosophy department
Kyrgyz-Russian Slavic University; Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan

ABSTRACT

The article is devoted to the investigations of the formation of an image of the Syrian conflict in English and Russian electronic media (for example, electronic versions of such publications as: The Guardian, The Washington Post, The New York Times, Kommersant, Izvestia, Arguments and Facts).

Key words: conflict, Syrian conflict, mass media, discourse, manipulation of public consciousness, manipulation techniques.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays the Syrian conflict is one of the progressive social conflicts. A series of social conflicts that have engulfed the whole of North Africa and parts of Asia, which began with Tunisia and Egypt in 2010, do not terminate until present. The conflict in Syria began with individual performances in January 2011, which in March took a widespread and organized character. This conflict continues to flare up till the present, despite numerous attempts to resolve it.

The purpose of our research was a comparative study of the materials on the events in Syria presented by English and Russian-language media since the start of the conflict. We have analysed the publications of the on-line versions of such press as: The Guardian, The Washington Post, The New York Times, Kommersant, Izvestia, Arguments and Facts. Time period – 1st point - the beginning of the event, in March 2011, the 2nd point - in December 2011, 3rd and 4th points with an interval of one year, ie December 2012 and 2013.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The main research method was content analysis and discourse analysis. The basic hypothesis of our study was the assumption that different media have different methods of manipulating public opinion in order to create the desirable image of the particular social situation (which can be detected by the methods mentioned above).

It was chosen the headlines of specified newspapers for the analysis.

According to Teun Van Dijk, having the ability to control the production of discourses can influence the public opinion, to approve the desired ideology. T. Van Dijk highlighted the certain structures in the discourse, dividing them into local (grammar of sentence and grammar of text), the global structure (schematic superstructures and thematic macrostructures) and structures that permeate all levels (structuring by the principle of relevance and rhetorical structure). He also says that if we have a possibility to manage of

discourse production, we can influence on a social conscience and approve the necessary ideology. And important feature of newspaper discourse is that topics may be expressed and signalled by headlines, which apparently act as summaries of the news text [1].

Describing the particular events and images, the mass media form definite perception, reflection and reaction of mass consciousness on these events. According to Marshal McLuhan, in the modern era the mass media have functions of ideological and political influence, the organization and provision of information, education and entertainment and the function of maintaining social community [2].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Media is not just covering certain series of incidents, but adds to it some emotional coloration. I. Zhukov wrote: "During the process of coverage of war events, the mass media are forming discourse versions of the reality and as a result we have the program that is directing the readership. The discursive versions of the reality are producing stereotypes and prejudices" [3].

The attitude of social groups to the military activities depends on how these events were presented by the mass media. And here we can even talk about the programming of thinking, because predefined opinion (the reality interpretation) in ideological pattern is given to the readership.

Moreover, for forming a certain impression the grammar constructions were used. Employing the active voice, some of them represent active hostilities, while others - the passive voice - the fact that the other party, such as an army, only responds to these actions. When working with verbs they emphasize grammatical category of voice in connection with the importance of the opposition of leader and victims and to identify the ideological orientation of the author / editors determines the object and subject of the action [3].

As a vivid examples in our samples might be presented the following: «Syrian reaction to Assad's speech» – Al Jazeera, «Chemical Arms Used Repeatedly in Syria» – New York Times, «A chemical weapons attack kills 1,400 in Syria», «US president reacts to reports that sensitive chemical weapons parts have been moved around the country by the Assad regime» – The Guardian.

The effect of argumentativeness is achieved by the citation.

In the military discourse of media often uses the references to senior sources, who did not want to call themselves (it is also the manipulation technique). As an illustration of this example we can see the following head-lines: New York Times: «Lebanon says army fired on Syrian helicopters»; Al Jazeera: «Syria Crisis Is Worsening, U.N. Relief Official Says», «Jihadist Groups Gain in Turmoil Across Middle East», «Top U.N. Rights Official Links Assad to Crimes in Syria». It is said about the officials, that make the statements about undefined groups that are moving through the whole territory, but the specific names are not given.

The same techniques are widely used by the The Washington Post and The Guardian. The activists, officials and even simply resources are mentioned. The Washington Post: «Airstrikes by Syrian government kill at least 50 in rebel-held town near Aleppo, activists say», «Syrian conflict's sectarian, ethnic dimensions growing, U.N. warns», «Israeli officials say Assad is doomed».

The Guardian: «NATO and WE officials say short-range missiles detected looked like Scuds, as Syrian opposition wins international recognition».

Analysing the impact of manipulative techniques on the public consciousness through the media Andrei Richter [4], among others, highlights such as:

- The naturalism of description of war realities (killed, wounded, body parts, etc.) causes an extremely negative attitude of society toward the described reality).

Examples:

Al Jazeera: «Attacks on Lebanon army posts leave five dead», «At least 125 people killed and scores injured by army air raids on rebel districts in Aleppo city», « At least 24 killed, mostly women and children, in two bomb attacks south west of Damascus ».

The New York Times: «Dozens Are Killed in Syrian Violence», «In Syria, Thousands Protest Killings». The Washington Post: «Airstrikes by Syrian government kill at least 50 in rebel-held town near Aleppo, activists say» (according to activists, The Syrian government Air Force killed at least 50 people in the rebel-held town ...).

The Guardian: «A chemical weapons attack kills 1400 in Syria», «Syrian crisis 'could kill 100000 in next year'», «and Syria blames al-Qaida after two car bombs kill dozens in Damascus».

Kommersant: «They kill even children». Izvestia: «In Syria, shot more than 70 military deserters», «From the bombings in Syria about 30 people were killing », «For three days in Syria killed more than 100 people ». Arguments and Facts: «Freelance reporter for Reuters was killed in Syria », «Syrian aircraft killed more than 60 people in the bread queue»

- The depersonalization of acting person (the lack of personal features) limits sympathy to described side.

Kommersant: «The Syrian opposition doesn't allow unite itself», «The opposition accuses the authorities of the use of chemical weapons». Izvestia: «Russia fears the victory of the Syrian opposition», «The Syrian opposition does not believe the retention of power of Assad». Arguments and Facts: «The opposition refused to go to Moscow for talks», «The Syrian army firstly has used the chemical weapons against the opposition»

Al Jazeera: «Syrian fighters join forces against al-Assad», «Syrian soldiers ' killed by army defectors'». The Guardian: «Syrian crisis 'could kill 100,000 in next year'».

The New York Times: «Russia Urges Assad to Negotiate with His Opponents», «Syria Fires More Scud Missiles at Rebels».

The Washington Post: «Islamic charity officials gave millions to al-Qaeda, U.S. says», «More than 100 dead in Aleppo airstrikes; United Nations warns of 'terrifying situation'».

In the given examples there is no personal information, the names or statuses of sources of information were not mentioned as well. Acts are impersonal forces - Syria, officials, UN, activists, the army that forms the impression of a huge "machine", to which it is very difficult to resist. At the same time the Washington Post widely presents the personalization of Obama. «Obama hails progress on loose nukes, warns of chemical weapons risk in Syria», «Obama warns Syria amid rising concern over chemical weapons». The personalization, conversely,

leads to the formation of definite attitude to certain person, separates person from the mass, and leads to the perception of the person as having a power. In this case we can talk about the demonstration of specific intents of Barack Obama as legal and legitimate representative of certain country and a spokesman in the global stage.

It should be emphasized that in The Guardian the most part of statements is personalized. – «Syria military police chief defects to rebels», «The Russian foreign minister says his country will not be an intermediary between Syrian president and those who want him to leave and seek safe haven abroad», «Russian deputy foreign minister's comments come as Syria rebels say 21-month conflict has reached turning point».

The personalization of the statements generates credence to certain resource, and creates an impression of objectiveness of coverage of events. In addition, such structures can be considered as an argument to authority- a reference to authoritative, significant personality that releases from the argumentation of certain standpoint, shifts the responsibility of given statements to the speaking person.

- Constant reference to the threat of the spread of the conflict beyond the region scares the mass consciousness by the threat of personal well-being, increasing the personal interest of every reader in the speedy resolution of the conflict. Localization of events within a particular region or a particular country produces unresponsiveness of mass consciousness to war.

Here are some examples: Kommersant: "The Syrian war becomes global." Al Jazeera: «Assad: Global plot against Arab nation». The New York Times: «To Save Syria, America Needs Russia's Help», «Syria's Chaos A Test for US».

The Washington Post: «Syrian conflict said to fuel sectarian tensions in Persian Gulf», «Syria's revolt a threat to neighbor».

The Guardian: «As there's no model of the war in Syria, it's impossible to forecast how the fallout will affect the region», «A year of uprisings and revolutions: uncertainty reigns in the Arab world».

Solidarization- it is an acceptance of any part of the conflict (“our”, “they”, “enemies”). Affection for described social group is forced to the audience.

The Washington Post: «The Obama administration is willing to support a Syrian rebel coalition that would include Islamist groups» The. New York Times: «Iran remains a destabilizing force in Syria, and its neighbors view its efforts to prop up President Basharal-Assad». Kommersant: “Commissary for Human Rights has accused the Syrian president of war crimes; Izvestia: “Syrian leader Assad denied the military repression”; Arguments and Facts: “Syrian aircraft killed more than 60 people standing in a bread queue”.

CONCLUSION

Summing up the results of our study, we can note the following points:

In Al Jazeera the situations is mainly describing as negative (22%), we can also see the description of the victims (18%), at the same time as mentioning Bashar al- Assad and his supporting governmental forces are described in 2/3times less frequently. In general, more attention is given to the description of the situation in special war terms.

The main parties of the conflict are described as negative in Kommersant (Bashar al- Assad (20%) and opposition (16%)). Significant attention is given to description of the 3rd side (44%), that is specified as negative (16%). Arguments and Facts and Izvestia give approximately equal attention to negative description of the situation (14%) and mentioned Bashar al-Assad (23%). The manipulative techniques, such as overstatement and metaphorization are used in headlines. "Syrian aircraft killed more than 60 people standing in a bread queue" (Arguments and Facts).

In general, the Russian language press has paid much less attention to the description of the Syrian conflict.

The Guardian, Assad is represented negatively (16.5%), legitimate power at the moment (15.5%), as well as the situation as a whole (17%). The opposition presented objectively, description combine both positive and negative contexts. Also, considerable attention is paid to the description of a position of strength 3rd parties (20%), at the same time emphasizes the opposition of the Russian Federation and the United States.

The Washington Post describes the situation as an extremely negative (18%) are also sufficient attention is paid to the negative assessment of the actions of legitimate power (9.6%). Assad was presented sufficiently objectively, providing both positive and negative sides. Clearly expressed support for the United States as a third party to the conflict and supported the opposition, and including associated with terrorist groups.

The New York Times describes Assad (23.6%) in an extremely negative way, emphasizes its relationship with hackers and al-Qaeda, as well as emphasizes the negative situation as a whole (15.5%). Considerable attention is paid to the description of the 3rd party, mostly in negative and threatening aspects (21.6%).

In general, Russian-language media pay less attention to the description of the conflict situation in the CAP as a whole, but at the same time presented a negative "enemy image" (Assad and government forces, the army). The position of power of the Russian Federation is not pronounced. In the English-language media the number reports dedicated to this topic in 7-8 times more clearly expressed position of power of the 3rd party, considerable attention is given to describing the situation as negative.

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The Existence of Corruption Eradication Commission in The Criminal Law Reform in Indonesia

Ruslan Renggong

Lecturer of Law Faculty Universitas "45" Makassar Indonesia

ABSTRACT

Criminal Law reform by unification and codification of the criminal law is very urgent for the need of improvement of society. This becomes a serious problem in the offer of Law Criminal reform, as the government doesn't pay attention to the existence of the corruption Eradication commission. As the result, in the draft bill of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code, it is found certain subjects which crippling the power and the function of the corruption Eradication Commission. The crimes of corruption as the result of the Indonesia collapse in field of economic, politic, and social before and after the reformation in 1998. It can not be solved by simple ways. It needs to be held in a specific way. That's, all kind of rules which will cripple the Corruption Eradication Commission will be revised. The crime of corruption kept as the special crime which the basic rules of it will not be included in the criminal code and the special power of the corruption eradication commission will not be ruled in the criminal procedural code, but will be ruled in the corruption eradication commission code. That the government and the newly elected representatives house members must revoke the draft bill of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code which has been sent to the old representatives to be revised and to be adjusted with the need and the hope of the people in order to against the corruption.

Key words: Existence-Corruption Eradication Commission-Criminal Law Reform

INTRODUCTION

Reformation in 1998 which bring down the corrupt, colutive, and nepotism Soeharto regim, inspired the Corruption Eradication Commission formulated. The Corruption Eradication Commission formulated to fulfill the agenda of reformation eradicate corruption in Indonesia by eradicating the corruption from the lowest level up to the top level of the government, including the Legislative and the Judicative Institution.

At the time, the law enforcer, such as the police and the judiciary, who has the power to eradicate the corruption that did not work effectively, so the corruption in the executor was very high. The Corruption Eradication Commission formulated showing a very significant result, but they can't eradicate totally the corrupt act of the executor yet. But then, by formulating The Corruption Eradication Commission the Indonesia corrupt index perception was getting lower according to transparency International in Berlin German.

Since The Corruption Eradication Commission formulated, hundreds of the Representatives House members, from the central level, Province level, Regency/city level, tens of governor, regent/major, judge, justicery, police, ex-miniters and many other executor have been suspected and have been punished. In 2014, there were three on job ministers accused by the Coruption Eradication Commission, they are the youth and sport minister, Religion Minister, and the Energy and The Human Resources minister.

The Corruption Eradication Commission performance was approved and appreciated by the Indonesian society as the government gave it the power more than the police and the justice. The Corruption Eradication Commission has the right to tap the corruption suspected conversation without any permission of the board of the Justiciary and they are forbidden to stop any case on going. It means that the suspected must be sent to the court, this is different from the police on doing their case, they can stop the case but they are forbidden to tap the suspected conversation.

The successes to solve a case of corruption intangling the state executive in every level of government make the Corruption Eradication Commission get the public support. On the other hand the corrupt people hate this institution and it is shown in some modus to create the public opini that the Corruption Eradication Commission was not a clean nor law integrated institution.

This modus has been done many times by some oknum who want to demolish the Corruption Eradication Commission. They force the public to untrust this institution by criminating two of the commissioner of the Corruption Eradication Commission, like Chandra Hamzah and Bibit Waluyo. They were accused as if they had corrupted, nevertheless this was unproof. The effort of the people, who want to demolish the Corruption Eradication Commission as the weak justifier and has no public trusty, has been done by revising the policy no. 30 in the year of 2002 about Corruption Eradication Commission.

This revising was done due to reduce the special right of the Corruption Eradication Commission to eradicate the corruption such as eliminate the right to tap the corruption suspect conversation without of the board of the court, eliminate the right of prosecution of Corruption Eradication Commission, and reducing the operational budget of the Corruption Eradication Commission. But this modus was not success as the public were more and more trust this institution as the non-government, academician and the students.

After those unsuccess efforts to weaken the Corruption Eradication Commission, now there are other efforts of them called unification and codification of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code. At glance, those effort of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code renewal has no relationship with those efforts to weaken the Corruption Eradication Commission, but if we deeply take a look on the draft bill of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code we will find some chapters which weaken the Corruption Eradication Commission, because corruption crime will not be a special crime anymore, it will be general crime.

Based on the statements above, the writer put out the problem statement, as: how the effect of the criminal law reform to the existence of The Corruption Eradication Commission as the juriducery in Indonesia. The object of the research is aimed at knowing the effect of the unification and the codification of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code to the existence of The Corruption Eradication Commission as the juriducery in Indonesia. The purpose the research hope would be a good source to the government and the Representative House in the solution of the the draft bill of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code, and as the source to the next researcher who need to do the same research on the criminal code reform.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was held in Makassar city the south Sulawesi Province Indonesia on July 2014 until September 2014. This research is descriptive normative-juridical research using primer

and secunder law. The data are the draft bill of the criminal code and the criminal procedural code, the corruption eradication policy, the corruption eradication commission policy and other relevant literatures related to the research.

DISCUSSION AND RESULT

The reform of the Criminal Law especially of the Criminal Code and the Criminal Procedural Code are very urgent. The Criminal Code which was the product of the Dutch Colonialist in the book "Wet Boek van strafrecht" ruled based on "Koninklijke besluit" day Janury 1st 1915. This is very old and is not suit with the need and the demand of the Public Law. And as well as in The Criminal Procedural Code which was issued by the government of Indonesia 35 years ago. This is also out of date since there are so many changes in the Criminal Judicature process.

The big hope of the public on the issued of the unification and the codification of the Criminal Code as the main law of the Criminal Law and the unification and the codification of the Criminal Procedural Code as the main law of the Criminal Procedural comes to the right track after the draft of the Criminal Law and the draft of the Criminal Procedural sent to the Representatives House by the government to be discussed. Yet, the problem is still on because the draft of the Criminal Code which was defined spread in Chapter XXVIII, Chapter XXXXI, and Chapter XXXII with 23 verses on doing in injustice of corruption.

This shows that the designer of the draft of the Criminal Code has taken the corruption law norms out of the corruption law which is the specific crime into the Criminal Code which is the general crime. This also found in the draft of the Criminal Procedural Code has been included some regulation which directly weaken the Corruption Eradication Commission right to do its function in investigation and prosecution.

Below, will be examined some Chapter formula drafts:

A. Chapter Formulas in the draft of the Criminal Code

Substancially, the draft of the Criminal Code changed the corruption crime to public crime, it made this crime the same as the other crimes which arranged in the Crimnial Code and has no speciality in the norms and in the medium of the rulers. By changing this corruption crime into public crime omitted its "extra ordinary crime". Since corruption crime includes the politic right, social right, public economy right, destructive and this influence the state development programs. This also sistematically and endemically becomes social disorders.

As Corruption has already become a systematically and endemically social disorders, and transformed as an extraordinary injustice, an extraordinary way to solve is also needed (Lisnawati, 2013)

This idea is congruent with the judge Artidjo Alkotsar that corruption is different from other criminal. This is an extraordinary crime, which affects the future of the country and the public. It shows that the country is very rich but most of the people live in poverty. There are many begger on the road side, the economic democratic should be on the street seeing the rats cut off the public right. This corruption makes structurally poverty (Kompas, 2014)

Theoretically, effort and extraordinary means of eradication of corruption in the criminal law as follows: 1) the special rules in the criminal Law material such as; special rules in special assistance, trial, and arrangement of criminal system. 2) The special rules in the criminal Law procedural, like the special rights and Procedures, and 3) the existence of special institution such as the corruption eradication commission and the injustice crime court. The special effort

and means which in point 1 and point 2 above, generally arranged in Penal Law, and now, those are arranged in corruption Penal Law.

- a. Chapter 300, everyone breaks the law using any kind of tools listen to the others' conversation in or out side a house, room, or in the closed field, or by phone which is not in his right to listen, would be sentenced as long as 1 (one) year in jail or punishment in the category II. This chapter has been criminalized the tapping as it breaks the law. It means tapping must be done legally. This has not the same aim as the Corruption Eradication Commission practice. Based on the chapter 12 point a, corruption crime law, the investigating officer of the corruption eradication commission has the right to tap and to record the conversation of the suspects without any permission from the board of the court. This will minimize or even hamper the procedure and the right of the corruption eradication commission.
- b. Chapter 702, everyone who do criminal as in chapter 666, chapter 667, chapter 668, chapter 670, chapter 671, chapter 688, chapter 689, chapter 690, chapter 691, chapter 693, chapter 694, chapter 695, chapter 696, chapter 697, chapter 698, chapter 699, chapter 700 and chapter 701 as those inflicts the state financial loss, will be sentenced as those chapters determinations added with 1/3 (one third). The consequence which result of the chapter 702 of criminal law code formulation is there not more formulation eradication corruption act as material crime that known in chapter 2 verse (1) and chapter 3 eradication corruption law. Corruption criminal act which known as the corruption that make the country lost and can be done by many ways which against the law such as; personal profit or for other people. The corruption can make lost of national economy. The law does not determine the types of criminal. Many people say that it is a common law and it has been done by the law practitioner.

By omitting the criminal formulation about the lost country financial based on the some consideration as follow:

- a. Draft bill criminal code has made a policy to formulate corruption criminal as formal criminal which formulated the type of criminal. It is a formal criminal that support the *lex certa* especially for the forbidden action. United Nations Convention against Corruption also uses the formulation action or cronologis of forbidden and unforbidden action.
- b. When criminal is formulated materially, so it will make potencial bigger duplication.
- c. Chapter 3 verse 2 United Nations Convention against Corruption gives rules to criminalize corruption without see the lost of country financial and economy. Dismissing of the corruption criminal formulation get respons from the professor and criminal experts. The Forum discussion Group in several big cities in Indonesia, the professors of criminal law need the corruption crime still formulated materially. Based on the chapter 2 verse 1 and chapter 3 corruption crime laws. Some reason which discuss is the law histories of corruption in Indonesia "make lost of country financial and economy" become one of sociologist background or the reason to publish some regulation related to the corruption. Besides, the reality of corruption crime in Indonesia not only corruption but also corruption criminal which make the country big financial lost (Corruption Eradication Commission, 2014). The most important thing beside the normative juridical reason is omitted the corruption criminal in the chapter 2 verse 1 and chapter 3 corruption criminal law will cause the corruption criminal process when the draft of criminal code on discussing can be stopped. Even the criminal who has get punishment can be free. It is as consequence of the punishment rule transitoir in

chapter 3 verse 1 draft of criminal code when it is applied (Corruption Eradication Commission, 2014).

- d. The chapter 757 point a, which determine the law that out of this law. It is given transition time for 3 years to be adapted to this law. Point b, after the transition time on the point a, so the criminal decision that out of this law be part to this law itself. The formulation of the decision straighten up that there is not decision crime out of the criminal code. The impact of this decision is the doubt position of the Corruption Eradication Commission as a legal institution, and it will be broken automatically. Thus, when the draft of the criminal code is accepted by the Representative House members become a law, so the corruption eradication committee authorities will be lost.

Related to the formulation of corruption crime law, the leader of the Corruption Eradication Commission, Abraham Samad (2014) says that crime as a part of the second book of the criminal code draft that overlapping with the general crimes in the criminal code will make the special crime become a general crime. It will have big impact to the authority of the Corruption Eradication Commission. It makes uncertain law condition in the law action processing.

Related to the idea above the corruption eradication commissioner, Busyro Moqoddas (2014) says that criminal code and procedure of criminal law need to be revised and easy to be understand. The people can understand that the law as a herintance of Dutch is being revising. There is not problem before the government it submitted to the Representative House. Fundament substantial parts as weak system and corruption eradication and threat the existance of corruption crime law as "lex specialis", corruption crime court, Corruption Eradication Commission and other specific reformation institutions.

By considering the changes in the chapter 762 criminal code draft, when the criminal code draft as a law without specific crime law which regulate the Corruption Eradication Commission authorities and corruption crime court in processing the crime as corruption crime. They will loss of their authorities to investigate and procecute when the new criminal law is applied. It is related to the Corruption Eradication Commission authority in investigation and procecution of the civil servant and judge corruption as a crime function.

B. Chapter Formulation in the Draft of Procedure of Criminal Code

Since the government of Indonesia ratified some conventions related to the human rights, the valid procedure of Criminal Code is not suit with the growth and the need of law of the people nowadays. Hence, the renewal of Procedure of Criminal Code is very urgent because it directly related to the process of criminal judicature.

In the procedure of criminal code was found some chapters which threaten the existency of the Eradication of Corruption Commission as the anti-corruption institution which is trusted by the people to eradicate the corruption in Indonesia, as follows:

- a) Chapter 67, which gives the right to the suspect or the accused to ask for the postponement of the detention to the preface investigation judge. Basically asking for the detention postponement is the right of the suspect or the accused which had the detention, but if it is not well and measured redefined the detention in the corruption eradication commission can be postponed by the preface investigation judge. Whereas the special quality of the Corruption Eradication Commission among the law inforcer institutions is that they had never accepted the asking of postponement of detention.

- b) Chapter 75 states that the cetiment must be on the preface investigation judge permission. The rule will hinder the corruption eradication commission to cite the things that should be cited immediately, but the preface investigation judge do not accept the corruption eradication commission request. In the general injustice case, it has no difference, but in the investigation of special crime like corruption this very important to arrest the suspect with the proof on hand.
- c) Chapter 83, states that the corruption eradication commission investigate the suspect under the permission of the preface investigation judge. This rule has been tried to include to the code which relate to the criminal jurisdiction process, in the purpose of weakening the corruption eradication right to eliminate the corruption crime. But this, get defiance from the law academician and form the non-government organization as it will weaken the corruption eradication commission. When this rule includes in the criminal procedure code, the the corruption eradication commission can not arrest the suspect as easy as usual, since they have to have permission from the judge for tapping the suspect. In this case they have to arrest the suspect fast and secretly. It is out of question if the corruption eradication commission needs to tap the suspect under the court permission; on the other hand the suspect is a judge or other government employee.

Based on the discussion above, as Zulkarnain, a commosioner of the corruption eradication commission, (2014) states that there are some statements in the draft of the criminal procedure code which weaken the corruption eradication commission, they are in arresting the suspect must be under the preface investigation permission, exclude the unguilty evidence, the duration of jail is only 5 days, while to solve the case need more time for the case is very complex. The right to investigate is skipped over and the preface investigation judge can stop the investigation and the prosecution of the corruption crime. The whole determination will absolutely weaken or even dismiss the corruption eradication commission.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

It is very urgent to reform the criminal law, because it has become the Indonesian hopes. But unification and codification effort in the crime law has to be done pricecisly and comprehenshiply. It has not implication toward the corruption eradication commission as a legal institution which has great authority because it has handled the corruption crime which becomes extra ordinary crime. In the formulation of the draft of criminal code shows the political will. Government did not pay attention seriously to enforce the corruption eradication commission authority or reverse.

Suggestion

Government and Representative House revise the criminal code draft and the criminal procedural code, especially for the law material which related to the corruption and corruption eradication commission authority. It will produce great institution which can eradicate the corruption crime and create the new criminal law.

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Corporate Governance Rules in Six Stock Exchanges: A Comparative Study

Hong Yuh Ching

Centro Universitário da FEI, Av. Humberto de Alencar Castelo Branco
3972, São Bernardo do Campo, Brazil

Renan Tardelli

Centro Universitário da FEI, Av. Humberto de Alencar Castelo Branco
3972, São Bernardo do Campo, Brazil

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to compare the corporate governance rules around the world and to ascertain which Stock Exchange SE is more adherent to our proposed corporate governance framework. The SE researched were Tokyo TSE, New York NYSE, Frankfurt Stock Exchange, Brazil BM&FBovespa, London Stock Exchange and Toronto TSX. Several governance models or frameworks extracted from the literature were analyzed, however the integration across these studies showed extremely difficult. This lead us to build our own “proxy” framework composed of 15 rules. TSX has the lowest corporate governance standard compared to other five SE because its document does not provide description in 12 rules out of 15, while London has the highest corporate governance standard with detailed description in 11 rules. As more and more companies do business around the world with their counterparts and governments, it becomes increasingly important to understand the similarities and differences between the corporate governance rules and practices in some Stock Exchange around the world.

Keywords: corporate governance, governance rules, stock exchange, corporate value.

INTRODUCTION

The disclosure of information by the companies, financial and non-financial, is essential for investors in their process of decision-making. Therefore, its disclosure in an objective and transparent way may enable a higher degree of reliability when one is making an investment decision over another. Companies, in general, should be worried in creating an efficient set of mechanisms to ensure that the behavior of the managers is aligned with the best interest of the company.

However, this might not be the case of many companies. Reaz and Hossain [1] discussed the idea of separation of power between the executive management of major public companies and their shareholders. This is known as the “principal-agent” problem. It tends to plague the relationship between shareholders (the principals) and managers (the agents) owing to the separation of ownership and management (or control) in companies with widely dispersed “public” ownership of shares (Oman, Fries and Buitter) [2]. These authors raised another conflict of interest, the “expropriation problem”, between controlling shareholders on one hand and minority shareholders (domestic and foreign), and other investors, on the other. The expropriation problem, as distinct from the “agency” problem, tends to prevail, worldwide, in countries with highly concentrated structures of corporate ownership.

Corporate governance can be defined as the structures and processes by which companies are directed and controlled. Good corporate governance helps companies operate more efficiently, mitigate risk and safeguard against mismanagement, and improve access to capital that will fuel their growth (IFC International Finance Corporation) [3].

For IBGC Instituto Brasileiro de Governança Corporativa [4], the basic principles of Corporate Governance are:

1. Transparency - provide interested parties with information that is of interest, and not merely those imposed by laws or regulations. It should not be restricted to the economic and financial performance, but also consider other tangible and intangible factors that guide managerial action and lead to the creation of value.
2. Fairness - A fair treatment of all shareholders and other stakeholders. Discriminatory attitudes or policies, under any pretext, are entirely unacceptable.
3. Accountability - The agents of governance should be accountable for their actions, undertaking the full consequences of their acts and omissions.
4. Corporate Responsibility - The agents of governance should watch over the sustainability of their organizations, to ensure their company's longevity, by observing social and environmental principles when identifying business deals and operations.

OECD Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [5] principles, however, cover six key areas of corporate governance – ensuring the basis for an effective corporate governance framework; the rights of shareholders; the equitable treatment of shareholders; the role of stakeholders in corporate governance; disclosure and transparency; and the responsibilities of the board. These principles are more comprehensive than those of IBGC [4] for covering more areas.

Academics, practitioners and policy makers have demonstrated a dramatically increased interest in systems of corporate governance, especially after the collapse of the centrally planned economies. This growth was noticed by Gillan [6]. In a search of SSRN (Social Sciences Research Network) abstracts containing the term corporate governance, it resulted in more than 3500 hits, the authors of this article performed same search in 2014 and resulted in 11500 hits.

The argument to sustain a higher level of disclosure by the companies, regardless of being mandatory or no is the expected positive repercussion of the information at the Stock Exchange Markets, contributing to a better financial assessment of the corporations. Lower cost of capital, higher return, less stock price volatility are some of positive repercussions (Malacrida and Yamamoto) [7].

To address to investors, some Stock Exchanges SE have separate level of market listing that includes only firms with higher level of transparency, which can be understood as corporate governance level. Examples of these separate indexes are DAX, MDAX, TecDAX and SDAX of Frankfurt Stock Exchange, IGEX, IGCT and IGC-NM of BMF&BOVESPA (São Paulo) and FTSE 100, FTSE 250, FTSE Small Cap and FTSE Fledgling of London Stock Exchange. Going in the same direction, many Stock Exchanges around the world do have corporate governance codes or rules to be followed by the corporations listed.

Having this in mind, this paper aims to compare the corporate governance rules around the world and to ascertain which SE is more adherent to our proposed corporate governance framework. We chose six Stock Exchange, five from developed countries and one from a

developing country. The SE researched were Tokyo Stock Exchange, New York Stock Exchange, Frankfurt Stock Exchange, BM&FBovespa (Brazil), Toronto Stock Exchange and London Stock Exchange.

LITERATURE REVIEW

IFC [3] defines corporate governance as the structures and processes by which companies are directed and controlled. Good corporate governance helps companies operate more efficiently, improve access to capital, mitigate risk and safeguard against mismanagement. It makes companies more accountable and transparent to investors and gives them the tools to respond to stakeholder concerns. Corporate governance also contributes to development. Increased access to capital encourages new investments, boosts economic growth, and provides employment opportunities.

For Becht et al., [8] corporate governance is concerned with the resolution of collective action problems among dispersed investors and the reconciliation of conflicts of interest between various corporate claimholders. In a more expanded definition, Gregory [9] states that corporate governance refers to that blend of law, regulation, and appropriate voluntary private-sector practices which enables the corporation to attract financial and human capital, perform efficiently, and thereby perpetuate itself by generating long-term economic value for its shareholders, while respecting the interests of stakeholders and society as a whole.

In FRC Financial Reporting Council Code [10], the purpose of corporate governance is to facilitate effective, entrepreneurial and prudent management that can deliver the long-term success of the company. Corporate governance comprises a country's private and public institutions, both formal and informal, which together govern the relationship between the people who manage corporations ("corporate insiders") and all others who invest resources in corporations in the country [5].

From the above definitions, it is clear that there is not a common definition of corporate governance CG. Gregory [9] is the only author that associates CG to a blend of law, regulation and voluntary private sector practices while the other authors/institutions do not mention law or regulation. CG is mostly ruled by voluntary private sector practices. All these definitions are focused on long-term success or economic value of the company (or alike) and its shareholders. Other common terms in these definitions are transparency and accountability of the different parties to avoid conflict between the shareholders, the people who manage corporations (agents) and the company's stakeholders/claimholders. Final comment is on the last part of OECD [5] definition regarding on who invest resources in corporations. Did OECD deliberately leave it open? Before discussing "who", the discussion should start with "what resources"? If the resource is money, no doubt the person is the shareholder/investor. However if we expand to materials, equipments, intellectual capital, land, then we are referring to different stakeholders.

Correlated studies regarding corporate governance and the firms' results

Corporate governance improve access to capital as an increasing volume of empirical evidence indicates that well governed companies are positively correlated with market valuation and operating performance (Klapper and Love) [11]. For them, performance improve as improved governance structures and processes help ensure quality decision-making, encourage effective succession planning for senior management and enhance the long-term prosperity of companies, independent of the type of company and its sources of finance. They also found that firms in countries with weak overall legal systems have on average lower governance rankings.

Poor standards of governance, particularly in the area of transparency and disclosure, have been a major factor behind instability in the financial markets across the globe (Claessens and Laeven) [12]. In their dataset of 45 countries, they found that financial development facilitates economic growth through greater availability of external financing. For La Porta et al. [13], when outside investors finance firms, they face a risk that the returns on their investments will never materialize because the controlling shareholders or managers expropriate them. Using investor protection as the starting point appears to be a more fruitful way to describe differences in corporate governance regimes across countries.

Finally, Malacrida and Yamamoto [7] analyzed the relationship between disclosure and stock price volatility of 42 firms listed at BM&FBovespa and indicated that the companies with better average accounting disclosure presented lower mean volatility levels.

Correlated studies on corporate governance rules

Gompers et al. [14] studied the relationship between shareholder rights and firm value by building a “governance index” of 24 governance rules. Their main data source was the IRRC (Investor Responsibility Research Center) for the period of 1990 until 1998. They found that firms with stronger shareholder rights had higher firm value, higher profits, and higher sales growth, lower capital expenditures and made fewer corporate acquisitions. They concluded that an investment strategy that bought firms in the lowest decile of the index (strongest rights) and sold firms in the highest decile of the index (weakest rights) would have earned abnormal returns of 8.5 percent per year during the sample period.

Using the ISS database (Institutional Shareholders Service) Chung et al. [15] selected 24 governance rules in six categories and found that firms with better corporate governance have narrower spreads, higher market quality index, smaller price impact of trades, and lower probability of information-based trading. Their conclusion was that firms may alleviate information-based trading and improve stock market liquidity by adopting corporate governance standards that mitigate informational asymmetries.

Larcker et al. [16] initially started in their model with 39 structural measures of corporate governance. Using exploratory principal component analysis, they identified the underlying dimensions or structures of corporate governance and determined which indicators are associated with each factor. This resulted in 14 factors or governance constructs, such as Board Variables, Stock Ownership Variables, Institutional Ownership Variables, Activist Variables, Debt Variables, Compensation Mix Variables and Anti-Takeover Variables. They found that their corporate governance constructs have some association with measures of managerial decision-making, firm performance and valuation.

Bebchuk et al. [17] put forward an entrenchment index based on six provisions: staggered boards, limits to shareholder bylaw amendments, poison pills, golden parachutes, and supermajority requirements for mergers and charter amendments. They found that increases in the index level are monotonically associated with economically significant reductions in firm valuation as well as large negative abnormal returns during the 1990-2003 period. Adding more provisions to an index is hardly bound to be beneficial, in this area less can be more. Shareholders and their advisers might do well to focus on those corporate governance provisions that really matter for firm value.

Comparing all the different set of corporate governance variables/rules utilized by the above authors, we found that only one governance rule is common between them, that is the

existence or no of poison pill for anti-takeover. Each study or paper tends to use a different set of corporate governance variables. The conclusion is that the integration across these studies becomes extremely difficult.

Since we were not able to harmonize a set of standard governance rules from these studies in order to build our own “proxy” framework, we took as reference a comparison of corporate governance codes relevant to European Union. In this study, Gregory [9] used 36 governance codes or rules, of which we selected 15 rules for our framework. These are the following:

1. Board Membership Criteria - the board is composed in such a manner that it is capable of handling its managerial tasks, and that it acts as a constructive and qualified sparring partner for the management at the same time.
2. Separation of Chairman and CEO - The positions of chief executive officer and chairman of the board should preferably be distinct.
3. Lead Director - If the chairmanship of these governing bodies is entrusted to the same person, it is necessary to ensure that there are one or more prominent individuals on the Board of Directors who can form a counter-balance to the influence of the chairman.
4. Board Size - It is important that the board has a size which allows for a constructive debate and an efficient decision process, in which it is possible for all the directors to play an active part.
5. Mix of Inside and Outside Directors - Boards should consider assigning a sufficient number of non-executive board members capable of exercising independent judgment to tasks where there is a potential for conflict of interest.
6. Term Limits - It is recommended that directors are elected to the board for a defined period.
7. Executive Sessions of Outside Directors – the Supervisory Board meets at times for one sitting per year without the Management Board.
8. Number of Committees - The forming of working groups (“committees”) from the external members should be discussed at least by the Boards of Directors of listed companies. Such working groups would be, e.g., the Auditing Committee and the Nomination and Remuneration Committee of the top management.
9. Committees Structure – Refers to the number of members in each committee.
10. Independence of the Committees - If there is an appointment committee, it should be composed mostly of non-executive directors and chaired by the Chairman of the Board of Directors or by a non-executive director.
11. Formal Evaluation of the CEO - The remuneration committee is expected to select appropriate performance measures for evaluating and remunerating the CEO and other executive directors, and satisfy itself that relevant performance measures have been fully met.
12. Executive Compensation - The remuneration committee is expected to select appropriate performance measures for evaluating and remunerating the CEO and other executive directors, and satisfy itself that relevant performance measures have been fully met.
13. Content and Character of Disclosure - Disclosure should include, but not be limited to, material information on:
 14. Major share ownership.
 15. Members of the board and key executives and their remuneration.
 16. Governance structures and policies.
17. Shareholder Voting Practices - The principle of “one share, one vote” is the basis of the right to vote. Shareholders should have the right to vote at general meetings in proportion to the issued shareholder capital.

18. Anti-Takeover Devices - Shareholders have the right to participate in, and to be sufficiently informed on extraordinary transactions that in effect result in the sale of the company.

METHODOLOGY

This is a descriptive analysis because it intends to describe the differences among the corporate governance rules of several Stock Exchange SE around the world. The study was based on corporate governance rules documents of Stock Exchange from BM&FBovespa [18], New York Stock Exchange [19], German Government Commission [20], Tokyo Stock Exchange [21], Financial Reporting Council [22] and Ontario Securities Commission [23]. These documents were downloaded from their respective websites.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The results can be seen in appendix 1. The names of the Stock Exchanges were shortened to TSE for Tokyo, NYSE for New York, NM for BM&FBOVESPA, Frankfurt for Frankfurt Stock Exchange, TSX for Toronto and London for London Stock Exchange.

We can notice that TSX has the lowest corporate governance standard compared to other five SE because its document does not provide description in 12 rules out of 15. On the other extreme, we find London with the highest corporate governance standard with detailed description in 11 rules. Regarding governance rules, one of them (lead director) displayed no description in all the six SE. Finally, two rules (mix of inside and outside directors and Content and Character of Disclosure) have detailed description in four SE.

Characteristics of New York Stock Exchange, NYSE

The basic framework of NYSE governance rules is driven to the objective of maximizing shareholders' wealth and protecting their interests. Reaz and Hossain [1] also share this view in his study. Dempsey [24] states that NYSE regime emphasizes the rights of shareholders to vote on major company decisions and to elect a board of directors.

NYSE provides specific corporate governance rules and practices that listed companies must follow despite they follow regulations and other guidance promulgated by the SEC (Securities Exchange Committee). US companies listed on NYSE must comply with a broad range of corporate governance rules. Some of these rules require that a company maintains at least three committees, being the audit committee, a corporate governance and a compensation committee, each consisting of independent directors.

This requirement of at least 3 committees balances the relative freedom that companies may have to constitute the Board of Directors and ensures to shareholders a proper supervision of the activities performed by the company. In the rule Mix of inside and outside directors, NYSE requires that majority of directors be independent or outsiders, however the company has relative freedom to compose the number of inside and outside directors. Nevertheless, some big companies adopt more rigid standards, such as Wal-Mart, Coca Cola and JP Morgan that have only one inside director. This attitude gives more credit to their actions making the company attractive to investors.

The Board of Directors is elected by the shareholders and is responsible for setting the direction and policy of the company as well as appointing its management. Regarding its size, NYSE is not prescriptive leaving it to the company's choice. To illustrate, Procter & Gamble has

nine members, JP Morgan has eleven members while Wal-Mart and Coca Cola have 15 members.

Other similar characteristic is in the rule Separation of Chairman and Chief Executive Officer CEO where NYSE does not have such demand. This practice, if misconducted, may limit the Board's power and centralize it in the hands of one person. Coca Cola, JP Morgan and Procter & Gamble have same executive for both positions, but JP Morgan has an independent Lead Director, which makes the power more balanced in some controversial issues.

In another governance rule, Executive sessions of independent directors, NYSE requires an annual regularly scheduled board meeting at which only independent and/or non-executive directors are present. Finally, the compensation committee reviews and approves the formal evaluation of the CEO as well as determines the compensation of all directors of the Board. The companies should disclose their director's compensation in a statement of form filed by the company with the SEC.

Characteristics of Novo Mercado, NM (Brazilian Stock Exchange)

Novo Mercado Corporate Governance Equity Index is a portfolio composed of stocks of companies that have a good level of corporate governance and are listed on BM&FBovespa. Its initial listing is dated of 2002 and has on September 2014 around 90 companies listed with a market capitalization of US\$ 344, 5 billion. Brazil, as a developing country, seeks constantly investment, mainly foreign investment, into trade and industry. Corporate governance plays an important role in tapping investment by boosting investor's confidence, and this equity index is part of BM&FBovespa's strategy to attract local and foreign investors.

To be part of NM index, the companies' equity must be exclusively composed of ordinary shares, which makes this SE unique. This may allow a low ownership concentration, similar to what happens in US equity market. Another characteristic of NM, the companies listed in this index have to maintain minimum of 25% of shares free float and to publish their financial demonstrations in accordance to IFRS (International Financial Reporting Standards). To protect the minority shareholders, in the case of sale of company's control or as part of anti-takeover device (rule 15), they are entitled to a tag along of 100%, ie, they have the right to sell the shares at same price of the majority shareholders.

In the rule Mix of inside and outside directors in the Board, NM requires a minimum of 20% of independent directors. The majority of companies listed is following this rule. Cielo has 27%, Sonae Sierra has 25%, JSL with 40% and Fleury with 28%. Regarding Board size, NM demands minimum of five members. Cielo have eleven members, while Sonae Sierra has eight, JSL has five members and Fleury with 7 members, all of them have a term limit of two years maximum. Moreover, NM demands separation of Chairman of the Board and the CEO.

The Brazilian corporate governance did not show a high standard in comparison with NYSE or Frankfurt, but it has many characteristics of our proxy not covered by NYSE and Frankfurt. Like the prescription of a minimum Board Size and most important the mandatory Separation of Chairman and CEO.

Finally, we could not identify a clear characteristic of NM framework, like NYSE driven to the objective of maximizing shareholders' wealth or Frankfurt to protect the stakeholders. Nevertheless, as said initially, it has a high corporate governance standard and it serves the purpose to boost investor's confidence.

Characteristics of Frankfurt Stock Exchange

Frankfurt Stock Exchange is the only of the four Stock Exchange analyzed that has a Code of corporate governance, while the other three have a document containing rules for listing. Its code presents essential statutory regulations for the management and supervision of German listed companies [20]. A unique characteristic is the dual board system comprising a Management Board and a Supervisory Board. The Management Board is responsible for managing the company, the Supervisory Board appoints, supervises and advises the member of the Management Board and is directly involved in fundamental decisions of the company. The members of the Supervisory Board are elected by the shareholders, however the employees are also represented in this Board from one third to half of the members, depending the number of employees [20]. This concerning with employees is a characteristic of Frankfurt Stock Exchange, indeed, It's the only SE that set among Management Board responsibilities the diversity, of men and women, when filling managerial positions.

Frankfurt requires only two committees, being the audit and nominating. The chairman of the audit committee should not be a former member of the Management Board and members of the Nominating should be formed exclusively by shareholders representatives.

The Management Board shall be comprised of several members. However, looking the Board of Bayer, Allianz, Adidas and Siemens, they have less members than those companies in NYSE or TSE. Bayer and Adidas have 5 members, Siemens 7 and Allianz 11 members. This can be explained by the existence of a Supervisory Board working very closely with Management Board. Finally, one similar characteristic with NYSE and TSE is that there is no separation between Chairman of the Management Board and CEO. This is the practice in Adidas and Allianz, for instance.

German Government Commission [20] states its purpose is to promote the trust of International and national investors, customers, employees in the management and supervision of listed companies.

Characteristics of Tokyo Stock Exchange, TSE

Reaz and Hossain [1] states that the cultural dimension of the corporate governance and the family values drive the Japanese governance system. This fact might be the reason why crossholdings between financial and non-financial companies are the trademark of the Japanese ownership structure and thus, the ownership is widely dispersed.

Tokyo Stock Exchange [21] is not prescriptive, it lacks clarity in the description of the corporate governance rules. For instance, in the rule Number of Directors, this document shows the average number of persons per listed company and, yet, in 472 companies, there are more than 5 directors. Canon has 19 members, Softbank has 10 members, Sumitomo 15 members and Mizuho 13 members.

Regarding the number of independent directors in the Board, the average number is 1.02 outside director per company. However, the percentage of companies whose number of outside directors having a seat on the board of directors occupies more than one-third. This seems to be the case of Softbank with 3 independent directors and Mizuho with 6 outsiders. Canon and Sumitomo have only 2 independent members.

Companies with committees in TSE are required to establish 3 committees, being the nomination the largest (with average of 4.04 members), the compensation with 3.73 members

and audit committee with 3.71 members. As far as independence of committees is concerned, the majority of members must be outside directors.

Finally, the president chairs the Board of directors in 78.9% of TSE-listed companies followed by the company Chairman in 19.7% of the companies. Among the companies surveyed, only Sumitomo has this separation.

Tokyo Stock Exchange, has lower corporate governance standards; it fulfills 5 out of 15 governance rules. Despite this lack of prescription, the Tokyo Stock Exchange [21] mentions that there is growing awareness that the intrinsic purpose of corporate governance is to improve corporate value.

Characteristics of London Stock Exchange

London Stock Exchange, alongside with Frankfurt Stock Exchange, counts with a Corporate Governance Code, but it is the only SE that shares its code with other countries of United Kingdom, because it is UK Corporate Governance Code.

The Management Board of London SE is the only SE that has a Board Membership criteria. It says is "Based on Merit", although not specific, but it is still the only document that shows this concern.

Board Size is not very prescriptive since it determines a "sufficient" size. We took few cases from FTSE 100, and we found that board of Capita has 10 members, Pearson 10 members and Diageo 9 members, the average is 9.7 members. In comparison with others, the NYSE average is 12.5, NM is 7.25, Frankfurt is 7 and Tokyo is 14.3 members. It shows that even with the lack of prescription, the companies opted for a mean number of members.

It is important to point out that some important governance rules are not covered by the other Stock Exchanges. One rule is Separation of Chairman and CEO that, as said before, should be avoided because concentrates too much power in one person. Even so, only NM and London state that chairman and CEO should not be the same person. A second rule is the existence of outside directors on the board, London SE determines that the chairman should be independent but NYSE is a step forward and states that the majority of the board should be of outside directors. Third and last rule, Board Size should have an appropriate size, it is not easy (if possible) to set a range applicable to all companies, but London lacks prescription when determining a "sufficient" size. NM goes a step forward and set that the minimum number of directors on the board should be 5. In our sample, the average is higher than 5, however every company should have a board that is capable to comply with its duties.

London SE determine that listed companies should have at least Audit, Nominating and Remuneration committees, Frankfurt SE follows a similar policy, determining the existence of two specific committees. Frankfurt and London are not the only Stock Exchanges that set a minimum number of committees, NYSE and TSE also does but they do not specify what committees should exist.

London SE not only showed the highest standard in comparison with all other Stock Exchanges fulfilling 11 out of 14 rules, but also states that the listing company should consider the gender equilibrium on the managerial positions. Toronto SE and Frankfurt SE also have this concern.

Characteristics of Toronto Stock Exchange, TSX

Toronto Stock Exchange shows to be an interesting case. It has the lowest standards according to our study. Indeed it complies only with items related to disclosures, because the document

with corporate governance rules (TSX does not have a Code of Corporate Governance) does not require companies to follow specific rules, it requires the companies to disclose the reasons for such. For example regarding Separation of Chairman and CEO, TSX does not require separation but is mandatory the disclosure when the chairman is the CEO and the reasons for that. This gives company much more freedom than the other systems, but with mandatory disclosures to keep transparency.

As we did with others SE, we took few cases of Toronto SE and looked at the size of the Board of Directors. Altaris Royalty board has 7 members, AltaGas has 9 members, ATS Automation has 7 members and Badger Daylighting has 5 members. The average is 7 members, which is very close from the average of NM and Frankfurt. Both of them comply with the item Board Size. We can, then, infer that in this case the mandatory disclosure of TSX and the board size requirements of Frankfurt and NM had the same effect in companies' policies.

After analyzing the TSX corporate governance structure, one important option appeared for SE when developing corporate governance system. If companies listed in this SE are not mature enough to handle prescriptive rules, the mandatory disclosure can be a suitable option that will not only make company's policies more transparent but also make companies adopt higher governance standards to become more interesting to investor.

CONCLUSION

As more and more companies do business around the world with their counterparts and governments, it becomes increasingly important to understand the similarities and differences between the corporate governance rules and practices in some Stock Exchange around the world. The state of companies' corporate governance practices and rules has changed dramatically worldwide after the financial crisis in 2008.

We hope that this study allows listed companies to gain an understanding of the state of progress of corporate governance around the world and contributes to have a more efficient corporate governance system. Ultimately, this will result in continuously making profits from business activities and enhancing corporate value.

The discussion on international rules of corporate governance clearly indicates that there is no single framework followed around the world. Reaz and Hossain [1] also claims that there is no single governance style which may be followed in the context of different countries. The main differences and similarities are summarized in appendix 1. Each Stock Exchange has unique characteristics but none of them showed rigid rules, London complied with more items of our proxy but many of them are not prescriptive. On the other hand, NM has the most prescriptive rules but did not cover many items, the others SE are less prescriptive than NM or less compliant than London, thus all Stock Exchanges have areas of development. There are clearly governance differences much more attribute to cultural and country wise dimensions. A comparative picture of the corporate governance scenarios in these six SE researched has the purpose to identifying potential problem areas.

A suggestion for future work is to expand this sample to cover other Stock Exchanges and gain a more thorough understanding of the corporate governance rules and standards.

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APPENDIX 1

Governance Rules	TSE	NYSE	NM	Frankfurt	London	TSX
Board Membership Criteria	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered	Based on Merit	Not Covered
Separation of Chairman and CEO	Not Covered	Not Covered	Mandatory	Not Covered	Mandatory	Not Covered
Lead Director	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not applicable because separation of Chairman and CEO is mandatory	Not Covered	Not applicable because separation of Chairman and CEO is mandatory	Not Covered
Board Size	Not Covered	Not Covered	At least 5	Several members	Sufficient	Not Covered
Mix of Inside and Outside Directors	At least one outsider	Majority outsiders	At least 20% outsiders	Not Covered	Chairman should be independent	Not Covered
Term Limits	1 year	Not Covered	2 years	Not Covered	1 year	Not Covered
Executive Sessions of outside Directors	Not Covered	Once a year	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered
Number of Committees	3	3	Not Covered	Audit, Nominating	Audit, Nominating, Remuneration	Not Covered
Committee Structure	At least 3	Audit: At least 3, Others: Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered	Audit: 3, Remuneration: 3, Nominating: Not Covered	Not Covered
Independence of Committees	Majority outsiders	Entirely outsiders	Not Covered	Audit: Independent Chair Nominating: Exclusively shareholders representatives	Audit: Entirely independent, Remuneration: Entirely independent, Nominating: Majority independent	Not Covered
Formal Evaluation of CEO	Not Covered	Compensation committee review and approve	Not Covered	Not Covered	Remuneration committee recommendations	Disclosed
Executive Compensation	Not Covered	Compensation committee recommendations	Not Covered	Not Covered	Remuneration committee recommendations	Disclosed
Content and Character of Disclosure	Not Covered	Comply with items b) and c)	Not Covered	Comply with items a) and b)	Comply with item c)	Comply with item b) and c)

Shareholders voting practices	Not Covered	Not Covered	Not Covered	Each share carries one vote	Not Covered	Not Covered
Anti-Takeover Devices	Not Covered	Not Covered	Tag-Along	Management Board and Supervisory Board, must submit a statement of their reasoned position so that the shareholders can make an informed decision on the offer.	Not Covered	Not Covered



Differences in Language Policies of Chinese-inhabited Southeast Asian Countries

Kristína Kironská

Institute of China and Asia-Pacific Studies
National Sun Yat-sen University

ABSTRACT

Language is a tool that governments use to create national identity. Language policies are not static and with the impact of several factors can shift over time. With the influx of new immigrants, both the ethnic and linguistic structures of countries change, as had been the case with the Chinese immigrants who arrived in Southeast Asia in two big waves, in the 15th/16th and later in the 19th/20th century and made it their new home. Today, some 30 million overseas Chinese live in Southeast Asia, most prominently in Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, and in Vietnam. Some of these countries pursue monolingual policies, while others have opted for multilingualism. This article explains the differences in regard of the presence or absence of the Chinese language in the language policies of Southeast Asian countries with a substantial Chinese minority. First of all, authoritarian regimes are generally associated with less minority language recognition, and thus the Chinese language is less likely to be included in the official language apparatus in a dictatorship. Second, if the Chinese minority is included in the government, it is more likely that the Chinese language be either one of the official languages, or one of the languages of instruction, or both. And third, the bigger and more coherent the Chinese minority, the bigger the chance of the Chinese language being part of the national language policy. The author has identified three variables that influence the Chinese language participation in the language policy of a country, namely the country's regime type, the size and cohesion of the Chinese minority living in that country, and the Chinese minority's access to the national government. The approach used in this article is both descriptive and analytical, and offers a comparative review of the language policy structures of various countries throughout Southeast Asia in regard of the Chinese language.

KEY WORDS: Southeast Asia, language policy, the Chinese language

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Kristina Kironska was born in Slovakia in 1984 to a multilingual family. She studied International Relations in Slovakia and Portugal. In 2008, she moved to Taiwan, where she completed a Master degree in China and Asia-Pacific Studies. Currently, she is pursuing her PhD degree at the College of Social Sciences of the National Sun Yat-sen University in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. She can be reached at: k.kironska@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Today, over 30 million Chinese (excluding the offspring of mixed ethnicity) live in Southeast Asia, (see Table 1). The Chinese population makes up around 5% of the Southeast Asian population, but controls around 60% of local Southeast Asian industry, trade, and commerce (McVey, 1992) The term Chinese refers strictly to ethnic origin (and throughout this paper is considered a synonym with overseas Chinese and ethnic Chinese), not nationality.

TABLE 1: AMOUNT OF ETHNIC CHINESE IN SOUTHEAST ASIA (2012)

Country	Chinese population
Indonesia	8 120 000
Thailand	7 510 000
Malaysia	6 780 000
Singapore	2 830 000
Philippines	1 410 000
Myanmar	1 060 000
Vietnam	1 000 000
Laos	150 000
Cambodia	120 000
Brunei	40 000

Source: Statistics: Overseas Chinese Population, Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C. (modified by the author). Retrieved on 25 January 2014 from <http://www.ocac.gov.tw/english/public/public.asp?selno=8889&no=8889&level=B>

The Chinese arrived to Southeast Asia as immigrants in two major waves: the first wave (late 15th – 16th century) was characterized by Chinese men who traveled mainly from Fujian province, spoke Hokkienese, and married local women, by contrast, the Chinese in the second wave (late 19th – early 20th century) came from a variety of provinces in China, and spoke various dialects of Chinese (Liu, 2012).

Some countries, where overseas Chinese settled down and made them their homes, took their presence into account and have pursued policies of multiculturalism and multiracialism together with bi- or multilingualism, while others have opted for hardline assimilation policies and monolingualism. According to Liu and Ricks, language policy is a symptom of ethnic relations, and thus results from the situation in the country (Liu, 2010). On the other hand, language choices made by decision-makers have major impacts on society. They can facilitate societal integration or foster pluralistic coexistence, but also aggravate interethnic conflict if they are not chosen wisely (Weinstein, 1990). Mishandling of language policies could significantly contribute to war eruption, as was the case in Sri Lanka (Brown, 2003).

Many countries favor policies that reduce the number of languages spoken, because it is believed that societal differences are dangerous and linguistic diversity is an obstacle to nation-building (Rappa, 2006). Although ethno-linguistic diversity can be a source of conflict, language issues are rarely the sole driving force. In Southeast Asia ethno-linguistic diversity is widespread, and so are ethnic conflicts, but problems leading to conflicts have never originated from language differences. In many Southeast Asian countries overseas Chinese were discriminated, persecuted, or even killed, because their communities, not their languages, were seen as a threat. They are often described as the “Jews of the East” because of their business capabilities. Conflicts between ethnic groups, however, often have a language component, since language issues are deeply entwined with political, economic, and other social issues. Groups that are discriminated against politically are often discriminated against also linguistically, as in case of the overseas Chinese (Brown, 2003).

This article attempts to explain the extent of participation and the differences in regard of the presence or absence of the Chinese language in the language policies of Southeast Asian countries with a substantial Chinese minority: Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Vietnam, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand; all countries with over one million of ethnic Chinese.

The approach used in this article is both descriptive and analytical, and offers a comparative review of the language policy structures of various countries throughout Southeast Asia in regard of the Chinese language. More concretely, the author examines the impact of four independent variables, namely the size of the Chinese minority (big vs. small), the extent of the ethnic Chinese' access and participation in the government and politics (included vs. excluded), the type of governance (democratic vs. undemocratic), and the extent of assimilation in terms of language (hardline vs. moderate policies) on the Chinese language participation in the language policies (dependent variable) of Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam (see Table 2). The Chinese language can be reflected in the language policy as both one of the official languages and one of the languages of instruction; as one of the languages of instruction, but not official languages; or neither. It is important to note here that the terms official language and national language are not synonyms. The former is used by the government for administrative purposes and the latter is spoken by a large number of people in that country.

TABLE 2: DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
<p>the size of the Chinese minority</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • big • small
<p>the extent of the ethnic Chinese' participation in the government and politics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • included • excluded
<p>the type of governance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • democratic • undemocratic
<p>the extent of assimilation in terms of language</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hardline • moderate
DEPENDENT VARIABLE
<p>the Chinese language participation in the language policy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • one of the official languages + one of the languages of education • one of the languages of education, but not the official language • neither official, nor a language in education

The author argues the following few points. First of all, the bigger the Chinese minority, the bigger the chance of the Chinese language being part of the national language policy. Unfortunately, in many countries reliable data on their populations are not available; for example in Myanmar the last census took place in 1983. For purposes of consistency, data on overseas Chinese were drawn from the Factbook and the Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C. from the year 2012. It is important to note that overseas Chinese originate from various regions of China and very often speak unintelligible dialects of Chinese. This may cause a fragmentation of the Chinese community, no matter how big the allover number. The sense of belonging to one Chinese community by the ethnic Chinese may thus be subject to another research. Second, if the ethnic Chinese are included in the government apparatus, it is more

likely for the Chinese language to be either one of the official languages, or one of the languages of instruction, or both. Because the number of Chinese speakers does not equal the number of ethnic Chinese, this point is very hard to measure. In Thailand, for example, there are many ethnic Chinese politicians who do not speak a word of Chinese. Third, authoritarian regimes are generally associated with less minority language recognition, and thus the Chinese language is less likely to be included in the official language apparatus of an undemocratic regime. And fourth, the harsher the assimilation policies of a country are, the less likely it is for the Chinese language to be part of the official language apparatus.

Brown and Ganguly distinguish between countries that have unipolar, bipolar, and multipolar ethno-linguistic settings. They define a unipolar ethno-linguistic setting as one with one group comprising 90% or more of the total population, such as the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam. In a bipolar setting two groups comprise 90%, such as Malaysia and Singapore. In a multipolar setting no groups taken together comprise 90% of the population, for example Myanmar and Indonesia (see Table 3) (Brown, 2003). Countries with unipolar ethno-linguistic settings are more prone to mistreat minorities than bipolar and multipolar countries.

TABLE 3: ETHNO-LINGUISTIC SETTINGS

Country	Ethno-linguistic setting
Indonesia	Multipolar
Malaysia	Bipolar
Myanmar	Multipolar
Philippines	Unipolar
Singapore	Bipolar
Thailand	Unipolar
Vietnam	Unipolar

Language policies are not static and can shift over time. As for now, Singapore follows since 1957 a language policy of complete multilingualism (4 official languages and 4 in the education system); Malaysia since 1971 incomplete monolingualism (1 official and 3 in education); the Philippines since 1987 incomplete monolingualism (1 official and 2 in education); and Indonesia since 1986, Myanmar since 1948, Vietnam since 1954 and Thailand since 1938 complete monolingualism (see Table 4) (Liu, 2012).

TABLE 4: LANGUAGE POLICY BY COUNTRY

Country	Language policy	Official languages	Languages in the education system
Indonesia	complete monolingual	Bahasa Indonesia	Bahasa Indonesia
Malaysia	incomplete monolingual	Malay	Malay, Chinese, English
Myanmar	complete monolingual	Burmese	Burmese
Philippines	incomplete monolingual	Filipino	English, Filipino
Singapore	complete multilingual	Chinese, English, Tamil, Malay	Chinese, English, Tamil, Malay
Thailand	complete monolingual	Thai	Thai
Vietnam	complete monolingual	Vietnamese	Vietnamese

The next section gives a more detailed account of specifics on language policy developments in each of the eight countries considered in this research in alphabetical order.

CHINESE IN INDONESIA

The Republic of Indonesia with its population of more than 240 million people, spread over hundreds of islands, is one of the most populous countries in the world. There are more than 300 ethnic groups and more than 250 languages spoken in Indonesia (Hartanto, 2013). The country experienced ethnic conflicts, but little violence around language issues (Rappa, 2006). Since 1986, the official language has been Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia), a modified version of Malay. It is also the language of instruction in schools. Although most Indonesians speak local languages, such as Javanese, as their first language, Indonesia only recognizes a single official language. Other languages are recognized neither at national level nor regional level. In the 2006, the notion of the local content subject in elementary schools was loosely defined, but strangely many elementary schools throughout Indonesia opted for English rather than ethnic languages of the region (Chaedar Alwasilah, 2013).

Chinese Indonesians or orang Tionghoa, originated from various Chinese ethnic groups from the Fujian and Guangdong provinces in southern China. Four major Chinese dialects are spoken in Indonesia: Mandarin, Hokkienese, Hakka, and Cantonese. According to Indonesia's 2000 census there were over 1.7 million self-identified ethnic Chinese (0.9% of the country's population), mostly living in Java (Indonesia: Population and Administrative Divisions, 2003). This figure is wildly under-reported since many Chinese are reluctant of identifying themselves ethnically and the offspring of mixed ethnicity does not consider itself as ethnic Chinese. This may have resulted from the deep-rooted discrimination against ethnic Chinese in Indonesia. According to the Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C., there are eight million Chinese living in Indonesia (Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C., 2012).

In the early 17th century, when the Dutch arrived, settlements of Chinese traders and merchants already existed along the coast of Java. Their population grew rapidly during the colonial period because initially the Dutch contracted Chinese workers for the purpose of building and expanding of the capital of the Dutch East Indies. Following the 1740 Batavia massacre, however, the Dutch placed a quota on the number of Chinese who could enter the Dutch colony. The Chinese were perceived as temporary residents and citizenship was only conferred upon them in the 1946 Citizenship Act after Indonesia became independent. Ethnic Chinese born on Indonesian soil during the colonial period were regarded by the newly independent state (*jus soli*) as Indonesian citizens, while and at the same time by China (*jus sanguinis*) as Chinese citizens. This issue was solved by the Dual Nationality Treaty, signed in 1955 by both Indonesia and China. Those who wished to remain Indonesian citizens were allowed to renounce Chinese citizenship; 390,000 decided to do so, and another 60,000 decided to leave (Purdey, 2006). Following the anti-communist violence in the 1960s, many of the Chinese, who originally decided to stay, left Indonesia.

Ethnic Chinese communities in Indonesia were attacked several times by various groups throughout history. After introduction of soft-authoritarian rule in 1959, restrictions were placed on the non-indigenous population in order to boost indigenous businesses, and following protests, ethnic Chinese communities in West Java were attacked. A few years later some 500,000 people, including many Chinese, were killed in an anti-communist purge following a failed coup d'état suspected as being communist-led. The elimination of the Indonesian Communist Party was pivotal in the transition to the "New Order" and Suharto's rule. General Suharto introduced the Pancasila ideology (five inseparable and interrelated principles) along with several policies banning any expression of Chinese culture or traditions, and requiring the adoption of Indonesian names. Mandarin-language press and writings were severely limited and Chinese schools banned altogether. Anti-Chinese riots broke out again in

the 1990s, and were followed by another wave of emigration of ethnic Chinese. Several communities have emerged in the second half of the 20th century in Western countries. However, they identify more with Indonesia than their Chinese heritage (Ling, 2008).

The new reform government following Suharto's resignation in 1998 has gradually introduced major reforms and attempted to attract Chinese Indonesians who had fled the country to come back. This was part of the effort to build up the badly destroyed economy since the Chinese have been believed to dominate the business sector (Purdey, 2006). Also, the ban on Chinese schools and the practice of Chinese traditions was lifted and Chinese is now being taught in many schools. Since 2002, the Chinese New Year is marked as a national holiday and since 2006, Chinese Indonesians are even eligible to run for president (Suryadinata, 2008). However, they remain politically weak with only few representatives in national politics. During Megawati's term as president, one of the coordinating ministers was an ethnic Chinese, and in President Susilo's cabinet, one of the ministers was a female ethnic Chinese.

CHINESE IN MALAYSIA

The Federation of Malaysia is a multiracial country with a population of a little less than 30 million and three major ethno-linguistic groups: Malays, Chinese and Indians. Ethnic Malays comprise almost 60% of the population, while Chinese make up a quarter of the population, and Eurasians and Indians make up the remaining 7.5% (Rappa, 2006). Although there are many ethno-linguistic groups in Malaysia and English is widespread in law, trade, commerce, and education, Malay, from the Malayo-Polynesian language family, is the official language of Malaysia and is enshrined in the Malaysian constitution.

As of 2010, almost seven million people in Malaysia self-identified as Chinese. This figure excludes their offspring of mixed ethnicity (Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C., 2012). The Chinese Malaysians speak a variety of dialects, mainly Hokkienese (35%), Hakka (24%), Cantonese (18%), Teochow (11%), and a few others, such as Hainanese and Hokchiu (Hing, 2000).

Chinese immigration to Malaysia started as early as the 15th century when the Sultan from Malacca married a Chinese princess who was accompanied by several hundred Chinese. More Chinese arrived after the Fujian massacre in the 1650s. The late 19th century and early 20th century saw the biggest wave of Chinese immigration, mainly from the British controlled areas of Fujian and Guangdong provinces, to work in tin mines and rubber plantations. The latest wave of Chinese immigration took place in the 1990s, although much smaller than the previous ones.

With the transition from being temporary immigrants to a more permanent community at the turn of the 19th century, the Chinese established their first schools in Penang, Malacca, and Singapore (Palanca, 2002). Chinese schools at that time were recognized by China as an integral part of its education system and after 1911 supervised by the Kuomintang party from Nanjing. After violent anti-Japanese demonstrations in 1919 by ethnic Chinese in Malaya, the British colonial government required Chinese schools to register with the Education Department and examined textbooks for Kuomintang propaganda (Palanca, 2002).

The first Chinese women arrived in Malaysia in the 20th century and the ratio increased from approximately 1 to 5 in the first years of the 20th century, from 1 to 3 in the 1930s, and became more or less balanced in the 1960s (Lee, 2000). The proportion of the Chinese population born in Malaysia increased dramatically since then. Today, they make up a highly

disproportionate percentage of Malaysia's professional and educated class and control an estimated 70% of the Malaysian economy (Chua, 2003).

During the decolonization period the ethnic Chinese closed ranks with the Malays in demanding independence. The major Chinese political party, the Malaysian Chinese Association, was part of the Alliance Party (from 1973 the National Front), which became the ruling party when Malaya became independent. Since then there have always been a few cabinet ministries headed by ethnic Chinese (Palanca, 2002).

Soon after attaining independence, the cleavages between the Malays and the Chinese resulted in racial riots followed by the authoritarian implementation of the New Economic Policy and the start of Tun Razak's rule. He dissolved the parliament and Malaysia was governed by an authoritarian executive council. He wanted to equalize opportunities for all people and lessen the gap between them by distinguishing between the bumiputras (indigenous Malay) and non-bumiputras and creating a quota system for employment and education opportunities for the Malays. This policy of open discrimination is to this day still being implemented (Rappa, 2006).

Chinese as a medium of instruction has been allowed within the national primary school system, but not for secondary schools. Ethnic group secondary schools were converted after independence to standard-type secondary schools, where teaching of the Chinese and Indian languages was allowed if there was a demand from at least 15 students. The government, however, does not allow establishing more such schools and the number has been the same since the 1960s (Palanca, 2002). Moreover, since the implementation of the National Language policy in 1977 all secondary schools have to use Malay as medium of instruction. Before, both Malay and English could be used. There is an exception, high schools with Mandarin as medium of instruction, but these are not part of the national education system and receive no subsidy. Graduates from such schools cannot enter regular Malaysian universities and have to enroll in private colleges supported by foreign institutions that grant the degrees, or study overseas (Palanca, 2002). In 2002, a proper Chinese university (Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman) was launched, and Chinese Malaysians do not have to go abroad anymore if they wish to study in Chinese (Rappa, 2006).

CHINESE IN MYANMAR

The Union of Myanmar is comprised of over 100 ethno-linguistic groups with their own languages and dialects divided into eight major distinctive ethnic groups. Apart from the indigenous national languages, a significant number of Chinese and Indians are living in Myanmar. The Chinese population, excluding those of mixed background, with over 1 million people comprises about 3% of the total population of 5 million (The World Factbook: Burma, 2013). The actual figure is believed to be much higher. Many Chinese have registered themselves as ethnic Bamar to escape discrimination. Moreover, an estimate of two million illegal Chinese immigrants has flooded the country since the 1990s (Rieffel, 2010). In 2015, results of the 2014 census will be released, until then the only numbers available are census results from 1983.

Chinese traders traveled as far as the former capital city, Yangon, early on, but they only settled down there in the 19th century when the British colonial administration encouraged immigration to the region. New opportunities and enterprises attracted many Chinese. Because they were of Sino-Tibetan origin, the same as the Bamar, and were Buddhists, they integrated well into Burmese society.

From 1935 until the end of British rule, the Chinese were represented in the colonial legislature, the House of Representatives (Vandenbosch, 1947). During this period, there was also a sharp rise in the number of private Chinese language schools, primarily teaching Mandarin Chinese, in Burma, from 65 in 1935 to 259 in 1953 and 259 at its peak in 1962 (Murray, 2009).

In 1948, Burma emerged as an independent democratic nation. Independent Burma was one of the first countries to recognize the People's Republic of China as a nation. However, Burmese Chinese were treated by the post-independence government as aliens and were issued foreign registration cards in a tiered citizenship system. Many more Chinese fled to Burma when the Chinese Communists expelled the Kuomintang. Although, the Burmese government fought and removed the armed Kuomintang (they left for Taiwan), anti-Chinese riots continued throughout the 1970s.

Following the Socialist coup d'état in 1962 led by Ne Win, Burma entered a period of military dictatorship. Under the "Burmese Way to Socialism" all major industries were nationalized and foreigners, including the non-citizen Chinese, were not allowed to own land, send remittances, get business licenses and practice medicine (Murray, 2009). The 1982 Citizenship Law further restricted citizenship for Burmese Chinese. This severely limited them from attending professional tertiary schools (especially those without full citizenship and those holding foreign registration cards). Moreover, Chinese-language schools in Burma were banned. Such policies led to the decline of Mandarin speakers, as well as the beginnings of a major exodus of Burmese Chinese to other countries. Although the number of Chinese schools is growing again today because of the importance of Mandarin Chinese, many wealthy Burmese Chinese send their children nowadays overseas for advanced studies.

After independence, Burma chose the Burmese language as its official language and the medium of instruction at all public schools throughout the country. The Burmese language is spoken by about 69% of the population. There are many ethnic languages (belonging to the Austro-Asiatic, Malay-Polynesian, Sino-Tibetan, or Tai language families); among them top language groups are Shan 8.5%, Karen 6.2%, Rakhaing 4.5%, Mon 2.4%, Chin 2.2%, and Kachin 1.4%, according to 1983 census (Lwin, 2011). The Burmese language became compulsory in education. Indigenous minority language teaching was allowed in schools until 1962. From 1962 to 2010, successive governments have sought to Burmanize and assimilate other groups in the name of national unity and forbid teaching minority languages at schools. That remains the case until today. The newest 2008 Constitution states that the Burmese language is the official language and does not recognize indigenous national languages as official languages in their states. However, some of these indigenous languages, such as the Kachin, Karen, and Shan languages, have been used as medium of instruction at schools run by the respective minority dissident groups. The English language is a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools. In 2011, the Upper House of the parliament passed a Private School Bill, which permits the opening and operating of secondary schools, and the teaching of ethnic languages. It allows ethnic groups to teach their language as an additional subject in private schools. However, the Bill does not allow opening and operating at primary school level (Lwin, 2011).

CHINESE IN THE PHILIPPINES

The population of the Republic of the Philippines is, as a result of several-centuries-long foreign rule, one of mixed races with Spanish, Chinese, American and other heritages. The unmixed Chinese population comprises less than 2% of the total population of over 105 million, but there are significantly more Chinese Filipinos with Chinese ancestry.

The country has been unified into its present form during the Spanish colonization era that lasted for more than three centuries. After the Spanish-American War, control of the Philippines was transferred to the US. During World War II, it was occupied by Japan, and after war emerged as an independent nation. Corruption and nepotism, as well as civil unrest, characterized the following decades, especially under Ferdinand Marcos. In 1986, the peaceful People Power Revolution ousted the corrupt dictator and returned the country to democracy.

Due to the separation of communities from one another by sea and mountain, various ethnicities and languages have emerged in different parts of the country. There are over 70 ethnic groups and migrant populations, and over 170 languages that are spread throughout the islands. Most of the languages are indigenous languages that belong to the Western Malayo-Polynesian subfamily of languages, except for three foreign languages: English, Spanish, and Hokkienese (Castro, 2011). Although there is a substantial Chinese minority in the Philippines, Mandarin is not widespread.

Chinese traders from Fujian had visited the Philippine islands long before the arrival of the Spanish. However, their interaction with the local Filipinos was generally limited to economic and trading issues. During the American colonial period, Americans restricted Chinese migration to the Philippines to prevent migrants from moving to the US with the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 (Williams, 2004). During this time, thousands of Chinese from Fujian migrated with the help of other Chinese Filipinos to the Philippines to avoid the worsening situation in China. The majority of today's unmixed Chinese Filipinos stems from this era. (Weightman, 1960). It was during this time that more Chinese women started migrating to the Philippines. In 1903, the census showed a female-male ratio of 13 to 1000, which grew to 43 to 57 in 1960s, and became balanced only in the 1970s (Palanca, 2002). Once the Chinese became a settled community, they established schools, which China considered an integral part of its education system and cultivated Chinese national consciousness in their students. After the World War II the number of Chinese schools in the Philippines increased from 58 in 1935 to 150 in 1970 (Hsiao, 1998).

Fighting a common enemy, the Japanese, in the World War II moved the ethnic Chinese migrants and the indigenous Filipinos to unification (although the Chinese never played a major role), and the Chinese Filipino started to regard the Philippines as their home. After the Philippines gained independence in 1946, the new government introduced policies favoring natural born Filipinos over naturalized Filipinos, and thus limited Chinese economic opportunities. A few years later, the 1973 Constitution prohibited alien schools, and so primary and secondary Chinese schools, which were until then governed by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of China, were transferred under the jurisdiction of the Philippine government and ordered to limit Mandarin, history, and culture subjects to two hours per day (Palanca, 2002). In 1975, President Marcos relaxed the naturalization policy and many Chinese were able to become Philippine citizens. However, only very few could afford the cost and were willing to go through the process of acquiring citizenship (Palanca, 2002).

Today, Chinese Filipinos are known as Tsinoy from the words Tsino for Chinese and Pinoy for Filipino. They have obtained citizenship and have no longer restriction in choice of residence or profession. Although there are some public figures with Chinese ancestry, such as President Corazon Aquino, President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo, and Manila Bishop Cardinal Sin, there are only few ethnic Chinese in government service (Chinatownology, 2007-13).

The 1987 Constitution established Filipino (before called Pilipino) the national language of the Philippines. For purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages are Filipino and English. The regional languages can be used as auxiliary languages in the first two grades (Espiritu, 2011).

It is very common to hear Chinese Filipinos mix Hokkienese, English and Tagalog in their everyday conversation. Using Chinese as a medium of instruction ended with the Filipinization process. Chinese schools continue to exist; they differ from Filipino schools only in that their students are ethnic Chinese. For most of these students Tagalog became their first language and they may have picked up some Hokkienese from their relatives; Mandarin is a foreign language to them (Palanca, 2002).

The Macapagal-Arroyo's administration has encouraged including Mandarin in the educational curriculum of colleges and universities in the Philippines as an elective language course to prepare the future workforce for the global arena (Rappa, 2006). In 2012, the Department of Education included Mandarin as one of five foreign languages that can be taught in public high schools in addition to English (the other four: Spanish, French, Japanese, and German) (Tort, 2013).

CHINESE IN SINGAPORE

The Republic of Singapore is an island country with a linguistically and ethnically diverse population of about 5.4 million. The government recognizes three major ethnic communities: Malay, Chinese (various Chinese dialect groups), and Indian (various Indian language groups). The Chinese community always was, and still is, the largest ethnic community in Singapore. The Chinese make up 74%, Malays 13%, and Indians 9% (Census of Population 2010).

Throughout history Singapore was part of various local empires until 1963 when it declared independence from the United Kingdom and together with other British territories formed Malaysia. Singapore became an independent city-state in 1965 after being ejected from the Federation of Malaysia due to political differences between the Singapore government and the central government over issues concerning the management of ethnic relations. Singapore's view was that granting of special rights would create more problems (Rappa, 2006). Instead, Singapore's leadership embraced a vision of a multiracial and multicultural society. Throughout Singapore's history as a sovereign state, its politics has been dominated by the People's Action Party and often described as a hybrid regime with both authoritarian and democratic features. Because Singapore has no natural resources, Malaysian politicians expected Singapore to fail within the first two years away from the Federation. Today, Singapore is described as one of the four Asian Tigers.

Chinese immigrants arrived to Singapore during the 19th century and early half of 20th century mostly from the southeastern coast of China in the provinces of Fujian, Guangdong and Hainan, and are typically known as 'native' Singaporean Chinese. The recent years saw Singapore experience another wave of migration from different parts of China.

Although the Chinese constitute the majority of the population, the leadership has accepted Malay language as the national language and English as the language administration. Although the government views linguistic diversity as a problem for nation-building, Singaporeans are encouraged to be bilingual in English and a mother tongue that is officially assigned to them on the basis of their father's ethnic identity. Three major official mother tongues are recognized: Mandarin, Malay, and Tamil (Rappa, 2006). English cannot be officially considered a mother tongue; it is the lingua franca for inter-ethnic communication. Altogether, there are, according

to the Independence Act (1965), four official languages in Singapore: Malay, Mandarin, Tamil and English. The language policy as a whole in Singapore is shaped by four main ideas. The first idea is the belief, similar to many other countries, that linguistic diversity is an obstacle to nation-building. The second idea is that respect and equal treatment of each ethnic group (each community has its own mother tongue) is the key to maintain harmony among Singapore's ethnically diverse population. The third idea acknowledges the important role of English in the world economy. The fourth idea is the ideology of pragmatism and the importance of solving crises that may occur along the way (Eisenstadt, 1973).

In the past, Chinese education, due to its close links with the Communist Party of Malaya, was associated with Chinese chauvinism and was thus minimized by the government. First Chinese schools were established in the 19th century. They used various southern Chinese languages, such as Hokkienese, as languages of instruction. In the 1920s, Chinese schools in Singapore, like in many other schools in Southeast Asia, changed its medium of instruction to Mandarin Chinese. In 1953, the first overseas Chinese-medium University in Singapore, Nanyang University, was established. Since the early 1980s, the government gradually abolished the Chinese-medium education system in Singapore. Today, the education system follows an English-knowing bilingualism, where students learn English as well as their mother tongue (taught as a second language). Since 1985, when the second deputy Prime Minister, Ong Teng Cheong, highlighted the economic importance of Mandarin, there is great emphasis on Chinese language learning (Rappa, 2006).

English is growing as the home language of many Chinese Singaporeans, making it difficult for them to learn Mandarin at the level that was originally demanded of them by the state. Also, the existence of so many mutually unintelligible Chinese dialects is problematic. There are six major dialects spoken in Singapore: Cantonese, Foochow, Hainanese, Hakka, Hokkienese, and Teochiu. This, like in all other Southeast Asian countries where Chinese reside, creates a fragmentation of the ethnic Chinese community. However, under the 1979 Speak Mandarin Campaign, Chinese in Singapore have increased their use of Mandarin in place of other Chinese dialects (Brown, 2003). In an attempt to make Chinese Singaporeans Mandarin-speaking in a short span of time, other Chinese dialects have been banned from the media. Despite the government's success in promoting the use of Mandarin, there is still at present a strong sense of attachment to the other Chinese dialects at the grassroots level.

Today, several Chinese associations are active in Singapore, mainly the Singapore Federation of Chinese Clans Association, which has mostly a cultural role; and the Singapore Chinese Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which looks after the business interests in the Chinese community. There are many other Chinese cultural and religious organizations active in Singapore, such as the Singapore Chinese Calligraphy Society, the Nanyang Confucian Association, and the Singapore Taoist Federation.

CHINESE IN THAILAND

The Kingdom of Thailand is a constitutional monarchy, headed by King Rama IX, who has reigned since 1946. The kingdom, formerly known as Siam, was founded in the late 18th century. It is the only country in Southeast Asia that has never been colonized by any European power. Thailand is both multilingual and multiethnic, with a population of over 65 million and with about 80 languages (Rappa, 2006). According to the 2010 Census, 95.9% of the population in Thailand is comprised of Thai nationals, and the rest is composed of Burmese, Laotian, Cambodian or Chinese (The 2010 Population and Housing Census). However, according to the Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C., in 2012 there were over seven

million ethnic Chinese living in Thailand, about 10% of the population. Other estimates are as high as nine million (CIA Factbook). Whatever the exact number, Thailand is home to one of the largest and best-integrated overseas Chinese communities in the world. The Thai Chinese have been deeply ingrained into the Thai society for the past 400 years. Even the founder of the present Thai royal family was partly Chinese. It has been estimated that about 20% of the Thai population has some form of Chinese ancestry (Smalley, 1994).

Although all Thais speak Thai, a homogeneous 'Thai people' is very much a social construct. Standard Thai, a language associated with the elites and Thai royalty, is the official language of Thailand and the primary medium of instruction in the school system. The official policy does not allow any other language to be used at school, though in the rural areas, teachers sometimes find they need to resort to the local language in order to proceed with the class (Rappa, 2006).

Chinese traders began arriving in Ayutthaya in the 13th century mostly from Fujian and Guangdong, and in the 18th century from Chaozhou. The Chinese community in Thailand grew from 230,000 in 1825 to 792,000 by 1910 (Stuart-Fox, 2003). Most of the Chinese immigrants came from Southern China, plagued by floods or drought. The most significant influx of Chinese into Thailand took place in the latter half of the 19th century, when large numbers of Chinese immigrants from China came over to work as laborers. A number of these immigrants stayed on. In the early stage of Chinese immigration, the bulk of immigrants consisted of men who married local women. Chinese women only began arriving to Thailand in the early 20th century. The offspring of these Chinese-Thai couples subsequently married local Thais as well, thus leading, in some cases, to a complete assimilation of the Chinese (Rappa, 2006). The assimilation in the case of the Chinese (in contrast to the Malays) was also helped by the influence of religion, Buddhism, which both the Chinese and Thais practice.

In the early 20th century, King Rama VI further enforced assimilation of the Chinese community by requiring the adoption of Thai surnames. The Chinese had to choose between setting aside their identity or being regarded as foreigners; most opted for becoming Thai. In 1918, his government passed a law requiring that private Chinese schools teach standard Thai.

Throughout Thailand's history rulers have exercised absolute power. In 1932, a bloodless coup created a constitutional government with a prime minister. During the reign of King Prajadhipok, Siam changed from an absolute monarchy to a constitutional monarchy. The king continues to wield important social and cultural influence in a largely symbolic role.

Under Phibulsonggram's military dictatorship in 1939, the name of the kingdom, 'Siam', was changed to 'Thailand' and Thai was established as the only national language. Chinese schools were limited to two hours of Chinese language per week. Other languages are only available as taught subjects, though recently, some international schools with English as the medium of instruction have been established (Ho, 2000).

The Thai Chinese have been extremely successful in business. Between the two World Wars, Thailand's major exports were under Chinese control. This was also the time when the Chinese in Thailand suffered the most discrimination. The military dictatorship imposed a range of taxes and controls to Chinese businesses. Nevertheless, they were still encouraged to acquire Thai citizenship; by 1970, most of the Chinese born in Thailand had done so.

During the Cold War, Thailand went through decades of political instability characterized by coups as one military regime replaced another, but eventually progressed towards a stable

democracy in the 1980s. Thai Chinese today are well represented in Thai business, commerce, and politics. Most of Thai Prime Ministers were at least of partial Chinese origin. Due to their assimilation, all ethnic Chinese in Thailand speak Thai and their original native dialects are progressively dying out. In the 2000 census, only 231,350 identified as speakers of a variant of Chinese (Guan, 2007). In 2010, there were only 111,866 people speaking Chinese at home (The 2010 Population and Housing Census). Mandarin is mainly acquired as a second language at schools where it is offered as an elective subject. Some Chinese parents even send their children abroad for a Chinese-medium education, while others have accepted the fact that in order to prosper in Thai society, knowledge of Standard Thai is indispensable, and a lack of proficiency in Thai could be a major handicap for business negotiations in Thailand (Rappa, 2006).

CHINESE IN VIETNAM

With about 90 million inhabitants, the Socialist Republic of Vietnam is one of the most populous countries in the world. Vietnam is multilingual and multiracial with 54 main ethnic groups, some of which have less than 1,000 members. In the 1990s, the Kinh (Viet) made up 86.8% of all inhabitants (Brown, 2003). Besides Vietnamese (the native language of the Kinh) there are many other languages. In the past, most languages used Chinese characters as a basis for their writing system. The French introduced during the occupation period a romanized system of writing (quoc NGU) to the Vietnamese and other languages spoken in Vietnam (Brown, 2003).

Before 1945, bilingualism and multilingualism were widespread, but all these languages were secondary to French. In 1945, after independence the Vietnamese language (part of the Austro-Asiatic language family) was adopted as the national language. In education, the Vietnamese language replaced French as the language of instruction at every level of schooling. Ho Chi Minh considered Vietnamese an important symbol of national identity. In the south, promotion of the Vietnamese language was much slower.

Ethnic minorities altogether account for 30% of the entire Vietnamese population (Buøi Khaùnh Theá, 2003). In 1980, the Decision 53-CP was implemented; it mandated that Vietnamese be the common language for every ethnic group in the country, but also urged the use of different common languages for different regions (Buøi Khaùnh Theá, 2003).

Bilingual educational curricula in Vietnam are used in some primary schools. As of the early 1990s, only a limited number of schools continued teaching minority scripts (Brown, 2003). Languages like Chinese and French, both used extensively in the past, were relegated to the status of foreign languages.

Ethnic Chinese in Vietnam are usually referred to as Hoa people. They are estimated to comprise about 1% of Vietnam's population. Vietnam shares a long border with China as well as a long history of Chinese rule of Vietnam (111 BC to 938 AD). After the Chinese occupation ended, contact continued due to trade relations between Vietnam and China. Over the centuries many Chinese men arrived to Vietnam and married native women. Chinese immigration into Vietnam visibly increased in the second half of the 19th century following the French colonization of Vietnam (Cochinchina) and the signing of the Convention of Peking, due to which the rights of Chinese to seek employment overseas were officially recognized by the Chinese, British and French authorities. In 1874, the French established a special Immigration Bureau in Saigon that required Chinese immigrants to register with an existing Chinese clan that was willing to provide sponsorship for them (Khánh, 1993). This approach was a mix of

control and encouragement. Due to protests from the Chinese this office had to close down. As the Chinese could come and go freely, their number in Cochinchina rose from 44,000 in 1873 to 56,000 in 1889 (Khánh, 1993). The Influx of Chinese workers continued until the middle of the 20th century.

With the division of the country in 1954 the South became the Republic of Vietnam and the North the Democratic Republic of Vietnam under Ho Chi Minh. Statistics about the Chinese in Vietnam from this time are not widely available, and the ones that are, are not reliable. They are, however, estimated to have controlled between 70% and 80% of the South Vietnamese economy before the fall of Saigon. In the year of reunification, the amount of Chinese in Vietnam was 1,236,000 (2.6% of the total population) with the majority of them living in the South (Khánh, 1993).

From 1975 until the major economic reforms of 1986, Vietnam followed socialist policies of a high command economy and political centralization. During and after the Sino-Vietnamese War, the Chinese were encouraged to leave Vietnam. In the aftermath of the Vietnam War, when ethnic Vietnamese were establishing new economic zones, the Hoa became scapegoats for the Communists. Many Hoa were persecuted and had their businesses and property confiscated. As a result, they fled the country as boat people (mainly the Hoa from the South). The situation improved in the 1990s; poverty among the Hoa has not only decreased more than for any other ethnic minority, it is even lower than the poverty level for majority Kinh (Minority Rights Group International, 2008).

At present Chinese Vietnamese comprise a small percentage in the modern Vietnamese economy, it is now mostly Vietnamese-run. The ethnic Chinese, however, comprise a high percentage of Vietnam's educated and upper class. Vietnamese authorities still do not allow private schools teaching Chinese to go beyond teaching the actual language. This results in some Hoa attending these schools in order to preserve their language and culture. Many ethnic Chinese seek higher education abroad.

CONCLUSION

Throughout history, Chinese nationals have continuously immigrated to Southeast Asia. Two major immigration waves took place in late 15th and throughout the 16th century and in the late 19th and early 20th century. Emigration was caused by corruption, wars and starvation, as well as invasion from foreign countries. Most of the emigrants were illiterate peasants or manual workers. Those who left China under the Qing Dynasty without the Administrator's consent were considered as traitors. After the establishment of the Republic of China, these rules were abolished the Chinese could migrate without repercussion. The take-over of China by the Communist Party, however, meant that going back to China was restricted and thus many ethnic Chinese made their host countries in Southeast Asia their permanent homes. More liberalized emigration policies were enacted in 1983, a result of the economic open-door policy, and facilitated the legal departure of many Chinese who wished to join their overseas Chinese relatives living abroad. Overseas Chinese in Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia constitute the three largest Chinese communities in the world.

This article explains the differences in regard of the presence or absence of the Chinese language in the language policies of Southeast Asian countries with a substantial Chinese minority (over one million of ethnic Chinese residing in one country). The author came to a conclusion that there is no correlation between the size of the Chinese minority, calculated as a percentage of the total population (see Table 5), and the representation of the Chinese language in the national language policy. (In this research an overseas Chinese community is

considered as big if it comprises over 10% of the total population or over five million people in one country.) The reason for this is that the Chinese minority is language-wise fragmented; overseas Chinese throughout Southeast Asia originate from various regions and speak a great variety of unintelligible Chinese dialects.

TABLE 5: AMOUNT AND PERCENTAGE OF OVERSEAS CHINESE

Country	Total population	Chinese population	% of the total
Indonesia	248 216 193	8 120 000	3%
Thailand	67 091 089	7 510 000	11%
Malaysia	29 179 952	6 780 000	23%
Singapore	3 771 000	2 794 000	74%
Philippines	103 775 002	1 410 000	1%
Myanmar	54 584 650	1 060 000	2%
Vietnam	91 519 289	1 000 000	1%

Source: The total number of population is taken from the CIA Factbook (2012) and the Chinese population from the Overseas Community Affairs Council R.O.C. (2012), with the exception of Singapore, where numbers from the 2010 Census were used.

Another factor considered in this research is the extent of the ethnic Chinese' access to politics and participation in the government. There was, however, found no correlation either; the extent of participation of the ethnic Chinese in the government of their host country makes no difference in regard to the country's language apparatus and whether Chinese is included in it, because Chinese speakers differ in number from ethnic Chinese meaning that many ethnic Chinese have over the years been assimilated into the host country's population.

Based on the assumption that linguistic diversity is also an obstacle to nation-building, all countries attempt using some sort of assimilation policies. Types of assimilation policies (hardline or moderate) adopted by the host countries play an important role in the question whether the Chinese language is or is not represented in the language apparatus. Some Southeast Asian countries have applied moderate assimilation language policies, while other resorted to hardline assimilation, as is the case of Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam, and Indonesia. Here, the type of governance plays an important role. In countries with authoritarian regimes the Chinese language is not included in the official language apparatus. But because language policies are not static, it is not enough to evaluate the regime type of current days. For example in Thailand, although it is today a democracy, it has a monolingual language policy, which is inherited from times when it was ruled by a military dictatorship. All of the above-mentioned four countries with hardline assimilation practices are or were governed or ruled in the past by dictatorships, so hardline assimilation language policies hardly come as a surprise. Two exceptions are Malaysia and Singapore, which both did not resort to hardline policies although they were under authoritarian rule in the past, and Singapore, under the People's Action Party, continues with some authoritarian features in the present. Singapore has embraced a multilingual vision that tolerates and even promotes the use of several languages. The imposition of Malay and English on a predominantly Chinese population, however, has not given great weight to the linguistic preferences of the public.

Political leaders have a choice of two types of instruments when turning their long-term vision (unilingual, bipolar, or multilingual) to reality: coercive instruments (legal prohibition, political repression, economic pressure, imposition of martial law, use of military force) or inducement (persuasion, co-optation). Many of the Southeast Asian countries with a substantial ethnic

Chinese minority opted for the former, although inducement may have been more effective than coercion (Brown, 2003). Such hardline assimilation policies effectively wiped out the Chinese language in Thailand. Also Vietnam's imposition of Vietnamese as a national language has been energetic, and minority languages have not been adequately promoted. On the other hand, the more moderate the assimilation policies in regard to language, the greater the chance that the Chinese language will be one of the official languages or a language of instruction. Indonesia successfully promoted Bahasa Indonesia as a national language, but it has done so without posing undue threats to minority languages. Bahasa Indonesia is seen as ethnically neutral; it does not privilege any one ethno-linguistic group above the rest. In the Philippines, the national language project has instituted Pilipino, later in the 1970s Filipino, as the national language, and has not engaged in concerted efforts to eliminate minority languages.

Language policies in Southeast Asia are based on three beliefs: language policies are symptoms of ethnic relations, they are legacies of colonialism, and are instruments for nation-building (Liu, 2012). Governments have during their nation-building period incorporated three different visions in regard to language, not always taking the ethno-linguistic settings of the country into account: Malaysia and the Philippines opted for the incomplete monolingual language policy, Indonesia, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam for the complete monolingual, and only Singapore chose complete multilingualism.

The Chinese language (Mandarin) is an official language only in Singapore. Although Chinese is used in education in Singapore, the only country outside of Greater China (China, Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan) where education using a Mandarin-medium of instruction comparable to that of China, Hong Kong or Taiwan is available today is Malaysia. However, it is not part of the national system and gets no subsidy from the government. It is only allowed at the primary level, and although Chinese secondary level schools exist, they are excluded from the national education system. In other countries, Chinese schools exist in a different way, mostly only teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. Singapore with a majority of Chinese inhabitants is an exception, the Chinese language is taught as one of three officially assigned mother tongues. In the last couple of decades the importance of Chinese has increased, and many governments have recognized the importance and benefits of learning the language. Recently, in many Southeast Asian countries, where the instruction of Chinese was forbidden in the past, schools teaching Mandarin opened with the support of their respective governments and this trend is supposedly going to continue in the near future.

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ENDNOTES

Multiculturalism refers to the peaceful integrative effects of cultural communities and multiracialism to peaceful co-existence of ethnic communities built along ethnic or racial lines. [Rappa, Antonio L., and Lionel Wee. 2006. Language Policy and Modernity in Southeast Asia: Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. New York: Springer.]

Political leaders have to decide first if a national language should be established. They have to weigh the advantages of having a national language (promotion of national unity) against the disadvantages (possible backlash from ethno-linguistic minorities). Second, they have to determine how many and which languages should have this status. Third, they have to decide about functions national languages will play. Finally, they have to decide how national languages will be used (in the government, courts, media, schools, etc.). [Brown, Michael E., and Sumit Ganguly. 2003. Fighting Words: Language Policy and Ethnic Relations in Asia. MIT Press.]

Dialects are not forbidden, but also not encouraged by the Chinese government. The dialects have no written form (with a couple of exceptions such as Shanghainese and Cantonese).

There was a 2014 census conducted in Myanmar in March and April, but the final results will only be released in May 2015.

The word bahasa means language in Indonesian, Bahasa Indonesia thus means Indonesian Language.

The military government (1988-2010) classified 135 ethnic groups in Burma: 53 ethnic groups in Chin State, 12 in Kachin State, 11 in Karen State, 9 in Kayah State, 1 in Mon State, 7 in Rakhaing State, 33 in Shan State and 9 Burman ethnic groups. [Lwin, Thein. 2011. "Languages, Identities, and Education – in Relation to Burma/Myanmar," Shan Herald Agency for News. October 15.]

Taiwan is a major destination for Burmese Chinese, as the Taiwanese government offers aid and scholarship incentives to 'returning' overseas Chinese to study and settle there. Zhonghe District in Taipei is home to 40,000 Burmese Chinese.

This policy reversal preceded the establishing of diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China.

The basis for Filipino, the Philippine national language, is Tagalog, which had in the 1930s been spoken only in Manila and the surroundings. In the 1970s more than half the Filipinos were regularly communicating in Tagalog. Filipino replaces many Tagalog words by English- and Spanish-derived words. For many Filipinos Tagalog is not their first language. They learn to speak Filipino in schools.

As embodied in the Department of Education, Culture, and Sports Order No. 25, Filipino shall be used as medium of instruction in social studies, music, arts, physical education, economics, practical arts and character education. English is allocated to science, mathematics and technology subjects.

Thailand had a traditional two-way classification of languages: Thai and foreign, with no attempt to distinguish between languages which may be widely spoken among the locals, such as Chinese, and truly foreign languages. Although in 1978 the National Education Council introduced a four-way classification (national language = Standard Thai, foreign languages, regional languages = dialect of Standard Thai, minority languages) the two-way logic remains in place. [Noss, R. B., ed. 1984. *An Overview of Language Issues in South-east Asia 1950-1980*. Singapore: Oxford University Press.]

Since 1949 overseas Chinese have been offered various enticements to return to their homeland. Several millions have done so. The biggest influx was in the end of the 1970s, when ethnic Chinese fled Vietnam as refugees and settled down in Southern China, mainly on Hainan Island.



The Relationship between Employees' Incentives and Performance at Ghana Oil Company Limited in the Southern Zone Of Ghana

Kwao Isaac Tetteh

Department of Management Studies
University of Cape Coast, Ghana

Darkwa Bernard Fentim

Department of Arts & Social Sciences Education
University of Cape Coast, Ghana

Amfo-Antiri Dorothy

Department of Management Studies
University of Cape Coast, Ghana

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between employees' incentives and performance at Ghana Oil Company limited in the southern zone, Ghana. One hundred and ninety five (195) employees of GOIL were selected for the study. The study used a mixture of descriptive and correlational survey design. Questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect the data for the study. The study revealed that various forms of incentive packages (financial and non-financial) have a positive relationship with employees' satisfaction and job performance. The study also recommended that, the management of GOIL should develop, nurture and maintain attractive forms of incentive packages as motivational tool if they want to satisfied employees and also ensure a congenial work environment, recognise and reward hardworking staff since this will encourage and motivate employees to be satisfied in their job which will lead to a significant increase in their performance.

Keywords: Employees, Incentives, Performance. Ghana Oil Company

INTRODUCTION

It appears in today's world that people influence important aspects of organizational performance in a multitude of ways. People conceive and implement the organizational strategy while the mix of people and systems mostly determine an organization's capabilities in terms of performance. Competencies are required to execute the strategy, and these competencies are primarily a function of the skills and knowledge of an organization's human capital. Therefore, if an organization is to treat its employees as its most important asset, it has to be knowledgeable about what it is that motivates people to reach their full potential (Lawler, 2003). It is not easy though to know all the things that motivate people in life or at work but an effort has to be made. Employees are responsible for converting inputs to productive outputs. Since they are the key to the productive outputs, they ought to be effectively and adequately compensated for their labour.

Taking cues first from the Biblical expression that a labourer deserves his wages; and secondly bearing in mind that the reward for labour, a factor of production is "wages", it becomes logical that employees be adequately and fairly compensated if they are to be motivated to increase productivity in any organization, be it the organized private sector or public sector. Drucker

(1980) believes that "the work of management is to make people productive" so as to achieve superior performance, and gain a competitive edge in the globalized arena through effective compensation packages. Drucker's belief is anchored on productivity, performance, motivation quality and service in managing people in every organization. This emphasis is often captured in organizational mission statements and goals.

Two major components of compensation which is more of incentives are open to management: the financial (cash) and the non-financial (recognition) incentive components. According to Milkovich and Newman (2008) incentive schemes (short-term and long-term) constitute part of the financial components of employee compensation. Incentive schemes tie pay increase to performance and have been used by organizations worldwide with remarkable success. The planning process is one of the primary elements of the total reward system either being financial or non-financial incentives. It is the process that impacts performance positively or negatively and provides the basis on which individuals results are to be measured. The primary focus of incentive programs is how organizations define their reward schemes and communicate this in a manner that employees clearly understand the link between rewards (incentives) and performance (Fynn, 1998).

Incentive programs create environments especially where jobs provide extrinsic rewards and good feelings that people get from doing the work itself. Yet in many organizations, recognition which is part of non - financial incentives is reserved for an elite few and rewards are defined solely in terms of wages and salaries and other benefits. Effective recognition enhances employee motivation and increases employee productivity all of which contribute to improved organizational performance (Deeprise, 1994). There are a wide variety of different non-compensatory programmes or options available for modern business leaders to utilise as a means to reward positive performance, efficiency and overall job-related productivity. Some of these rewards come in the form of flexible scheduling option; premium gifts elicited by company management, or even increased job-related autonomy to create perceptions of trust in the employee and their competency to carry out their job role without managerial intervention or continuous assessment. Though there are different non-compensatory programs, this study plays much importance to recognition of employees as one of the non-compensatory rewards.

Hamel (2008) defines recognition as a process of acknowledging or giving special attention to employee actions, efforts, behaviour or performance. Recognition has been defined to include both formal and informal programs and supports business strategy by reinforcing certain behaviours (e.g., extraordinary accomplishments) that contribute to organizational success. Recognition acknowledges employee contributions immediately after the fact, usually with predetermined goals or performance levels that the employee is expected to achieve. Studies have shown that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators can be used to predict outstanding organizational outcomes, especially in job performance and productivity (Ferguson & Reio, 2010 and Bothshabelo, 2009). Employee recognition plays a key role in enhancing relationships which are meant to improve performance in an organization. According to Manjunath and Rajesh (2012), in order to achieve organizational strategic goals, the human resource managers should endeavour to provide motivation mechanisms that can drive employees' potential to perform to optimum levels possible. Actually, individuals have the potential, skills and the required expertise to drive performance to higher levels, but needs to be triggered for this to be realized possibly through employee recognition (Ferguson & Reio, 2010).

In terms of recognition, employers are also faced with the issue of choosing between either monetary or non-monetary form of recognition as means of improving performance. Nelson (2003) has stressed that a greater percentage of managers accept the fact that recognition improves job performance. Managers reported that they receive the results they expect when they use non-monetary recognition either immediately or soon thereafter as a means of improving performance of employees.

The study, therefore tries to bring out an understanding and appreciation of the role of financial incentives which is more of cash and non-financial incentives i.e recognition towards improving both individual and organizational performance in the Oil industry. It examines the link among cash incentives, employee recognition and performance and possibly how this can be enhanced towards increasing the individual and organizational outputs. For example, according to Atambo, Kabare, Munene, & Nyamwamu (2012), in Kenya, employees in the broadcasting sector have been recognized in their exemplary performances both in news coverage and reporting. Similarly, the outstanding sportsmen and women are equally appreciated through the identification and crowning of the excelling personality in various sporting activities with some receiving presidential awards. Nurses on the other hand have a programme that identifies and awards the "Nurse of the Year" in Kenya, (Atambo et al., 2012).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Today's economic challenges require organizations to find new ways to not only reward top performers, but to motivate all workers to improve performance while maintaining or increasing business value. Traditional methods for keeping and motivating workers utilize compensation and benefits. However, those are only two parts of an organization's "Total Reward" package. In fact, organizations can reward their workers in many ways, including pay benefits, work-life improvements, and incentives for pre-determined job performance - as well as with various forms of recognition.

Rewards and recognition are being discussed passionately and ascribed to main causes of employee's unsatisfactory performance in today's business world. Pulled into the current emotional environment, these proven organizational performance tools have become the focus of a one-sided media critique that overshadows or ignores their value. While any tool can be misused, these approaches have an evidence-based history of providing value to organizations and their employees (Becker, 2009).

There is an ongoing argument as to which of the performance -influencing tools i.e. financial and non - financial incentives should be given high preference and which of them has a higher tendency to influence employees' performance in a given organization. Employers like any other rational decision takers are faced with this challenge. In addition, the available literature reveals that even if employers have incentive as the only tool for influencing performance they are faced with the problem of choosing between monetary and non-monetary forms of incentive.

The argument extends beyond just implementing such organizational tools in an attempt to influence performance. Irrespective of the angle from which the choice of these tools is looked at, the ultimate goal of such choice by employers is to ensure improved performance of their employees. These issues of employee incentive (financial and non-financial) have become a centre of attraction in the government owned oil company (GOIL). In Ghana, the discovery of oil has resulted in a rapid growth in oil business with most private individuals setting up oil companies in anticipation of the boom of the oil industry in the country. This situation seems to have placed a lot of pressure on the leading oil company in Ghana (GOIL) since these private companies are using various ways and means to attract the employees of GOIL. While most of

these employees are moving to the private oil companies, the morale of the remaining employees seem to have gone down which have affected their performance at their various places of work. The thrust of this study therefore is to bring to the fore whether financial (cash) or non-financial (recognition) incentives motivate employees at GOIL and how that can impact on the performance of the employees.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were used to guide the study in examining the effects of incentives on employees' work performance in GOIL.

1. What are the different forms of incentives available to employees at GOIL?
2. What are the relationship among incentives, employees' satisfaction and employees' work performance at GOIL?
3. Is there any statistically significant sex difference among employees of GOIL with regard to the various forms of incentives available to them?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A research design as stipulated by (Cooper & Schindler, 2000) is a plan or blue print which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. It provides the procedural outlines for the conduct of any investigation. The study therefore used a mixture of descriptive and correlational survey design which aimed at evaluating the influence of incentives on employee demographic characteristics in GOIL. Babbie (2007) recommended the use of descriptive survey for the purposes of generalizing from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about the characteristics, attributes or behaviour of the population.

Population

The population for the study is made up of employees of GOIL within the southern zone. There are five main zones within which GOIL activities are performed nationwide. These include the southern zone which is made up of Greater Accra Region, Eastern Region and some part of Central Region (from kaso, Winneba to Apam). The second zone is the middle belt zone which is also made up of Kumasi and Sunyani. The third zone is western zone comprising Takoradi and some part of Central Region. The fourth one is the Northern zone which is made up of all the three Northern Regions in Ghana. And the final zone is Tema zonal office which includes Volta Region. Of all these zones, Accra is the main head office located in Accra metropolis, Ghana and that informed the choice for the study and also the accessibility of the respondent and it has the highest number of staff as compared to the other zones. GOIL has total staff strength of two hundred and eighty (280) nationwide. The population comprises all employees of GOIL in the Southern zone. They comprise 41 junior staff, 143 senior staff and 11 management staff. Thus, the total study population is 195, which constitutes 69.64 % of the entire staff strength of GOIL. This is also another reason that informed the selection of the southern zone as the focal point of study.

Sampling Techniques

According to Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh and Sorensen, (2006), the most used approach for determining the sample in a descriptive study is to specify the precision of estimation desired and then to determine the sample size necessary to insure it. Researchers usually sample from an accessible population and hope to generalize to a target population. However, due to the small number of employees within the southern zone of GOIL, the census method was deemed

appropriate and feasible since the number of employees (195) in the study area was small. The census again was necessary since employees of GOIL within the southern zone were quite different from each other with regard to the various forms of incentives available to them. The employees also differ in terms of staff category. According to Malhotra and Birks (2007), it is always appropriate to use the census method in such studies since the population is small and variable, any sample the study drawn would not be representative of the population from which it is drawn.

Instrument

The main instrument used was the questionnaire. The choice of questionnaire was informed by the fact that almost all the workers at Ghana Oil Company Limited are literate who can read and understand the questions. The questionnaire was a self-designed instrument. It was used to collect data from all the respondents who are employees of GOIL, southern zone. Largely, the questionnaire was made up of closed-ended items.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data collected for the study were analysed by computing means, median, and standard deviations, with the help of the Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) Version 19.0. Independent sample t-test and Pearson Product Moment correlation were also used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Different forms of incentives available to employees at GOIL

The first objective of the study focused on the various forms of incentive packages available to employees of GOIL. To achieve this objective, employees were asked to indicate as many as possible the types of incentives available to them at GOIL. Based on the literature reviewed, respondents were exposed to 12 types of incentive packages for them to indicate which ones are available to them as employees of GOIL. They were to tick as many as possible as applicable to their work situation. The percentage distributions of the responses are presented in Table 1.

As contained in Table 1, all (100%) the employees of GOIL indicated that salary is one of the incentives given to them at their work place. Majority (85.9%) of the respondents also indicated that bonus is some of the incentive packages they receive at work. The views of the respondents show that salary and bonus are important incentive packages use in GOIL. The findings support the comment of Lawzi (1995) who avers that financial incentives such as salary, bonuses, allowances, profit sharing and rewards are some of the incentive packages available for employees in organisations since that are set to satisfy basic human needs, encouraging workers to do their best of work performance, the recruitment of their capabilities and increase the level of their competences. With regard to commission, all (100%) the respondents indicated that it is not one of the various form of incentives available to them at GOIL.

TABLE 1: FORMS OF INCENTIVES AVAILABLE TO EMPLOYEES OF GOIL

Forms of incentives available to employees at GOIL	Ticked		Un-ticked	
	No.	%	No.	%
Salary	163	100	0	0.0
Bonus	140	85.9	23	14.1
Commission	0	0.0	163	100
Car allowance	92	56.4	71	43.6
Medical allowance	145	89.0	18	11.0
Appreciation day	89	54.6	74	45.4

Educational scholarship	114	69.9	49	30.1
Rent allowance	71	43.6	92	56.4
Thank you note (letter of appreciation)	67	41.1	96	58.9
Holding annual dinner	141	86.5	22	13.5
Life insurance	137	84.0	26	16.0
Organising social activities	128	78.5	35	21.5

Source: Field data, 2014.

(N = 163)

The findings show that, GOIL uses both financial and non-financial forms of incentives to motivate its employees. The views of the respondents are consistent with the submissions of Sonawane (2008) who is of the view that organisations use both monetary and non-monetary incentives to boost employees' satisfaction and commitment to the job and the organisation at large. According to Sonawane (2008), this involves granting of reward in terms of money such as salaries, bonuses and so on while non-monetary or non-cash incentives do not involve direct payment of cash and they can be tangible or intangible. Organisations also encourage employees by providing them with autonomy in their job, participation in decision making, assigning challenging duties, improving working conditions, recognising good work through small gifts, letters of appreciation, plaques, tickets to restaurant, providing some services for the employees, and organising social activities in the work place (Sonawane, 2008).

Relationship that exist among employee incentives, employee satisfaction and employee performance at GOIL

The second objective of the study was to find out whether or not employee incentives have any statistically significant relationship with employees' satisfaction and performance at GOIL. Here a correlation was established between variables using Pearson Product moment correlation. Each of the variables was made up of more than one item. The items for each variable was pooled together to form each major variable. Financial (cash reward) incentive, non-financial (recognition) incentive, employees' satisfaction and employees' job performance were made up of nine, ten, nine, and twenty-one items respectively. All the individual items were measured with five-point numerical scale such that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues. The results are presented in Table 2. The following values of correlation coefficients interpretation suggested by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) were used as guidelines for the interpretation of the correlation coefficients.

$r = 0.10$ to 0.29 or -0.10 to -0.29	Weak
$r = 0.30$ to 0.49 or -0.30 to -0.49	Moderate
$r = 0.50$ to 0.9 or -0.50 to -0.9	Strong
$r = 1.0$ or -1.0	Perfect

As shown in Table 2 below, there were statistical significant relationships among the variables. Financial (cash reward) incentive was statistically significant and positively correlated with employees' satisfaction ($r = 0.071$, $p = 0.037$) and employees' job performance ($r = 0.286$, $p = 0.041$). Based on Cohen et al. (2007) guidelines for interpreting correlation coefficients, the relationship between financial incentive and employees' satisfaction was weak while the relationship between financial incentive and employees' job performance was moderate. The findings mean that, the more employees of GOIL are exposed to financial incentive the more

they become satisfied and also perform better with regard to their job. However, these links are not that strong.

TABLE 2: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EMPLOYEE INCENTIVES, EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AT GOIL

Variables	Employees' satisfaction		Employees' job performance	
	Correlation coefficients (r)	Sig.	Correlation coefficients (r)	Sig.
Financial (cash reward) incentive	0.071*	0.037	0.286*	0.041
Non-financial (recognition) incentive	0.294**	0.007	0.593**	0.000

Source: Field data, 2014. **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05 (N = 163)

The findings are in line with the assertions of Block and Lagasse (1997) who aver that nowadays organisations are rewarding performance bonuses to junior staff to increase output, unlike the past where they used to be a privilege of top executives. Performance bonuses are now on the rise in many organisations because managers want to link performance to reward. Similarly, the findings are consistent with the findings of Ahmed and Ali (2008) who found out that there is a positive relationship between rewards and work satisfaction as well as motivation. Factors affecting satisfaction in Ahmed and Ali (2008) study were payment (86%), promotion (74%), and work conditions (61%). The analysis of their findings showed support for a positive relationship between reward and employee satisfaction

As defined by Lawzi (1995), financial incentives are set to satisfy basic human needs, encouraging workers to do their best of work performance, the recruitment of their capabilities and increase the level of their competences such as salary, bonuses, allowances, profit sharing and rewards. The purpose of incentive systems is to provide a systematic way to deliver positive consequences. Fundamental purpose is to provide positive consequences for contributions to desired performance (Wilson, 2003). The findings again support that of Finkle (2011) who found out that cash bonus is another form of incentive that organisations use to reward employees for exemplary performance that is if they have performed higher or exceed their set targets, this hence makes them eligible. The amount of cash is determined by how high the employee has over exceeded the set targets or they can also be based on ranks or job groups.

Table 2, further shows that non-financial (recognition) incentive has a statistically significant and positive relationship with employees' satisfaction and job performance. As depicted in Table 2, non-financial incentive has significant and positive relationship with employees' satisfaction ($r = 0.294$, $p = 0.007$) and employees' job performance ($r = 0.593$, $p = 0.000$). Meaning, the more employees of GOIL are expose to non-financial incentive packages such as recognition, the higher they become more satisfied and also increase their job performance in the organisation. Using Cohen et al. (2007) guidelines for the interpretation of the correlations, the above associations between non-financial incentive, employees' satisfaction and job performance can be seen as moderate and strong respectively.

Sex difference among employees of GOIL with regard to the various forms of incentives available to them

The third objective of the study was to examine the sex difference among employees of GOIL with regard to the various forms of incentives available to them, their level of satisfaction and job performance. As indicated earlier, the variables were made up of multiple items which were pooled together to form each major variable. The independent sample t-test was used to examine this difference. The results are presented in Table 3.

The results in Table 3, indicate that there is a statistically significant sex difference in the views of employees with regard to financial incentive among male employees (Mean = 3.74, Std. Dev. = 0.98) and female employees (Mean = 3.26, Std. Dev. = 0.99), [t = 2.77, df = 161, p = .006]. The table further depicts that male employees of GOIL have more positive view towards financial incentive than female employees. Meaning, male employees at GOIL are more attracted to financial incentive than female employees. Based on Cohen (1988) guidelines on the interpretation of the eta square, the magnitude of the sex difference in the means with regard to GOIL's employees view on financial incentive is moderate (eta square (η^2) = 0.045), meaning only 4.5 percent of the variances in employees' view on financial incentive is explained by sex.

TABLE 3: SEX DIFFERENCE AMONG EMPLOYEES OF GOIL WITH REGARD TO INCENTIVES AVAILABLE TO THEM

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	Sig.	η^2
Financial incentive	Male	118	3.74	0.98	2.77**	.006	.045
	Female	45	3.26	0.99			
Non-financial incentive	Male	118	3.67	1.02	-2.86**	.005	.048
	Female	45	4.19	1.05			
Employees' satisfaction	Male	118	3.27	0.48	-0.01	.999	
	Female	45	3.29	0.62			
Employees' job performance	Male	118	4.50	0.40	0.08	.935	
	Female	45	4.49	0.68			

Source: Field data, 2014. **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05 (N = 163)

Where N = sample size and Std. Dev. = Standard Deviation

Similarly, there is a statistically significant sex difference in the views of employees with regard to non-financial incentive among male employees (Mean = 3.67, Std. Dev. = 1.02) and female employees (Mean = 4.19, Std. Dev. = 1.05), [t = -2.86, DF = 161, p = .005]. The table further depicts that female employees of GOIL have more positive view towards non-financial incentive than male employees. Meaning, female employees at GOIL are more attracted to non-financial incentive than male employees. Based on Cohen (1988) guidelines on the interpretation of the eta square, the magnitude of the sex difference in the means with regard to GOIL's employees view on non-financial incentive is moderate (eta square (η^2) = 0.048), meaning only 4.8 percent of the variances in employees' view on non-financial incentive is explained by sex. The results show that male employees prefer financial incentive more while female employees on the other hand prefer non-financial incentive.

With regard to employees' satisfaction there is no statistically significant sex difference in male employees (Mean = 3.27, Std. Dev. = 0.48) and female employees (Mean = 3.29, Std. Dev. = 0.62), [t = -0.01, DF = 161, p = .999]. Similarly, there is no statistically significant sex difference between male employees (Mean = 4.50, Std. Dev. = 0.40) and female employees (Mean = 4.49,

Std. Dev. = 0.68), [$t = 0.08$, $DF = 161$, $p = .935$] with regard to their job performance. Even though there is no statistical significant sex difference with regards to employees' satisfaction and job performance, female employees seem to be more satisfied than male employees.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The various forms of incentive packages (financial and non-financial) have a positive relationship with employees' satisfaction and job performance. However, the results show that financial and non-financial incentives do not strongly influence employees' job performance directly. It does so only if it boosts employees satisfaction with the various incentives. If employees perceive the various forms of incentives positively, they are likely to be satisfied with it which will eventually lead to increase in their job performance. It can be concluded that, when there is a critical mass of employees who are satisfied with the various forms of incentives available to them, the dynamics will translate into them increasing their job performance. This means, the effect of incentives to employees' job performance becomes more significant and potent when employees are satisfied with the various forms of incentive packages given to them in the organisation.

The study recommended that management of GOIL should develop, nurture and maintain attractive forms of incentive packages as motivational tool if they want to satisfied employees.

Also, the management of GOIL should ensure a congenial work environment, recognise and reward hardworking staff since this will encourage and motivate employees to be satisfied in their job which will lead to a significant increase in their performance. Again, Management of GOIL should develop appropriate strategies that will help administer both financial and non-financial incentives equitably in order to boost employees' satisfaction and performance. Finally, Government institutions such as the Fair Wages and Salaries Commission as well as various workers unions must ensure that employees explore the possibility of fully benefiting from the various incentive packages available to them in order to better their lot.

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