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Message from the Conference Co-Chair

Let me first welcome you all to Colombo and the beautiful Island Sri Lanka.

On behalf of the conference organizing committee, I am honoured and delighted to welcome you to the "International Conference on Social Sciences, Colombo (ICOSS 2014)" organized by The International Institute of Knowledge Management (TIIKM).

I believe we have chosen a venue that guarantees a successful conference, Colombo, Sri Lanka splendid island situated in Indian Ocean. Our conference program is rich and varied with keynote addresses by reputed Sri Lankan scholars and forty two research papers split between six themes over two days. The conference will cover the very important themes under verities of disciplinary areas such as Sociology, Anthropology, Geography, Philosophy, Psychology, Political Science, Criminology, Law and justice, Gender and women's studies. We also expect to provide more space to discussion, and numerous opportunities for informal networking, and sight seen tours for the conference participants.

On a more personal note it was a true pleasure to extend a warm welcome to all conference attendees. We have a very diverse group of researches, policy makers, professional and academics from many parts of the world, and it is truly a pleasure to welcome you all.

As a conference co-chair, I know that the success of the conference depends ultimately on the many people who have worked with us planning and organizing both the technical program and supporting social arrangements. My sincere thank should go to The International Institute of Knowledge Management (TIIKM) for organizing this international event in Sri Lanka.

We hope you will find the conference productive, information, and enjoyable. We also look forward to receiving your constructive comments that would help us in our future conference planning.

Sincerely

Prof. Premakumara de Silva

Conference Co-Chair
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THE DICHOTOMY OF HUMAN-GENDER RIGHTS WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF CULTURAL TRANSFORMATION: A CONTENTIOUS ETHIC FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN IN AN AFRICAN CULTURAL-SOCIAL ARRANGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This article holds the opinion that despite the fact that human rights are intrinsically part of the human person and despite that it is not an alien value to Africa (Obinna Okere 1984: 141) it has not as yet ciphered through to the grassroots of populace of Africa in general. It explores the value of human rights in the light of cultural values, which are meant to rectify the wrongs in societies, yet a new range of problematic practices together with their victims have arisen. It argues that the provision of human rights for women and minority groups is nothing more than a political strategy, given that the impact of this provision is of minor consequence. Instead of levelling the playing fields, it appears that the provision of human/women rights has the opposite effect and serves as a subtle incentive new form oppressions and prejudices, expressed in increased gender violence, inequality, xenophobia, homophobia, corruption and fraudulent leadership. This paper explores whether the African public is deceiving itself by theoretically flaunting indispensable cultural beliefs and practices that are meant to provide stability and identity, yet some cultural properties appear to be at odds with basic human rights and thereby creating a scenario of ethical demise which undermines the processes of social transformation. The article endeavours to address ethical proposals towards the creation of an ‘African Human Rights Society’ and what meaningful contribution human rights can make to all the people of Africa, and in particular South Africa.

Key Words: Dichotomy, gender and human rights, human dignity, derogable and non-derogable rights, ambivalent environments, gender violence, engendered victimization, oppression and prejudice, ethical proposals and transformation.
“PROXY WOMEN” OR EMPOWERED POLITICIANS: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF EFFECTIVENESS OF SEAT RESERVATION AND ELECTED WOMEN’S PARTICIPATION IN INDIAN LOCAL GOVERNANCE

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ABSTRACT

Women in India constitute about fifty percent of the country’s total population but they have been treated discriminatory because of the gender bias of the prevalent patriotic values of Indian society. The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992, reserving 33 percent of the seats in Panchayati Raj Institutions for the women of India aims to decentralize power and eliminate gender imbalances and biases in the institutions of local self-governance and focus on collective empowerment of rural women to participate as elected representatives in the democratic process to raise their voices. But, the presence of women is not necessary synonymous with their participation, there is a difference between formal power and effective power. The coexistence of obstacles and possibilities for elected women tends to picture the elected women either as “proxy women” or as empowered politicians. It is, therefore, timely to explore to what extent these new arrangements have contributed change to the position and status of women in India. Have they been actually empowered or do they live in the same state of subordination and deprivation? This paper attempts to explore, to what extent these new arrangements have contributed change in the position and status of women in India through case studies related to women in Panchayat in different states of India.

Key Words: Grassroots Democracy, Gender, Local Governance, Elected women, Effective power, Proxy women Panchayati Raj Institution, Women’s Empowerment, India.

INTRODUCTION

In almost all societies in almost all periods of history women have been treated as men’s inferiors. Studies on Indian women in politics, in aggregate, indicate that women in Indian society have been deprived of fundamental social, economic and political rights. The social hierarchies and inequalities that exist in Indian society deter the women for centuries to play an active role in the societal functions including participation in political institutions. The dominant patriarchy has denied women equality of status and opportunities in socio-economic and political spheres. There are differences amongst women in terms of class, caste, status, space (rural-urban divide) etc. Rural Indian Women have still been treated as “Object” of development rather than the “Subject” of development. It is argued that national development would be more effective with active share of men and women in all its activities. In terms of government policies and programmes that we have shift the focus from the concept of women development to women participation in the social and political sphere consequently towards women empowerment. The political empowerment of women and women leadership in Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) is crucial not only for the development of women themselves, but also for the availability of their creative potential that is socially important and without which,
the country cannot hope for any sustainable development.

The 73rd Constitutionals Amendment Act, 1992, reserving 33 percent of the seats in Panchayati Raj Institutions for the women of India aims to decentralize power and eliminate gender imbalances and biases in the institutions of local self-governance and focus on collective empowerment of rural women to participate as elected representatives in the democratic process to raise their voices. But, the presence of women is not necessary synonymous with their participation, there is a difference between formal power and effective power. The point that is raised for some cases is analytically posing the dichotomy between seat reservation as an instrument of development for gender equality and women’s empowerment and formal power and effective power to achieve this goal.

The coexistence of obstacles and possibilities for elected women tends to picture the elected women either as “proxy women” or as empowered politicians. The basic objectives of this paper are to explore, to what extent these new arrangements have contributed change in the position and status of women in India. Have they been actually empowered or do they live in the same state of subordination and deprivation? The study was conducted on the basis of case studies related to women in Panchayat in different states of India.

This paper is organized as follows: section I delineates the Panchayati Raj Systems in India: a way towards democratic decentralization and gender equality and Women’s Empowerment in rural India. Section II explores elected women either as “proxy women” or as empowered politicians as a result of their participation in Panchayati Raj Systems in India through case studies collected from different states of India. Women’s experience of PRI has transformed many of them. The elements of this transformation include empowerment, self-confidence, political awareness and affirmation of identity. Section III presents the conclusion of the paper.

1. The Panchayati Raj Systems in India: a way towards democratic decentralization and women’s Empowerment in rural India

The idea that produced the 73rd Amendment was not a response to pressure from the grassroots, but an increasing recognition that the institutional initiatives of the preceding decade had not delivered, that the extent of rural poverty was still much too large and thus the existing structure of government needed to be reformed. It was a political drive to see Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) as a solution to the governmental crises that India was experiencing. The Constitutional (73rd Amendment) Act, passed in 1992 by, came into force on April 24, 1993. It was meant to provide constitutional sanction to establish "democracy at the grassroots level as it is at the state level or national level". Local Self-Governance is an effective method of governing through which the National policy is administered at the grass-root level. In the rural areas a three-tier structure has been adopted. They are:

- Gram Panchayats at village level
- Panchayat Samity at block level (Intermediary level) only in the states having a population of over 2 million
- Zila Parishad at District level
Panchayati Raj is identified as institutional expression of democratic decentralization in India. Decentralization of power to the Panchayat is seen as a means of empowering women and involving them in decision making process. Central to the idea of empowerment is the idea of power. The idea of power is at the root of the term empowerment. Power can be understood as operating in a number of different ways:

- **Power over**: This power involves an either/or relationship of domination/subordination. Ultimately, it is based on socially sanctioned threats of violence and intimidation, it requires constant vigilance to maintain, and it invites active and passive resistance;
- **Power to**: This power relates to having decision-making authority, power to solve problems and can be creative and enabling;
- **Power with**: This power involves people organising with a common purpose or common understanding to achieve collective goals;
- **Power within**: This power refers to self-confidence, self-awareness and assertiveness. It relates to how can individuals can recognise through analyzing their experience how power operates in their lives, and gain the confidence to act to influence and change this. (Williams et al, 1994).

Whilst understanding of power and empowerment has come from many different movements and traditions, the feminist movement has emphasized collective organization (power with) and has been influential in developing ideas about power within.

One way of thinking about power is in terms of ability to make choices: to be disempowered, therefore, implies to be denied choice. The notion of empowerment is thus inescapably bound up with disempowerment and refers to the processes by which those who have been denied the ability to make choices acquire such ability. In other words, empowerment entails a process of change. People who exercise a great deal of choice in their lives may be very powerful, but they are not empowered in this sense, because they were never disempowered in the first place. However, to be made relevant to the analysis of power, the notion of choice has to be qualified in a number of ways.
3. Elected women either as “proxy women” or as empowered politicians as a result of their participation in Panchayati Raj Systems in India through case studies collected from different states of India.

Women’s experience of PRI has transformed many of them. The elements of this transformation include empowerment, self-confidence, political awareness and affirmation of identity.

3.1 Empowering women

Panchayati Raj System gave them the ability to coerce and influence the actions and thoughts of powerless (Power Over). The recognition and articulation of the true interests of those who are subordinate oppressed, or for other reasons lack voice is a difficult process. It requires changing practices that are deeply embedded in institutions such as the family, the firm, and the state. Democratization involves the creation of new knowledge and values, in effect a paradigm shift that brings about the meaningful empowerment of groups relegated to subordinate positions.

Respondent no. 1 from Rampurhat Panchayat samity, district of West Bengal said,

“If we are outspoken regarding any societal issue, the men - identify us blatant and call us shameless. But now we don’t mind their false criticism and vanity as well because we know people elected us as their representatives and we aware what we have to do for their betterment.”

Also appearing frequently in definitions of empowerment is an element related to the concept of human agency -- self-efficacy. Drawing mainly from the human rights and feminist perspectives, many definitions contain the idea that a fundamental shift in perceptions, or “inner transformation,” is essential to the formulation of choices. Increasing democratization of decision-making processes in the public, private, or household sectors would also increase substantive freedoms.

Respondent no. 3 from Nuagarh Gram Panchayats, Puri district explained,

“We are closer in sympathy and experience. We are friendlier to the community, we look after, we listen, we are open, and so the people come to us.”

Women are also aware that their strength comes not only from their numbers but also from their knowledge and skills (power with). They realise increased power from collective action, social mobilisation and alliance building. Women's empowerment challenges traditional ideas of male authority and supremacy.

Respondent no. 4, Sarpanch of Ramlapally Gram Panchayat in the district of Karunagar, Andhra Pradeshsaid,

“Whenever there is any problem in the villages, they come to me. We are more
responsive to the community, we look after, we pay attention, and we are truthful and so the people come to us.”

She has launched programs for adult education, digging wells for drinking water and repairing school buildings. She said:

“I am not highly educated, but I know my responsibilities towards society. Education is necessary but at the same time self determination and grit, which a woman has in plethora playing a significant role to combat these hindrances.”

The feminist approach emphasises that empowerment is not about replacing one form of power with another: they do not want a ‘bigger piece of the cake but a different cake’ and the increased choice (or ‘cake’) that power brings should not reproduce social inequalities or restrict the rights of others (Kabeer, 2001). Respondent no. 5, Panchayat Pradhan of North 24 Parganas, West Bengal said,

“During one Household survey for BPL list, local school teachers were appointed to do the job. But it was later found out by that me that the school teachers unofficially appointed local boys who even came to my house to do the BPL survey! And most surprisingly, boy went to just one house where he collected information for rest of the villages at one go. I had reprimanded the school teacher who did this, but from next time I involved Anganwari workers who did the survey sincerely and the corrections were made”.

Self-confidence gained through belonging to local organisations seems critical to enabling women to step out of unequal relationships. This sense of freedom is even more profound when the group to which women belong is the PRI. This freedom is carried into the very activity of politics by these women. There is a visible difference, a sense of excitement, in the women of rural India (power within). Respondent no. 6, Anchalsamity Member (ASM) of Mirbuk village, East Siang district, Arunachal Pradesh said,

“We are elected because the public expect us to do something good for society.”

The women Panchayat leaders are actively taking part to uplift the common people at the grassroots level. They are at different levels of awareness. Local people of each area comes to know about different types of schemes are sanctioned through different sources. Respondent no.7, AnchalSamity Member, Mirbuk Village, East Siang District, Arunachal Pradesh said,

“Actually ministers and officers (in charge) never tell us about such schemes. They take away all the money”.

Respondent no. 8, gram Panchayat pradhan, Puri Sadar, Orissa, said,

“Women representatives can make enormous difference in case of awareness generation in the society. She can take initiative in giving training to rural women for their economic upliftment. I arrange different training programmes for them.”

She also mentioned,
“In my Gram Panchayat, previously no women used to come to male Gram Panchayat Pradhan for any help, but now local women felt at ease and started coming frequently to me for help whether it be domestic violence or anything. Rural women feel free to approach.”

The community psychology literature views empowerment in part as the building of self-knowledge and self-esteem of the individual to reduce ‘feelings of alienation and enhance feelings of solidarity and legitimacy’ (Asthana, 1996). Individual empowerment therefore is ‘… the reciprocal influences and confluence of macro and micro level forces that impact the emotional cognitive and behavioural aspects of individuals’ (Speer 2000), and entails changes in meaning which revolves around beliefs, values and behaviours; competence or self-efficacy, that is the belief of being able to carry out particular tasks or roles; self-determination or the choices individuals have in initiating or regulating their actions; impact or the degree to which one influences the outcomes of others and how people understand and relate to their social environment and the role of collectives in community life (Speer, 2000; Spreitzer, de Janaszet al., 1999).

3.2 Understanding politics

The incorporation of women into Panchayati Raj (local-level governance) institutions in India, following the statutory reservation of 33 percent of these electoral positions for women, has been hailed as a significant step. Panchayati Raj Institution has given many women a greater understanding of the working of politics. PRI has helped to change local government beyond simply increasing the numerical presence of women.

Respondent no. 9, Zilla Parishad Member of Sille-oyan Block, east Siang district, Arunachal Pradesh boldly pointed out that

“Women are also human beings, so they have also right equal to men. Thus, with the changing time and space the marginal gap between men and women has disappeared. Women have equal right and opportunities to participate in politics in compare with men. And interestingly, they are proving to be best at every field”.

Respondent no. 10, an ASM of Pasighat block commented,

“Women should take in Kebang¹ and a women’s wing should be introduced under Kebang. All the women of Arunachal Pradesh should be together to discuss for eradication of poverty”.

Respondent no. 11, ASM of Rani Village, Arunachal Pradesh said,

“Some people crack jocks on us telling that, our country is under Petikut (inner skirt) government. From grassroots to high level, women are ruling. In a positive sense, this means women play a vital role in governing our nation”.

Respondent no. 12, Gram Panchayat Pradhan, mehboobnagar, Andhra Pradesh said,

¹ The traditional polity of Adi tribe of Arunachal Pradesh.
“Reservation of seats for Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes, people from deprived groups have a better chance of being elected members. Earlier, only persons with money, higher class and of the upper castes could be elected to any position of importance.”

Due to their political attachment their interactional position in the society has been elevated and they tend to involve themselves in community work, which has once considered men’s sphere, and they have got a hold on decision making both inside and outside the household. After Constitutional reservation of seats at PRI, special constitutional rights are made for women to participate in politics. Respondent no. 13 Gram Panchayat Pradhan, Karim Nagar, Andhra Pradesh explained,

“Previously the upstairs room of the Panchayat office was used for drinking and gambling, which is turned into a training centre for Self Help Groups members. Now even, exhibitions are carried out to sell their products. More women started coming to Panchayat.”

The present ZPM of Hari Block of Ziro said that, before contesting at this post, she served as senior nurse at General Hospital, Naharlagan for 15 years. She gave voluntary resignation from her job to contest ZPM post. Further she said,

“As a nurse I had always serve the people and now as a public leader I want to do the same in better way. I prefer this position because political involvements give me space and opportunity to work more intensively for the poor people in my area.”

Most of the Women representatives confidently said that they would like to stand in general seat and come back for a second term as they want to finish the work they have started. If people are satisfied with her work, they will regain her term. Very crucial to come back in 2nd term as almost 3 years goes in knowing fully how the PRI works, hence more time is needed to gauge performance. Involvement in Panchayati Raj Institutions enhances their abilities to change power relations.

**Affirming Identity**

Women’s involvement in PRI has helped them affirm their identity as women and shared experiences.

Respondent no. 15, Gram Panchayat Pradhan, Kalchini, Jalpaiguri District of West Bengal said

“Men in our society consider women to be capable of household responsibilities only, we want to prove that we too can be independently able to take decisions, we too can walk along with them and bring change in this country”.

Respondent no. 16, ZillaParishad Member of Sille-oyan Block, east siang district, Arunachal Pradesh boldly pointed out that boldly pointed out that

“Women are also human being, so they have also right equal to men. Thus, with the changing time and space the marginal gap between men and women has disappeared. Women have equal right and opportunities to participate in politics in compare with men.
And interestingly, they are proving to be best at every field”.

Respondent no. 17, Panchayat Pradhan for 15 years, Madhya Pradesh, said,

“District Magistrate came to visit my panchayat office on Sunday without any prior information and demanded to know my working progress so far and how I am managing the GP. I said that today is a holiday, even your own secretary won’t come to work today, and then how dare you ask me to obey orders? I am a Pradhan of this Panchayat. Please go back to your office and summon me on a working day.”

This shows her confidence, inner strength and self recognition comes from her capability to work and increased individual consciousness which change her ability to transform aspiration into action.

Respondent no. 18, a Panchayat Samity member, Andhra Pradesh, said,

“We are better representatives than men because people find it easier to approach a woman than a man, whom they might view as intimidating.”

This self-perception arises from two sources: from women’s own sense of their shared experience and from attitudes and imagery imposed on them by the men. Women have opened up the possibility for politics to have not only new faces but a new quality.

Changing Priorities

The PRI Act has provisions, which enforce community participation, especially of the women, poor and the marginalized sections of the region. Some of the ways in which women, through PRI, are changing governance are evident in the issues they choose to tackle; water, alcohol abuse, education, health and domestic violence, economic activity.

Respondent no. 19, Gram Panchayat Pradhan, Karim Nagar, Andhra Pradesh

“Previously the upstairs room of the Panchayat office was used for drinking and gambling, which is turned into a training centre for Self Help Groups members. Now even, exhibitions are carried out to sell their products. More women started coming to Panchayat.”

Most of the Women Panchayat member admitted that no matter from which party do the leaders represent, rather they should have alliance with people. All the interviewed PRI leaders have vision for the welfare of humankind as a whole. They participate in their respective political meeting, processions and street corners. At their party meeting, they discuss about the party welfare. They also focus their discussion regarding development schemes implemented in the locality. Panchayat leaders discuss on mode of distribution the facilities to beneficiaries among the different blocks and segments of the area.

Respondent no. 20, Panchayat Pradhan of South 24 Parganas, west Bengal said,

“Regular meeting of mothers and health workers are organized to discuss about health related matters, thus awareness regarding health had been increased.”

Respondent no. 21, Pradhan of GP Kalchini in the Jalpaiguri District of West Bengal mentioned
“During my tenure special facilities were obtained by women in case of marriage and also helped families to rehabilitate after head of the family dies unexpectedly”.

Respondent no. 22, Panchayat Samity Member, Puri Sadar, said,

“I want to reschedule the list of BPL of my segment, because some name of the people in Government services and rich people and non-tribal are enclosed in BPL, while some people who are really poor are not listed”.

Respondent no. 23, Anchal Samity Member (ASM), Ngorlung Village, East Siang District, Arunachal Pradesh said,

“I want to reschedule the list of BPL of my segment, because some name of the people in Government services and rich people and non-tribal are enclosed in BPL, while some people who are really poor are not listed”.

Respondent no. 24, Zilla Parishad Member (ZPM), Hari Village, Lower Subansiri District, Arunachal Pradesh, said,

“Recently I provided a few number of study lamps to the some of the students (especially girls) of my block area through a scheme”.

But apart from that there were some women who admitted that they communicate with people through their husbands or any other male member of the family. The reason behind that were the domestic workload and the traditional norms and values of the society.

Respondent no. 25, Zilla Parishad Member, Birbhum Zilla, West Bengal explained

“I cannot communicate directly to the people. It’s a tradition here not to go outside without any mail member of your family. Thus my husband does this. Being a woman I cannot mix-up with the common people who are mostly men. But our husband can do this. People know that he is my husband and thus they tell their problems to him. He conveys it.”

The above statement shows a clear picture of the traditional norms of the society. For these women it is very normal that their husbands or other male family members of the family perform their duty. But it does not support the concept of —proxy women because as it can be seen from the statement that the women representatives go to talk with the people but only with the women because tradition hinder them to talk to the men. There is also evidence that the burden of domestic works also restrain them to communicate with the people.

Respondent no. 26, from Balasore District, Orissa said,

“Due to domestic duties I cannot really find time for it. In spite of me my husband and my son communicate with the people. Normally they hear the problems and make a list and then they give it to me. They also help me to solve these problems so that I can give time to my children and my family.”

Again this statement shows that these women are not proxy but they accept the help because they really do not get time for going out and talk to the people. There is also a suggestion that if there is more open society and the domestic works will be shared between the members of the family these women can also attain good communication skill.
Some other women also informed that as there are costs and other cost of refreshments, they can’t attend the meetings regularly because their economic condition does not allow them to do so.

As respondent no. 27, Panchayat Samity Member, Andhra Pradesh explained the problem,

“My earning is not so much that I can spend it on refreshment costs of meetings. The meeting place is also very far from here so that I cannot go by foot. And I am not in such condition to spend money on public transport.”

Thus the study supports the conclusion of Buch’s (1999) work that the causes for failure to attend meetings are generally related to domestic work and the inconvenience of distance. It also indicates the deep impact of economic condition of persons on their work. Furthermore it was obvious to know that if they do not attend meetings then who manage their panchayat related work. When asked about most of them stated that their husbands manage the work. Here this can be seen as an extension of the previous category where male members of the family help these women to perform the duties. However this is only one dimension of participation in meetings.

Respondent no.28, Khairabad, sitapur district, Uttar Pradesh stated,

“There are so many questions in my mind and want to ask it in the meetings but the male members in the meeting do not give chance to speak. Even if any woman try to speak they (men) start talking with each other and it feels like they have not any interest to know what we (women) want to tell. This type of atmosphere discourages women to raise any issue.”

Another reason that deters women to raise any issues is lack of education.

Respondent no. 29, district of Karunagar, Andhra Pradesh said,

“I normally do not speak in meetings. I feel shy to speak because I am not so good to describe my problems in proper words. This is because I am not well educated.”

CONCLUSIONS

Many obstacles to the realization of PRI’s transformative potential remain. Skepticism about decentralization persists in many quarters. There continues to be a resistance to really devolving power and funds from centres of (male) power to the periphery. Women still face considerable handicaps to their involvement in politics; for example, inadequate education, the burden of reproductive and productive roles, a lack of self-confidence and the opposition of entrenched cultural and religious views. A number of factors limit the active engagement of women in the political sphere. First, deeply entrenched stereotypical norms relegate women to the domestic space, with severely restricted engagement in public affairs, an area largely dominated by men. Second, caste and class restrictions and the patriarchal system and mindset pervade the political space provided to women. Women are still not recognized as political entities and their perspective is seldom seen as integral to the design and delivery of services. The third factor is the lack of exposure of women themselves to politics and the absence of any experience in exercising their political responsibilities. Low literacy levels, absence of education and limited or no exposure, all lead to a lack of confidence and many women are unable to comprehend the true spirit of
decentralization and recognize the opportunities that it provides.

In spite of all these the 73rd Amendment has created an opportunity for large number of rural women to take part in the public institutions. Democracy has become more participatory in the process of implementing it. In many places, women have been functioning well and have engendered the development process, although in a limited sense. The myth of being a proxy woman gets disproved, according to my study.

The elected women prove to be the role model for the village women. Thus we find that the 73rd Amendment has an empowering impact on the women. In a context where women’s labor is still marginalized and the rural hierarchies remain unchallenged to a large extent, the entry of women into politics in such a big way is in itself a radical change. Institutionalize mechanisms to strengthen capacity building of Elected Women Representatives (EWRs) for effective functioning and setting of women’s agenda to better understand and perform their functions will be needed. Mobilize community and strengthen processes of constituency building to enable women to articulate their voices and participate in the electoral process should be implemented to perceive the women truly empowered.

Despite the constraints, they are playing an extremely important role, which needs to be recognized. Even now half of the women are illiterate and their economic contributions don’t get acknowledged. But a good beginning has been made to achieve the long-neglected gender justice.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

Poor participation of women in politics and governance has been a major concern at global level. In Nigeria, women participation in politics is not proportionate to the 50% of the nation’s population which they represent and has not translated into equal representation in political leadership positions. The global issue of goal 3 (to promote gender equality and empower women) of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other international clarion calls for bridging the gap created by long-term discriminations against women and making women visible in politics made Nigeria to recognize women in the political sphere, and include them in both appointive and elective positions. Yet, there persists poor participation of women in politics and the number of women in political positions in Nigeria is growing at a slow rate despite efforts to change such trend. Based on secondary sources of information, this paper, examined the challenges Nigerian women still face in active participation in politics such as discriminatory socio-cultural and religious practices; lack of finance; under-representation of women in governance; unhealthy political environment; political party discrimination; wrong perception of women in politics; lack of family, fellow women and media support; indigenization of women political aspirants; among others. This paper recommended measures to guarantee women active participation in politics in Nigeria such as review of discriminatory practices; economic empowerment; support from family, fellow women and media; equal representation in governance; healthy political environment; proper perception of women in politics, among others.

Keywords: Politics, women, active participation, indigenization, challenges.

INTRODUCTION

Poor participation of women in politics and governance has been a major concern at global level. In Nigeria, women participation in politics is not proportionate to the 50% of the nation’s population which they represent and has not translated into equal representation in political leadership positions. The global issue of goal 3 (to promote gender equality and empower women) of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other international clarion calls for bridging the gap created by long-term discriminations against women and making women visible in politics made Nigeria to recognize women in the political sphere, and include them in both appointive and elective positions. Yet, there persists poor participation of women in politics and the number of women in political positions in Nigeria is growing at a slow rate despite efforts to change such trend by Nigerian women groups/advocates/activists, civil society organizations, Nigerian government and International agencies and to increase women active participation in both politics and public life. This situation persistently falls below the recommended 30% of the Beijing Platform of Action and 35% recommendation of National Policy on Women in Nigeria.

Also, Nigerian women have the guaranteed rights to participate in active politics and governance by virtue of Section 42(1) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria which states that: “A citizen of Nigeria of a particular community, ethnic group, place
of origin, sex, religion or political opinion shall not, by reason only that he is such a person be subjected to any form of discrimination. This further confirms that you can go to court to seek redress if as a woman your franchise is violated and that the constitution as a whole prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex”.

However, over the years, there has been a remarkable increase in women participation when measured with certain standards like the number of women who vote in elections; the number of appointive and elective positions held by women; number of women related policies implemented by government; and so on.

Yet, there is observed extensive discrimination against women and under-representation of them in politics and governance in Nigeria when compared with their male counterparts in actual practice.

### Table 1


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<td>President</td>
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<td>Senate</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3 (2.8%)</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4 (3.7%)</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>9 (8.3%)</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>7 (6.4%)</td>
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<td>House of Reps.</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>12 (3.3%)</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>21 (5.8%)</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>25 (6.9%)</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>26 (7.2%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Governor</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>State House of Assembly (SHA)</td>
<td>990</td>
<td>24 (2.4%)</td>
<td>990</td>
<td>40 (3.9%)</td>
<td>990</td>
<td>57 (5.8%)</td>
<td>990</td>
<td>68 (6.9%)</td>
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<td>SHA Committee</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>18 (2.2%)</td>
<td>881</td>
<td>32 (3.6%)</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>52 (5.9%)</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>LGA Chairperson</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>13 (1.8%)</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>15 (1.9%)</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>27 (3.6%)</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Councilors</td>
<td>6368</td>
<td>69 (1.1%)</td>
<td>6368</td>
<td>267 (4.2%)</td>
<td>6368</td>
<td>235 (3.7%)</td>
<td>6368</td>
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Source: Eyeh (2010); Irabor (2011) and Okoronkwo-Chukwu (2013)

### Table 2

**Trends of Women Deputy Governors in Nigeria Since 1999**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Election Year</th>
<th>No. of Women Deputy Governors</th>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1</td>
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Source: Adapted from Ogunyankin (2012)

The statistics from table 1 revealed that from 1999-2011 general elections in Nigeria, no woman was elected into the office of the governor in any of the 36 states and that of the
president of the federation. Moreover, out of 109 Senators, there were only 3 women (2.8%) in 1999; which increased to 4 (3.7%) in 2003; a further increase to 9 (8.3%) in 2007; and a slight decline to 7 (6.4%) in 2011. Also, out of 360 House of Representative members, there were only 12 women (3.3%) in 1999; which increased to 21 (5.8%) in 2003; a further increase to 25 (6.9%) in 2007; and a slight increase to 26 (7.2%) in 2011. Also, table 2 revealed that the number of women elected as deputy governors for 1999, 2003, 2007, and 2011 were 1, 2, 6, and 1 respectively. In 1999, according to Luka (2012), there was an improvement on women political participation with the appointment of 4 out of the 29 senior ministers representing 13.7% and 3 out of the 18 junior ministers representing 16.6%; 2 women advisors and 2 senior special assistants and 6 special assistants and 1 special assistant to the vice president as well as 8 permanent secretaries. Women were also appointed as commissioners and therefore members of the executive councils in all the states (Kolawole, Abubakar, Owonibi, and Adebayo, 2012). Considering the 2011 political appointments, out of 7 principal officers of the Senate, there was no woman; there was only 1 woman (10%) out of 9 officers of the House of Representative; and for the ministerial appointments as at 7th August, 2011, there 13 women (32%) out of 41. However, from 1999 -2011, there has been a drastic increase in women political participation in both elective and appointive positions particularly appointive. In spite of these increases, women are still highly marginalized considering the disparity in the proportion of men to women in politics and decision making positions (Ngara and Ayabam, 2013). Similarly, UNDP report concludes that women participation in politics and decision making is still inadequate (Asaju and Adagba, 2013).

Furthermore, despite these improvements, the representation of women in politics and decision making in Nigeria is still far below the global benchmark of 35% affirmative action. It is against this background that this paper examined “Challenges to women active participation in Politics in Nigeria”.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

Politics: Politic refers to the activities of the government members of lawmakers organization or people who try to influence the way a country like Nigeria is governed.

Women: Generally, the word ‘women’ means any adult female person as contrasted with girl. Women, from the Nigerian political arena, are adult female persons who have attained the age of franchise (18 years of minimum age).

Active participation: Active participation here refers to active political participation which is seen as those voluntary activities by which members of the society share in the selection of leaders and directly or indirectly in the formation of policy and is a civic right of all citizens. Political participation involves essential political activities such as attending political meetings, rallies, campaigns, nominations, elections, etc; holding political party offices and public offices; contesting for elective positions; voting in elections; holding elective and appointive positions; attaining political power in legislative bodies; and other electoral activities.

Indigenization: Indigenization is where a married woman political aspirant is denied support in contesting for electoral position seeks appointive position from her state of origin and that of her husband on the basis that having married outside her state she has lost her indigene ship and that she is a stranger in her husband’s state of origin respectively. It simply refers to lack of constituency Nigerian women political aspirants.

Challenges: Challenges here refer to the factors that have been proved to stand on the way of Nigerian women thereby preventing
them from active participation in politics of their country (Nigeria).

The challenges to women active participation in politics in Nigeria are manifold. In this paper, some of these challenge examined include but are not limited to the following:

**DISCRIMINATORY SOCIO-CULTURAL AND RELIGIOUS PRACTICES**

The entrenched socio-cultural and religious practices in Nigeria skewed in favour of men and against women constitute serious challenge to women active participation in politics. Women (including Nigerian women), according to Muoghalu and Abrifor (2012), are discouraged from participating in public life from childhood through adulthood by authority figures such as husbands, fathers, mothers and other relations due to cultural image of a virtuous woman defined as quiet, submissive who should be seen and not heard. Because of the patriarchal nature of the Nigerian society, most Nigerians including women still believe and accept the traditional perspectives that view women as inferior to men, second class citizens, weaker sex, to be seen and not heard, child bearers/ primary care-givers, etc. In most cases, they feel the game of politics is an exclusive reserve of men and dare not venture into it and those who manage to venture are usually contented with the back seats (Ngara et al., 2013).

Likewise, religious practices are used as powerful instruments of stereotype against Nigerian women political aspirants/politicians from active participation in politics. For instance, in Northern Nigeria, the purdah system (i.e. house seclusion of women) of the Islamic doctrine strictly bars women from participating in politics either as voters, political aspirants or even participating in campaigns/other electoral activities. However, when it comes to the issue of political leadership and formulation of government policies women’s role in Islam is limited to supportive and advisory (Nwankwo and Surma, 2008). Also, the Christian doctrine does not accord women much role in public life.

**LACK OF FINANCE**

Politics in Nigeria, especially seeking elective position is an expensive venture requiring huge financial involvement and solid financial backing. Generally, the relatively pathetic poor financial disposition of Nigerian women is a critical challenge which mostly accounts for their poor participation in politics and political defeat in elections. About 90% of women in Nigeria, according to Ngara et al. (2013), currently live below poverty line, so in spite of concession granted by some major political parties which lowers the cost of obtaining party nomination forms for women into elective office, nonetheless, the cost of realizing electoral ambition is still far beyond the reach of even the most highly placed women in the absence of “a godfather who foots the bill in exchange for unlimited favour when the seat is eventually secured” (Yahaya, 2012). Considering the financial backing, the godfathers’ and other financiers of politicians in Nigeria prefer male political aspirants to female ones based on the societal value assumption that political activities are masculine and male candidates are believed to stand better chance of winning elections. In Nigeria, the women poor access to credit facilities, lack of inheritance rights for developmental purposes; including culturally unacceptable control of their income and resources while living with their husbands (for married ones) contribute to their lack of financial strength as a major challenge in their active participation in politics.

**UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN GOVERNANCE**

Nigerian women are marginalized, discriminated against and are greatly under-represented in politics and governance where important decisions are taken relative to their male-counterparts which is a terrible challenge to their active participation in the nation’s
It is regrettable that although women constitute the greater number of the registered voters in any elections held in Nigeria, they are yet to experience full representative positions (Okoronkwo-Chukwu, 2013). The 1999 Nigeria Constitution generally refers to non-discrimination on the basis of sex, etc but is no explicit in ensuring equal representation on gender basis, takes no cognizance of the disadvantaged position of women, and has no provision for gender equality. Likewise, “the Federal Character Principle, which is meant to ensure equitable representation of states and ethnic groups in national appointments, actually places Nigerian women at additional disadvantage by implying that they can only represent their of origin. Where culture does not permit a woman to represent her place of birth, she loses a golden opportunity. There have been many cases where a woman’s state of origin disallows her appointment and the husband’s state also refuses to endorse her. In many of these instances the government plays safe by appointing a man instead. This has continued to consolidate women’s under-representation in national politics (Agbalajobi, 2010). Based on the quota allocation system as approved by the UN to be implemented in global politics, and the Beijing Conference agreement on 30% public seats and positions to be reserved for women, it is evident that there has been an increase in the number of Nigerian women in elective and appointive positions. Yet, there is still under-representation of Nigerian women in governance which is another major challenge to their active participation in politics.

**UNHEALTHY POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT**

Unhealthy Political environment is another challenge to women active participation in politics in Nigeria. The political terrain in Nigeria is do-or-die affair fraught with violence, maiming, assassinations, threats, blackmail, intimidation, humiliation, etc which are used by mostly men to scare women away from active participation in politics in Nigeria.

Involvement of thugs before, during and after elections (Kolawal et al., 2012), and the attendant insecurity such as destruction of lives and properties that characterized a typical electoral process in Nigeria makes politics something out-of-the-way for most women (Ngara et al., 2013). An illustration of electoral violence in Nigeria is the testimony of a female aspirant, Dorathy Nyone who narrated that “a ward chairman was shot dead; all the women and most of the men fled the scene. My husband rushed there and took me home. I was scared; men who were fully prepared for violence were the only ones who remained behind to hand pick the various winners” (Luka, 2011). Nigerian women have over the years become targets of violence of diverse forms based on their positions in promoting transformative politics (Agblajaobi, 2010).

**POLITICAL PARTY DISCRIMINATION**

In Nigeria, political party is the framework for the attainment of political ambitions by politicians. Its hierarchy, membership, and funding are still male-dominated which made it possible for them to be influencing the party’s internal politics and often sideling women. The manifestos and constitutions of political parties in Nigeria rarely mention Affirmative Action for women, and when they do, their commitments are lower than the bench mark set by regional and International conventions. The political party discrimination against women in politics in Nigeria is often a deliberate effort to humiliate and frustrate them into losing focus and excluding them from active participation in politics. For instance, the timing of political meetings (mostly late in the night) and serious politicking which involves a lot of traveling automatically exclude mostly married women from active participation in politics. The Nigerian women are not likely to be voted into key positions in the political party hierarchy.
They hold mostly insignificant posts of ex-officio members and women leaders whose importance is only for mobilizing womenfolk to vote for men. Thus, they are usually unable to assert themselves or push for the interest of women during nominations leading to marginalization of women during election. In addition, most Nigerian political parties marginalize and discriminate against female political aspirants by excluding them from politics through traditional methods based on male-centred interpretation of culture, religion and sharp practices of “zone out” and “step-down techniques mainly for women. The “zone out” technique is where a political party simply zones out the seat of a female aspirant to constituency she is not regarded as an indigene while “step-down” technique is where a female candidate who has clearly scaled through party nomination and is eligible to contest an election is simply asked to step down for a more suitable candidate (mostly men).

In most political parties in Nigeria, the discrimination against women from the men folk in selecting, electing or voting for candidates for elections and in allocating political offices which most often tend to relegate women to the background is a critical challenge to women active participation in politics.

LACK OF FAMILY, FELLOW WOMEN, AND MEDIA SUPPORTS

Lack of family support is a critical challenge to women active participation in politics in Nigeria. Because of the patriarchal nature of Nigerian society, it is culturally assumed that women must seek permission from the men/husbands before venturing into politics. However, if such permission is not granted, the only option for such women is to drop their political ambitions. Thus, most family members especially husbands even among the educated ones do not allow women wives to participate actively in politics in Nigeria. Many poor women political aspirants do not enjoy family support financially, socially, and otherwise.

The Nigerian women political aspirants/politicians lack support of their fellow women politically which is a major challenge to their active participation in politics. It is unfortunate that women in Nigeria do not have expected confidence in the leadership abilities of their fellow women and do not support them to win elections. Although, factors like envy, jealousy, and other problems associated with interpersonal relations are common with women, generally, most women would rather vote or support men to win election than their fellow women in spite of their numerical strength (Ngara et al., 2013) and such is applicable to Nigerian women. However, this has placed the Nigerian men at an advantage vis-à-vis their women counterparts when it come to mobilizing support for elections. In Nigeria, “a classical example of this scenario was the case of Mrs Sarah Jubril, who contested against the President Goodluck Jonathan and former Vice-President Atiku Abubakar in the Peoples Democratic Party presidential primaries preparatory to the 2011 general elections. At the end of the exercise, Sarah Jubril pulled
only one vote - obviously an own vote. This shows that even her closest female supporters did not vote for her (Ngara et al., 2013). However, many Nigerian women psychologically regard and perceive the social stigma that politics is a “dirty game” and as such tend to wrongly perceive fellow women into politics as arrogant and irresponsible and want to pull them down. As a result of this syndrome, most Nigerian women dread politics to retain their good personality traits and not break their matrimonial home (for the married ones).

Another serious challenge to women active participation in politics in Nigeria is lack of media support. Most of the political feats of women in Nigerian cultural histories are not properly mentioned / documented or downplayed to make them irrelevant to the national history and heritage mainly because of the patriarchal nature of nation. Unfortunately, most media houses refuse to project the female political aspirants. For instance, Hon. Barrister (Mrs.) Ugochi Nnanna- Okoro, politician and former Peoples Democratic Party governorship aspirant in Imo state in the 2003 general elections in Nigeria had ugly experiences with the media. Ugochi, according to Nwankwo (2005) “was shocked to find her access to state-owned Radio and Television Stations blocked. Money she paid for publicity was returned to her ‘on the pretext that I failed to get approval from the Imo State Government, Also at the Imo Broadcasting service, some retorted, ‘Madam take back your money. I don’t want to be sacked’ she said”.

Most media publicly present stereotyped or negative images of Nigerian women political aspirants/politicians. They appear to disparage women roles and contributions to national development. There is always poor media coverage of women political campaign and other electoral activities thereby discriminating against them to probably favour their male counterparts.

INDIGENIZATION OF WOMEN POLITICAL ASPIRANTS

The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, according to Olufemi (2006) continues to act as an impediment to women’s active political ambitions as married women is often confronted with the problem of constituency, especially if she is married outside her locality or state of origin as she cannot claim the state of origin of her husband. If a married Nigerian woman goes back to her constituency or birth/state of origin, she is likely to receive the same discriminatory treatment for she regarded as being over ambitious and a “non-indigene” by her own state of origin. Similarly, such women have no base from which to develop political contacts with the people or build knowledge and experience about the issues in the areas and are not considered for elective positions. Thus, the indigenization of Nigerian women that discourages them from active participation in politics is a remarkable challenge.

CONCLUSION

The global issue of goal 3 (to promote gender equality and empower women) of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other international clarion calls for bridging the gap created by long-term discriminations against women and making women visible in politics made Nigeria to recognize women in the political sphere, and include them in both appointive and elective positions. It is no doubt that women still remain highly marginalized, discriminated against; and are under-represented in political life of the nation. This is more obvious when the proportion of men to women in politics and decision making positions is compared despite the fact that women represent 50% of the nation’s population. Several challenges that Nigerian women still face in active participation in politics such as discriminatory socio-cultural and religious practices; lack of finance; under-representation of women in
governance; unhealthy political environment; political party discrimination; wrong perception of women in politics; lack of family, fellow women and media support; indigenization of women political aspirants; among others, have been identified as responsible for this state of affair. Thus, the recommended measures to guarantee women active participation in politics in Nigeria included review of discriminatory practices; economic empowerment; support from family, fellow women and media; equal representation in governance; healthy political environment; proper perception of women in politics, among others.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the conclusion, the following recommendations are made.

Review of discriminatory practices
Discriminatory socio-cultural and religious practices against women active participation in politics in Nigeria should be positively reviewed by stakeholders (particularly traditional/religious rulers and government) who should be educated to be gender sensitive and encouraged to protect women political and other rights and ensure support of their political ambitions. These stakeholders should ensure that cultural/religious practices that discriminate against women are discouraged and their perpetrators are adequately punished to serve as deterrent measures.

Economic empowerment of women
Women should be given equal access to credit facilities and factors of production like land and labour just like men to enhance their output and income generation. The discriminatory laws of inheritance, succession and land tenure; and collateral of husband’s consent for granting loans to women which deny them the legal ownership and possible access to credit facilities should be eliminated. In addition, government should adopt and strictly enforce deliberate policy frameworks and empowering programmes by all stakeholders.

Support from family, fellow women, and media
Family members (especially husbands of married women) should give women political aspirants the relevant consent and support to venture into politics and governance. Through awareness campaign and voters’ education programs, women should be informed of their political rights to participate actively in politics not only as voters but also to be voted for in the numerous political positions and be encouraged to support and vote for their fellow women political aspirants/polioticians. Furthermore, media should support Nigerian women political aspirants/polioticians by publicly projecting their positive images; emphasizing their important roles and contributions to national development; raising their participation awareness in politics and governance; deploring discriminations against them; among others. The gender stereotypes in the media should be discouraged.

Equal representation in governance
There should be equal representation of Nigerian men and women in governance to ensure that enacting laws of the land and making policies particularly those affecting gender issues will always remain equitable. There should be enabling Constitutional amendment to ensure equitable appointive and elective positions in governance for meaningful national development. The national legislations should comply with International standards established in various international treaties and instruments for elimination of discrimination against women and to capture the interest of women through adequate representation. Political empowerment, especially through the strengthening of affirmative action and allocation of quota for Nigerian women in politics and decision making positions should be strictly implemented to encourage their active participation in politics.
Proper perception of women in politics

The use of negative labeling, derogatory names, abusive language and expressions to describe women in politics should be discouraged through sensitization and public enlightenment campaigns in Nigeria. The campaigns of male political opponents that portray Nigerian women as acting against the Nigerian culture of not accepting leadership roles of women just to marginalize them should be discouraged. In Nigeria, women in politics should be properly perceived as partners of their male counterparts in politics and governance of the nation.

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WOMEN IN SOUTH ASIA: QUESTION OF EMPOWERMENT IN THE ERA OF GLOBALIZATION

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ABSTRACT

The question of empowerment has been a very debatable issue in south Asia today. Since the creation of civilization women have been deprived economically, socially and politically. Aristotle did not say anything about the emancipation of woman. In the rising of John Stuart Mill, we have seen something positive about the woman, when he said for the representation of woman in parliament. But in many countries in Europe women got their voting rights long days after their independence. Actually, in the 19th century the woman question became a part of the discourses of progress of modernity. Women work two-thirds world’s working hours this working hour of woman are spent in multifarious works done by them namely food cooking, rising children carrying for the members for the family. In return of putting up such hard labour woman earn only 10 per cent of the world income. This is because woman’s household labour is mostly unpaid and their labour in outside is underpaid. Woman own less than 1 per cent of world’s property. It has been estimated that nearly 876 million adult populations cannot read and write. Woman make-up two-thirds of these estimated illiterate population. In India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan women are till now not getting social support. Issue of woman empowerment in these countries is not satisfactory in these countries. In the era of globalization woman in trouble in society and politics, why and how? These questions will be answered in my paper.

Keywords: empowerment, globalization, job, inequality, representation, power, south asia, trafficking, disparity, rural, urban, stability.

INTRODUCTION

In the era of globalization a small section of south Asian women are enjoying facilities. But basic needs indeed, in vulnerable position. Social constraints, economic instability, under position in politics are responsible for not proper empowerment of women in south Asia. Women are neglected section in this region. Women trafficking are going on throughout the region. Globalization has made an uneven impact on women in south Asia. Really, globalization is a force just like tornado, which changed the entire society as well as position of women partially. Rapid social changes, increased education and job opportunities, consumerist culture, stiffer competitions, disruption of families, increasing violence, loss of tolerance, increased individualism and selfishness are features of the present globalised society (Moly Kuruvilla, 2013, p.526). Globalization has brought a force of empowerment for urban women’s of South Asia. In some countries of South Asia Women are getting alternative jobs. New avenues are opened for women, but stability of jobs and nature of jobs are not favourable for them. Regarding security in working place especially in corporate sectors women are facing a lot of problems. By bringing them into workforce,
Globalization has given women the power to question the system that breeds poverty, exploitation and oppression. Some argue that, globalization has changed the position of South Asian females. They get a new financial independence, self identity, social status and political power. Although globalization has able to reshape the socio-economic structure of a country, yet South Asian women’s have not been equally benefited by the globalised force. Issue of women empowerment partially happened, but it was not happened for all section of the south Asian societies. In this paper I will search the reasons behind the empowerment and also shed light why all sections of women are not getting positive effects of globalization. There are three hypotheses of my paper, which are as follows:

1. Globalization has brought huge positive change on South Asian women.

2. In the era of globalization the process of empowerment has been started only in urban area of South Asia, through which women are being benefited.

3. Security of women is threatened by male colleagues in working place and numbers of women trafficking has been increased.

4. In the name of empowerment women are often willingly or forcefully bound to involve in offensive activities and indigenous cultures are being destroying by globalize force.

A THEORITICAL OUTLINE OF FEMINISM

Before going to issue of women empowerment of women in South Asia in the era of globalization I would like make a theoretical outline of feminist theory. Actually, Feminist theory is an attempt at giving rational explanation of the universality of women’s oppression. Indeed, Feminist theory seeks to use its theoretical knowledge to change women’s social condition. To Rinita Majumdar, Feminist theory is neither redundant nor an appendage to feminist political action; for understand in women’s subordination in a rational and systematic way is a prerequisite to bringing about changes in women’s lives and society in general. For both Aristotle and his follower St. Thomas quinas, writing during the middle ages, women’s subordinate position in society follows from her nature which is inferior to men. Women for Aristotle are inferior to men due to an inherent lack in the female biology.St.Thomas further added that women are the cause of sin and hence should occupy subordinate position in society. To Aristotle,” nature makes a similar differentiation in the mental characteristics of the two sexes” (Rinita Mazumdar,2010,pp.19-21).According to Rousseau, “the champion of liberty during the French Revolution, women’s subordinate position in society springs from a natural fact- that women become mothers. Because only the female of the species give birth they should be subordinated to men in all matters in society especially with regard to their sexuality.”John Stuart Mill had advocated in favour of women regarding representation in Parliament. To Mill,” whatever women’s services are most wanted for, the free play of competition will hold out the strongest inducement to them to undertake.”

Liberal feminism sprang within the context of economic and political liberalism in England Liberal feminist believe that, individuals who leave in society should have political and legal rights irrespective of their sexes. Mary Wollstonecraft as a feminist had played a pioneer role in seeks of women’s rights in 19th century. She had to fight against the entire society to ensure the rights of women. In her famous book entitled A Vindication of Women she said, “Each individual has natural rights in society irrespective of his or her sex.”To her, democracy is not a ‘true’ one unless women get the right to vote. Elizabeth Cady Stanton, an American feminist of the 19th century, argued that women’s right to vote is her natural right.3 In Marxist point of view,
women’s status is like that of a proletariat whose labour is used by those who control the means of production. For Nicholson in pre-capitalist societies rules regulating marriage and sexuality were intimately connected to the economy and production system. The basic theses of radical feminism are that women’s oppression is universal and cannot be subsumed other oppressions such as class or race oppression: women from a class that cuts across a racial and other class barriers. Post Modernist feminist, like Alcoff argued that women can discover pockets of identity where their roles are still defined for them and then change those places and discourses. In the era of globalization issue of women empowerment becomes a debatable issue especially on women’s participation in political and civil society. In western society women are advanced in every aspect they are also aware about their rights. Yet most of the western countries were not so liberal regarding the voting rights of women. For instance in Norway women got voting rights in 1913, in Great Britain in 1918, in United States of America in 1920, in France and Italy in 1946. All of these above mentioned countries women got their voting rights after long years of their independence.Before going to discussion I would like to say something about the empowerment. Empowerment is defined as a social action process that promotes participation of people, organizations communities in gaining control over their lives in their community and larger society (Jane Stein, 1997, p.7). The issue of empowerment of women, which is a central concern for feminism, is conceptually interconnected with the concepts of identity and freedom. Coming specifically to the issue of women and that of women and that of gender identity, it can be said that gender discrimination and subordination of women resulting from it is the basic characteristic with reference to which an identity is bestowed on women’s a group to be empowered.4 Generally, empowerment of woman means the self-realization of women and her active participation in decision making, in her social and personal life. Empowerment is widely and specially used with reference to women’s holistic development. Holistic development means her social, cultural, economic, political, mental and spiritual development. In addition, empowerment means women’s realization of her own capacities and power so that she faces challenges and overcome social and cultural barriers.

How is gender empowerment measured? Gender empowerment can be measured by following paradigms—

1. The proportion of seats held by women in Parliament (political and decision making power)
2. The proportion of women administrations and managers (economic participation)
3. The proportion of women professionals and technical workers and economic participation
4. Women’s real GDP per capita income.

Now come to the discussion of ‘globalization’. Globalization has often discussed both as a programme and a process. As a programme globalization is a recent phenomenon, characterized by the belief in the law of free market. In that sense it is equated to the devices used by imperialist forces establish its hegemony in the world to this view, globalization started in the 1980s with the fall of the socialist project and the economic integration of the national markets, outsourcing of international companies progress in communication etc. Time and gain it is revealed that the globalization programme brings about a diminution of the role of the state in the third world countries and the latter’s structural adjustment programme at the instance of the Brettonwoods institutions. My observation is that all of the South Asian countries are post colonial. In the era of globalization how the south Asian women are
getting facilities, that questions will be searched in my paper.

**WOMEN EMPOWERMENT IN INDIA**

Globalization, no doubt, has offered tremendous opportunities for overall development, but at the same time, it has negative aspects, which far outweigh the positive. At first I will discuss on political empowerment of Indian women. Women have solely foothold in political decision-making, but progress is erratic and marked by regional differences in India. According to September 2011 Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) Report there was 19.25% women parliamentarians as compared to 80.75% men in the national parliament. In the first general elections, held in 1952, out of 499 total seats there were 22 women members elected in the lower house of the parliament which was 4.4% of the total. A record of 59 MPs have been declared to the 15th Parliament the highest ever since independence and 17 of them are aged less than 40. Representation of women have to increase for social justice. Women’s Reservation Bill aims to bring about gender equality in Parliament and state legislatures. Still the percentage of women in lower house of Parliament (Lok Sabha) is found between 7% and 11% even after 64 years of independence. In state Assemblies, too, representation of women is abysmally low. Several times Women Reservation Bill rose in Parliament, but did not pass. At the state Assemblies, representation of women is also dissatisfactory. Although there are some instances of effective women leadership in India both in national level as well as state level. Smt. Indira Gandhi, Smt. Sonia Gandhi of Congress Party, Basundhara Raje Sindhia, Smt. Susma Swaraj of BJP, Jay Lalita of DMK, Kumari Mayatwi of BSP, Smt. Mamata Banerjee of Trinamul Congress are strong instances of women empowerment in politics in India. (Debasish Nandy, 2013, pp. 18-23).

The impertinence of these women leaders in the present Indian politics not necessarily reflect gender empowered or gender justice. The empowerment of some women leaders is not related with the empowerment of women in general. (Jayasree Ghosh, 2007, p.42). There are 32 index of assessment of women empowerment in India. Regarding women empowerment the position of Kerala is first. Tamil Nadu and West Bengal are in middle position. U.P and Bihar are till now in lower position. Karnataka Maharashtra and Gujarat are in 3rd, 5th and 7th position respectively. Regarding education and empowerment North-East Indian states are in backward position. In Kerala, rate of literacy is 100% and there women are important working force. In vision 2020 of Indian government, the issue of women education got priority.

Globalization has brought numerous opportunities for Indian women. Effects of globalization especially concentrated in urban areas or more specifically, in major metropolitan cities in India. Some alternatives jobs have been created in which thousands of women already absorbed. In IT industries, management houses, media houses, ad agencies, call centers, hotel and resorts, air lines, parlors, shopping mall, big MNCs, Private banks and insurance companies Indian women are getting jobs. Security of job is uncertain. Women are not secure in working place. Women are being harassed by male colleagues at working place. Numbers of government is reduced. Rural women still today are in backward position. In unorganized sectors the ratio of women empowerment has been increased after 1991. But major high level posts in private and government sectors are hold by male.

**WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT IN PAKISTAN**

Under Pakistani constitution, a certain number of seats in government service are reserved for women. In the 342 seat National Assembly, women can hold 60 seats 73 do. In the 104
seat Senate; 17 must be women and 18 currently are senators. Pakistan is a democratic country in South Asia. Pakistan’s Assembly has 22% female representation, he argues, more than double the figure in India. Yet Pakistan ranks near the bottom in most global rankings on women’s freedom and status. Yet Islamization of state system has made a problem in the process of women’s empowerment. In the era of globalization where as other parts of South Asian women’s are retting facilities, then comparatively Pakistani women’s are in backward in position. Islamic fundamental forces often create obstacle on the way of their free exercise of thinking. Although government of Pakistan has taken several steps in favour of women empowerment, yet societal barrier, especially jehadi groups are creating problems. In 2013, Malalah Yusuf Jaye, a teen ager girl, was vehemently attacked by Taliban terrorist group, while she argued for taking her education. In rural area due to illiteracy women are not able to enjoy the facilities of globalization. Fifty percent of our population is women, so it is expected 50% representation should be for women. In practice, women representation in different sectors in Pakistan is not satisfactory. In private industry, most heads of companies are male, though there are some female’s representation in education and health. Regarding human rights and fundamental rights women are still now in worst position. They are less healthy, less nourished and more vulnerable than men. Patriarchal nature of society in Pakistan, provide women fewer chances to acquire property, low level of legal support for justice and few opportunities for political participation. Even in the era of globalization women are considered as means of producing children, caring family members and providing them emotional satisfaction. In their routine life, most of the women do not have their own goals but they respond to the need and demands of others. In but there is some exception; for examples at Karachi University 72% of students are female, 87% of women are enrolled in medical schools and 92% in architecture.

I have some Recommendations to women empowerment of Pakistan, which as follows:

(1) Education plays a vital role in empowering women and it is thus recommended that there is a need to make some radical changes in existing education system that promote gender awareness.

(2) Adult education should be launched to educate married couple. Legislation should be made to fix the country are reported to be occurred among females who were marred between the ages 14 and 17 years. There is a need of legislation that must be supportive for women in acquiring and relating the property. Percentage of women in jobs, there is a need to enhance the labour force participation of women. Most of women campaign that their husband does not allow them to do paid work due to lack of security of women. Therefore there is a need to establish enabling environment for the women.

(3) Pakistan federal government should have to alert about the activities of fundamentalist groups. Apart from these, government will have to create jobs and alternative profession for women.

QUESTION OF EMPOWERMENT IN SRILANKA

Waves of globalization have made a positive effect on Srilankan women. South Asian island country is equal access to a wide network of state schools, the provision of free primary, secondary and tertiary education and the importance attached to education at the household level have made a notable impact on gender equity and overall educational attainment. In Srilanka the high net primary school enrolment and completion rates at 96% and gender parity in secondary education is reflected in the increase in female literacy.
rates from 67.3% in 1963 to 90.8% in 2010. However, the disparities in the provision of educational facilities and services and socio-economic constraints of particularly in urban settlements, remote villages, plantations and conflict offered areas have resulted in pockets of educational deprivation. For instance, a female literacy rate in the Nuwara Eliyais District is 80.1%, Batticaloa is 81.3% and Ampara is 87.2%. Rate of education in these districts is unfavorably to compare with the overall literacy rates.

In higher education there are notable imbalances in the intake of female students to the engineering and technology related courses in the universities, as well as technical colleges. In the universities, for instance, of the 7,669 females enrolled in the academic year 2004-2005; the intake to the science, computer science and engineering streams stood at 1543 (or 20.1% of total number of females enrolled). The growing number of females entering the workforce rose from 1,656,166 in 1995 to 2,068,667 in 2000 and 2,465,265 in 2010. According to the Sri Lankan Labour Force Survey, in 2010 females accounted 33.4% of the employed labour force, as against 30.9% in 1995. Labour force statistics disaggregated by occupation group indicate that the female workers are centralized in the following categories:

1. Skilled agricultural and fishery workers (24.5%),
2. Elementary occupation (22.7%),
3. Craft and related workers (25.8),
4. Professionals (10.4),
5. Less than 2% of the female force is employed in the senior officials and managers category.

An indicator of gender inequality in the labour market is the high female unemployment rate. The unemployment rate among females with GCE (AL) and above qualifications is 15.8%, while the considerably lower at 7.9%. A significant proportion (57% or 1,470,000) of the female work force is employed in the informal sector in a diverse range of activities particularly home based industries, casual wage employment in domestic and subcontracted units. Employment in the informal sectors is characterized by lower wages, less favourable and exploitative working conditions. Women constitute the bulk of the work force in Sri Lanka’s three leading foreign exchange earners viz. garments, foreign remittances and tea, making a valuable contribution to GDP, balance of payments and overall economic development.

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) shows the rank of Sri Lanka is 85 (out of 93 countries) with an index of 0.369 which is relatively low in equality. Sri Lanka’s relatively poor ranking on the GDI and GEM. (Peter Hancock, Sharon Middleton, Jamie Moore and Indika Edirisinghe, Gender, Status and Empowerment: A Study Among Women Who Work in Sri Lanka’s Export Processing Zones, Social Justice Research Centre, Edith Crown University, Australia, 20011.) There are several issues which, seriously undermined women’s empowerment and status. The data showed that despite economic employment and significant contribution made to the economy in Sri Lanka, women do not have the time community and political involvement. 78.3% of women reporting that they did not participate more in community and political decision making as a result of their work. Only 37.8% of women were more involved in decision making outside the home. The issue of physical, verbal and sexual abuse of workers is highlighted in Peter Hancock’s report. It appears that verbal abuse is particularly occurs in working place while there is an undercurrent of physical and sexual abuse and harassment which is present but under reported (Hancock, op.cit, p.6).
EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN IN BANGLADESH

Globalization has not been able to ensure the betterment of women status at all. Rural based Bangladeshi economy is ruled by the male. Rate literacy is not satisfactory. Women representation has comparatively been increased in the era of globalization by the leadership both of Sk. Hasina and Begam Khaleda Zia. During their regimes several steps have been taken for the empowerment of women. Scholarship has been started for female students from class misgovernment and non-government organizations (NGO) are jointly started self help projects. Micro credit system has been started for self employment of rural women. Capital city (Dhaka) based developmental activities is centralized. City based women are getting limited jobs in MNCs, foreign banks, hoping malls, managements. Market and scope of jobs are very limited. In unorganized sectors illiterate women get some jobs. Garments goods exporting are the most important for Bangladesh. Women participations in rural administration (union parishad) is very limited. Male dominated system and Islamic fundamentalism together make a constraint on the way of political participation in rural area in Bangladesh. Women are societal not in better position. Religious masters are often imposed strict direction on women to maintain Islamic rule. According to them, women should learn only Arabic, Quran and Hadis and other holy books on Islam. Women are being threatened after Taliban regime in Afghanistan. Women workers in garments industry constitute 60% of total labour force. Garments factories are not secured. There are no fire protection, there are no standard wage structure. In working place they often are being sexually harassed. Many poor women are being migrated to Middle East countries.

WOMEN TRAFFICKING IN SOUTH ASIA AND EMPOWERMENT

In the era of globalization women trafficking are going on in the South Asian region. Over the last decade, the growing trafficking problem in South Asia has been recognized. Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh have been designated as “sending” countries or countries of origin in the regional web trafficking. Pakistan is usually referred to as countries of “transit” and “destination”. Girls and women are trafficked within country boundaries, to other countries within the region, and across regions and continents beyond South Asia. India is a country of source, transit and destination for trafficking in person. Women are trafficked from neighboring countries such as Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan to India for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation (Amrita Banerjee, 2013, p.26). Trafficking has created a problem on the way of empowerment of women in South Asia. It is very surprising that in this region traffickers are sometimes the family members. Family members are often including family members and the being part of the organized criminal network. Due to uncertainty of jobs and economic security as well as illiteracy Women trafficking have been expended in this region. The traffickers buy the women, sell them and move them about within the same country or from one country to another. Women and girls have been commodities of unrecognized international trade. The global sex trade, which includes prostitution, sex tourism, mail order brides and pornography, is a billion dollar global enterprise.

In south Asia, cross-border trafficking and transit to destination is a big problem. More than a million of women and girls are being bound to enter into prostitution in South Asian countries. A large number of women and girls come from Nepal and Bhutan and Bangladesh to India. Like many of its neighbours, women in...
Bhutan face a number of human rights abuses ranging from economic inequality to gender based violence. The traffickers identify the women in vulnerable situations, and then they approach the girls lure them with various false promises of jobs, money, marriage, adoption etc. (Amrita Banerjee, p.28).with the other parts of the globe, women’s trafficking on the grounds that it has not done enough to deal with the problem. In contrast to India, Pakistan has been taken off the watch list following its “improved anti trafficking performance”. This problem is not new, but it has now been exacerbated by globalization as the demand is created by globalization itself and the growing competition within the globalized sex industry. Millions of women and girls are present in Indian brothels and at least 87.1% of these victims are from Nepal and Bhutan. West Bengal, as state of India is a busy destination and transit point of trafficking of women from Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh. According to survey report of National Human Rights Commission, there is 1, 50,000 women and girls are trafficked in South Asia every year. On June 14th, 1997, the world was shocked upon learning that about 2, 00,000 under aged Nepali girls were sold into brothels all over India. They very mention of Mumbai, conjures up images of jobs, success, money glamour and stardom.72% of Nepali women are illiterate.

WOMEN IN HIGHER POSITION IN SOUTH ASIAN COUNTRY AT A GLANCE

Less than half of South Asian countries have a constitutional quota for women in their National Parliaments. In South Asia only 7% women are members of political parties.1. Low representation of women leaders across South Asia: In India, women have share of 11% in the National Parliament, Bangladesh (18.5% in the 2008 Parliament election) , Bhutan 8.5% women in the National Assembly, Srilanka 8.5% in the Parliament.(Un women and ICRW,20011). Across South Asia Women make up less than 5% of the police and less than 10% of judges.(Progress of World’s Women: Access to Justice , 2011-12,UN Women). According to World Bank Report (2009) highlights that South Asia has the lowest female participation rate in its formal labour force, as compared to the rest of the world(World Bank, Accelerating growth and Job Creation in South Asia, October, 2009)

In South Asia women are usually limited to finding work in subsistence agricultural sector and confined to managing their households. This is especially so in India and Pakistan, where rural women are often unable to move freely around their communities.

Female migrant’s workers constitute 50% of all migrant workers in Asia (UN Women, Women Migrant Workers (2011), usually holding jobs at the bottom of the empowerment leader such as labour-intensive manufacturing and domestic work. They are often ‘victims of double discrimination, both as women and as migrants. Most common risks associated with labour migration include: (i) Trafficking and forced labour, (ii) Recruitment malpractices, i.e. fraudulent job offers and exorbitant placement fees, (iii) Sexual and physical harassment, (iv) under or non-payment of wages.2

CONCLUSION

According to UNDP Report: South Asia’s Ranking for many gender gap indications health, adult literacy economic participation are often close to or lower than those in sub Saharan Africa. Actually, globalization has not been able to flourish equally in every section of the society especially for women. The obstacles to women’s equal participations in governance are deeply embedded in South Asian social and cultural patterns. The patriarchal nature of most of these countries is starkly shown by Amarta Sen’s criteria of “missing women”.(Gail Omvedt, 2005, pp.4746-47). In the higher posts women participation is less than men. It is caused by
some of the traditional factors like the patriarchal nature of the society (Azra Asghar Ali and M. Javid Akhtar, 2012, p.226). Globalization is a strong force which affected our society and economy. We should aware of its negative impact. In the name of empowerment women are going to wrong roots. We should have to consciously justify its negative and positive impacts. Women are still neglected in South Asia. Child marriage system is present in most of South Asian countries. Without consciousness of society and strong role of civil society women empowerment may be a utopian idea in the era of globalization.

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WOMEN AND CULTURE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

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ABSTRACT

Although violence against women is a universal phenomenon, the cultural issue has mad females' interpretation of domestic violence different. Violence against women depend on socio-cultural features and ethnic can appear in different types. The purpose of this study is recognizing the interpretation of Iranian women of domestic violence. This study is determined to achieve to the study gained from reality about violence in family in the frame of sociology studies. This study has done with use of qualitative method in 2013 by participating of 10 employed married females and conducting focus group discussion and deep interviews. Data were collected and registered and then coded. By attention to the process of data analyzing the assumption of cultural legitimacy is the base of domestic violence and definition and the forms of domestic cultural violence were formed.

Key words: women interpretation, domestic violence, qualitative method, culture.

INTRODUCTION

For many years domestic violence was suppose to be a natural issue. Privet consideration of domestic violence challenged its analysis. This issue has origin in depth of cultural Policies. This study explores the experiences of 10 adolescent's females, challenged by violence at home. The goal of this qualitative research is to discover the process of apprehension and understanding on bases of cultural customs and social global understanding in study filed of family and relations between male and females. This search is done with the purpose of studying Iranian female definition of violence against women and to make them understand the forms violence behavior against women. The foundlings of a focused study group in Esfahan about the understanding of Iranian comprehension of the term violence against women and how they defined and understand this term will be discussed. This study tries to report back the interpretation of Iranian women about domestic violence from their own talks. This study aims to gain the truth about violence in families in a frame of sociology studies. All societies have norms embedded in the culture that may exacerbate gender-based violence. Gender inequalities are ones of these norms (Moreno et al; 2006). Intimate partner violence is a widespread health and social problem that cuts across socio-economic, cultural, and ethnic boundaries (Graham, Bernards, Munné, & Wilsnack, 2009; Johnson, Ollus, & Nevala, 2008; Klap, Tang, Wells, Starks, & Rodriguez, 2007).

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the Multi-country Study on Women’s Health and Domestic Violence against women, up to one half of the women suffered physical injuries due to domestic violence, and almost 20% have never reported these abuses to anyone or to any agency (Moreno et al, 2006 from Casesa, 2011). The findings of the study of Saadoon et al showed that the clearly defined and severe forms of
domestic violence against women, namely physical harm and sexual assault were well identified by both men and women with no significant differences between them, while the deprivation/neglect domain and psychological domain, the less severe forms and poorly defined outcomes, were less recognized. Even these broader definitions of domestic violence fail to capture the complexity of abuse of women by men (Saadoon et al;2011). In Johnson's (2008) typology in situational couple violence,”(Johnson, 2008, p. 5) the definition of type based upon motive, that he actually associates the more serious types of domestic violence (intimate terrorism, mutual violent control, violent resistance) with achieved control (Emery, 2011). In Henttone et al's research, Respondents’ suggestion that early marriage increased the risk of intimate partner violence is in line with studies from other countries (Gottschalk, 2007). The study of Shlafer examined whether these family and peer influences operate as protective factors within a sample of adolescent girls with high exposure to violence in their daily contexts. She found that family connections and proposal norms acted as protective buffers against violence within a high-risk sample of adolescent girls. Girls who reported strong connections and proposal norms within their families had lower levels of both violence perpetrations and victimization. Peer proposal norms also served as a protective buffer against violence perpetration and victimization within this high-risk sample, similar to other studies (Smith et al, 2001 from Shlafer, 2012).

METHOD

This study is done making use of Grounded theory method with qualitative approach. This study was conducted by interview techniques in Iran (Esfahan) in 2013. The interviews were taken in focus groups and deep interviews. Each session lasted for two hours.

Participants

In this study the participants are working women in Esfahan University. The data compiled collected and recorded and then they were encoded. This qualitative study investigates the violence strategies of 10 adolescent females exposed to different forms of domestic violence. The participants were given the opportunity to say their idea about what the violence against women is.

Entry into the field: In this study, during the workshops of the focus group and interviews, the participants were asked to answer the following main questions: What is women definition of domestic violence?

FINDINGS

The grounded theoretical model which was adopted from Corbin and Straus' framework for domestic violence in family was extended based on the present study. In initial sessions the female participants repeated words like culture women's patience. Female participants repeated "culture", Patience”, “family”, “fear”, “positions”, and "acceptance of violence" categories. These categories were selected as main categories.

Participants

The age of women participated in this study was between 30 to 53 year old. Their education is from ability to read and write to master degree. Their jobs included typist, secretary, office master, education expert, investigation expert, librarian, senior expert. The distribution of the education of participants' spouses was from illiterate to master degree. The participants' marriage duration was from 8 to 32 years. Their age difference with their spouses is from being in a same age to 6 years. Among 10 participants; 2 had master degree, 3 had bachelor degree, 4 had diploma and 1 of them had the ability to read and write. Among the husbands of participants; 1 had master degree, 3 had
bachelor degree, 1 had post diploma and rest of them were educated to diploma or lower levels.

**Cultural norms:** Cultural norms of domineering and submissiveness, violence acts of men and disability of women has formed strong bases on which men do violence in a family. Cultural norms support and create the men's doing violence. Women are accepted to society by accepting obedient and patience norms. Obedient and patience together with cultural norm of “being calm”, “being obedience”, "saving prestige", and protecting privacy has made men's doing violence lasting and durable. Homa's (all of the names and titles are unreal) experiences are due to cultural norms. Homa defines violence as follows" sometimes violence could become a habit. Some people are use to asking for things of others by insisting and violence. Violence is abnormal behavior. Violence has different forms like contempt, slander, fighting and beating, infringement and sexual violence. This relates to the culture of family and society. Homa is taking about their first quarrel after Aghad (a period of marriage in Iran in which the couple are legally married but they don’t live together) "I have just got my diploma that I Aghad. My husband frequently asked me to go to their house many days a week. My family disagreed. I was afraid to tell him about that. Once he came to take me to their house but I said I won't come. He said if you don’t come along me, you won't see me again. Because of my fear to lose prestige, backbites, and to prevent my family's sadness which may be the result our disputes; I accepted. This first argument was the millstone of his advancement in bully. He continued and severed this kind of his behaviors in our married life. And I continued to obey and tolerate. The first time in our married life he threw a salt-cellar and told me to bring it. I asked why and he said first bring it then I'll tell you. I felt very contempt and I defined this contempt violence.” A specific relation between the violence behavior of men against women and social norms has been formed (Dobash & Dobash, 1992, 1972).

The relation of wife and husband in context of the family is formed and settled based on legitimacy of man's behavior. Culture is ground of legitimacy of domestic violence. The role of culture in life is not ignorable. Culture influences the thoughts and action and reactions in relation to domestic violence. Family is known as the place of men's exertion of power and for maintaining power men's exertion of violence become legitimate. The society accredited men for doing violence against the disobedience of woman or the failure of the marriage. The men who mistreat their wives live in cultural environment in which the men's control is more than women's. Basically violence relates to the time when a person tries to dictate his orders to others. In a society, men have such force and behavior."

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

This study explores the experiences of 10 urban female adolescents who challenged violence at home. The study was conducted in Esfahan, Iran, in 2013. Gender and age put women in a lower position in comparison with men. The men who mistreat their wives live in cultural environment in which the men's control is more than women's. Other features if this culture is confirming the men's violence, presence of male ruling, and obedience of women so in paternal societies using power for settling and maintaining the man's prerogatives has legitimacy. The inferior position of a woman regardless of culture makes a situation in which her responsibility and control of life is given to others. The term domestic violence briefly brings a position in to the mind where women have experienced vexation, for instance home a seemingly safe refuge for family members, is the base of woman's daily activity and the place of displaying foundational mistreat. The term domestic violence changes the supposed safeness and peacefulness of the family and home where the
women stay vulnerable in confronting with their most confidential violence. Culture incorporates live and influences it and the way of our live and our vexation. Aggrieved women don't experience the culture in the same way. Although there are common natures in a culture which describes the characteristic of country or a district but culture of smaller levels in province, villages, level/cast and home, inference, influence the experiences and individual behavior of a single woman. Although the women under the study are working but their working not only has not stopped domestic violence but in some cases it also exacerbated it. Women’s adjusting has been formed based on social norms. In consideration to occupational, income and educational situation of the women under the study the hypothesis of generalization and exhaustiveness of the violence in the family and in all socio-economic bases was formed. A specific relation between the violence behavior of men against women and social norms has been formed (Dobash & Dobash, 1992, 1972).

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GLOBAL SURROGACY, EXPLOITATION, HUMAN RIGHTS AND INTERNATIONAL PRIVATE LAW: A PRAGMATIC STANCE AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The number of global surrogacy arrangements has exploded over the last decade, and the rise in the practice has led to concerns over social justice, human rights, and exploitation, among other issues. As of now, there are no international regulations or guidelines regarding global surrogacy arrangements, and in some countries where the practice is prevalent, i.e. India, there is little national regulation or oversight. Global surrogacy is a complex issue that includes questions related to morality, social justice, and the complexities of inequalities in a globalized world that interface with a multi-million dollar industry. The purpose of the paper is to present global surrogacy dynamics written in a manner to help the reader understand this complex phenomenon, including a discussion of the associated problems and ethical dilemmas. We use the U.S. and India, as two contrasting cases, focusing on some unique matters related to surrogacy in each country, to highlight the issues. We discuss human rights instruments and international private law to frame global surrogacy regulation, including the rights of women and the rights of the child. We conclude with pragmatic policy recommendations oriented to some of the practices necessary to regulate global surrogacy arrangements in a fair and consistent manner, while maintaining that ultimately the voices of all involved in global surrogacy contracts, and most especially the surrogates themselves need to be included in further discussions of the issue.

Key Words: global surrogacy, international surrogacy, Hague Convention, human rights, international private law
DEPRIVATION OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS OF RELIGIOUS MINORITIES IN INDONESIA: OVERVIEW OF LEGAL PHILOSOPHY PERSPECTIVES.

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ABSTRACT

Indonesia is a country based on law (rule of law) and guarantees religious freedom for every citizen. This freedom is explicitly stated in Article 28E of the Indonesian Constitution Year 1945. But constitutional rights and the liberties guaranteed by the state in a positive legal order does not guarantee that freedom in practice. Indonesian government should protect, guard and guarantee freedom of religion but transformed into citizens' constitutional rights violators of minority groups through the establishment of laws that discriminatory and contrary to the constitution. The government must protect the constitutional rights of religious minorities in accordance with the constitutional mandate and not to act contrary to the constitution.

Keywords: Deprivation of constitutional rights, minority groups, discriminatory laws, constitutio
TRACK II AS A METHOD TO BREAK BARRIERS

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ABSTRACT

Track-II diplomacy made major contribution in reducing tension between the US and Soviet Union during late 1950’s and 1960’s. Attempts have been made in the past to apply the concepts developed particularly during 1960’s to other regions of the world. South Asia at one time had more than a hundred channels, only a few have survived. Some of these ventures have been one time exercise while others have survived for several years. Socialization process has been more successful than the other three stages. Filtration and transmission also hold great significance but several factors have retarded their growth. Implementation can only take place when the earlier three stages have been successful. However, it needs to be recognized that several ideas developed under Track-II initiatives have been implemented e.g. the establishment of hotline connecting the leadership of land forces of Pakistan and India. Some CBMs can also be traced back to Neemrana and other Track-II initiatives. Mindsets of common people and decision-makers need to be changed, in that lies the real success of Track-II initiatives.

Keywords: Track-II Diplomacy, Initiatives, Socialization, Filtrations, Transmission, Implementation

INTRODUCTION

Track II has gradually emerged as a dependable mechanism for reducing tensions in regions where conflicts are rampant. Since many years scholars have been focusing attention on Track II as a way of promoting peace. Some of these studies have made significant contribution towards promoting an understanding of Track II as a method of tension reduction and conflict management.

Practitioners of diplomacy particularly professional teams running the foreign offices in South Asian countries had certain reservations about Track II. Members of civil society interacting with members representing the adversary were seen as lacking in expertise. They were also considered to be naïve and ill informed. Some professionals looked upon the efforts of Track II practitioners as ‘meddling’. Even though some of these misperceptions still persist but on the whole there seems to be better appreciation of the aspirations and potential of Track II even among professional diplomats.

Harold Saunders, a well known US diplomat, involved in negotiations leading to Camp David accords and author of “The Other Wall” stated that Track II diplomacy is based on members of civil society engaging in ‘policy-related, problem solving dialogue’. The dialogue centres on “elements of the overall political relationship, solutions to arms control problems, resolution of regional conflicts, issues of trade policy, or other areas of competition”. Saunders clearly distinguishes between Track II and other initiatives involving...
people to people contacts the purpose of which is simply to get to know the other side.\textsuperscript{1}

The ‘hard’ Track II dialogue aims to resolve disputes between governments but a lot of Track II initiatives do not fall in this category. The ‘soft’ Track II is designed to promote an understanding of the perceptions and viewpoint of the adversaries but even in such cases the ultimate objective is to help in the resolution of issues dividing the two sides.\textsuperscript{2}

Louise Diamond and John McDonald define Track II as ‘non-governmental, informal and unofficial contacts and activities between private citizens or groups of individuals sometimes called non-state actors’.\textsuperscript{3}

The definitions of Track II initiatives vary from general to specific. At the simplest level one can consider any contact across borders which do not involve government officials to belong to Track II category. Under this framework one can include any interaction between women groups or scholars. Even exploratory contacts between groups of people providing they are not government officials fall within this category.

It is quite common in certain cases to include serving government officials or even military officers in Track II initiatives. However, in majority of cases ex-government officials, retired civil and military officials, serving academics and media representatives are preferred. Quite often politicians and other members of the civil society end up joining governments which enables them to put their ideas into action. These examples suggest that the wall between Track II participants and government circles is not insurmountable. The linkages between Track I and Track II exist at many levels, this situation is often referred to as "Track one and a half".\textsuperscript{4}

Quite contrary to public expectation in the age of media most practitioners of Track II do not desire media coverage and prefer a low profile. They do not seek publicity for several reasons. Firstly, publicity creates hype and public expectations rise beyond all realistic measures. The results often do not measure up to public expectations leading to failure. Secondly, the fear of premature exposure of ideas can serve as a deterrent forcing people to be more circumspect when it comes to expressing themselves freely. Thirdly, less flexibility is possible under the glare of media. In other words Track II participants might adopt an inflexible approach for the same reason that Track I participants do.

The desire to shun publicity sometimes gives rise to a situation whereby Track II is regarded as a secret venture. This impression is incorrect and needs to be rectified. There is a difference between not seeking publicity and being secret. For some the line between the two might be thin but it is important to remember that the line does exist.


\textsuperscript{2} Dalia Dassa Kaye, Talking to the Enemy: Track II Diplomacy in the Middle East and South Asia, Rand Corporation 2007

\textsuperscript{3} Peter Jones, Filling a Critical Gap or Just Wasting Time? Track II Diplomacy and Regional Security in the Middle East, Disarmament Forum Two, 2008

\textsuperscript{4} Dalia Dassa Kaye, 7
Before embarking on an analysis of relevance of Track II to South Asia it will be fruitful to survey regional politics. The South Asian region enjoys rich history. When British imperial setup withdrew from the region all states in South Asia gained independence. India was the largest and most heterogeneous. Pakistan composed of two separate wings divided by a thousand miles of hostile Indian Territory was the only country with clear Muslim majority. Sri Lanka, Nepal, Maldives and Burma (now known as Myanmar) were also part of South Asia. All South Asian states are multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multi-racial in composition. As far as religion is concerned there is great diversity. Each religion is further sub-divided into sects and sub-sects.

South Asian states suffer from three issues which have made economic progress difficult. There is a dearth of educational facilities in rural areas and small towns. Government run schools and colleges offer educational facilities which do not compare with facilities provided by private schools in big cities. Even in large cosmopolitan cities standard of education varies greatly. The majority is therefore unable to break out of grinding poverty.

Second major problem is lack of resources when compared to rising population. In some cases even in the presence of natural resources the nation is unable to benefit due to a combination of economic and political factors. The problem of political instability also plagues most states in the South Asian region.

Third factor which cannot be ignored is the increasing number of interstate disputes in the region. The longest standing dispute is the Kashmir dispute between Pakistan and India. It has already resulted in off shoots like Kargil dispute and Siachen conflict. Apart from these the water dispute which emerged soon after independence when India decided to stop the flow of water into Pakistan. After injecting tension in the Pakistan-India relations for more than two decades the matter was resolved in 1960 with the help of World Bank. This conflict has resurfaced with new vigour due to India’s policy of diverting water from rivers allocated to Pakistan under the Indus Water Basin Agreement to meet its own growing need for water. This is a serious violation of Indus Water Basin Agreement; needless to say it has soured Pakistan-India relations. There are a host of other conflicts between the two nations e.g. Pakistan’s charge that India is training and infiltrating terrorist groups into Baluchistan and Khyber Pukhtoonkha provinces of Pakistan. The growing instances of terrorism in Pakistan are causing loss of lives, property and business opportunities further aggravating the problem of poverty. India has also accused Pakistan of similar actions in the past. Track I has not been very successful as hardliners on both sides do not support the idea of promoting social, economic and political ties unless the other party succumbs to the hardliners point of view.

Even in democratic states acts of violence and subversion do occur.
India’s support to Tamil Tigers fighting against the Sri Lankan government was a major irritant in relations between the two countries. Many years later, however, India realized that fomenting trouble in Sri Lanka was counterproductive as it could worsen India’s own Tamil problem. Now with the defeat of Tamils in recent military operations launched by the Sri Lankan armed forces, there are expectations of positive change in the form of growing tourism and trade opportunities giving a boost to Sri Lankan economy.

Bangladesh-India relations have also suffered due to Indian allegations that economic migrants from Bangladesh are creating problems in Assam and West Bengal province of India. Bangladesh denies the charges of infiltration and terrorism leveled by India. Water dispute between the two countries was resolved and generally both governments made efforts to negotiate their differences. Some issues have still not been resolved and the two governments are very much divided on what steps to take. Bangladesh accuses India of imposing non-tariff restrictions against goods from Bangladesh. There have been border skirmishes between the two sides leading to loss of life on both sides.

Two additional factors regarding South Asia need to be taken into account. There are two regional nuclear powers that also happen to be rival powers. In the Middle East Israel is the only nuclear power, therefore, it is able to dominate the region even at the expense of regional peace. In South Asia although Pakistan is much smaller in military terms and its population is less than one-fifth of the Indian population, nuclear capability of Pakistan is a great equalizer. In view of this Pakistan’s smaller economic sector and other disparities do not lead to the same type of vulnerabilities which are found in other regions.

South Asia has SAARC which includes all regional states. The dominant position of India due to its large population, size of territory and economic capabilities has aroused apprehensions in the region. One more factor which has somewhat handicapped SAARC is the fact that no contentious issues can be discussed at this forum. It has, therefore, failed to play a major role in promoting peace through conflict resolution. The region will gain immensely if reforms are introduced making it possible for regional states to resolve their disputes through this forum.

**THE ROLE OF TRACK II IN SOUTH ASIAN POLITICS**

As already pointed out there are no regional platforms available to states at a time when interstate and intra-state conflicts are rampant in the region. Track II is more concerned with interstate disputes although it has not achieved much success in this either. It does not directly deal with intra-state conflicts but it can play a role in preventing third parties from getting involved in these domestic conflicts. Very often in South Asia regional states get involved in internal problems of their neighbours thus adding yet another source of tension and conflict. Because of this indirect role in strengthening regional peace

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7 India interfered in the East Pakistan crisis resulting in the breakup of Pakistan. India accused Pakistan in 1980s of trying to do the same in East Punjab which was denied by Pakistan. India is widely suspected of using Afghan soil to subvert peace in two provinces of Pakistan, however, India has been denying this charge. Sri Lanka suspected India of supporting Tamil insurgents, the list goes on and on.
sometimes, Track II is unable to get credit for its contribution to regional peace.

As mentioned earlier, due to a legacy of regional conflicts, governments have developed sensitivities which often do not allow them to take peace initiatives particularly, where they are most needed. Following a contrary policy might be viewed by the populations as a sellout. Politicians have been swept out of power for taking ‘softer’ position on issues regarded as important by the people. By the same token politicians could increase their electoral appeal by adopting a ‘harder’ line on issues considered by majority of people as important. As politicians are sensitive to electoral requirements while they are also interested in keeping non-official diplomatic channels open they have no option but to keep such contacts out of the purview of general public.

Track II provides that much needed privacy to members of civil society to participate in dialogue with adversaries in order to develop win-win situations, from which both sides can benefit. Most of the people taking part in these dialogues are retired diplomats, retired armed forces people and bureaucrats who have time to spare after their retirement. Academics participating in these seminars are not required to resign from their jobs. At times they may face problems which are difficult to handle but on the whole they are encouraged to participate in the process.

The governments are not directly involved although sometimes indirect involvement may be present. Governments do not stand to lose either way. If the process breaks down and there is no positive outcome, the governments can claim ignorance. If, however, the process leads to some mutually advantageous ideas they can step in and take over from there.

Another dimension which adds flexibility is that Track II does not seek to replace Track I, it can consolidate Track I. Many initiatives which were implemented e.g. the establishment of hotline between the military leaderships of Pakistan and India was first debated in the Neemrana Dialogue. After its maturation at Track II level when all contentious issues were taken care of the idea blossomed into the establishment of the hotline. This hotline has been extremely useful particularly in view of the fact that the two nuclear armed nations can diffuse military tensions before they can grow into something more serious.

**TRACK II: SOME OF THE CHALLENGES IN SOUTH ASIA**

At one stage there were almost a hundred Track II initiatives in South Asia. Most of these were financed by Western countries. They focused on issues which were important from their perspectives. These developed countries often want to convey the impression that they stand by certain values, even if they are not very serious about the implementation of these values in the third world. Most of the initiatives revolved around security issues particularly after the nuclear tests by Pakistan and India in1998. Other initiatives dealt with issues like democracy, gender issues, child labour etc. Due to historical experiences of all South Asian states there are some reservations against political and economic initiative undertaken at foreign particularly western behest. Not only do common people but intelligentsia, bureaucrats, intelligence communities and other members of civil

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8 Natalya Tovmasyan Riegg, 4

9 Some South Asian countries require public sector university employees to seek NOC for travelling. Getting Visa can also be a hassle.
society view foreign sponsored peace initiatives with some misgivings.

A number of these initiatives, as already pointed out revolve around security issues including arms control. Since western countries are major arms suppliers to the region and they are earning billions of dollars as a result of this trade, it appears to be no less than an enigma when western nations profess faith in arms control. However, these arms control measures normally deal with nuclear arms and not conventional weapons which partly explains the dilemma. The thrust is also against biological and chemical weapons, as western countries believe that non-conventional weapons proliferation in South Asia, or anywhere else could increase the risk of these weapons, falling into the hands of undesirable elements.

Another issue faced by regional civil societies is the selection of academics and other participants. There is no set procedure for selection but one thing is clear, the governments do not play a direct role in the process. Normally a retired diplomat or a retired member of the armed forces is approached by the funding agency which has a free hand in deciding whom to approach. There is no set criterion of selection except that these people were considered to be prominent in their fields and are known to have done some research on issues at hand. All the people selected are not equally interested in the subjects to be discussed. At times these participants are quite inflexible in their approach to regional conflicts and their positions could be a replication of their government’s stand on the issue.

The elite participating in these initiatives serve as a bridge between their region and the west as far as ideas behind the initiative are concerned. ‘Socialization’ is a major stage in most Track II initiatives. At this stage the participants are exposed to ideas already developed in the west. Most of these ideas have already been developed in East-West relations with mixed results. The reason behind this exercise is to benefit from the work already done by experts in the West in order to preclude the possibility of reinventing the wheel. However, this approach can also create some problems. The concepts communicated may not be relevant for a particular region. To fill this gap ‘filtering’ is necessary. At this stage the local participants try to absorb these ideas and to transform the ones which are more relevant to their conditions. In the South Asian brands of Track II the filtering part was not as effective as it should have been.

Transmission\(^{10}\) is a logical extension of socialization and filtering. Ideas learnt and transformed have to be communicated to the governments who are then expected to put them into practice through Track I if they are found to be relevant. Here, too, the experiences of South Asian Track II participants appear to be diverse. The whole process depends on person to person relationships. Some participants of Track II particularly the leaders have access to government officials at the highest level particularly if they happened to be part of the administration before their retirement. These individuals are better able to achieve success in ‘transmission’ function. Some of the proposals have been translated into concrete reality e.g. the hotline between military officials of Pakistan and India which has already been mentioned.

Although dependence on foreign sources of funding does not go too well with the people in general, there is a paucity of funds from the region itself. If regional states are able to raise

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\(^{10}\) For Socialization, filtering and transmission. See Dalia Dassa Kaye. 21-25
funds under a mutually acceptable quota, it would enhance the credibility of the exercise but, the problem is that most of the Track II initiatives in recent times (particularly after the nuclear tests) are restricted to Pakistan and India. The worst thing that can happen to the series of dialogue is for either Pakistan or India to bear much of the expenses. This would raise doubts in the minds of people in the other country.

**SOME MAJOR TRACK II INITIATIVES IN SOUTH ASIA**

As already mentioned there have been nearly hundred Track II initiatives in South Asia. While some of these are still on, quite a large number gradually fizzled out. Some of these were one time affair like the Tripartite Initiative between Italy, Pakistan and India which took place in November 1998. The venue of the conference was Rome. Delegates from the three countries mostly included academics although there were some retired government officials from India.

Academics, experts from various think-tanks, members of media, retired diplomats and retired armed forces personnel gathered together in the US in April 1999. Serving US diplomats took active part in the exercise which explored ways and means of reducing tension between the two parties. Averting nuclear confrontation in South Asia dominated the agenda of this conference. Socialization was the main purpose of this exercise, the State Department and people from various US think-tanks tried to suggest ideas which they believed to have been useful in the case of US-Soviet meetings.

Among interactions spread over months or even years, Balusa Group stands out, Shireen Tahirkheli and her brother Taufiq Siddiqui established the group in 1995 to improve India-Pakistan relations. The funding for the programme came from UN Development Programme and Rockefeller Foundation. One major idea to emerge from the Balusa Group was the Iran-Pakistan-India natural gas pipeline. It was implied that interdependence between Pakistan and India will grow as a result of IPI gas pipeline.

Shanghai Process began in 1994. It included a number of high ranking participants from China, Pakistan and India. Pakistan and India sent academics, media representatives and retired diplomats while the Chinese and US delegations included government officials in informal capacity. The first few meetings did not go well as the participants tended to be nationalistic. Some delegates leaked out news to the media despite the fact that the group was adverse to publicity. The main thrust of the peace process in this case was to resolve strategic issues including nuclear issue.

Neemrana initiative was launched in 1991 and is considered to be the longest surviving Pakistan-India peace initiative. It is named after a village in Rajasthan where the first conference took place. It is patterned after Dartmouth Dialogue between the Soviet Union

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11 Participation in one time or regular variety has led members to believe that both have their advantages and disadvantages, a great deal depends on the issues.

12 The purpose was socialization.

13 Dalia Dassa Kaye, 80-82, has mentioned the contribution of Balusa group as well as Neemrana and many other processes belonging to Track II category.

14 Ibid.
and the US. The dialogue takes place at least once every six months alternatively between Pakistan and India. Ten members each from Pakistan and India participate regularly. Since the dialogue has been going on for more than twenty years some members have changed over the years.\textsuperscript{15} Initially Ambassador Paul Kriesberg presided over the meetings. Gradually, he disassociated himself from the initiative\textsuperscript{16} and the heads of the two sides accepted joint responsibilities.

Neemrana was funded by Ford Foundation. Chatham House principle of non-attribution has been followed which all participants adhere to.\textsuperscript{17} Although not a secret dialogue media coverage is avoided. It is probably due to this reason that the initiative has survived so long. The purpose of this initiative has been to reduce tension, promote conflict resolution and create better understanding between Pakistan and India.

To what extent has this initiative resulted in conflict resolution and peace in South Asia? Although this question cannot be answered in limited space as there are many reasons why the initiative has not been successful, suffice it to say that the dialogue did contribute towards tension reduction. Some initiatives recommended by the Neemrana participants for the purpose of confidence building have actually been adopted by the two governments. At one stage the two sides were led by diplomats who enjoyed respect in their countries and had access to their governments. Both of them conveyed to their governments major ideas emerging from each session. The transmission function of Track II was thus achieved to some extent in the case of Neemrana dialogue.

Pakistan and India Peoples Forum for Peace and Democracy began in late 1993.\textsuperscript{18} The first joint declaration was made on 4\textsuperscript{th} September 1994 at Lahore. The 8\textsuperscript{th} session took place in Allahabad on 14\textsuperscript{th} to 16\textsuperscript{th} October 2011. The themes of the conference were Demilitarization and Peace Dividends, Kashmir Dispute, Religious Tolerance, Democratic Governance and Globalization and Regional Cooperation. The forum enjoys a bigger membership and its meetings arouse media interest. Many members of the forum are prominent personalities from the two countries.

Among the institutions which have been playing a prominent role in promoting Track II in South Asia is Stimson Centre. The centre started a process of dialogue between India and Pakistan but their main contribution has been the training of Pakistani, Chinese and Indian officials, journalists and academics in arms control and confidence building.

Among the CBMs currently being followed in South Asia, some important ones are attributed to the efforts of Stimson Centre. One such initiative includes ballistic missile flight test notification agreement, military exercise notification and constraint agreements. The centre has also tried to focus world attention on the issue of nuclear terrorism since 9/11.


\textsuperscript{16} Indians were of the view that there should be no third party involvement, only delegates from the two countries should meet.

\textsuperscript{17} Baithak

\textsuperscript{18} For more information see www.pipfd.org
Centre for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS) another Washington DC based think-tank organized three workshops in UK from December 2003 to May 2004. Their main focus was also nuclear threat to stability and peace in South Asia. Pakistani, Indian and US experts not employed with the government have been working towards threat reduction, introduction of better technology for improving bilateral communication mechanism etc with some degree of success.

Cooperative Monitoring Centre at Sandia National Laboratories, New Mexico has also played a prominent role in reducing risk of nuclear war in South Asia. Accidental nuclear wars and other issues concerning nuclear weapons have received special attention of researchers at CMC.19 The focus of all these endeavours is also introduction of better communication technology which would naturally benefit the US economy as well.

Several universities in the region are also involved in Track II initiatives. Institute of Strategic Studies Islamabad (ISSI) was actively involved in Neemrana Dialogue. Almost all the talks held in Pakistan were at ISSI. They also provided many other facilities (including secretarial services) to the Neemrana team. It made it easier because at that time the head of Pakistani team of Neemrana was also DG of ISSI.

ASSSESSMENT OF THE ROLE PLAYED BY TRACK II

At all the Track II meetings, the atmosphere was generally friendly. Even while divisive issues were discussed, members of the two groups were able to maintain cordiality. This was despite the fact that at some of the gatherings the Indians would begin by denying that there were any really serious contentious issues dividing Pakistan and India. It took the two teams several hours even a whole day to establish that serious disputes were present and they needed to be tackled. India’s primary interest was in opening new avenues for its trade while Pakistanis believed that conflict resolution and trade should proceed simultaneously.

Despite good personal relationships there was no real meeting of minds on divisive issues like Kashmir. The fact that CBMs were jointly undertaken by the two neighbouring states shows that Track II was a useful exercise, but it never reached that required level of success which would create the will, to adopt a new way of thinking more conducive to conflict resolution. Adopting cosmetic measures without real progress towards conflict resolution will not lead to lasting tension reduction.

Another area where Track II has not been very effective is changing the mindset of administrators and general public. Administrators in democratic countries (Pakistan and India fall in that category) have to take public opinion into account. Public opinion not only in South Asia but other regions as well is generally averse to political compromises and tends to view things in black and white. Changing mindsets of officials and general public is the most difficult task. Media has played a mixed role in developing public mindset. After the Kargil crisis broke out between Pakistan and India in 1999, Indian media adopted a highly nationalistic posture. The hype created by Indian media did not subside with the end of the crisis. More recently, however, one newspaper from Pakistan and one from India got together to

19 Dalia Dassa Kaye, 86
launch “Amn ki Asha” which aims to improve relations between the two South Asian neighbouring states. The idea is to improve the image of people living on the other side of the border. The main focus of this endeavour is younger generation as they represent the future of South Asia.

It is also imperative for the governments to step in at a certain stage. We have noticed that so far Track II has achieved limited success, but even if through some out-of-box thinking Track II could be made successful, it would still require decisive government role in order to succeed. Where Track II leaves off, Track I is required to take over, Track I depends on the success of Track II but Track II is incomplete without Track I.

Socialization, filtration and transmission have been mentioned as important stages in the Track-II process. Socialization has been proceeding in a more or less satisfactory manner. Various western countries particularly the US assume that what was found to be useful in their case can be applied as gainfully in other cultural environments. One can consider this approach to be ethnocentric but it cannot be denied that US think-tanks, universities and even the State Department are successful in communicating their ideas to Pakistanis, Indians, Chinese and other Track II participants from Asia, Africa and Latin America. One cannot assume the same about filtration and transmission due to several factors.

Absorbing concepts from other sources and producing a synthesis is not an essay task.

When people from two different cultural and political environments try to absorb and synthesize the same concept, sometimes the result may be entirely different from each other.

It is the ‘filtered’ matter which has to be ‘transmitted’ to decision-makers. What they gather from it depends on the lenses of ‘national interest’ which cannot be overlooked. Implementation needs to be considered the final stage in this multiple stage model of Track II. There have been some notable examples of implementation but they are few. In most cases Track II ideas were either considered to be unrealistic, unpractical and undesirable. Sometimes foreign offices consider the work of civil society unacceptable meddling in serious issues. According to professionals, it can be tolerated if it remains confined to its own track.

MAKING TRACK II MORE USEFUL

If Asian countries are serious in their pursuit of peace and wish to use Track II to achieve their peace objectives, they will have to evolve a mechanism for reforming the process.

The first thing that needs to be changed is our approach. Track II should not be viewed only as a way of reducing tensions and managing conflicts. Conflict resolution should be the final objective. The whole process is derailed when either due to prolonged deadlock in Track II or because of bottlenecks in transmission and implementation little progress is made towards conflict resolution. Frustration impedes further progress and erosion of faith in the process is the natural result.

For this change to take place development of a new mindset is imperative. Participants of Track II and decision-makers need to look at disputes as common problems to be settled mutually. Currently, we use the ‘we’ and ‘they’ frame-work. Changing the image of the

20 ‘Amn ki Asha’ or ‘Hope for Peace’ a process launched by Jung an Urdu newspaper from Pakistan and Times of India has been quite successful.
‗adversary‘ is also essential. To put it simply the other side in a dispute should not be viewed as an enemy but as a party which is facing the same problem as we do. However, it is easier said than done. When India uses disproportionate force in Kashmir to suppress demonstrations it becomes difficult for people in Pakistan not to view India as an adversary. Similarly, when India blames Pakistan for its inability to suppress people’s movement in Indian held Kashmir, the people of India see Pakistan as an adversary.

It is also necessary to select the right people who know about issues to be debated and have an interest in promoting cordial relations with the other party. Track II can deliver positive results only when it is seen as a platform to deal with common problems and not as yet another battle ground to confront the enemy.

The media cannot change reality. They can only report what is happening on ground. It puts a heavier responsibility on members of Track II and Track I. If conflicts are actually resolved then the media may be expected to focus on this positive development. If there is no progress in conflict resolution then the media cannot be expected to generate favourable evaluation. The media should, however, play a positive role by not reporting ‘rumours‘ or exaggerating things for the sake of increasing circulation or viewer ship.

It will also make a difference if US influence is replaced or balanced by a number of benign sources participation in the process. Western and particularly US domination which is evident at every stage (financial support and ideas) is seen by civil society in some countries as undesirable interference. If the regional states believe that the Track II process is beneficial for the region, then, they should be able to contribute financially and intellectually for promoting this mutually beneficial exercise.

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SOCIAL CAUSES AND SOCIAL BELIEFS: CAN ART MAKE US REASON?

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ABSTRACT

How do we form beliefs? This is obviously an epistemological, thus philosophical, question. This paper explores the formation of social beliefs in particular, and the social causes that bring them about. I argue that in the modern world, social causes, e.g. the media, present information and evidence, or ‘evidence’, in such a way, so that given certain assumptions of human psychology, people using media make people have certain social beliefs that would be unjustified if the belief formation process had been performed in a more neutral and personal environment. I finally suggest that art could be a way with which people can communicate in a safer environment so that individuals can allow themselves to reason better about their beliefs, and reach justified (and hopefully true) beliefs. I use Aronson’s model of the analogy of pyramid to explain the belief formation process in modern societies. This model shows how it is often the case that the factor that may determine whether an individual becomes more and more confident about a belief he starts to form may even depend on luck, and how the conviction of the individual becomes stronger and stronger, often beyond his control. I will use extreme examples, like how individuals came to strongly believe that the end of the world would come about on the 21st October 2011 after listening to Harold Camping on the radio. I will explain why art could help individuals form social beliefs in a safer environment and then open the floor for discussion.

Keywords: social causes, social beliefs, analogy of pyramid, cognitive dissonance, art

BELIEF FORMATION: GENERAL BACKGROUND

1.1. Basic philosophical approaches

How do we form beliefs? To the extent that this question is linked to knowledge, or the intention of humans to try to reach knowledge with their beliefs, this is an epistemological, thus philosophical question, as it is translated to how we link belief with knowledge. Empiricists like David Hume maintain that we form beliefs by experience, whereas on the other hand rationalists like Kant hold that we form beliefs based on reason. As it is often the case between two opposite views, some try to stand in between and link the two. In a more contemporary context, Anil Gupta argues for a logical relationship of experience to knowledge with interdependencies: Both our experiences and reason interact dynamically and they influence each other. A common possible outcome is stabilization and convergence. In stabilization, given a coherent view A, there is always a succession B of experiences that only confirm and never undermine any fundamental tenet of the view [1]. In convergence, there are two different beliefs that are adjusted in the light of experiences [2]. Gupta mentions the following example. Suppose that as I am turning the street, I find myself before a large, green wall. I can bring to bear two distinct beliefs: A) everything is normal and I am simply standing in front of a large, green wall, and B) I believe that things that look green to me are actually blue. Imagine that after experiencing the wall, I undergo a series of experiences with color
charts in an optometrist’s office. It is easy to imagine that, as a result of these experiences, there is convergence in the sequences of beliefs generated by A and B. The experiences can easily force me to revise B and to conclude that my eyes are normal after all, that they were not diseased, and that the wall I faced was in fact light green. Two ideally rational beings that suffer the experiences I suffered and that begin respectively with the views A and B will, after a time, have virtually identical views. Their views will differ slightly because of their different histories. One will believe, correctly, that it had taken the wall to be blue, while the other will have no such belief. However, letting aside such minor differences caused by the differences in their initial views, their later views will be identical. They will believe the same things about the wall and about the functioning of their eyes.

1.2. What does this all mean?

Notably, what happens in stabilization and convergence, certain beliefs, in our example belief B, function as starting points which can later be revised. What causes that revision? In this example, Gupta does not neglect to mention that ‘‘two rational beings’’ will inevitably reach the same views. Rationality forces the subject to reflect on two opposing views and try to verify, in this example empirically, which one is true and which one is false. At this point, I have to add that obviously, beliefs are of course not always ontological statements, so they are not always either true or false. Beliefs are often deontological statements, which makes them unable to be either true or false, so a rational subject cannot try to empirically verify either of the two sequences in order to reach stabilization and convergence. This is obviously true, but the critical relevant point here is not how the subject will try to check whether either of the two sequences is true. The relevant critical point is one step before this stage: The mental act with which the subject reflects on his/her thoughts and realizes that he/she needs to verify – somehow – whether either of the two starting beliefs are true. What is important is that the subject behaves rationally and that means that he/she does not accept either notion for granted, but tries to check if a belief is true, without having been influenced by any social causes, without any psychological obstacles accepting that he/she might be mistaken, and being psychologically fully ready to entirely accept that a belief he/she previously held might be mistaken, as he/she realizes that being human entails being fallible. In the case of beliefs based on perception, things look simple enough. Is it the same with social beliefs?

FORMATION OF SOCIAL BELIEFS

2.1. Social Beliefs and Social Causes

In short: Obviously not. In the modern world, one main social cause, namely the media, presents information and evidence, or ‘‘evidence’’, in such a way, so that people using the media come to have certain social beliefs that would be unjustified if the belief formation process had been performed in a more neutral and personal environment. In our example above, another subject intervenes suggesting that B is true and thus my perceptual system is false. There are many such subjects in the formation of social beliefs, the most efficient one being the media.

2.2. The media

The media influences the formation of social beliefs of people in almost all areas of life, such as religion, politics, and relationships. The problem is not when we realize that the media are creating opinions in our minds. The problem is when we do not, and that is often the case. Not only sometimes information presented is incorrect, but it is often not entirely complete and not objective or
unbiased. For example, Julia T. Wood, referring to how we view men and women in particular, states that “media insinuate their messages into our consciousness at every turn.” [3] (The emphasis in Italics is mine). She holds that a primary way in which media distort reality is in under-representing women and she explains how both genders are presented but also how they are not presented, etc. She also shares some interesting facts about rape, distinguishing myths from fact, e.g. the media presents the myth that rapists are abnormal, whereas the fact is that “rapists have not been shown to differ from non rapists in personality, psychology, adjustment, or involvement in interpersonal relationships”.

From these simple examples alone, it becomes apparent that the media do not allow people to form social beliefs in a neutral environment and that people, perhaps consciously, but mostly subconsciously, form their beliefs, or rather say “have their beliefs formed” by the media, and especially television, where the situation of the subject is more passive. The social belief that rapists are abnormal is a false belief because it does not respond to reality, but it is also a justified false belief. Since people have not been exposed to the fact that rapists are actually often not abnormal and do not differ in many respects from non rapists, people are justified in believing - even though they don’t realize that they are believing it - that what the media presents is true, under the false assumption that media presents reality to the public.

2.3. How far can we go?

What is the extent of this wrong belief formation process? How far could people go following the media? How extreme could false beliefs that they come to hold because of the media be? The answer is rather disappointing: Quite extreme.

In the limited scope of this discussion, I will refer to one example alone: Harold Egbert Camping. He is an American Christian radio broadcaster, author and evangelist. He publicly announced that the world would end on the 21st October 2011, when the physical rapture of the world would take place. Many people followed Harold and came to believe that the world would indeed end. Some left their jobs where they had been working for years. These were not people that were mentally unstable or in any way less intellectually able to assess their views in comparison to average people. They did not come to believe that the end of the world would come because of internal or external pressure that would deprive them their autonomy. However, they came to seriously believe that the world would end because they were convinced by Harold Camping after listening to his radio. How could that be possible?

2.4. The Pyramid of Choice

With one word: Self-justification. Cariol Travis and Elliot Aronson provide an explanation with the metaphor of pyramid of choice:

“Imagine two young men who are identical in terms of attitudes, abilities, and psychological health. They are reasonably honest and have the same middling attitude toward, say, cheating: They think it is not a good thing to do, but there are worse crimes in the world.

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21 Although this is not directly relevant to the discussion, I believe in the conventional philosophical definition of “knowledge”, namely that knowledge is a justified true belief that is not a Gettier case. Therefore, a false belief, either justified or unjustified, is not knowledge. Similarly, an unjustified true belief is not knowledge.
Now they are both in the midst of taking an exam that will determine whether they will get into graduate school. They each draw a blank on a crucial essay question. Failure looms... at which point each one gets an easy opportunity to cheat, by reading another student’s answers. The two young men struggle with the temptation. After a long moment of anguish, one yields and the other resists. Their decisions are a hair’s breadth apart; it could easily have gone the other way for each of them. Each gains something important, but at a cost: One gives up integrity for a good grade, the other gives up a good grade to preserve his integrity.

Now the question is: How do they feel about cheating a week later? Each student has had ample time to justify the course of action he took. The one who yielded to temptation will decide that cheating is not so great a crime. He will say to himself: ‘Hey, everyone cheats. It’s no big deal. And I really needed to do this for my future career.’ But the one who resisted the temptation will decide that cheating is far more immoral than he originally thought: ‘In fact, people who cheat are disgraceful. In fact, people who cheat should be permanently expelled from school. We have to make an example of them.’

By the time the students are through with their increasingly intense levels of self-justification, two things have happened: One, they are now very far apart from one another; and two, they have internalized their beliefs and are convinced that they have always felt that way. It is as if they had started off at the top of a pyramid, a millimeter apart; but by the time they have finished justifying their individual actions, they have slid to the bottom and now stand at opposite corners of its base. ...

Instead of cheating on an exam, for example, now substitute: deciding to begin a casual affair (or not), ... stay in a troubled marriage (or not), ... have children (or not), pursue a demanding career (or stay home with the kids). When the person at the top of the pyramid is uncertain, when there are benefits and costs of both choices, then he or she will feel a particular urgency to justify the choice made. But by the time the person is at the bottom of the pyramid, ambivalence will have morphed into certainty, and he or she will be miles away from anyone who took a different route.” [4]

Therefore, for example, let us suppose that an average religious housewife, while doing housework, goes through many radio stations and out of pure luck, she starts listening to Harold Camping on the radio. If her first reaction is not to quickly change the station disregarding what she is listening to, then the more she listens to it, the harder it is for her to change station: If she changes station, she needs to justify to herself why she was listening to him for so long. Was she silly to listen to such nonsense? If an image of self-esteem excludes this choice, then she will continue to listen to this radio station using self-justification: She will keep finding excuses of why she is listening to the radio, for example, ‘‘oh he is a nice guy who believes in God, let him say his thing”, and so on and so forth, until she has heard him for so long she decides to go to his church, ‘‘just to see this old man.” Then she will see a kind man preaching. She will feel sympathy for him. She will listen to him more carefully and start accepting his arguments, etc. Every step down the pyramid reduces her chances of her ever walking up. The process is extremely simple: ‘‘one step at a time” [5]. ‘‘Congressman Tom DeLay, former leader of the House of the Republicans, had accepted a trip to the legendary St. Andrews golf course in Scotland with Jack Abramoff, the corrupt lobbyist-turned-informer in the congressional corruption scandal ensued.” It makes one wonder ‘‘why would someone risk his or her reputation and career for a lobbyist-bestowed freebie like a vacation at a deluxe resort?” It would be very hard to accept this vacation if this was the first step. However, if the process
starts from a different, small step, e.g. a small lunch with a lobbyist (because it is an efficient way to get information), then the ride along the slippery slope begins. Similarly, in our example with the housewife listening to Harold Camping’s radio, if, when she had turned on the radio for the first time, she was asked whether she would believe that the end of the world would come, she would most probably reply negatively. However, it is very probable that she would reach this absurd belief after going through all the small steps of the process.

2.5 Cognitive dissonance

In the Gupta’s example, we saw the subject being reasonable in processing information and relying on evidence. However, this seems not to be the case in social beliefs.

“The engine that drives self-justification, the energy that produces the need to justify our actions and decisions – especially the wrong ones- is an unpleasant feeling that Festinger called ‘cognitive dissonance’. Cognitive dissonance is a state of tension that occurs whenever a person holds two cognitions (ideas, attitudes, beliefs, opinions) that are psychologically inconsistent.’” [6]

Although behavioural laws do apply to human beings, behaviorism, the theory that people’s actions are governed by reward and punishment, was challenged by dissonance theory. The latter proved and explained why and how it is that if we voluntarily go through a difficult or a painful experience in order to attain some goal or object, then we are happier with that than if it came to us easily [7]. Not only do human beings look for evidence to prove what they already believe, not only is absence of evidence taken as evidence for what they believe (Franklin Roosevelt had no evidence that Japanese Americans were planning to sabotage the war effort in WWII), but they also become more convinced about being right, even when reading information that goes against their view [8]. In one experiment, researchers chose subjects who favoured or opposed capital punishment and asked them to read two scholarly and well documented articles on whether the death penalty deters violent crimes, with one article concluding that it did and the other that it didn’t. The readers did not realize that the issue is more complex than they had previously believed and did not move closer to each other in their beliefs about capital punishment as deterrence, exactly because unlike Gupta’s example, the readers were not processing information rationally. On the contrary, the readers distorted the articles and found reasons to credit the arguments of the confirming article and discredit the arguments of the disconfirming article. Dissonance theory explains two things: People are unreasonable in processing information and that there reasons why people continue to be biased after they have made important decisions. Neuroscientists have even shown that biases are built in the very way the brain processes information. Just to add on to the dim picture, even ethicists are subject to such biases. Bioethicists, the very people who write about, among other things, the dangers of conflicts of interests between physicians and drug companies, receive consulting fees, contracts and honoraria from pharmaceutical and biotechnology industries, making “‘objectivity a myth’”, according to Carl Elliot, who describes his colleagues’ justifications [9]. To complete the picture, letting aside plentiful examples and experiments, it will suffice to say, for the purposes of this conversation, that even memory has a self-justification function [10].

IS ART A SALVATION?

Are we doomed to self-justification? As one would expect, Tavris and Aronson maintain that by understanding why and how our minds work the way they do is the first step toward breaking the self justification habit, and they naturally suggest that we are mindful and
critical [11]. Though I can hardly imagine the possibility of this reasonable position to be doubted, it seems that it could also be complemented, since the same writers talk about blind spots such as pride and prejudice [12]. The mind is designed with optical and psychological blind spots. One of the cleverest tricks our minds play with us is that they confer on us the comforting delusion that we, personally, do not have any. Humans are convinced that they perceive objects and events clearly, “as they really are” and we assume that other reasonable people see things the same way we do. Social psychologist Lee Ross calls this phenomenon “naive realism.” Since Tavris and Aronson regard this conviction as “inescapable”, it seems that we ought to find alternative means for neutral and unbiased social belief formation, in support, off course, to our efforts of more profoundly understanding how and why our mind works the way it does and being mindful and critical. I suggest art to be this very mean.

Tavris and Aronson make with an interesting observation which is very close to the suggestion of art as being suggested in this paper.

“When you enter the Museum of Tolerance in Los Angeles, you find yourself in a room of interactive exhibits designed to identify the people you can’t tolerate. The familiar targets are there (blacks, women, Jews, gays), but also short people, fat people, blond-female people, disabled people, ... You watch a video on the vast variety of prejudices, designed to convince you that everyone has at least a few, and then you are invited to enter the museum proper through one of two doors: one marked PREJUDICED, the other marked UNPREJUDICED. The latter door is locked, in case anyone misses the point, but occasionally some people do. When we were visiting the museum one afternoon, we were treated to the sight of four Hasidic Jews pounding angrily on the Unprejudiced door, demanding to be let in.” [13]

Similarly, I see art having a similar capability. I suggest that art could be a way with which people can communicate in a safer environment so that individuals can allow themselves to introspect, and reach justified (and hopefully true) beliefs. In debates, it is only expected that people hide behind their beliefs and self-justification, or at least the need for self-justification, is maximized. It is extremely rare for people to rationally understand and psychologically accept that their view is wrong and admit their mistaken belief after a rational debate and evaluation of arguments. This atmosphere of opposition which increases self-justification seems to vanish in art. When visiting an art exhibition, people are not focused on their disagreements, even if it is a themed exhibition. People do not express their beliefs, not through words and statements at least, and they do not feel the need to justify anything. In an artistic environment, people are in a sense united as human beings who want to enjoy art, rather than beings belonging to different groups depending on any beliefs they hold and different justifications they provide for their beliefs.

Let us think of it this way. If a politician states a view, he is expected to justify his opinion. Justification is everything. People who support this political party may believe the statement because he belongs to the party they support, but they will believe the justification so they can justify to themselves why they believe what he says, thus justifying themselves as rational people and creating a positive self-image. The opposite happens in art. Artists do not, or do not typically at least, provide justifications for their artwork, nor for their beliefs expressed through their art, even when their beliefs are obvious. In the same atmosphere, visitors relieve themselves from the pressure of justification and more importantly, they relieve themselves from the pressure of expressing or even holding an opinion on the theme. They can justify their visit as “visiting an art gallery”, “being
interested in art”, a notion and sentiment shared by many. Furthermore, if the art gallery makes everyone accept the premise that they are prejudiced and then exhibits express myths and facts of both sides of the topic, then people may become less certain about their beliefs without the pressure of self-justification, because they entered the prejudiced entrance because they “had to” – after all, it was the only entrance. After walking through the “prejudiced” entrance, they did not openly and voluntarily expose themselves to the arguments of the opposite side, but they “enjoyed looking at art”. Exposure to the artwork of the arguments of the opposition is the first step. Indeed, this exposure consists in the illusion that there is nothing else going on apart from exposition of art. However, as the saying goes, “sometimes you have to be a bit deluded to stay motivated.” Besides, it is with delusions that blind spots trick our mind into self-justification, so it does not seem unreasonable to fight back with the same way.

CONCLUSION

In this discussion, I stated very basic philosophical approaches regarding belief formation and then referred to social beliefs in particular. I stressed the media as a social cause which prevents individuals from forming social beliefs in a neutral environment and I stated examples in which the media causes people to have biased social beliefs. I then referred to the extreme example of Harold Camping, who actually persuaded many people that the physical rapture of the world would take place on the 21st October 2011 and the world would then thus end. I used the metaphor of the pyramid of choice of Tavris and Aronson in the context of Festinger’s “cognitive dissonance” to explain how it is that individuals can come to hold such extreme beliefs, even when they are obviously absurd, and even after people are confronted with no or contrary evidence. Finally, as an answer to the natural question of whether there is a way out, in addition to the suggestion of Tavris and Aronson regarding understanding our mind and being critical, I suggested art as a solution by arguing that it can provide a neutral environment for neutral and unbiased belief formation, relieved from the often unconscious pressure of self-justification.

Very recently, based on Prentice and Gerrig, Anna Ichino quite reasonably holds that stories, and especially fictional stories, “absorb readers’ attention, lowering their epistemic vigilance and preventing them from activating the appropriate process of belief rejection. Reader’s epistemic vigilance might well be lowered also by the fact that they take the purpose of the narrator to be mere entertainment, rather than persuasion, so they’re even less motivated to assume critical stance.” [14]

On first glance at least, I see no good reason of excluding the possibility of art having similar effects. Isn’t art an expression of human imagination and thus, comparative to fictional stories? Doesn’t artwork absorb our attention? Don’t we, non-artists, visit art galleries for entertainment rather than persuasion? Is it not the case that while being entertained we are prevented from rejecting beliefs we come across and we are thus more receptive? It seems to me that art, with the creativity and imagination it is expressed, can provide a neutral environment for social belief formation without biases, helping people stand at the very top of the pyramid, and not at any corner of its base.

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LOCALRESOURCES OF DISABLED PEOPLE IN SRI LANKA: 
ACTION RESEARCH ON COMMUNITY-BASED REHABILITATION PROGRAMME

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ABSTRACT

This case study examines local resources of disabled people at the individual and social levels in a rural area. The research was conducted in the model administrative division of the National Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) Programme in Sri Lanka. In this division, the programme began in 1998, and international volunteers started supportive activities in 2007. The author applied action research after commencing work as a social worker in the local government office in February 2013. Data were collected on social work practice in the field level: assessment, planning, implementing and monitoring. This study used data from semi-structured interviews with disabled people and a social services officer, government documents, and the author’s field notes. Data were analysed with qualitative procedure. The author found that the life situation of disabled people has improved through the development of community workshops and other local resources since 2009. Using interview data, the study reveals individual level elements at each stage: infancy, school age, after school age, turning points and after participation. The significant elements are meeting with a key person and being linked to local resources, developing social support network, and increasing income. The analysis also indicates that the division’s CBR programme encounters the challenges: rights to receive education, information sharing and networking, the variety of local resources, empowerment and leadership, and capacity building. Finally, we discuss the implications of this research and show a new action plan based on the results.

Keywords: CBR/CBID, group activities, empowerment, human rights, action research, qualitative analysis

INTRODUCTION

Community-based rehabilitation (CBR) was initiated in the 1980s and has been adopted in more than 90 countries worldwide. According to a Joint Position Paper by the ILO, the UNESCO and the WHO (2004), CBR is defined as ‘a strategy within general community development for the rehabilitation, equalization of opportunities and social inclusion of all people with disabilities.’ Since Richmond (1922), an American social work pioneer, spoke of the importance of actions through many parts of the social environment in social work, ‘local resources’ or ‘social resources’ have been recognized as one of the key factors in disability issues as well as community work practices. Barker (1999) defines the concept of ‘resources’ as ‘Any existing service or commodity that can be called on to help take care of a need…[including] other social agencies, government programs, other professional or
volunteer personnel, self-help groups, natural helpers, and individuals in the community.’

As Finkenfügel et al. (2005) note in their review of evaluative articles on CBR, the concept of local resources is an important element in producing the effectiveness and sustainability of CBR programmes. Mitchell (1999) also described that local resources and referral systems are key factors in CBR. Although CBR has been studied by various researchers and practitioners, including evaluative researches on the programme (e.g., Biggeri et al., 2012), the number of studies focusing on the use of local resources in CBR is noticeably low (Finkenfügel et al., 2005).

The CBR programme in Sri Lanka began in 1984 under the cooperation of the UNICEF. The practice and effectiveness of CBR in Sri Lanka has rarely been studied and presented, whereas Peiris-John et al. (2013) review the published literature relating to disability issues in Sri Lanka and point to the gaps in the existing studies on the life conditions of disabled people.

With the overall objective of identifying and clarifying the progress of the national CBR programme in a rural area in Sri Lanka, the aim of this case study is to examine the local resources of disabled people at the individual and social levels.

METHOD

After commencing work in a local government office as a social worker in February of 2013, the author applied action research to social work practice. Action research was developed by Lewin (1946) as ‘comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action.’

A mixed-methods approach adopting more qualitative and less quantitative research was used for the action research. As Sharma (2004) describes, this is partly because qualitative data allow for clear and in-depth insights into sensitive issues in CBR, such as life histories, which enable one to extract more useful and effective data. Data were collected on social work practice: assessment, planning, implementation and monitoring. For this study, the author used data from semi-structured interviews with disabled people and a local social services officer, government documents and the author’s field notes. The research period was from March 01, 2013 to December 10, 2013.

STUDY SITE

The study is conducted in R-division (fictitious name) which is the model administrative division of the national CBR programme. The population of R-division is estimated at 32,684 as of December, 2012. There are two hospitals, a medical officer of health (MOH) and two special education classes. In this division, the CBR programme began in 1998, and Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) volunteers commenced support activities in 2007.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Background information on the disability issues in R-division was collected from local government documents (e.g., official data of the Ministry of Social Services and documented meetings of the social services section in R-division), documented data which JICA volunteers had collected since 2007 and data from interviews with a local government officer and JICA officials.

FIELD NOTES

Data from field notes, which the author collected through social worker practice, were also used to analyse the realities of the programme.
INTERVIEWS

Semi-structured interviews with disabled people who participated in community workshops were conducted in order to clarify the function of local resources and the life histories of the interviewees, and also to generate new ideas to develop local resources. Table 1 presents a list of 11 interviewees. Based on the opinion of the social services officer (SSO), who was the author’s counterpart, interviewees who mainly participated in community workshops were selected.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Type of disabilities</th>
<th>Period of participation (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intellectual disability</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intellectual disability</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Traumatic higher brain dysfunction</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Cerebral palsy, asphyxia, epilepsy</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Epilepsy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intellectual disability</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Auditory disability</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Intellectual disability</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Epilepsy, intellectual disability</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Epilepsy, intellectual disability</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Polio</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DATA ANALYSIS

Data on background information and field notes were chronologically and descriptively summarized with assistance from the SSO. Two interviewers conducted interviews in Sinhalese which is the native language of the study site. Interviews were guided by semi-structured questions to stimulate discussion (see Appendix 1). Free-flowing narrative was encouraged to gain unrestricted opinions on the topic of interest. Participants were briefed about ground rules to ensure confidentiality and the objectives of the study. It was emphasised that the discussion was not meant for personal assessment.

The interview data were analysed with reference to the KJ method developed by Kawakita (1970). This approach emphasizes the importance of context in analysing and understanding data. Four raters, including two
interviewers, conducted the analysis which consisted of eight steps: carefully transcribing and reading interviews; putting transcribed data onto sticky notes; putting sticky notes on a white board; positioning and grouping similar sticky notes; naming each group; drawing lines between groups in accordance with the relevance; considering appropriate labels; and verifying the traceability of each interviewee.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research was conducted on the basis of the ethical guidelines of the Japanese Society for the Study of Social Welfare. The study was approved by the Ministry of Social Services, the local government office and the JICA office in Sri Lanka.

Interviewees were asked to participate after receiving information in their native Sinhalese language. They were assured that refusal to be interviewed would have no impact on the services provided. Family carers who helped a disabled person on a regular basis were asked to participate and to consent concerning participation of the disabled person. Consent was also sought on an ongoing basis.

RESULTS

OVERALL ASSESSMENT OF LOCAL RESOURCES

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of disability</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>% of Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>% of Female</th>
<th>Average age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Disability</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(including visual, hearing, or speech impairment)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(including moving related impairment)</td>
<td>155</td>
<td></td>
<td>93</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Disability</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatric Disability**</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Disabilities</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The others or unidentified</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. * Data were collected in a survey by JICA Volunteers in 2009
** Including epilepsy.

The number of disabled people registered by the local government office (Divisional Secretariat) was 363 as of December, 2012. The proportion of disabled people in R-division was approximately 1.1% of 32,684 residents in 2012. Because there was no accurate information on disabled people in the local government office, the author organised the information on the basis of types of disabilities, which was collected by JICA volunteers in 2009 (Table 2). The average age was 39.9 years old. The percentage of disabled men (58.4%) was larger than that of disabled women (41.6%). Physical disability reported a majority (68.2%) whilst psychiatric disability, including epilepsy, was 5.9%.

According to data from the interview with the SSO, the local resources available to disabled people were extremely limited in 2008. Since the present SSO was assigned in 2008, disabled people, their families, SSO and JICA volunteers have developed local resources such as community workshops and CBR village steering committees.

Figure 1 shows a schematic diagram of the stakeholders and local resources in the CBR programme in R-division in 2013. Two SSOs work for elderly people, disabled people and single-parent families at the local government office in R-division. However, there is only one
officer in charge of disability issues. The SSO takes charge of wide-ranging activities in the programme, such as management and coordination, although it is obvious that a single SSO cannot comprehensively perform all the duties with respect to social services in the vast local administrative division.

CBR volunteers are expected to enrol new disabled people, provide necessary personal support and hold village steering committees in order to compensate for the shortage of professionals and local government officers. The number of CBR volunteers registered by the local government office is 17, including two disabled people, as of April, 2013. However, the number of disabled people who receive supports from CBR volunteers is limited.

The CBR divisional steering committee is held once monthly. The SSO plays a leading role in the committee. CBR village steering committees for disabled people are held continually in five villages, once every two months, and community workshops are run into two villages in R-division (see Appendix 2).

In terms of education, eleven disabled children receive inclusive education in the Montessori preschools. A total of 19 pupils with disabilities are registered in the two special education classes. In addition, through collaborative practices of the SSO and the youth services officer, disabled people participate in youth club events such as a youth camp and a sports festival on a regular basis.

COMMUNITY WORKSHOP, ‘PANITYA’

The community workshops (‘Pantiya’ in Sinhalese) were developed as a unique activity in Anuradhapura District, one of which started in 2009. Seven disabled people participated in ‘Pantiya’ in the initial phase. Activities were developed by SSO, JICA volunteers, and CBR volunteers who trained at training centres in other districts. The contents of the activities,
such as occupational activities, were mainly proposed by JICA volunteers in the initial phase. In addition, participants tried to sell products around their homes or in the shop of ‘Pantiya’ in order to collect operating funds.

As of 2013, two ‘Pantiya’ are operated in the division. The contents of the activity are the manufacturing of daily necessaries which are mainly conceived of by families and the SSO. Totally around 30 main members participate regularly in two ‘Pantiya’. In addition, the participants hold regular meetings and markets. As of June 2013, ‘Pantiya’ are held in only one division in the district, except for R-division.

**Figure 2**

Analysis diagram of the life history in relation to local resources

First, meeting with the SSO and other supporters in a community is one of the key factors in the lives of the interviewees (see ‘Turning points’). Eighty-two percent of the interviewees did not meet the SSO or receive any support from the previous SSOs for more than one year after school age before 2009. The average period during which disabled people had been isolated from the community after school age was approximately 7.7 years. Taken together with the ratio of disabled people in R-division, as previously mentioned, it is implied that there are many disabled people who have no direct links to local resources.

Secondly, ‘Pantiya’ includes a variety of functions as one of the local resources in R-division (see ‘After participation’). For instance, disabled people develop manufacturing techniques and increase their income by selling products at the weekly market. Respectively, 45% and 82% of interviewees said that their income increased and that they manufactured products at home. In addition, all participants had opportunities to build social support networks with other participants, and 64% joined the meetings and
events in R-division, such as youthclubs and funeral unions, except for those with disability issues. Furthermore, 18% of the interviewees worked as a CBR volunteer and 9% became a salesperson at a shop (see ‘After participation’).

The analysis also indicates that the division’s CBR programme encountered challenges relating to the rights to receive education, information sharing and networking, the variety of local resources, empowerment and leadership, and capacity building of the disabled people.

Above all, it remains a challenge to enable the community to recognise inclusiveness and the rights of disabled people. Those who dropped out (73%) and did not attend school (9%) were interviewed (see ‘School age’). Reasons for dropout are not only attributed to personal factors (50%) but also environmental factors (50%), including the closure of special education classes for disabled pupils. Similar challenges were revealed in a research by a local NGO, AKASA (2011). It is necessary to establish an environment and inclusive systems whereby everyone including disabled pupils can equally receive education as a human right.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In summary, the author found that compared to 2008 when local resource availability to disabled people was extremely limited, the life situation of disabled people has improved through the development of local resources since 2009. In particular, disabled people, their families and the SSO developed ‘Pantiya’, which can be regarded as an important model of local resources.

The focal point for enhancing CBR good practices in R-division is as follows: whereas participants in the ‘Pantiya’ improved their quality of life to a certain extent, a limited number of other disabled people are introduced to the occasion. The number of disabled people registered by the local government office is 363, and only about 10% of this figure participates in ‘Pantiya’. Even though disabled people in some districts are willing to participate in local resources, their resource levels might be insufficient to match their needs, or it might not be available because of poor or no accessibility conditions. In other words, some people are not connected to local administrative support despite their needs for services. Two challenges are therefore implied from these considerations.

Firstly, it is necessary to create more local resources, such as ‘Pantiya’, in R-division as well as in other divisions. It is essential that disabled people and their families take initiatives to proactively develop local resources as a process of empowerment.

Secondly, building networks amongst stakeholders is also required for the sake of those who are not connected to social support systems. For example, it is indispensable for CBR volunteers to undertake active outreach to disabled people who are isolated from the society. The establishment of referral systems in multi-sectional cooperation is also valuable in order to promote inclusive community practices.

As Devapitchai (2010) shows in his research, it is crucial to develop the CBR programme via action research. Based on the analysis, in September of 2013, the SSO and the author wrote up a one-year action plan, which includes indicators aimed at challenging these issues (see Appendix 3). We have conducted support activities in accordance with the plan. The outcomes of the activities will be evaluated a year later, and the progress will be examined on a monthly basis.

The present study is intended to be exploratory with a limited sample of the study site in Sri Lanka. Future studies would explore and develop some of the issues identified in this
study using a larger and more representative sample of disabled people in this country.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1

TABLE

Semi-structured interview guide (Translated in English)

Current life conditions

Basic information (name, age, family etc.)

What is your daily routine? (weekdays/weekends)

How often do you go out? (place, frequency, purpose etc.)

What is your favourite thing or activity, and why?

What do you want to do in the future?

Life conditions before using local resources

What wasthemost unforgettable memory or life event in your childhood? (what, when etc.)

Did you go to school? (school name, whether or not you attended special education class, duration etc.) Did you dropout, and why?

After graduation, what did you do? (where, when, etc.)

Do you have working experience?

Life conditions after using local resources

When did you first participate in ‘Pantiya’?
Did you participate in other activities before taking part in ‘Pantiya’? (what, where when etc.)

How did you obtain information about ‘Pantiya’? (from whom, where, when etc.)

What did/do you do in ‘Pantiya’? (the initial months, this month etc.)

What has been changed in your life after participating in ‘Pantiya’? (skills, social relationships, income and expenditure etc.)

APPENDIX 2

FIGURE

Mapping of CBR committees and community workshops in R-division

Notes: ● Community Workshop (Pantiya)

△ CBR village steering committee

□ CBR Divisional steering committee

(at Divisional Secretariat)
APPENDIX3

TABLE

New action plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Targets</th>
<th>Activities/Tools</th>
<th>Situation as of July, 2013</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Building networking with multi-sections</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. To build a referral system in order to share necessary information regularly with health section</td>
<td>Medical Officers of Health (MOH)</td>
<td>Meetings and referral paper</td>
<td>No case</td>
<td>The number of referral cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. To share information with mental health institutions</td>
<td>Public mental health institutions</td>
<td>Meetings and home visits</td>
<td>No case</td>
<td>The number of referral cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. To conduct continually corroborative practice</td>
<td>Education section and youth services section</td>
<td>Special education classes and inclusive events</td>
<td>No clear data</td>
<td>The number of participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Developing local resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. To develop leadership and ownership of members of community workshops, members of community workshops in the division</td>
<td>Members of community workshops PWDs and their families in R-division</td>
<td>Community workshops and meetings</td>
<td>To be held by PWDs and their families only</td>
<td>More than 3 workshops in R-division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. To launch new community workshops in other divisions</td>
<td>PWDs and SSOs in other divisions</td>
<td>Village meetings and demonstrations of community workshops Outreach training and monitoring with members of workshops in R-division</td>
<td>1 (except for R-division)</td>
<td>More than 5 workshops in the district</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Improving supportive methods and systems of CBR volunteers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1. To register new PWDs who are not connected to necessary local resources</td>
<td>CBR Volunteers</td>
<td>Visiting whole houses in R-division</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>To increase by 15%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2. To improve support methods of CBR volunteers</td>
<td>CBR Volunteers</td>
<td>Holding workshops for CBR volunteers, and developing support tools</td>
<td>No clear data</td>
<td>Case reports</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Footnotes

1 The CBR practices all over the world have been registered in the database operated by the WHO. (URL: http://www.who.int/disabilities/cbr/global_database/, accessed 28 Feb 2014)

2 In this article, they are described as local resource(s), whereas this term is not standardised.

3 Established as an Incorporated Administrative Agency under the Act of the Incorporated Administrative Agency, JICA aims to contribute to the promotion of international cooperation as well as the sound development of Japanese and global economy by supporting the socioeconomic development, recovery or economic stability of developing regions. (URL: http://www.jica.go.jp/english/, accessed 28 Feb 2014)


5 According to the WHO and the World Bank (2011), 2.9% is the proportion of persons with severe disabilities in the world, whereas 15.3% is said to be the average of disabled people in the world. This implies that there are certain numbers of potential/hidden disabled people who are not reflected in statistics although it may not be appropriate to compare two different types of percentages under the same condition.
DIGITAL DIVIDE IN RELATION TO DIFFERENTLY ABLED COMMUNITY IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

The developments in the field of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the country has rapidly happen after year 2009. Government has developed many programs and initiatives to develop ICT within the country after ending three decades of war. As a result, disabled community can make many opportunities to use the ICT and at the same time create a gap, which is commonly referred to as Disability Digital Divide. The purpose of this study was to examine empirically the current status of adoption of ICT and turn the digital divide resulting from which in the disability community in Sri Lanka and the factors affecting this behavior. A questionnaire and Interviewed based survey (n = 107) was carried out to collect the data from the disabled people who used ICT in the Colombo, Gampaha and Kaluthara District. An empirical model was developed to show the relationship between the level of adoption of 10 Basic, Intermediate and Advanced ICT facilities and a number of factors to reflect the WWW, Smart phones and Computer usage aspects of disabled community. Based on the Innovation - Diffusion Theory the status of Digital Divide of a disabled community was specified by means of an Index. The results show that this community did not become innovators or early-adopters of ICT by adopting WWW or computer related technologies, but were mostly confined to the smart phone related facilities. The results from this study highlight that the Income of a disabled person, Awareness about the Information and Technology, Interest of new Technology usage, Social and Cultural Background of a person, Use of English Language in day-to-day life give a significant impact on the adoption of ICT by the disabled community.

Keywords: Digital Divide, Disability, Disability Digital Divide

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Digital Divide is a phrase coined to refer the gap between “Have and Have not” in Information and Communication Technologies. In other words, Digital Divide is the gap between those who have access to Information Technology resources and those who do not (Balarem, 2004). This digital divide is not limited to the absence of ICT Technologies but also to the inadequate access of Information. Most of the ICT resources are available worldwide but these resources have poor accessibility to different segments of the society. Digital Divide is getting wider in developing countries, when it comes to disabled versus non-disabled, this divide is even getting wider. Some studies also showed decreasing trends of Digital Divide, especially in developed countries (DPI, 2004). World community should recognize the fact that knowledge-based growth is must for sustainable development. Information and Communication Technology can play a vital role for the life of millions of disabled around the globe, ordinary task which otherwise not
possible for people with disabilities can be perform using these technology, for example any physically challenged person can access huge information resources, do transaction through On-line Banking services, communicate through email, share views through On-line Chat rooms, utilized telemedicine for health care, and utilized leisure opportunities, like wise people with visual disabilities can access to web through specialized software which can translate web contents into audio file.

Different disability groups and different organizations define disability with many definitions. These interpretations influenced by different interpretations influenced by historical, social, legal and philosophical. In additions to that disability models also having different disability definitions. According to the MDRC (2012) there are different models of disability such as social model, medical model, expert or professional model, right based model, charity model, religious model, economic model, customer model and rehabilitation model of disability. According to the different definitions it is indicated that this community is a disadvantaged group in the society. ICT access by this community also consider as a common problem in the world.

According to the Internet world statistics (2013), states that there is a divide of access of information among the world. It could be happen due to many reasons and disability also one aspects .This divide call as disability digital divide. According to the definitions of inventor and director of www Tim Berners Lee states that “The power of the web is in its universality. Access by everyone regardless of disability is an essential aspect”.

Different solution models have proposed by the different researchers to solve this digital gap. According to the above different models this digital divide solutions basically depend with the culture, political influences, social view point on differently abled community and the technological usage by the country. It is prove that by nations to nations it is vary therefore the objective of this study is to propose an ICT model to bridging the disability digital divide gap in Sri Lanka and improve the quality of life of differently abled community in Sri Lanka.

The purpose of this study was to examine empirically the current status of adoption of ICT and in turn the digital divide resulting from which in the disability community in Sri Lanka and the factors affecting this behavior

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the literature the digital age is a period in human history characterized by the change from traditional industry that the industrial revolution brought through industrialization, to an economy based on information computerization. According to the Dobransky (2012).The increasing spread of the Internet holds much potential for enhancing opportunities for people with disabilities. However, scarce evidence exists to suggest that people with disabilities are, in fact, participating in these new developments. Will the spread of Information technologies (IT) increase equality by offering opportunities for people with disabilities or will a growing reliance on IT lead to more inequality by leaving behind certain portions of the population including people with disabilities. With considering the above arguments is a proven that disabled people are nothaving equal opportunities to accessing information technology.

In the United Kingdom, for example, people were either discouraged or not actively encouraged to enter the workforce. In 1958, the British government realized the potential economic benefits in having people with disabilities in the workforce. . As a result, sheltered workshop were introduced and shared accommodation was encouraged (Schlesinger & Whelan,1979). Other
countries, including Australia, implemented similar policies shortly after the British Government initiative. In Sri Lanka it has not concern Government Policies at this time.

As a result of many years the disability movement in Sri Lanka has been requesting from the government a national policy on disability in the year 2003 National policy on disability was approved. This was the initial consideration for this community on Technology. Later in 2012 National action plan for disabled was taken in to consideration in Sri Lanka.

Sri Lanka has taken many initiations to bridging the gap of disability digital divide. Information and Communication Technology Agency (ICTA) the government authorized body on ICT in Sri Lanka has initiated some project to bridging the Sri Lankan digital divide. According to the Dewapura (2013) ICT literacy was 4% in 2003, In 2014 it is 40%. ICTA offered its full co-operation for the rehabilitation and reconstruction work in the north and east. e-Sri Lanka revamp and continue e-Sri Lanka development initiations under the name ‘Smart Sri Lanka’.

According to the Wedasinghe and Wicramarachci (2014) studies they gave the latest technologies available for the disabled community. It is given in the following Table 01

Under the three main ICT areas including web services, Mobile devises and computer devises were concern for the categorization. From these findings it is indicated that there are many services offered by the ICT for differently abled community. These technologies could be used by the differently abled community to improve their quality of their life.

**Table 1: ICT products and services available for differently abled community in globe**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Available Web Services (Internet) for disabled users</th>
<th>Available Mobile devisers for disabled users</th>
<th>Supportive Computer Devisers and others Services for disabled users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Websites: online educational courses, social networking, shopping</td>
<td>• Smartphones and Tablets</td>
<td>• Accessibility software: screen reading, voice to text, screen typing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Captioned telephone (relay)</td>
<td>• SMS</td>
<td>• Captions (closed and open) [eg. Youtube]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Telework: online jobs and training, virtual collaboration</td>
<td>• Emergency service access – voice, text and sign language</td>
<td>• Captioned telephone (relay)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Telemedicine and e-</td>
<td>• Captioned telephone (relay)</td>
<td>• Accessible e-books and e-documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mobile banking services</td>
<td>• Gamified apps for special education and recreation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Open source software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Hearing Aids</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the above findings it is indicated that there are different technologies and services offered by the ICT. According to the literature indicated that different tools and technologies available for differently abled community but there are different common barriers faced by them is cause for the disability digital divide. In order to identify the adoption of technology by this community theory used to analyze the current situation. It is discussed by the next section.

**THEORY USED FOR THIS STUDY**

Based on the Innovation - Diffusion Theory the status of Digital Divide of a disabled community was specified by means of an Index. This theory basically used to identify the technology adoption of the differently abled community in Sri Lanka.
Within the rate of adoption, there is a point at which an innovation reaches critical mass. The categories of adopters are: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards (Rogers 1962, p. 150). Diffusion of innovations manifests itself in different ways in various cultures and fields and is highly subject to the type of adopters and innovation-decision process.

This research paper provides the key results of an empirical study conducted to assess the digital divide in the disability digital divide community in Sri Lanka and to investigate the factors affecting such a behavior.

**METHODOLOGY**

The empirical model used to examine the relationship between the level of adoption of ICT in a disabled community and associated factors and the methods used to collect and analyze data are discussed below.

**RESEARCH STRATEGY**

Research strategy used for this study is mixed approach. Field and literature survey has been conducted to do this research. This research consists with two phases. In the first phase find out the study on Technology adoption for differently abled community via literature survey. Second phase included a field survey to find data related to dependent and independent variable.

Total population included with the sample taken from Sri Lankan Army Soldiers who have followed computer training in RanaviresewanaRagama. The research interviewed trainers and government representative also. Initial plan is to select sample as 150 and finally limited to 107 differently able persons. This community is including male, females and temporary and permanently disabled people. This sample is covered with three different districts in Sri Lanka namely Colombo, Gampaha and Kaluthara. Reasons to select this research approach is specially because the computer use in differently able community is unknown.

**DATA COLLECTION**

Data collected for this study based on two approaches. The primary data collection through observation and interviews done at RanaviresewanaRagama. Participants are excluding with mentally disorder differently abled people. Total number of computers are fully allocated during the morning time. Most of participants were more interesting on games.
and tele dramas. The next data collection method was interviewing the participants. Different levels of participants were interviewed for this research. They are differently able computer users, computer trainers of differently able users and senior administration of them. In addition to that different government officers who are working for this community and computer expertise also interviewed. Face to face interviews conducted to get this information and all the information recorded in manually for further analysis.

**EMPIRICAL MODEL**

Dependent variable used for this study based on the Wedasinghe and Wicramarachchi(2013) factors identified in their research paper. Following variables Identified as Independent variables. It is given in the Following Table2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PIP1</td>
<td>Per capita Income of a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWA2</td>
<td>Awareness about the Information and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT3</td>
<td>Interest of new Technology usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCB4</td>
<td>Social and Cultural Background of a person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LB5</td>
<td>Use of English Language in day-to-day life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Type of Variable Used for the Empirical Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Type of Accessibility</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>Web Site Access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>Conventional Telephone Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>Accessibility Software (Screen reader Software)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I1</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Telework(Online Jobs &amp;Training /Virtual collaboration)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Chat System</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I3 Intermediate Smart Phone Usage
I4 Intermediate Captions(you Tube)
A1 Advance Telemedicine an E-Health
A2 Advance Tablets Usage
A3 Advance Software Usage(Open source S/W, mobile Banks)

Table 4: Dependent Variables Used in the Empirical Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of the Estate</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Range of the Digital Divide Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ICT Innovators</td>
<td>DDI₁</td>
<td>0.8 &lt; DDI ≤ 1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Early ICT Adopters</td>
<td>DDI₂</td>
<td>0.6 &lt; DDI ≤ 0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Early Majority ICT Adopters</td>
<td>DDI₃</td>
<td>DDI₃ 0.4 &lt; DDI ≤ 0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Late Majority ICT Adopters</td>
<td>DDI₄</td>
<td>DDI₄ 0.2 &lt; DDI ≤ 0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Laggards in Adopting ICT</td>
<td>DDI₅</td>
<td>DDI₅ 0.0 &lt; DDI ≤ 0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: The Sampling Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administrative District</th>
<th>No of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombo</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gampaha</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaluthara</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**DATA ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK**

If a given District disabled community adopts 2 out of 3 ICT facilities listed under the Basic category, its BICT would be 2 = 0.66. Similarly, if the same state adopts 2 Intermediate and 1 Advanced ICT facility, its IICT and AICT would be 2/4 = ½ = 0.5 and 1/3 = 0.33, respectively.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Descriptive statistics of the sample the general information of differently abled community (age, experience in technology) and the other details reported in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombo</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duration of</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tech Use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gampaha</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duration of</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tech Use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaluthara</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duration of</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tech Use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 6, the differently abled people responsible for adoption of ICT in the differently abled community were, in general, young with the minimum and maximum ages of 20 and 54. A relatively average mean value for work experience indicates that these community, in general, work in the Technology sector for Short time; thus, Not having sufficient knowledge about ICT. Also, the mean of these two characteristics were subjected to less variation. By analyzing three different districts it is indicated that Colombo is getting high maximum value on the use of technology. The reason for that is Colombo is the main city of the country and most of Advance technologies and infrastructure is good at Colombo. Due to the new strategies of government in the future it will be equals in the each district.
### Table 07: Current Status of Adoption of ICT Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Type of Accessibility</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Basic</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Chat System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I3</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Smart Phone Usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I4</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Captions (you Tube)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Advance</td>
<td>Telemedicine an E-Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Advance</td>
<td>Tablets Usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Advance</td>
<td>Software Usage (Open source S/W, mobile Banks)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage of differently abled people that adopted the 10 types of ICT facilities is illustrated in Figure 2. It clearly shows that land line telephone was used by all the differently abled community (100%). Further, nearly 39 percent of them use Captions for their entertainment activities. Conversely, Accessibility Software-Screen reader Software (20%), Telework (Online Jobs & Training / Virtual collaboration) (15), Chat System (25), Smart Phone Usage (20%), Captions (you Tube) (35%), Telemedicine an E-Health (7%), Tablets Usage (8%) and Software Usage (Open source S/W, mobile Banks) (3%) was relatively low. It demonstrates that Software Usage (3%) was the lowest adopted ICT facility in this particular community. (Figure 2).
CONCLUSIONS

The outcome of analysis confirms that differently abled community; at present mostly adopt only the basic ICT facilities such as Web Site access, Conventional telephone service and usage of accessibility software. Although a majority of disabled community uses Web site Information limited to the specific information searching such as to listen Music and listen tele dramas. Most of them are using computers is the community center or in their work place. They are not using Information Systems, In fact, the usage of Internet was satisfactory in the differently abled community at the moment, which from one hand, they does not accessTelework such as Online Jobs and training or collaboration. Screen reader software also not much popular among the blind users since they are not supporting mother Language (Tamil/Sinhala). This is a major issues that need to consider.Moreover, the lack of adoption of intermediate facilities, for example networking, affects the level of use of advanced and effective ICT facilities such as Telework (Online Jobs & Training /Virtual collaboration),Chat system, Smart Phone Usage and you tube. Lack of Innovators and Earlyadopters of ICT in the differently abled community means that nearly 87 percent of users were not motivated to adopt such technologies voluntarily. It proves that the levels of adoption of individual ICT facilities considered in this analysis were highly inconsistent across the abled community, and as a result, there exists a digital divide among the differently abled community.

The outcome suggests that both the public (government) and private (corporate) sector should get together to increase the levels of ICT adoption. This can be done by introducing finally t is necessary to develop necessary infrastructure.

REFERENCES


conversations that holds different meanings for different people: http://www.disabled-world.com/definitions/disability-definitions.php#ixzz2PKThh9bP


CRITICALITY OF SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS IN PUBLIC POLICY: A STUDY OF REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH CARE IN RURAL WEST BENGAL

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ABSTRACT

Public policy is an intriguing terrain, which involves complex interplay of both administrative and political components. Until recently, policy making was deemed as an absolutely specialized exercise to be conducted by a cadre of professionally trained seasoned mandarin. Attributes like homogeneity, impartiality, efficiency, and neutrality were considered as the watchwords of delivering common goods. Citizen or clientele was conceptualized as universal political or economic construct, to be taken care of uniformly. Moreover, policy makers usually have a proclivity to put anything into policy straightjacket, and to ignore the nuances therein. Hence, least attention is given to the ground level reality, especially the socio-cultural milieu where the policy is supposed to be applied. Consequently, a substantial amount of public money goes in vain as the intended beneficiaries remain indifferent to the delivery of public policies. The centrality of socio-cultural factors in public policy can be better understood if we take public health policy of India into consideration. The present paper in the light of Reproductive Health Care policy in rural West Bengal has tried to underscore the criticality of socio-cultural factors in public health delivery. The paper argues that the dismal state of public health delivery in India is an outcome of policy myopia as the policy makers identify the supply-side bottleneck as the only reason behind the poor performance of the delivery of health services, ignoring the centrality of socio-cultural factors in generating the demand for it.

Key Word: Public Policy, Health, Socio-cultural factor
A SURVEY OF WONDERS AND MARVELS OF EUROPE IN A UNIQUE PERSIAN MANUSCRIPT

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ABSTRACT
Marvelous Manuscripts hold a salient position in each country's culture; some of which change into myths and the other foster the production of different literary works. Geographers and historians embellish their writings with those contents as well. Some of these materials are offsprings of imagination and the others based on fact. Reflection of those materials in ancient historical works was deemed common. Odysius of Homer in the West literature much like Sandbad Nameh, Eskandar Nameh and Shahnameh in the East literature serve as good examples of the mentioned reflection. The present marvelous manuscript is authored in the middle of 13th century and has devided marvels into two categories of natural and human. Natural marvels on which human being exerts no influence are as follows: marvels pertaining to animals, plants and trees, mountains, stones and mines, rivers, springs, wells and seas and also heavenly marvels. Human marvels on the other hand consist of the following. Marvels pertaining to spiritual and physical conditions of human beings, marvels pertaining to monuments built by humans, marvels pertaining to human inventions and innovations, marvels pertaining to magic spells, and mervels pertaining to wars and battles. The present work extracts the above-mentioned marvels which concern Europe in one way or another.

Key words: Wonder, Nature, Marvels ,Human, Europe

INTRODUCTION
The author names a volcano. Krafla is a wonderful volcano in Island which ejects tremendous fire and lava. It is recorded that its eruption in 1167 AH dried up twelve rivers and devastated twelve surrounding villages and killed two hundred forty people. The author expresses his surprise in the economic prosperity of England in the 19th century due to industrial revolution as a result of which English could pay off all their international debts. He also refers to one of the ancient kings who burned all his family and wealth when he fails the war and committed suicide with them. The author is amazed at the king’s opulence. The author is amazed at the innovation of a giant lens by Earl Ras which is embedded in a wall and is wheeled so that it could be ported conveniently. The author is surprised at the invention of a sort of telegram (telephone) in Europe by which the people are able hear each other’s voice from one hundred miles further. He has recently heard about the invention of a visual telegram which enables its users to see each other facially. Thames canal is one of the manmade marvels which the author mentions. He dubs it the reverse bridge because it is an underground passage which straddles the river. The Napoleonic Wars (1803–1815) were a series of wars between Napoleon's French Empire and opposing coalitions led by Great Britain which had drawn the author’s attention. As a continuation of the wars sparked by the French Revolution of 1789, they revolutionised European armies and played out on an unprecedented scale, mainly owing to the application of modern mass conscription. French power rose quickly as Napoleon's
armies conquered much of Europe but collapsed rapidly after France’s disastrous invasion of Russia in 1812. Napoleon was defeated in 1814; he returned and was finally defeated in 1815 at Waterloo, and all France’s gains were taken away by the victors. Before a final victory against Napoleon, five of seven coalitions saw defeat at the hands of France. 1 France defeated the first and second coalitions during the French Revolutionary Wars, the third (notably at Austerlitz), the fourth (notably at Jena, Eylau, and Friedland) and the fifth coalition (notably at Wagram) under the leadership of Napoleon. These great victories gave the French Army a sense of invulnerability, especially when it approached Moscow. But after the retreat from Russia, in spite of incomplete victories, France was defeated by the sixth coalition at Leipzig, in the Peninsular War at Vitoria and at the hands of the seventh coalition at Waterloo. 2

The wars resulted in the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire and sowed the seeds of nascent nationalism in Germany and Italy that would lead to the two nations’ respective consolidations later in the century. Meanwhile, the global Spanish Empire began to unravel as French occupation of Spain weakened Spain’s hold over its colonies, providing an opening for nationalist revolutions in Spanish America. As a direct result of the Napoleonic wars, the British Empire became the foremost world power for the next century, thus beginning Pax Britannica. No consensus exists about when the French Revolutionary Wars ended and the Napoleonic Wars began. An early candidate is 9 November 1799, the date of Bonaparte’s coup seizing power in France. However, the most common date is 18 May 1803, when renewed war broke out between Britain and France, ending the one-year-old Peace of Amiens, the only period of general peace in Europe between 1792 and 1814. Most actual fighting ceased following Napoleon’s final defeat at Waterloo on 18 June 1815, although skirmishing continued as late as 3 July 1815 at the Battle of Issy. The Second Treaty of Paris officially ended the wars on 20 November 1815. The writer also refers to the Monument to the Great Fire of London. The Monument to the Great Fire of London, more commonly known simply as the Monument, is a stone Roman Doric column in the City of London, near the northern end of London Bridge, which commemorates the Great Fire of London.

It stands at the junction of Monument Street and Fish Street Hill, 202 ft (62 m) tall and 202 ft (62 m) from the place where the Great Fire started on 2 September 1666. Another monument, the Golden Boy of Pye Corner, marks the point near Smithfield where the fire stopped. Constructed between 1671 and 1677, it is the tallest isolated stone column in the world[1] and was built on the site of St. Margaret’s, Fish Street, the first church to be burnt down by the Great Fire. The Monument comprises a fluted Doric column built of Portland stone topped with a gilded urn of fire, and was designed by Christopher Wren and Robert Hooke. Its height marks its distance from the site in Pudding Lane of the shop of Thomas Farynor, the king’s baker, where the Great Fire began. 3 The author also informs the Eastern audience about the St. Paul’s Cathedral. An enlargement program commenced in 1256. This ‘New Work’ was consecrated in 1300 but not complete until 1314. 4 During the later Medieval period St Paul’s was exceeded in length only by the Abbey Church of Cluny and in the height of its spire only by Lincoln Cathedral and St. Mary’s Church, Stralsund. Excavations by Francis Penrose in 1878 showed that it was 585 feet (178 m) long and 100 feet (30 m) wide (290 feet or 87 m across the transepts and crossing). The spire was about 489 feet (149 m).
By the 16th century the building was starting to decay. Under Henry VIII and Edward VI, the Dissolution of the Monasteries and Chantries Acts led to the destruction of interior ornamentation and the cloisters, charnels, crypts, chapels, shrines, chantries and other buildings in St Paul's Churchyard. Many of these former religious sites in the churchyard, having been seized by the Crown, were sold as shops and rental properties, especially to printers and booksellers, who were often Puritans. In 1561 the spire was destroyed by lightning, an event that was taken by both Protestants and Roman Catholics as a sign of God's displeasure at the other faction. In the 1630s a west front was added to the building by England's first classical architect, Inigo Jones. There was much defacing and mistreatment of the building by Parliamentary forces during the Civil War, and the old documents and charters were dispersed and destroyed. During the Commonwealth, those churchyard buildings that were razed supplied ready-dressed building material for construction projects, such as the Lord Protector's city palace, Somerset House. Crowds were drawn to the northeast corner of the churchyard, St Paul's Cross, where open-air preaching took place.

In the Great Fire of London of 1666, Old St Paul's was gutted. While it might have been possible to reconstruct it, a decision was taken to build a new cathedral in a modern style. This course of action had been proposed even before the fire. The author also describes the seven wonders of the ancient world meticulously. The Statue of Zeus at Olympia was a giant seated figure, about 13 m (43 ft) tall, made by the Greek sculptor Phidias in circa 435 BC at the sanctuary of Olympia, Greece, and erected in the Temple of Zeus there. A sculpture of ivory plates and gold panels over a wooden framework, it represented the god Zeus sitting on an elaborate cedarwood throne ornamented with ebony, ivory, gold, and precious stones. It was regarded as one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World until its eventual loss and destruction during the 5th century AD. No copy of the statue has ever been found, and details of its form are known only from ancient Greek descriptions and representations on coins. The great seated statue as fashioned by Phidias occupied half the width of the aisle of the temple built to house it. "It seems that if Zeus were to stand up," the geographer Strabo noted early in the 1st century BC, "he would unroof the temple." The Zeus was a chryselephantine sculpture, made with ivory and gold panels on a wooden substructure. No copy in marble or bronze has survived, though there are recognizable but only approximate versions on coins of nearby Elis and on Roman coins and engraved gems.
ator Dio Chrysostom declared that a single glimpse of the statue would make a man forget all his earthly troubles. The sculptor also was reputed to have immortalised his eromenos, Pantarkes, by carving "Pantarkes kalos" into the god's little finger, and placing a relief of the boy crowning himself at the feet of the statue. The Temple of Artemis, also known less precisely as the Temple of Diana, was a Greek temple dedicated to the goddess Artemis and was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. It was located in Ephesus (near the modern town of Selçuk in present-day Turkey), and was completely rebuilt three times before its eventual destruction in 401. Only foundations and sculptural fragments of the latest of the temples at the site remain. The first sanctuary (temenos) antedated the Ionic immigration by many years, and dates to the Bronze Age. Callimachus, in his Hymn to Artemis, attributed it to the Amazons. In the 7th century BC, the old temple was destroyed by a flood. Its reconstruction began around 550 BC, under the Cretan architect Chersiphron and his son Metagenes, at the expense of Croesus of Lydia; the project took 10 years to complete, only to be destroyed in an act of arson by Herostratus. It was later rebuilt. The Temple of Artemis was located near the ancient city of Ephesus, about 75 km south from the modern port city of İzmir, in Turkey. Today the site lies on the edge of the modern town of Selçuk. The sacred site (temenos) at Ephesus was far older than the Artemision itself. Pausanias was certain that it antedated the Ionic immigration by 7 years, being older even than the oracular shrine of Apollo at Didyma. He said that the pre-Ionic inhabitants of the city were Leleges and Lydians. Callimachus, in his Hymn to Artemis, attributed the earliest temenos at Ephesus to the Amazons, whose worship he imagines already centered upon an image (bretas) of Artemis, their matron goddess. Modern archaeology cannot confirm Callimachus's Amazons, but Pausanias's account of the site's antiquity seems well-founded. Before World War I, site excavations by David George Hogarth identified three successive temple buildings. Re-excavations in 1987-88 confirmed that the site was occupied as early as the Bronze Age, with a sequence of pottery finds that extend forward to Middle Geometric times, when a peripteral temple with a floor of hard-packed marble was constructed in the second half of the 8th century BC. The peripteral temple at Ephesus offers the earliest example of a peripteral type on the coast of Asia Minor, and perhaps the earliest Greek temple surrounded by colonnades anywhere.

7 (Freely, 2004: 124)
8 (Freely, 2004: 147)

In the 7th century BC, a flood destroyed the temple, depositing over half a meter of sand and flotsam over the original clay floor. Among the flood debris were the remains of a carved ivory plaque of a griffin and the Tree of Life, apparently North Syrian, and a number of drilled tear-shaped amber drops of elliptical cross-section. These probably once dressed a wooden effigy (xoanon) of the Lady of Ephesus, which must have been destroyed or recovered from the flood. Bammer notes that though the site was prone to flooding, and raised by silt deposits about two metres between the eighth and 6th centuries, and a further 2.4 m between the sixth and the fourth, its continued use "indicates that maintaining the identity of the actual location played an important role in the sacred organization". The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus or Tomb of Mausolus was a tomb built between 353 and 350 BC at Halicarnassus (present Bodrum, Turkey) for Mausolus, a satrap in the Persian Empire, and Artemisia II of Caria, who was both his wife and his sister. The structure was designed by the Greek architects Satyros and Pythius of Priene. The Mausoleum was approximately
45 m (148 ft) in height, and the four sides were adorned with sculptural reliefs, each created by one of four Greek sculptors — Leochares, Bryaxis, Scopas of Paros and Timotheus. The finished structure of the mausoleum was considered to be such an aesthetic triumph that Antipater of Sidon identified it as one of his Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. It was destroyed through many earthquakes from 12th century to 15th century. The word mausoleum has now come to be used generically for an above-ground tomb. Mausolus decided to build a new capital; a city as safe from capture as it was magnificent to be seen. He chose the city of Halicarnassus. If Mausolus' ships blocked a small channel, they could keep all enemy warships out. His workmen deepened the city's harbor and used the dredged sand to make protecting breakwaters in front of the channel. On land they paved streets and squares, and built houses for ordinary citizens. And on one side of the harbor they built a massive fortified palace for Mausolus, positioned to have clear views out to sea and inland to the hills — places from where enemies could attack. On land, the workmen also built walls and watchtowers, a Greek – style theatre and a temple to Ares — the Greek god of war. Artemisia and Mausolus spent huge amounts of tax money to embellish the city. They commissioned statues, temples and buildings of gleaming marble. On a hill overlooking the city Artemisia planned to place a resting place for her body, and her husband's, after their death. In 353 BC, Mausolus died, leaving Artemisia to rule alone. As a tribute to him, she decided to build him a tomb so famous that Mausolus's name is now the eponym for all stately tombs, in the word mausoleum. The construction was also so beautiful and unique it became one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

10 (Higgens, 1988: 158)

Artemisia lived for only two years after the death of her husband. The urns with their ashes were placed in the yet unfinished tomb. As a form of sacrifice ritual the bodies of a large number of dead animals were placed on the stairs leading to the tomb, and then the stairs were filled with stones and rubble, sealing the access. According to the historian Pliny the Elder, the craftsmen decided to stay and finish the work after the death of their patron "considering that it was at once a memorial of his own fame and of the sculptor's art." The Colossus of Rhodes was a statue of the Greek Titan Helios, erected in the city of Rhodes, on the Greek island of the same name, by Chares of Lindos in 280 BC. It is considered one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. It was constructed to celebrate Rhodes' victory over the ruler of Cyprus, Antigonus I Monophthalmus, whose son unsuccessfully besieged Rhodes in 305 BC. Before its destruction in the earthquake of 226 BC, the Colossus of Rhodes stood over 30 meters (98.4 ft) high, making it one of the tallest statues of the ancient world. The construction began in 292 BC. Ancient accounts, which differ to some degree, describe the structure as being built with iron tie bars to which brass plates were fixed to form the skin. The interior of the structure, which stood on a 15 meter (50 foot) high white marble pedestal near the Mandraki harbour entrance, was then filled with stone blocks as construction progressed. Other sources place the Colossus on a breakwater in the harbour. The statue itself was over 30 meters (98.4 ft) tall. Much of the iron and bronze was reforged from the various weapons Demetrius's army left behind, and the abandoned second siege tower may have been used for scaffolding around the lower levels during construction. Upper portions were built with the use of a large earthen ramp. During the building, workers would pile mounds of dirt on the sides of the colossus. Upon completion all of the dirt was removed and the
colossus was left to stand alone. After twelve years, in 280 BC, the statue was completed. Preserved in Greek anthologies of poetry is what is believed to be the genuine dedication text for the Colossus.

The base pedestal was at least 60 feet (18 m) in diameter and either circular or octagonal. The feet were carved in stone and covered with thin bronze plates riveted together. Eight forged iron bars set in a radiating horizontal position formed the ankles and turned up to follow the lines of the legs while becoming progressively smaller. Individually cast curved bronze plates 60 inches (1,500 mm) square with turned in edges were joined together by rivets through holes formed during casting to form a series of rings. The lower plates were 1 inch (25 mm) in thickness to the knee and 3/4 inch thick from knee to abdomen, while the upper plates were 1/4 to 1/2 inch thick except where additional strength was required at joints such as the shoulder, neck, etc. The legs would need to be filled at least to the knees with stones for stability. Accounts described earthen mounds used to aid construction but, to reach the top of the statue would have required a mound 300 feet (91 m) in diameter, which exceeded the available land area, so modern engineers have proposed that the abandoned siege towers stripped down would have made efficient scaffolding.

11 (Higgins, 1988: 112)

12 (Gisela, 1966: )

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Accounts of Philo of Byzantium ca. 150 B.C. and Pliny (Plineus Caius Secundus) ca. 50 A.D. based on viewing the broken remains.
INDIA’S ‘CONNECT CENTRAL ASIA POLICY’: EMERGING ECONOMIC AND SECURITY DIMENSIONS

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ABSTRACT

Central Asia is strategically positioned as an access between Europe and Asia and offers extensive potential for trade, investment and growth. The region is richly endowed with commodities such as crude oil, natural gas, cotton, gold, copper, aluminum and iron. The increasing importance of the region’s oil and gas resources has generated new rivalries among external powers. A scramble for resources has begun in the Central Asia between Russia and other external players like US, China resulting in a Great Game rivalry. India wants to gain a foothold in the region for its huge energy reserves and also to secure a stable extended neighbourhood in Afghanistan. Today in the post-cold war years, India is increasingly looking toward Central Asia as both a reliable source of oil and natural gas and a focus of its strategic interests in Asia. Trade and economic ties with the landlocked Central Asia are point of interest for India. In this age of globalization, economic ties hold the key to any bilateral, trilateral and multilateral cooperation. Both India and Central Asia share common perceptions about the need to have friendship and mutually advantageous economic relations especially in the backdrop of globalization. Through its ‘connect Central Asia Policy’, New Delhi aims to actively take part in Central Asia’s regional cooperation and security arrangements. This paper attempts to highlight the need for India’s holistic approach towards Central Asia with in a neo-liberal framework in the context of globalization.

Key Words: Central Asia, Economic, Strategic, Security, Geo-political, India.

INTRODUCTION

Let me begin this paper quoting a few lines from the book edited by Marlene Laruelle and others entitled ‘China and India in Central Asia: A New “Great Game”?’. It goes like this: ‘Since the fall of the Soviet Union, the rediscovery of Central Asia by international community has placed this region in a specific intellectual context, one marked by a return of geopolitical theories and debates around the “end of history” and the “clash of civilizations.” The revival of geopolitical theory, especially Sir Halford Mackinder’s idea that one who controls the heartland controls the world, has profoundly shaped the new frameworks applied to the post-Soviet states of Central Asia and to Afghanistan….’ (Laruelle: 1) In other words, the fall of Soviet Union drastically changed the geopolitical scenario of Asia and more specifically in Central Asia which had a far reaching impact upon India’s foreign policy towards the region.

Direct Indian-Central Asian link were limited during the Soviet period. In the backdrop of Indo-Soviet special friendship, New Delhi was virtually present in the everyday lives of Central Asia through television, movies, music and cultural exchanges. (Laruelle: 1-2) In the immediate post-Soviet years India’s presence in the region became symbolic. Things however started changing since later part of 1990s when the major powers namely the US
and China made inroads into the region in various ways that led to the rise of ‘New Great Game’ with Russia, China and the US vying over security and energy interests in a politically unstable region. India, though not a party to this great game rivalry, took keen interest in Central Asia primarily in view of its huge ever growing energy requirements.

Central Asia as a region not only connects Asian and European continents but also provides the shortest transit route to Europe from Asia. Geographic factors have had a tremendous influence on the whole region to the extent that Central Asia has now become a region of geopolitical, geo-economic and geo-strategic significance in the arena of international relations. The region is extensively rich in natural resources including oil and gas reserves. It is also a strong market for millions of consumers. India can benefit immensely out of promoting strong trade and economic relations with countries of the region. Thus, In the post-cold war years, India is increasingly looking toward Central Asia as both a reliable source of oil and natural gas and a focus of its strategic interests in Asia. Trade and economic ties with the landlocked Central Asia are point of interest for India. This apart, security is also an important concern for India in view of the fact that extremist groups like Talibans and Al-Qaeda are quite active in the region.

In brief, apart from economic factors, Central Asia is important to India because of its strategic location, geographical proximity and of its energy resources. Restoring traditional linkages with Central Asia has been one of the primary strategic priorities before India today. It is in this backdrop, this paper will highlight the need for India’s holistic approach towards Central Asia with in a neo-realist framework.

EMERGING STRATEGIC SCENARIO AND INDIA’S RESPONSE

India’s political, cultural, and historical ties to Central Asia date back to antiquity. But contemporary circumstances, namely the quest for energy and the threat of terrorism, have imparted a new urgency, adding strategic realities to historical tradition. Recently, Foreign Minister Salman Khurshid has said that India’s energy requirements are growing at a ‘terrifying pace’. Consequently, India’s government recently announced that it refuses to lay down a quota for importing oil (and presumably gas) from any country, including Iran. Instead, India will buy oil (and, again, presumably gas if not other energy sources) from wherever ‘it gets the best deal’. In this context, it is even targeting the Arctic for energy sources. The Caspian basin is seen as an important source of hydrocarbons and ONGC is buying an 8.42% share of Conoco Phillips’ holdings in Kazakhstan. It also is buying equity (albeit modest) in Azeri fields around the Caspian. (Blank)

Despite urgency of strengthening bilateral ties with Central Asia, India is failing to keep pace with its rivals, particularly China. This failure occurs even though the US supports an expanded Indian role in Central Asia, and the American presence vastly enlarges the political, economic and military space available to India. Indeed, Washington’s presence allows India to play, or at least aspire to, a greater Central Asian role than it could achieve on its own. Washington also counts on New Delhi playing an expanded role in Afghanistan and Central Asia as its troops plan to depart Afghanistan shortly. (Blank)

India’s growing interests in Central Asia are well-recognised. There is a growing convergence between the US and Indian interests, especially their reluctance to see the region fall under the exclusive influence of China. India was worried in the 1990s when Russian influence weakened substantially with
a commensurate rise in that of China’s. This negatively impacted upon Indian threat perceptions that stabilised only after the growing US presence since 2001. (Pant) The moot point is that as far as Central Asia is concerned, India views itself as a stabiliser and security provider and with its growing economic clout, New Delhi’s interest in securing reliable energy supplies and trade through Central Asia remains substantial.

A great power competition in Central Asia will make it harder for India to pursue its interests. As such, it becomes imperative for Indian diplomacy to work towards major power co-operation to bring some measure of stability to Afghanistan as well as the larger Central Asian region. This region remains critical for India’s security and energy needs. India’s lacklustre approach so far has made sure that its presence in Central Asia will only reduce in the coming years if adequate steps are not taken. It is noteworthy that the new Chinese premier Xi Jinping, immediately after assuming office, undertook a hurricane tour of the region, signing mega energy deals and promising major investments. With China being the largest trading partner of four of the five regional states, India’s presence in the region is becoming increasingly insignificant. (Pant)

New Delhi’s poor maneuvering has left it without a robust strategic policy in Central Asia, a region critical for India’s energy, trade and security needs. This lack of direction raises doubts about India’s capacity to maintain strategic partnerships across the region, and whether its strategic planning can match its world power aspirations. If India is to reverse the lacklustre performance of its ‘Connect Central Asia Policy’, it needs to offset its strategic setbacks in Tajikistan, in view of the fact that India has lost its use of Tajikistan’s Ayni1 airbase. (Tanchum) The Ayni airbase – India’s only foreign airbase - had been the key to India’s strategic footprint in Tajikistan, and its loss represented a grave strategic setback. In December 2010, Tajikistan announced that Russia was the only country under consideration to use the Ayni airbase in future. (Kucera) In fact, Tajikistan and Russia are now negotiating the details of their future military cooperation.

Despite the decade-long opportunity provided by the United States’ regional presence for New Delhi to develop an expanded role in Central Asia, India does not project any significant military or economic power in the region. And although India and Tajikistan share security concerns about Islamist militancy, there is no meaningful security cooperation between the two countries. The Indian armed forces have not participated in counter-terrorism military exercises in Tajikistan like the Chinese PLA and Russian military did in June 2012. (Tanchum) India has to work hard on this front.

**SCO AND THE CHINA FACTOR**

India has for long wanted to play a larger role in the SCO2 and has been seeking support from individual member states for quite some time. India is in fact looking forward toward becoming a permanent member of the organisation. However, New Delhi has not been even successful in achieving an upgrade in its observer status. The organisation has failed to achieve a consensus on India’s role in the grouping. It is not very difficult to see why. China remains reluctant to see India as a full member of the group despite its official rhetoric to the contrary. The SCO was founded in Shanghai in 2001 by the presidents of Russia, China, Kyrgyz Republic, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan. India was admitted as an observer at the 2005 Astana Summit along with Iran and Pakistan. Though the 2010 Tashkent Summit lifted the moratorium on new membership, India’s role in the grouping remains a marginal one. (Pant) It is however important to note that Russia supported Indian membership in the SCO and talked about the possibility of New Delhi participating in the

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1 Ayni
2 SCO
In September 2013, India’s external affairs minister Salman Khurshid visited Kyrgyzstan where he attended the Shanghai Co-operation Organisation (SCO) and to Uzbekistan where he met with its foreign minister Abdulaziz Kamilov. At the SCO, Khurshid underscored New Delhi’s desire to seek full member status of the six-nation grouping and made it clear that India remains keen to deepen security-related co-operation with it, particularly with the SCO’s Regional Anti-Terrorism Structure (RATS). (Pant)

India and China held their first ever official dialogue on Central Asia in August 2013 when they had a long conversation on specific issues like regional security and counter-terrorism, Shanghai Cooperation Organisation, (SCO), energy security, development partnerships, and people-to-people contacts with the countries of the region. (“India, China hold first dialogue on Central Asia”)

While India plays a large role in Afghanistan, focused principally on building human capital and physical infrastructure, improving security, and helping the agricultural and other important sectors of the country’s economy, it nevertheless continues to lag behind China and Russia. India’s difficulties in Central Asia also confirm that, unlike Russia, China continues to obstruct Indian efforts to enhance its presence in Central Asia. (Blank) According to Stephen Blank, “As we approach 2014 it seems clear that … China and Pakistan will probably succeed in checking India’s ability to project meaningful economic or military power into the region, including its ability to negotiate contracts for energy supplies … Yet India certainly cannot depend on Russia to advance its Central Asian interests.” (Blank) As stated earlier, China has far outpaced India in respect of energy acquisitions and the building of a long-distance transportation, trade and infrastructure network in Central Asia despite India’s rising wealth and power.

**IMPORTANCE OF INDIA’S ‘CONNECT CENTRAL ASIA POLICY’**

The first India-Central Asia Dialogue, a Track-II initiative organized on 12-13 June 2012 in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, was an important step towards building a long-term partnership with the Eurasian region. The objective behind this regional conference was to start a regular annual dialogue forum among academics, scholars, government officials and business representatives from India and the CARs, with the aim of providing inputs to governments on both sides. It was during this regional conference that Minister of State for External Affairs, Mr. E. Ahmad, pronounced India’s new “Connect Central Asia” Policy. (Bisaria) He said that “India is now looking closely at the region through the framework of its ‘Connect Central Asia’ policy, which is based on pro-active political, economic and people-to-people engagement with Central Asian Countries, both individually and collectively”.

The ‘connect Central Asia’ policy is a broad-based approach, which includes political, economic and cultural connections between India and the Central Asia. (Roy)

Central Asia’s rich natural resources, including significant reserves of oil and natural gas, and its location in the center of Eurasia have attracted immense global attention. In the changed strategic scenario, India seeks to reconnect with Central Asia and to play a constructive role there. As a part of its “Connect Central Asia” policy, India plans to set up an Indian-Central Asia University in Kyrgyzstan and look towards deploying its soft power to consolidate goodwill in all Central Asian countries through IT, culture, networking with young politicians and academia. In addition, New Delhi is talking with Tajikistan to set up a military hospital and also plans to operate up to 14 direct flights to Dushanbe. To begin with, both India and
Tajikistan will launch four flights each. The other important area of the “Connect Central Asia” policy is India’s economic ties with the region. (Bisaria)

In Indian strategic thinking, Central Asia is considered part of its extended/strategic neighborhood. What is of prime importance for India is stability and security of the region. Inextricably linked with India’s security concerns in Central Asia is Afghanistan, for the latter is part of the Central Asian geopolitical construct as it shares boundaries with Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan.

In fact, crucial to the security of the region is the issue of peace and stability in Afghanistan. Important issues such as drug trafficking, proliferation of small arms, the fate of Afghan refugees, resolution of the Afghanistan-Pakistan border, the arms culture, and the modest level of economic activity, all affect Afghanistan’s security and stability. India has traditionally enjoyed close and friendly ties with Afghanistan. After the Taliban aberration, India is vigorously involved in the reconstruction effort. (For detail, refer Joshi, Nirmala)

The driving force behind India’s objective of enhanced engagement with Central Asia is economics. India has the ability to help build Central Asia in areas such as information technology, science and technology, knowledge industries and soft power. Conversely, India’s increasing need for energy can only be addressed by the energy rich Central Asian countries.

External Affairs Minister SM Krishna paid a two-day visit to Tajikistan on July 2-3, 2012. His visit to Dushanbe is the first by an Indian External Affairs Minister (EAM) to this strategically located country in nine years. He held extensive discussions with his counterpart Hamrokhom Zarifi about bilateral cooperation on several issues including energy, counter-terrorism and communication aimed at further cementing bilateral ties. The situation in Afghanistan and regional developments were also an important focus of these talks. During this visit, Krishna also addressed a conference of the Indian Heads of Missions (HOM) to 11 countries in the region. Krishna’s visit needs to be viewed in the context of India’s growing interest in cultivating stronger ties with the Eurasian region through its ‘Connect Central Asia’ policy and his new mantra of the four Cs, namely ‘Commerce, Connectivity, Consular and Community’. (Roy)

During the past few years, New Delhi has stepped up its engagement with the Central Asian Republics with the aim of building a long term partnership. India has now expressed its desire to play an expanded and more meaningful role in the Shanghai Cooperation Organisation (SCO) including its case for full membership in the organization. The high level visits from both sides—Kazakh President Nursultan Nazarbayev’s visit to Delhi and President Pratibha Patil’s visit to Tajikistan in 2009, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh’s visit to Kazakhstan in 2011 and Uzbek President Islam Karimov’s visit to India in May 2011—are all reflective of growing political ties between India and the Central Asian region. (Roy)

Krishna’s visit to Tajikistan is a continuation of India’s new policy approach towards the CARs and its readiness to play a pro-active, meaningful and sustained role in the Eurasian region. He articulated this very clearly in his address to a conference in Dushanbe by stating that as the Eurasian region undergoes rapid transition, the time has come for India to evolve a calibrated and co-ordinated response in its engagement with each of the countries in the region to further secure core national interests. As part of its ‘connect Central Asia’ policy, India plans to set up an Indian-Central Asia University in Kyrgyzstan and is looking towards deploying its soft power to consolidate goodwill in all Central Asian countries through IT, culture, networking with young politicians and academia. (Roy)
Krishna’s visit to Tajikistan also needs to be evaluated in the context of uncertainties surrounding the security situation in the Afghanistan-Pakistan region. To ensure that Afghanistan emerges as a commercial bridge between South and Central Asia and prevent it from becoming the hub of terrorism and extremism is one of India’s core national interests. India’s current policy approach towards this region is reflective of its growing concerns about future developments in Afghanistan after the US military drawdown in 2014. This concern is shared by other Central Asian countries as well. India has already stepped up its engagement with the US, Russia and regional countries to address the Afghan impasse. New Delhi views the Central Asian countries as reliable partners in addressing this problem. During the third Indo-US Strategic Dialogue, India agreed to hold trilateral consultations with the US on Afghanistan. Such initiative would enable India and the US to explore opportunities to promote Afghanistan’s development in the areas of agriculture, mining, energy, capacity building and infrastructure. India also hosted an international investor’s meet on Afghanistan in New Delhi on June 28, 2012, in which more than 270 private sector firms and consultancies from India and Afghanistan and other countries participated. (Roy) This is an attempt to help Afghanistan’s transition from an economy so far being sustained by foreign aid to one sustained by private investments. This meeting precedes an international meeting of donors to Afghanistan in Tokyo on July 8, 2012. India is contributing in a big way for capacity building in Afghanistan by earmarking more than US $2 billion in reconstruction assistance as well as by providing security, training and supporting the New Silk Road initiative in the region. (Roy)

Krishna’s visit to Tajikistan also assumes significance given the key strategic location that Tajikistan occupies as Afghanistan’s neighbour. This apart, Tajikistan has worked closely with India along with Russia and Iran in supporting the Northern Alliance against the Taliban regime earlier. As far as Afghanistan is concerned, India and Tajikistan face similar challenges. Terrorism and extremism are common threats faced by both countries. There is already a Joint Working Group on Counter-Terrorism between India and Tajikistan. During Krishna’s visit, both countries agreed once again that without a stable Afghanistan, peace and tranquility in the region cannot be established. (Roy) India also shares close defence and security relations with Tajikistan, which help in cementing the strategic ties between the two sides.

The other important area of the ‘connect Central Asia’ policy is India’s economic ties with the region. While Krishna asked the 11 Indian heads of mission in the region to work on converting India’s “enormous goodwill” into “tangible and strategic advantages”, the current status of India’s trade, which is pegged at a mere $500 million, indicates the most unsatisfactory part of an otherwise excellent relationship with the region. In case of Tajikistan, India’s trade stood at $10.7 million in 2004-05 and $32.56 million in 2009-2010. (Roy) Lack of connectivity with the region still remains a major impediment for India to reach out to the region for boosting economic cooperation. At present Central Asia does not figure prominently in India’s international trade. India’s trade with Central Asia is to the tune of approximately US $200 million, a negligible portion of India’s overall international trade. This volume of trade and investment between the two sides has been much below potential. The entire Indian exports to Central Asia are less than 2 percent of its total exports and stands at under $900 million per annum. The imports also follow a similar picture and account only 1.5 percent of the Indian imports on average basis. The trade is restricted to traditional items. The main commodities being exported from India are pharmaceutical, tea, readymade garments, leather goods, jute manufactures, cosmetics,
cotton yarn, machinery, machine tools, rice, plastic products, machinery and instruments, electronic goods and chemicals. Imports from Central Asia are restricted to fruits and nuts, raw cotton, iron and steel. Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan also export zinc to India. The extensive reserves for hydrocarbons and other resources make Central Asia attractive for forging a mutually beneficial cooperative relationship. (Pratibha: 431)

Both India and Central Asia have economic complementarities in terms of natural resources; human resources and markets, which if exploited can broaden cooperation. Opportunities for joint ventures in banking, insurance, agriculture, IT and in pharmaceuticals also exist. Indian pharmaceuticals industry has done well in all the states of the region. Today, it accounts for nearly a quarter of the imports into the region. Indian industrialists have also registered an impressive presence in the steel and construction sector there. India is also exploring the construction of small and medium sized hydroelectric plants mainly in Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, which have substantial hydropower potential. (Das Kundu: 531-532)

Related to the issue of economic cooperation is the aspect of the relevance of the energy-rich Eurasian region for energy deficit India. India views Central Asia as a long term partner in energy and natural resources trade. Estimates of proven and possible oil reserves across the whole Caspian area, excluding Russia and Iran, run up to 190 billion barrels of oil. Its proven gas reserves are estimated at 196 trillion cubic feet. (Singh: 69)

So far India has made some progress in the Turkmenistan-Afghanistan-Pakistan-India (TAPI) gas pipeline and is also acquiring an oil block in the Caspian Sea by signing commercial agreement between ONGC Videsh Limited and the Kazakh State Company. Tajikistan occupies a special place in terms of its hydrocarbon resources. The country is the second largest producer of hydroelectricity in the Commonwealth of Independent States, after Russia. Its potential, according to official figures, is about 40,000 MW, which is around four percent of the world’s hydroelectric potential. According to the official report, “Tajikistan’s National Strategy for Energy Sector Development 2006-2015”, the country is likely to reach a production of 35 billion Kwh in 2015. However, it is important to note here that despite this potential Tajikistan produces only 17 billion Kwh per year and has to import energy from Uzbekistan. The country needs investment in this sector. Russia, Iran and China are already involved in Tajikistan. India is providing help for the Varzob-I Hydro-Power Station. Bilateral cooperation in the hydroelectric power sector was another important issue discussed during Krishna’s visit. (Roy) Thus, Tajikistan’s hydroelectric sector offers great opportunity for government and private Indian companies.

India is reworking its Strategy towards Central Asia with the aim to impart its greater strategic content, said Mr Ajay Bisaria, Joint Secretary, Eurasia Division. Mr. Bisaria was speaking at a round table on ‘India’s Engagement with Central Asia: Exploring Future Directions’ to celebrate Twenty Years of Friendship and Cooperation between India and Central Asian Republics, organised by the Institute for Defence Studies and Analyses (IDSA) on July 10, 2012. (Bisaria) Outlining the details of India’s new ‘Connect Central Asia’ Policy, Mr. Ajay Bisaria highlighted the key elements of this policy, which will focus on certain flagship projects, including the establishment of Central Asian University at Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan; Connecting Central Asia through an E-Network in telemedicine and other critical areas of commercial activities; opening up of hospitals, centres of excellence in IT sector; and improving air connectivity. He further stressed upon the need to continue with the current defence and Strategic partnership.
through training and joint research between India and the Central Asian Republics (CARs). (Bisaria)

Speaking at the round table Mr. Bisaria informed that about Civil Aviation Ministry’s decision to initiate up to 14 direct flights between India and the five Central Asian countries to give a boost to tourism, trade and commerce. India wants to seek a long term profitable partnership with Central Asia, concluded Mr. Bisaria. (Bisaria) Also speaking on the occasion was Ambassador Mrs. Irina A Orolbaeva, of Kyrgyzstan who, while lauding the close historical and cultural links between the two countries, urged India to play a bigger role in developing Kyrgyzstan’s mining, agriculture, hydro power, IT and educational sectors. Mrs. Orolbaeva further emphasized on the need for the youth of the two nations to connect with each other through greater interaction and by resuming cultural and educational contacts. (Bisaria) She particularly appreciated India’s contribution in the Turkmenistan-Afghanistan-Pakistan-India (TAPI) gas pipeline project and the International North-South Transport Corridor (INSTC) projects. (Bisaria)

Also speaking on the occasion was Ambassador Saidov Saidbeg Boykhonovich of Tajikistan, who emphasized upon consolidating security and defence cooperation. The opportunities for India in his country included joint ventures in hydro power, science and technology, agriculture, tourism, education, development of labour skills. He also aired his views on exploring new land routes around the Karakoram Highway regions. (Bisaria) Director General, IDSA Dr Arvind Gupta, who chaired the proceedings, emphasized upon the need for giving a strategic content to the partnership between India and Central Asia through promoting greater interaction between the youth, establishment of Central Asia University, relaxation of Visa rules, greater engagement at the multilateral level, need for a high level dialogue for regional stability and peace and more emphasis on track 1.5 and track 2 levels of engagement. (Bisaria) The Round table was aimed at initiating a free flowing discussion amongst the scholars, experts, officials and diplomats in order to explore the possibilities of future engagement with the region.

**CONCLUSION**

The geopolitical salience of Central Asia for India is beyond any doubt. With escalating threats and challenges posed by religious extremism, terrorism and aggressive nationalism to the integrity of the Indian nation, the strategic significance of Central Asia has increased considerably.

Central Asia is strategically positioned as an access between Europe and Asia and thus offers extensive potential for trade, investment and growth. The region is richly endowed with commodities such as crude oil, natural gas, cotton, gold, copper, aluminum and iron. The increasing importance of the region’s oil and gas resources has generated new interests and rivalries among external powers.

While Krishna’s two day visit can be termed as a stepping up of India’s newly pronounced ‘connect Central Asia’ policy, the biggest challenge that remains is the conversion of these proposals into reality. The realisation of the various initiatives taken by India in the past few years demand not only heavy investment but also long-term and sustained implementation of various proposed projects. India’s economic engagement with the region will require the involvement of the private sector in the Central Asian market, which has so far not been viewed by Indian big business houses as a very attractive market. Therefore, a twofold strategy will be required to address this issue. Firstly, the Indian government must facilitate greater interaction between the Indian private sector and Central Asian market forces. Secondly, Central Asian states will
have to work towards creating a more attractive investment environment for the Indian private sector. To improve India’s connectivity and energy cooperation with the region, India will have to play a pro-active role both bilaterally and through regional cooperative arrangements.

Finally, in the backdrop of globalization, economic ties hold the key to any bilateral, trilateral and multilateral cooperation. Both India and Central Asia share common perceptions about the need to have friendship and mutually advantageous economic relations which needs to be translated into reality with in a neo-liberal framework at the earliest possible time.

NOTES

The Ayni airbase, originally used by the Soviets during the 1980s, was abandoned after their withdrawal from Afghanistan. India contributed technical assistance and US$70 million to renovate the airbase between 2003 and 2010. India’s Border Roads Organisation (BRO), directed by India’s Army Corps of Engineers, extended the main runway, built a control tower and constructed three hangars capable of housing squadrons of MiG-29 bombers used by the Indian Air Force. In September 2010, Tajik Defence Ministry spokesman Faridun Muhammadaliev also confirmed to the press that the Ayni airbase had state-of-the-art navigational and defence technology and a runway extended to 3,200 metres to accommodate all types of aircraft. (Tanchum)

The importance of the SCO that has evolved into a forum for discussion on regional security and economic issues cannot be overstated. It has become even more important in the post-9/11 phase, because growing ethnic nationalism and Islamic fundamentalism has been a major cause of concern for Russia, China and Central Asian states. In fact, the SCO serves as a means to keep control of

Central Asia and limit US influence in the region. (Pant)

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ICT BASED QUALITY CONTROL MODEL FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CINNAMON INDUSTRY IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

Sri Lankan Cinnamon is an export agricultural product with Sri Lankan identity. The main problem investigated in this research is how to monitor the quality of cinnamon which are coming to the market. The aim of this research is to develop an ICT based quality control model for the cinnamon industry in Sri Lanka. According to the ISO The Sri Lankan cinnamon is grading according to ISO6539:1997 standard. It has followed by SLS 81:2001 standards. It is mainly concerning the diameter of the quill and the surface quality. In order to understanding of the literature behind the study, literature survey has been conducted and field survey has been done with six categories of study areas. It observed that the priority given for the adaption of given standards are not highly concerning in the ground levels. According to survey results, the use of e-commerce and ICT applications are varying among categories identified. Trading center has selected as the monitoring point due to several factors. It is proposing to monitor traders’ activities via an ICT model by a government controlling authority in order to maintain the ISO and SLS quality standards. The ICT model will be linked with other five categories. Quality, stock availability and reservation also possible to monitor via the proposed model. It will be given competitive advantage for Sri Lankan cinnamon industry to achieve the sustainable development.

Key Word: ICT in Cinnamon industry, E commerce, E Agriculture, Sri Lankan Cinnamon, Agronomy

INTRODUCTION

Sri Lankan Cinnamon is an agricultural product which is exporting from Sri Lanka. It is a native plant to Sri Lanka and the scientific name of the cinnamon is “Cinnamomum Zeylanicum”. The name itself is giving the Sri Lankan identity. It has branded as “Sri Lankan Cinnamon” and “True Cinnamon” in the world market (Pittman, 2011). According to Gupta (2007) Sri Lanka was plying a dominant role in the international trade from the early 1st millennium BC due to Sri Lankan cinnamon. Sri Lanka is contributing 80% to 90% of the world true cinnamon trade at present (Chomchalow, 2008). The cinnamon is the main revenue earning spice of Sri Lanka (Export Association of Sri Lanka, 2011/12). Pattman (2011) has identified that the Sri Lankan true cinnamon is having many historical medicine uses in many different cultures. According to researchers, Sri Lankan cinnamon has a significant effect on control of diabetic (Meades et al, 2010) and cholesterol levels (Desokye et al, 2011).

Sri Lankan cinnamon industry is facing a critical situation due to international competition, substitute products and less
technology adoption [ Certified Management

The quality of Sri Lankan cinnamon is measuring according to ISO6539:1997 standard. It has followed by SLS 81:2001. According this standards ,it is considering the diameter of quills , moisture content , surface quality , length of the quill and the number of quills per kilogram. (SLS ,2001).The survey observed that the farmers and peelers are mainly using visual observation to verification of the cinnamon grade by looking at the diameter of quill and the surface quality. Moisture checked by toughing quills but few places use a humidity meter to check the moisture. The Germen development institute (2006) has identified that the Sri Lankan cinnamon can get more value and good market internationally with improvement of quality. There are various quality issues due to traditional methods of production of cinnamon. The production cost of Sri Lankan cinnamon is high due to high labor chargers. Lack of skilled labor is another issue in the industry. Product diversification knowledge is low in the bottom parts of the cinnamon industry.(Weerasinhe .2008).

ICT is using as a strategic tool in all over the world today. Improvement of the quality of the cinnamon will be provided direct benefits to all the stake holders of the industry. It will be supported for sustainable development of the Sri Lankan cinnamon industry.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

The main research question of this research is how to use ICT as a tool to overcome quality issues in the cinnamon industry. The objective of this research is to propose a ICT model to overcome quality issues in the cinnamon industry to have sustainable development.

According to CMA (2007), Sri Lankan cinnamon industry is facing a critical situation due to international competition, substitute products and less technology adoption. The Germen development institute (2006) has identified that the Sri Lankan cinnamon can get more value and good market internationally with improvement of production, quality and marketing.

The aim of this research is to develop ICT related solution model for the cinnamon industry to have sustainable development. It will gain maximum possible revenue to the country from the cinnamon industry by having effective and efficient product development. The model is covering use of ICT in cultivation, use of ICT in production , use of ICT in standardization and use of ICT in marketing. The government monitoring authority will use ICT as the strategic tool to link all the stakeholders in the industry. This will directly increase the foreign revenue to Sri Lanka.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature behind the research focused on current position in the international market for Sri Lankan cinnamon , factors which are effecting for drawbacks and how to use ICT as a tool to overcome quality issues and get the maximum possible price for Sri Lankan cinnamon.

According to many researches , Sri Lankan cinnamon is holding 80% to 90% of the world market in the cinnamon trade. (Chomchalow .2008) ,(Rajapaksha and wasantha Kumara, 2007) , (T. Partap et al 2010) . The actual issue is coming in to the field when it is considering with the Cassia cinnamon also putting in to the same category. When it is taking both types of cinnamon together , Sri Lankan cinnamon is having only 8.05 % in the world cinnamon market and the dominant producer is Indonesia. They are claiming for more than 26% of the world supply of cinnamon (Jaya et el 2009).

There were many reasons found in literature as draw backs for the cinnamon industry in Sri Lanka. CMA (2007) has pointed some of them
as 1.)lack of marketing skills 2.) lack of financial support to develop cinnamon as an industry 3.) low the product quality 4.) high production cost 5.) not exporting as value added product 6.) less in exports in the organic category 7.) Indonesian cassia quills are almost indistinguishable from best Sri Lankan cinnamon. The German development institute (2006) also has identify the following drawbacks in the Sri Lankan cinnamon industry. They are 1.) substitute products which are coming from countries like China, Indonesia, Vietnam and Philippine are producing Cassia cinnamon with very low labor cost with large scale production. These countries are using new strategies to capture global market. Sri Lankan cinnamon industry is in far behind the usage of new innovative technologies to promote products in the international market place. 2.) The demand for cinnamon has increased. The market is requesting for innovative products with range of varieties, attractive packing designs and with high quality standards. Most of the Sri Lankan cinnamons are going to the international market as raw products 3.) Predominant cassia is playing a big role in the world cinnamon market place. The Sri Lankan cinnamon is categorizing together with cassia as another spice by competitors. The price of Cassia and the quality of cassia is cheap. But it is giving huge impression for the market in the case of selection. According to Subasinghe (2007), cost of production is increasing due to de centralized purchasing, wastage, bad pre and post harvesting technologies, and large number of intermediates. It is becoming a barrier for the competition in the international market. Cassia is letting down the “Sri Lankan Cinnamon” identity in the world market. Wasantha Kumara and Rajapaksh (2007) have mentioned that the poor pest control and plantation management are leading to the poor quality of the cinnamon bark. This is directly effecting to the quality of final product. Mangstl (2008) was stating that agro businesses in developed nations are enjoying with benefits of digital technologies but other countries are not getting the same due to digital divide.

The main substitute product of cinnamon is the Cassia. True cinnamon and cassia belongs to the same genus “Cannamomum” (Chomchalow 1997). Cassia available in the international market as cinnamon(Jaya at el 2009).This miss guides end users.

It is proving that the requirement of use of innovative technologies in the cinnamon industry is essential. The industry must have improvement in the areas of cultivation, production, standardization and marketing. The German development institute (2006) has identified that the Cassia is the leading substitute and competitive product for the true cinnamon (Sri Lankan Cinnamon).

The extension of the usage of ICT by other countries in the field of agriculture will be reviewed under the literature review. This is to understand the nature of the innovative avenues available in the agro business with ICT. It will be a guidance for the development of cinnamon industry in Sri Lanka.

Many countries such as Japan, Philippines, India, Indonesia are using ICT as a strategic tool for development of the agriculture sector.

Japanese government is very much concern about their citizens. They have taken many actions to ensure the protection of citizens. The food safety law was introduces in 2003 and it is strictly in practice. They are using RFID system and mobile computing to safe guard consumers as well as enable the food safety in the entire food chain. It is benefiting for farmers as well consumer since the guarantee of the food safety has ensured by the technology (Sugahara 2009).

Mangstl (2008) is describing that the use of e – Agriculture is supporting for cultivation, quality maintenance and direct access to the
market place. He is further explaining that the e- Agriculture is a combination of ICT and agriculture. It is enhancing the sustainable development, food safety, improve the market, provide required information, and doing further research about how to develop e Agriculture providing benefits to consumer as well as to farmers.

Philippines government has employed set of people with ICT background [Agricultural extension workers (AEWs)] to support adopting farmers in to ICT. They are equipped with mobile technologies, internet access and laptops. AEWs are visiting farmers regularly and supporting them to get use in to ICT. They are providing farmers SMS service and 24 hours technical support service. It is enabling farmers to adopt with ICT and get up to date information, pest control systems, fertilizes, pesticides, market information and many more (Barroga at el, 2010).

India is a country which is highly using ICT in agro business. They have implemented many systems to support farmers. Indian Agriculture Marketing Information Network (AGMARK-Net) is providing facilities for farmers to access the market directly by removing middlemen, expand the current market and ease to buying and selling products (Alavion and Allahyari, 2012). Daka and Chayal (2010) are saying that ICT can be used in the agricultural field as a reliable source of information about best practices, pest, pesticides, fluctuations in the market, methods of production, quality standards. It is linking farmers, traders, government authorities, risk covering institutes, quality assuring institutes and financial organizations.

Indonesia is a leading agricultural country. They are using ICT as a strategic tool to develop the agriculture in the country. Indonesian e – Agriculture Strategic Framework (IESF) is providing farmers to information security, assistance to maintain quality standards for the processes locally and internationally. It is enabling farmers to link with merchants, government agents, consumers, research centers and banks (Hasibuan at el, 2012). According to Lee and Purnomo (2010), Indonesian government has employed Agricultural Extension Officers (AEO) to develop agriculture sector. They are highly using ICT and promoting ICT among farmers to get benefits. They are further explaining that the Farmers Empowerment Trough Agricultural Technology and Information project (FEATI) is supporting to the agricultural ministry to development of the sector via providing comprehensive integrated knowledge management system.

According to the above literature, Sri Lankan cinnamon is having a good demand internationally.

It is suffering with several internal issues and external threats. Low level of new technology adoption and poor quality maintenance are critical in the international market place. There for to sustain in the international market and getting the maximum profit for the product is an issue.

Competitors are using ICT as a strategic tool for marketing, product development and awareness. Most of governments are actively involving in promoting use of ICT in agriculture sector.

**METHODOLOGY AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN**

In order to understanding of the literature behind the study, literature survey has been conducted and field survey has been conducted with six categories of study areas including cinnamon farmers, peelers, intermediate collectors, exporters, certification authorities and buyers. This section includes a review of the research method and design appropriateness, a discussion of the population and sample.
DATA COLLECTION

Data collected from Colombo, Gampaha, Ambalangoda, Batapola, Ankumbura, Kirinda, Kurundugaha Hathakma, Kiriella, Kamburupitiya and Deyyandara. Data collected by using several methods. Interviews, observations, web research and telephone conversation are the techniques used to collect data. It gathered data from farmers by conducting face to face interviews and observing the methods and techniques they are using for the cultivation, maintenance, production and quality assurance. Data of cinnamon peelers collected via interviews. Exporters’ data were collected by conducting interviews and web survey by accessing B2B web portals and web sites. Buyers data were collected by accessing the internet, skype conversations and interviews. Data about quality assurance institute collected by studying reports issued by them and interview. Competitors’ data collected by accessing popular B2B web portals.

It interviewed 76 farmers, 98 peelers, 54 processors and collectors. 6 exporters interviewed and data of 31 exporters collected using by accessing web. There is only one international certification authority interviewed. 2 buyers data collected via interviews, 4 of them get connected via skype and 12 buyers data collected using internet.

DATA ANALYSIS

According to survey results the use of e-commerce and ICT among Sri Lankan cinnamon farmers, peelers and intermediate collectors are low. Exporters, buyers and certification authorities are using ICT in satisfactory level. There are several factors which are affecting the levels of e-commerce and ICT usage in the cinnamon industry. ICT literacy level, ability of accessing internet, knowledge of English language, communication skills, ability of searching the web and ability of handling ICT tools have been identified as factors which are influencing e-commerce and ICT use among the stakeholders of the cinnamon industry in Sri Lanka.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of ICT applications</th>
<th>Internet</th>
<th>E Mail</th>
<th>Web Site</th>
<th>Web Portal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peelers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exporters</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buyers</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2
**Summary of ICT users and Non ICT users**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Using ICT</th>
<th>Not Using ICT</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peelers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exporters</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buyers</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3
**Summary of ICT user of ICT Application**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Internet</th>
<th>E Mail</th>
<th>Web Site</th>
<th>Web Portal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peelers</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectors</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exporters</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buyers</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is showing the use of ICT in the ground level is very low.

### Table 4
**Knowledge about ISO Classification of Cinnamon**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Know</th>
<th>Do not Know</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peelers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectors</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exporters</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buyers</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the knowledge about international ISO standards is poor among the ground level, it has became a barrier for reaching international standards.
According to literature review, farmers of competitive countries are using ICT as a strategic tool. They are using ICT in following areas:

- Awareness
- Marketing
- Standardization (Quality Control)

They have used ICT to cover the above mentioned areas by implementing:

- Education
- Allowing direct access to the market
- Maintain quality standards
- Expand the market
- Branding products
- Government influences

Merchants of China, Vietnam and Indonesia are using the word “Cinnamon” to market “Cassia” in their advertisement in web portals. According to this competitors are using ICT tools to make wrong impression among end users and buyers about cinnamon.

**CONCLUSION**

Quality is an important fact in the international trade. It is very sensitive for cinnamon industry since the high price, scarcity and availability of substitute products. Main threats for Sri Lankan cinnamon are coming from substitute products such as cassia. Producers of Cassia are using ICT as a strategic tool in almost all stagers in the production line. But Sri Lankan situation is far behind them.

It is possible to use ICT as a tool for quality maintenance in the cinnamon industry in Sri Lanka. It can start from the awareness and can link buyers and exporters with the farmers via ICT. The quality requirement information can flow down to the farmers and peelers via ICT infrastructure and use of modern and established technologies such as e-commerce applications, e-mail and social networks.

It can be further extended to a network which is covering the all stakeholders under supervision of the government authorities. The cinnamon industry is an industry which should be monitored by a government authority. Six categories with high involvement for the sustainability of the industry can be interconnected via ICT. ICT will be the backbone of the holistic model which has been derived. The government authority can monitor the available stocks in the market place with relevant qualities. Traders must take the responsibility of having correct cinnamon grades with accepted moisture levels in their market places. The pressure should come from the monitoring authority to the traders. It should be monitored available stocks and grades of cinnamon via the system. Farmers and peelers should be followed the IOS standards since traders forced to follow the same. Buyers and exporters can get information about stocks related to grades.
The government monitoring authority is a requirement to control, monitor and manage the cinnamon industry since it is playing an important role in the Sri Lankan economy. The government monitoring authority can link with other stakeholders. It is using the ICT as the tool to monitor the activities in the market place.

Interrelation among the above six categories via ICT will assure the quality of cinnamon which is coming to the market place. It will be a straightforward trade which eliminates unethical trade practices in the industry. This will help to improve the quality of life of the ground level stakeholders of the industry. Quality assurance, faire trade activities and interconnection of stakeholders will be given a competitive advantage for Sri Lankan cinnamon industry to achieve the sustainable development when Sri Lanka becomes the hub in Asia in 2020.

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TRENDS IN COLLECTIVE BARGAINING COVERAGE AND UNION MEMBERSHIP LEVEL IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

Collective bargaining is a powerful weapon in the labour field as the ‘Contract of employment’ is a negotiation between two unequal parties. Trade unions as agents or representatives of the employee have to play a main role in such a situation with handling the collective bargaining on behalf of their members. But in the last decade with changes of social, Economic and political culture with influence of inter-war and post-war experiences trade unionism shows significant changes and emerging trends with their behavior. Among several changes this research focused on the decline of active registered trade unions and cancellation of registration. This is a qualitative research mainly based on literature review done together with the preliminary survey. As the main sources in this research it based on the Registrar office of trade unions in Colombo. Secondary data was gathered from journals, books, reports and internet and statistics from the Labour Department and ILO. This research basically tried to clarify the reasons for this negative trend and finally some solutions were gathered to protect trade unionism in Sri Lanka as a useful weapon to protect labour rights.

Keywords: Collective Bargaining, Trade Unions, Trends, Union membership
ASIAN STUDENTS’ SOCIAL GOALS IN ENGLISH LEARNING MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a study of Asian university students’ motivation to learn English with reference to Dornyei’s (2009) L2 Motivational Self System. The aim of this study was to examine the validity of self-concept in L2 Motivational Self System and examine the effect of the learner social goals into their self and motivation. Questionnaire survey was designed and administered among 76 undergraduates in Malaysia. The results of this investigation confirmed the strongest correlation between Ideal L2 self and motivated learning. And a strong correlation was found between the learner self and social goals and learner social goals and motivated learning. It is somewhat surprising that ought to L2 self and motivated learning has a significant correlation. The significant correlation of social goals and selves and motivated learning suggests the inevitable social attachment of the Asian learners. And Asian learners as interdependent members of the society always focus their goals to meet the needs of the co-participants.

Keywords: Social goals, Selves, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

Spread of globalization changed the image of the English language in the world. Specially in the Asian countries English appears as a key language, because English became the language of the globalised world. In fact English learning motivation appears very high. And English plays a dominant role in local or national educational policy, curriculum provisions, high stakes in gate keeping exams, the professional job market and society at large. This local and global pressure have an inescapable impact on the motivation of students and teachers (Ushioda, 2013). This paper investigates the social factors behind the Asian learners English learning motivation by utilizing the L2 Motivational Self System (LMSS).

L2 MOTIVATION THEORY

Language learning motivation was investigated by the researchers in the world wide. Gardner (2001) appears as the remarkable point in the motivation research field. His concept of ‘integrativeness’ or desire to be a part of the target language community was questioned later by the motivation researchers by considering the multilingual contexts in the world. Moreover spread of English via multilingual contexts like Asian countries causes to emerge new varieties of English (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). Thus L2 learners expect to reach the local English speakers rather than the native speakers of English or westerners, because their role models are urban middle class English speaking locals(Lamb, 2004).

The concept of language learning motivation and its significance for the second language acquisition process has been widely investigated. While Gardner’s (2001) work undoubtedly remains important for discussing factors governing ‘integrativeness’ and learning motivation, notable at this point being that subsequent motivation studies have
attempted to demonstrate the inadequacy of integrativeness to holistically represent learner motivation from within the multilingual contexts. One major factor for this variation is the spread of globalization as a major challenge for integrativeness. In fact, it is often said that integrativeness lost its power with the spread of the iconic image of ‘World Citizenship’ (Lamb, 2004) and as English moved on to become the international communication code not bound to any particular culture, value, context or standard.

Issue 1: It should come as no surprise when the traditional concept of integrativeness was challenged by the ‘Chinese Imperative’ where traditional motivators were deemed inadequate to explain the required motivation of specific language groups in the Far East such as the Chinese English language learners (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005). The study remains important because it went on to show that Chinese L2 learners of English may be driven more by instrumental factors rather than integrativeness. The very fact that globalization had made it possible for Chinese learners to read and source for information via the internet and social media in their L1 paved the way for Dornyei’s L2 Motivational Self System to emerge as a basis for explaining the disputes within the integrativeness principles (Dornyei, 2005; 2009) and highlight the importance of instrumental motivation for select populations in the L2 and FL world. This has in turn paved the way for self-concept to become the leading factor in learner motivation. The current study takes off from the Chinese model and seeks to investigate the strength of self-concept and social goals for South East Asian learners who are more likely to share similar attachments as the Chinese learners. In addition, the study also aims to find the validity of Ideal L2 Self and Ought to L2 Self of L2 Motivational Self System for East Asian learners. It is assumed that by assessing these factors, language planners and instructors in the region would be able to come up with more objective means of helping learners achieve their learning goals.

Issue 2: In recent years motivation theory has heightened the need for investigating the self-concept. To date there has been little agreement on the principles of integrativeness of Gardner (Dornyei & Csizer, 2005);(Dornyei, 2009) and there is a need to look at alternatives.

Presently, the integrativeness principle continues to be challenged as English language races to become the preferred mode of communication mode of the international community, internet world and ‘world Englishes’ (Lamb, 2004; Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). Within this, Dornyei’s (2005) conceptual model for learner motivation appears to have made greater inroads in explaining why some learners succeed in learning the language where the others fail. Currently, there are three major concepts for describing the L2 Motivational Self System as expounded by Dornyei (2009). The first component being the Ideal L2 Self, which is the L2-specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self. If the person would like to speak the L2, the 'ideal L2 self is seen as a powerful motivator to learn the L2. The second being the Ought-to L2 Self, which is concerned with the attributes that the self needs to possess in order to avoid possible negative outcomes, and therefore may bear little resemblance to the person’s own desires or wishes (e.g. obligations, duties). The third being the L2 Learning Experience, which is concerned with situated motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success) (Dornyei, 2010).

Issue 3: Subsequent studies have added into Dornyei (2001) L2 Motivational Self System in a bid to provide a more complete conceptualization of the self-concept of the learner.
The research community has demonstrated an increased interest in the L2 Motivational Self System. This has helped confirm the validity of the tripartite model (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009); (Csizer & Kormos, 2009); (Papi, 2010); (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér, 2011); (Lamb, 2012); (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013). Also, international posture has also proven to be a significant causative factor of the Ideal L2 self (Csizer & Kormos, 2009); (Kormos et al., 2011). Presently, a higher rating in the Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experiences were found to decrease L2 learning anxiety while a higher rating on the ought to L2 self was found to make students more anxious by adding English anxiety into the L2 Motivational Self System (Papi, 2010). Added to this is parental encouragement, which has been found to be an increasingly important component in L2 Motivation Self System and this has had a significant relationship on the Ought to L2 self (Csizer & Kormos, 2009); (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér, 2011). Taking all these factors into consideration, Kormos and et al (2011) went on to implement a new Interactive Model to investigate learner motivation by utilizing goals, attitudes and selves. The implementation of goal orientation in L2 Motivational Self System is therefore considered significant because they may be viewed as the energy for motivated behavior. They can be the source of sustained effort and achievement as well (Mercer, Ryan, & Williams, 2012). Meanwhile, Kormos et al (2011) found International posture (desire to use English to connect with the international community) as a goal in Chilean context to contain a significant relationship to the Ideal L2 self.

Issue 4: A need to move away from a one-sided representation for Asian learners.

Previous studies (e.g. Kormos et al, 2011) does not take account the broader perspective of learner goals like socially oriented goals and academically oriented goals which play major roles in the L2 learning context which incidentally may be a bigger factor for many Asian L2 and FL settings. Recently urban and rural learners’ Self-concept was investigated among Indonesian junior high school students and the findings revealed the Ideal L2 self to be only significant among the metropolitan group. In Lamb (2012), the Ideal L2 self was found to demonstrate a less prominent role due to the relatively young age of the respondents. More recently, national interest has also been found to be a significant factor for improving the Ideal L2 Self and this has highlighted the need to understand the connection of English with the national identities (Islam et al., 2013). This might be applicable to a number of South East Asian nations such as Malaysia where the national agenda continues to drive learners to choose between the L1 and L2. Nevertheless, there has been little attention on national identities and social perspective of learners in learning English.

Recently researchers have shown an increased interest on social influence on learners’ self and language learning motivation. Milieu was found to have an significant relationship to the instrumentality and instrumentality was found to be an socially promoted motivation (Dornyei & Csizer, 2005). One of the most significant current discussions in social influence is parental influence (Csizer & Kormos, 2009); (Kormos et al., 2011). Csizer et al (2009) found a significant relationship of parental encouragement and international posture. Kormos et al (2011) found a significant relationship of ought to L2 self and parental encouragement. So far however there is a little discussion about ideal L2 self and social goals of the learners.

Issue 5: Social Perspective of Malay Learners

Asian learners as interdependent parts of the larger society sensitive towards others, the co-participants in various relationships; mother, father, sibling, friend, co-worker and
etc. (Markus et al., 1991). Thus their self may have a significant relationship with the society. On the other hand they have a desire to achieve socially valued outcomes in their classroom, including academic success (Wentzel, 2000). In Isarjiet. al (2008), Malay students were quoted as admitting that they were not satisfied with their English language ability and lack of ability to “express their thoughts and ideas, prepare written reports, write minutes of meetings and present reports” in the language. Similarly, despite being aware of the importance of English for employment purposes they were also willing to admit that they were not proactive in improving their English language proficiency (pg. 53) since they preferred to communicate and receive information in the L1 until they graduate. At this juncture, it can be said that social goals remain important factors for determining students’ motivational quality in education (King & Watkins, 2011) in many parts of Asia. Taken in this context, motivation to learn English for many Malay learners may be derived from the society due to the Learners’ bond with the society and need to be seen as a part of their L1 society.

THE STUDY

Taken together, this study proposes a new component of social goals which include socially constructed aspirations of the Malay learners to the existing construct of L2 Motivational Self System to represent the Malay ESL learner’s motivation factors.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Is there a significant relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and social goals?

Is there a significant relationship between motivated learning, and Ideal L2 self?

Is there a significant relationship between the motivated learning and social goals?

METHOD

Participants - This study involved twenty nine Malaysian Malay undergraduates between ages 22 to 25. The participants were randomly selected from various faculties and various regions of Malaysia. None of the participants were English major but they were taking studying compulsory English Language courses at the target university.

Instrument: A questionnaire based on items adapted from motivation questionnaires of Taguchi and et al (2009), Islam et al., (2013), Dowson & McInerney, (2004); Dornyei and et al (1994); Lamb (2012) was used to gather the views of learners. The final revised version of questionnaire consisted of 66 five point Likert scale items including six scales and took 15 minutes to complete. Following are the scales:

1. Motivated Learning: This scale measures extent of motivated learning of learners
2. Ideal L2 self: The items aim to measure imagined personality of learners they wish to achieve through learning English
3. Ought to L2 self: The obligations and responsibilities of learners included in this scale
4. Social goals: Socially constructed aspirations are consisted in this scale.
5. Attitudes towards learning English: Learners’ attitudes towards learning English in the university is tested through this scale

DATA ANALYSIS

The data was analyzed using SPSS 21.0. A reliability analysis was run to ensure Cronbach’s Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients of the items. The basic statistical procedure used to analyze the data was Correlation Analysis.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the Cronbach’s Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients used to assess the items of the variables are depicted in the table 1.

Table 1: Test for reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivated Learning Behavior</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to L2 self</td>
<td>19,10,21,22</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards L2 community</td>
<td>45,46,47,48,49,50</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In accordance with the table 1 Cronbach’s Alpha is higher than 0.6. This makes the test reliable.

4.1 Relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and social goals?

The mean value for the ideal L2 self and social goals was 32.2069 (SD =5.9) and 33.0345 (SD=5.84614) respectively. Table 2 indicate a significant relationship between the social goals and the Ideal L2 self.

Table 2 Correlation between Ideal L2 self and social goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>P- Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2 –tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>.768**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N= 29 )** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The scatter plot diagram (Fig.1) presents the relationship between the two variables. What is apparent is that the English language learning for this context is highly affected by the socially constructed goals. This cultural evidence proves that Asian learners cannot be exempted from their society (King & Watkins, 2011). However, in view of the fact that parental influence remains a significant part of the undergraduate learners life, it was examined with relation to the ought to L2 self as outlined in previous studies(Kormos et al., 2011a).
The mean and Standard deviation for social goals and ought to L2 self was established to be at $\chi=33.0345$ (SD=5.84614) and $\chi=15.3103$ (SD=3.94700). The correlation effect was significant as indicated in Table 3.

### Table 3: Correlation between social goals and ought to L2 self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>Ought to L2 self</td>
<td>.605**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=29) ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 further reveals the relation between social goals and ought to L2 self to be significant. This is additional evidence to support the claim that there is a close connection between the learners’ socially oriented goals, obligations and responsibilities and these factors need to consider negotiating or overcoming diminishing effects in future. The evidence further validates the pragmatic concerns of Malay learners. The finding is consistent with Dornyei (2005) view which indicates a strong relationship between instrumentality and milieu. This finding further supports the idea of significant relationship of parental encouragement and ought to L2 self which remains a primary motivating factor in Asian child parent relationship as Asian parents continue to represent an essential part of the social perspective of English learning in the L2 context (Kormos et al., 2011a).

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATED LEARNING, AND IDEAL L2 SELF

The mean and standard deviation for social goals and L2 attitude towards learning English and the L2 community were found to be at $x=33.0345$ (SD=5.84614); $x=21.8621$ (SD=4.23189) and $x=23.9310$ (SD=4.21673) respectively.

As indicated in Table 4, it was evident that attitudes towards the L2 community were a stronger pull factor compared to social goals and attitudes towards learning English. Surprisingly learners’ language learning attitude played a smaller role in their social goals. There is clear evidence that the L2 learners’ strong desire to be connected with the L2 community is important for accomplishing their social goals.

### Table 4: Relationship between social goals and L2 attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>P- Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2 –tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>Attitudes towards learning English</td>
<td>.563**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>Attitudes towards L2 community</td>
<td>.829**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=29)** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Nevertheless, L2 learning attitude in terms of learning at the university appears to have a less significant relationship to learners’ social goals.
This is suggestive that university students as adult learners may not necessarily be bound to the classroom input and may find links to the global community and social media as more useful and relevant. Figures 3 (a & b) support these assumptions.

**MOTIVATED LEARNING AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES**

For this section, the mean, frequency and standard deviation and Pearson correlation were calculated to analyze the relationship between the motivated learning and independent variables as in Table 5.

Table 5: Mean and Standard deviation of motivated learning factors and independent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivated Learning</td>
<td>7.33706</td>
<td>39.7586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>5.91233</td>
<td>32.2069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to L2 self</td>
<td>3.94700</td>
<td>15.3103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>5.84614</td>
<td>33.0345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards learning English</td>
<td>4.23189</td>
<td>21.8621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards L2 community</td>
<td>4.21673</td>
<td>23.9310</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Correlations of independent variables to the motivated learning behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>P-Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2–tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 self</td>
<td>.780**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to L2 self</td>
<td>.390*</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Goals</td>
<td>.686**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It seems possible that this result is due to the high future aspirations of the undergraduates. These students may have had positive experience of using English and may want to further improve themselves. This finding confirms earlier findings of motivation researchers involving Islamic subjects (Islam et al., 2013); (Kormos et al., 2011); (Csizer & Kormos, 2009). However, the results differ from Taguchi et al. (2009) and Papi (2010). Taguchi and et al. (2009) found a high significant relationship with attitudes and the criterion measure in Japan and Iran. Similarly, Papi (2010) found a high significant correlation with learning experiences and criterion measure. This result therefore need to be interpreted with caution and needs further investigation with a larger sample size in order to determine whether this finding can be applied to foreign language courses in the region. The more interesting finding in this study was that social goals are seen to have a strong correlation to the motivated learning behavior and could serve as the driving force for learner success in the language. As mentioned in the literature review, goals are important factors of learner motivation (King & Watkins, 2011). However, this result has not previously been described in the motivation studies. Further research should be done to investigate the strength of the social goals for a wider population. In contrast to earlier findings, this study found a strong correlation between ought to L2 self and motivated learning. Previous motivation studies found a weak or no significant correlation of ought to L2 to the criterion measure (Kormos et al., 2011); (Papi, 2010); (Taguchi et al., 2009); (Csizer & Kormos, 2009). This rather contradictory result may be due to unavoidable obligations of the learners. Future work is required to establish this. Attitudes towards learning English and L2 community highlights those learners’ attitudes on the L2 world are much stronger than the university learning. These findings suggest that university students’ motivation to learn English at higher learning institutions may not depend on the classroom learning rather what higher learning institutions can do to get students to arrive at their learning goals. Figure 5 (a-e) provide a clearer picture of the various relationships.
This paper has given an account of factors motivating Malay undergraduates to learn and perform in English. The purpose of the current work was to identify the nature of relationships between social goals, Ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, L2 attitude and motivated learning behavior. One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that social goals have a positive strong correlation to the learners’ Ideal L2 self. Further strong correlation of ought to L2 self and motivated learning has also been emphasized. It is also confirmed the significant correlation of Ideal L2 self to the motivated learning behavior. Generally this study has shown a significant correlation of social goals to the learners’ self and motivated learning. This research will serve as a base for future studies and will commence the investigating the social perspective of L2 learning. Although the current study is based on a small sample of participants, the findings suggest a need of a new direction in motivation studies in the region in line with the increasing challenges of globalization and technology.

FURTHER WORK

This research has brought up a number of questions that demand further investigation. Presently, more work needs to be done to establish social goals in L2 Motivational Self System of Malaysian learners in line with other Asian learners. It is recommended that further research be undertaken in social perspective and learner self from regional nations to obtain a clearer construct for what motivates some learners to do well compared to others. The findings can also have positive outcomes in terms of teaching, learning and planning of the English Language curriculum at higher learning institutions.
REFERENCE


EFFECT OF ANIMAL ASSISTED THERAPY ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF CHILDREN WITH AUTISM

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ABSTRACT

Animal Assisted Therapy (AAT) as a mode of therapy is still in its infancy in India. People are gradually getting to know of this and its positive effects for a diverse population like special kids, people in their old age, and terminally ill patients amongst the many others. Hence the choice to experience this is now gradually increasing in some cities that provide AAT. In this present study the aim was to assess the effectiveness of AAT among children with autism. Specifically the focus was to see if AAT does affect the dimension of communication skills in children with autism. To do the same, a case study method was employed in order to derive an in-depth knowledge of the changes and improvements in the child. A multiple technique of data collection was employed wherein data was obtained via semi-structured interviews and observation. The data obtained were transcribed and coded and put through a case analysis. The results obtained state that there have been substantial improvements in the dimension of communication skills in the autistic children who were a part of this study. In view of the people providing information, the positive shift in these areas could be attributed to AAT but not solely as there could be other therapies and techniques that could have played a role in it.

Keywords: Animal Assisted Therapy, Autism, Children, Communication Skills.

INTRODUCTION

There has always been a special liaison shared between animals and humans since pre-historic times. As indicated in various cave paintings, the earliest human-animal relationships may have been between wolves and cavemen. Over 10,000 years ago, the wolf/dog was the first animal to be domesticated by human as archaeologists have suggested (Urichuk & Anderson, 2003).

ANIMAL ASSISTED THERAPY

Animal-assisted therapy (AAT) is a relatively new field of study, although the human-animal bond has existed for thousands of years. AAT is a type of therapy that involves animals as a form of treatment. The goal of AAT is to improve a patient’s social, emotional, or cognitive functioning (Animal-assisted therapy, n.d.). Animals are tools for therapy because they can make people feel safe and loved when they have been deprived of social interaction or hurt by other people. They do not communicate with words, and so patients afraid of approaching people can comfortably approach an animal. Additionally, a therapist who brings along a pet is viewed as being less dangerous to the patient, and so the previously uncommunicative patient is willing to share more with the professional. Animals commonly used for therapy include dogs, cats, horses, birds, rabbits, and other small animals (Animal-assisted therapy, n.d.). Historically, the first recorded use of animals in a therapy setting appears to have occurred at York Retreat in England in 1792 (Levinson, 1965). Animals were often incorporated into the treatment of patients with mental illness in an effort to “reduce the use of harsh drugs and
restraints” (McCulloch, 1983). In North America, one of the earliest recorded uses of animals in a therapeutic setting was at St. Elizabeth’s Hospital in Washington, D.C. in 1919. Here, dogs were introduced as companions for residents in psychiatric care. Unfortunately, however, these early and preliminary uses of AAT were soon replaced due to the discovery of psychotropic medications during the early part of the 20th century (Urichuk & Anderson, 2003).

Two of the most significant events in the history of modern pet therapy were the 1969 publication of “Pet-Oriented Child Psychotherapy” and the 1972 publication of “Pets and Human Development” by Dr. Boris Levinson. His study of the therapeutic use of animals in treatment began quite by accident in 1953 upon a young patient’s first visit to see him (Beck & Katcher, 1984). In India the concept of using animals as a part of therapy is still very new. It definitely is not a conventional method in terms of being a therapeutic technique. It is seen however that the trend is now catching up in certain cities like Mumbai, Chennai, Pune, Bangalore, Delhi, Kolkata and Ambala. Experts have been trained in countries such as United States of America, United Kingdom and Australia and they are now using their expertise into the Indian population.

**CANINE/PET THERAPY**

Canine/Pet therapy is a form of Animal Assisted Therapy used to promote health and healing using dogs. While working with the dogs and the professional therapists, people discover unique ways of dealing with their problems. At times these issues can be greatly reduced or overcome. The relationship that is built with a dog can offer challenges to help overcome their fears, build trust, respect, compassion, enhance communication skills, problem solving, coping strategies, self-confidence and self-esteem. This therapy is a hands-on approach and there-by is very useful and effective for children and teens. Here the person involved learns to give commands to the dog, walk and play with him/her and also pet and care for. Post these tasks, the therapist processes the experience with the patient, gaining insights into their feels about the experience as well as the way the lessons learned can apply to other situations. The role of the therapy team is to act as guides through these processes and this is very experiential in nature.

**AUTISM**

Autism is a disorder of neural development characterized by impaired social interaction and communication, and by restricted and repetitive behaviour. These signs all begin before a child is three years old. Autism affects information processing in the brain by altering how nerve cells and their synapses connect and organize; how this occurs is not well understood (Autism, n.d.). The cause of autism still remains a mystery although a lot of work in this area is being conducted. Current researchers suggest that there could be different subsets of the disorder arising from genetics, environmental insults, or a combination of both (Grandin, 2011).

**CANINE/PET THERAPY AND AUTISM**

It was only a few years ago that canine/pet therapy was introduced to those with neurological or psychological disorders, such as autism. Autism presents itself differently with each patient such that the needs of one patient cannot be compared to those of another. This is why canine/pet therapy is anything that allows the person to bond with the animal, and without realizing, the person begins working on skills and socialization techniques. The dogs also have a massive effect on autistic person in a physical manner. The mere presence of an animal has been proven to reduce heart rate, lower blood pressure and reduce stress. All of these things are important factors of autism (Dog therapy can work, n.d).

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Considering it is a relatively new form of therapy, research in this domain is very limited
worldwide. Especially in India, there are only a few centers for Animal Assisted Therapy, certified to run this program and no recorded research in the area. Hence I believe that this work will be significant in bringing out the advantages of this mode of therapy into the mainstream and many other children could benefit from the same. The fact that this could probably be the first recorded research in the area of Animal Assisted Therapy in India makes it a worthwhile attempt.

OBJECTIVE

The objective of my study is to see the effect of Animal Assisted Therapy on Communication Skills of children with Autism.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Jennifer Baról (2006) led a research project entitled "The Effects of Animal-Assisted Therapy on a Child with Autism" to study the benefits and impact of AATs on children with autism when used as a treatment tool. In this 15 weeks program, participant Zachary (five years old), who experienced a dramatic struggle in order to communicate bonded with therapy dog Henry and went through a virtual transformation. His self-assurance level is much higher and he is willing to experience new activities with an obvious curiosity. Furthermore, Zachary is better able to understand what is going on around him, including the needs of others. Halfway through the therapy for the research project, Zachary completed his first sentence (Articles base, 2008).

A three year research was conducted by Yeh (2008) to develop and evaluate a canine animal assisted therapy (AAT) model for children with autism in Taiwan. Children in Control stage were explored in regular living activities, while in experimental stage were treated by semi-structured small-group (5-8 persons), 40 minutes, twice a week, 8 weeks in total of AAT activities. A significant improvement of children’s Vineland Adaptive Behaviour Scale (VABS) score was seen in the “social skill subscale” and “total scale”. The results supported a well-designed AAT activity protocol could reconstruct the social skills of autistic children. After playing with dogs, children revealed significant improvements on goal attainment scales (GAS) in items of “oral express by sentences”, “amount of oral description”, “take turns for meaningful conversation”, “oral express under eye contact”, “continuing eye contact”, “active body express for asking helps”, “active invitation or assistance to/with others”, “increasing concentration time during activity”, and “presenting appropriate body reaction by order”. Another study (Nimer & Lundahl, 2007) conducted a search of articles reporting on AAT. They reviewed 250 studies, 49 of which met their inclusion criteria and were submitted to meta-analytic procedures. Overall, AAT was associated with moderate effect sizes in improving outcomes in four areas: Autism-spectrum symptoms, medical difficulties, behavioural problems, and emotional well-being. AAT shows promise as an additive to established interventions and future research should investigate the conditions under which AAT can be most helpful. The aim of this research by Carenzi et al., 2004 was to assess the effects of AAT on children affected by Pervasive Development Disorder (PDD), developing an observational methodology to test the efficacy of AAT intervention. A pre-test session was conducted to obtain a base-line evaluation and to collect data about specific areas of interest; post-test session was carried out at the end of the program to evaluate the effect of the program and mainly of the interaction with the dog. From the analysis of all the encounters, a clear trend in the children’s behaviour was not evidenced, due to the fact that each encounter had peculiar characteristics. However they found that the dog’s presence had positive effects on - the children’s capacity for interaction, the duration of the interactions which was longer in dog’s presence and the ability to complete actions
requested by the psychologist. The overall differences between pre-test and post-test sessions were limited; however differences between the encounters in presence of the dog and those in absence of the dog were evidenced.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Does Animal Assisted Therapy (AAT) positively affect the communication skills of children with Autism between the age group of 3-12 years?

METHODOLOGY

The success of this study on the impact of Animal Assisted Therapy among children with Autism lies in qualitative research perspectives, methods and tools. This will give us a broader, in-depth perspective on how this therapy affects the area of communication skills of children with autism.

SAMPLE

The sample for this study included parents, school teachers, special educators and therapist of children with Autism (3-12 year age group) and the autistic child.

INCLUSION CRITERIA

The participants of this study were parents, school teachers, special educator and therapist of children within the age group of 3-12 years who have been diagnosed with Autism and were under-going Animal Assisted Therapy in the inclusion school.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

The parents, school teachers, special educator and therapist of children and the children, who were undergoing Animal Assisted Therapy but have not been diagnosed with Autism were not included as part of this particular study.

SAMPLE SIZE

4 cases of children with Autism were chosen to be a part of this study.

SAMPLING METHOD

The sample for this study was selected using purposive sampling method.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A Case Study approach under the qualitative paradigm was employed for this study.

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Data was gathered from parents, special educator, therapist and the researcher’s observation of the child using data collection tools like observation and semi-structured interviews. Questions were framed for the interview keeping the objective in perspective and they were verified by two Clinical Psychologists, the Head of Special Education in the inclusion school and the Animal Assisted Therapist.

The present study used multiple case study method that enabled the researcher to explore differences and similarities within and between cases. Consent was taken from the parents of the children who were participants in the study; demographic information was collected and semi-structured interview for the duration of 20 minutes was conducted. Data was recorded and transcribed. Two special educators and the therapist were interviewed to gain multiple perspectives about the progress of the subjects.

Non-participant observation was done by the researcher and reports were drafted.

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

Consent form
Socio demographic data sheet.
Semi structured interview schedule.
Medical reports
DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher examined raw data obtained from multiple sources in order to answer the research question. Case study method, with its use of multiple data collection methods and analysis techniques, provides researchers with the opportunities to triangulate data in order to strengthen the research findings and conclusions. In case study, the data analysis involves iterative, spiraling or cyclical process that proceeds from general to specific observations. Data analysis was begun informally during interviews and observations and it continued during transcription, when recurring themes, patterns and categories became evident. The analysis of the semi-structured interview transcripts and observation reports involved coding of data and the identification of themes. An additional coder was involved during this phase of the analysis. This helped in establishing objectivity in the coding process. Pattern matching, linking data to objectives, explanation building and cross case synthesis are some of the techniques that were used for analysing the obtained data.

VALIDATION OF RESULTS

Triangulation of data sources was used by obtaining data from multiple sources. To establish consistency of the findings or dependability of the data, a separate coder was asked to independently code the data and then the researcher and coder came to a consensus on the emerging codes and categories. The researcher promoted data credibility or truth value of the research using qualitative auditing. The preliminary findings of the study and the procedures used to obtain the data were audited by an external expert in order to validate the accuracy of the findings.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The participants were provided with the Informed Consent Form outlining the purpose and nature of the study and their freedom to participate in the study. They were also informed in writing that confidentiality would be maintained and that they were free to withdraw from the study any time without assigning any reason. The study took into consideration animal rights as a therapy dog was involved as a crucial part of the study. Ethical codes like making sure the animal was unhurt, not being over-worked were looked into.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The four cases that were chosen to be a part of the research study have revealed a plethora of insights which facilitated in answering the research question. The data obtained revealed a lot more than what was initially intended to be explored. Through the course of this discussion, all the findings have been revealed with necessary justifications for reaching conclusions by the researcher.

CASE AA

CASE SUMMARY

AA is a 6 years and 6 months old boy. He attends an inclusion school which provides special attention and a need based therapy module for children with special needs. He attained most of his milestones appropriate to his age. He exhibited a delay in speech. Post his first year, AA was only speaking one or two words with no progress. Once a little older, he began repeating. He could not comprehend questions and started repeating whatever people were asking him. AA was diagnosed with autism, he was about 2.5 to 3 years of age.

EFFECT ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS

In the area of communication, as mutually agreed upon by his parents, special educator and therapist, AA had a problem. It was seen that they all had very similar observations in this domain as seen in Table 1.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AAT Therapist</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Special Educator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Talking to others appropriately</td>
<td>Talking has improved</td>
<td>No interaction earlier now interacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discusses how to do something</td>
<td>Initiating chats</td>
<td>Singing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As pointed out by the special educator:

*A: Before he wouldn't really interact...*

On similar lines, his parents in response to the therapists’ question on if they would like to talk about any skills that AA has picked up from being a part of AAT, said:

*AAM: Talking yes. Talking I would attribute.*

The therapist also pitched in by saying that his talking has significantly improved but she would not attribute it solely to AAT as he also goes for speech therapy. The therapist talks about AA as being a “huge communicator” at present. She made a special mention:

*SN: Talking to others... I can see his communication skills a lot.*

As mentioned by the special educator AA would never sing unlike the other children in his class but this has taken a complete turn after attending AAT sessions. In her words:

*A: Before he used to never sing you know, like not confident at all.*

The whole exercise of singing songs and reciting rhymes during therapy has transferred into his day to day life. He now sings without any inhibition.

Another challenge that AA had was in responding appropriately to other’s queries. This as noticed by the researcher has changed in the course of time as he now responds relevantly to the therapist’s inquiries and requests. He further is able to explain phenomenon like describing pictures taken during graduation day. He also asks a lot of questions appropriate to the situation during therapy.

**EFFECTIVENESS OF AAT**

The AAT therapist rated it at five, extremely effective with a 75% improvement. The parents have rated it at four, moderately effective. They have also revealed that AA’s confidence has improved significantly which could be attributed mostly to AAT. The special educator however rated the effectiveness at three, neutral.

**CASE HA**

**CASE SUMMARY**

HA is a 7 years and 9 months old boy. Interview with his mother revealed that she had an incident free pregnancy. HA’s developmental history indicated that he attained most of his milestones at an appropriate age other than speech. His speech language milestones developed ahead of time in the early years where he started babbling at three months. He spoke his first words at 8 months. However, his two word combinations were reportedly more in a babble form and he started using sentences only by 3.5 years of age.

**EFFECT ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

It was pointed out by the special educator and the therapist that HA was not speaking much. However according to the therapist, he was responding when asked but not as much as expected. His special educator specifically mentioned that his sentence formation was not
appropriate and he still was not interacting much with his peers. HA’s mother although had an opinion to share wherein she did notice him labelling and addressing as referred from Table 2.

**Table 2**
*AAT on communication skills of HA as reported by parent, therapist and special educator*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AAT Therapist</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Special Educator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking when probed not</td>
<td>Labelling and addressing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picked up vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She stated that he was generalizing based on his exposure to AAT in other situations like drawing her attention while seeing a dog around. She seemed to be very impressed by that.

*NK: When he sees a dog, he’s addressing him labelling it and drawing my attention to it, Mamma it’s a doggie or if he hears a dog next door or hears it howl or whatever, he says did you hear that and he says all that and draws my attention and which impresses me.*

She also mentioned that he has certainly picked up a few words being a part of AAT.

*NK: Am sure he must have picked up certain words and certain ways of dealing with the therapy dog.*

The researcher also noted that HA was singing in the therapy session and also at times expressed his desire to brush the therapy dog.

**EFFECTIVENESS OF AAT**

The AAT therapist rated it at four - moderately effective for HA with a 25% improvement. HA’s mother has given a rating of three but mentioned that it is not neutral but slightly better. The special educator placed it at three - neutral.

**CASE AS**

**CASE SUMMARY**

AS is an 8 years 8 months old boy. His mother mentioned that there were certain concerns with regards to his speech. AS was diagnosed with autism as early as when he was 1 year 9 months old. He would never respond to his name and would play in one place by himself. He would also not be bothered to know where his parents were. This got them a little alarmed and they took him for an assessment.

**EFFECT ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS**

Communication was one of the challenge areas for AS. Referring to Table 3 we see that he would not talk or respond appropriately, but post AAT he has begun to respond to queries as stated by his mother, therapist and also the special educator.

**Table 3**
*AAT on communication skills of AS as reported by parent, therapist and special educator*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AAT Therapist</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Special Educator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Takes names</td>
<td>Taking names of friends</td>
<td>Asking for things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks about others</td>
<td>Interacting more now</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interacts with therapist
Responding to mother’s questions
Whispers little sentences to therapist
Asking what he wants
Communicating emotions (eg: bored)

AS’s mother stated that:

SS: he never used to respond when I ask him, what is your friend’s name, you know, whom are you playing with in the classroom. So now he is mentioning.

He has also started asking for what he needs in an appropriate manner. Therapist brings to the notice that from being withdrawn he now comes into the session and also talks with her as well as his peers.

SN: He is talking to me and he is talking to the person next to him. Talking about others. It’s little little sentences whispered sentences and it’s very much there.

He even sings and recites when prompted to do so during the therapy. As the therapy goes on, the researcher also noticed that he would inquire about the milk and bowl. So, there has been an enhancement in the area of communication for AS.

EFFECTIVENESS OF AAT

The animal assisted therapist, mother and special educator rated it at four - moderately effective for AS with a percentage improvement of 35%.

CASE KJ

CASE SUMMARY

KJ is a 6 years 9 months old girl. She attends an inclusion school which provides special attention and a need based therapy module for children with special needs. She attained most of his milestones appropriate to her age. Her parents were a bit concerned with her speech, as this was one area where she exhibited a delay in. They took her in for evaluation and KJ was diagnosed with autism when she was four years three months old.

EFFECT ON COMMUNICATION SKILLS

As seen in Table 4 in the area of communication, KJ according to her parents has benefitted a lot from AAT.

They mentioned that her vocabulary has increased and this could be because of the constant interactions that she has while in her sessions for AAT. The therapist also talks in similar lines where she mentioned that from having scattered communication, KJ now has her communication skills on track.

Table 4

AAT on communication skills of KJ as reported by parent, therapist and special educator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AAT Therapist</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Special Educator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voice from faint to louder</td>
<td>Improved a lot</td>
<td>Singing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sings</td>
<td>Sings</td>
<td>Reciting poetry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recites poetry

Lack of vocabulary led to frustration now better

Talks to peer sitting next to her

She also mentioned that she had a very faint voice but due to constant singing and reciting during her AAT sessions, her voice is improving and getting louder.

*SN: Her voice is improving. It’s louder now. I can hear it.*

She now talks to peers and also discusses on songs or poems to be sung for the particular session. KJ’s special educator also sees this shift in KJ. She also pointed that KJ had body language issues which in certain ways has been resolved by her attending AAT sessions. She now sits in her own space at most times and maintains her required distance. The researcher also noted that KJ expressed certain desires like taking the therapy dog for a walk to the therapist. She also showed good signs of understanding and responding to questions that the therapist put forth to her like features of the therapy dog.

**EFFECTIVENESS OF AAT**

The animal assisted therapist rated it at five - extremely effective, for KJ with a percentage improvement of 40%. Parents and special educator rated it at four which is moderately effective.

**CROSS CASE ANALYSIS**

It was seen that all the four cases AA, HA, AS and KJ have benefited from being a part of AAT in varied ways. They have had positive shifts in varying levels in the domains of communication. This could be related to the study by Agis and Granados in 2011 where they found that Hippo-therapy (a form of AAT) results in a wide range of benefits evidenced in the behavioural patterns by affecting multiple systems. Whilst changes are evident not all have been solely attributed to AAT.

AAT helped them achieve common goals like speaking out clearly to be heard by the other person and use appropriate language among the very many.

The special educators and all the parents who were interviewed agreed upon the benefits of AAT. They even mentioned that they would all recommend it for other autistic children. They stated that AAT integrated with other mainstream therapy modes will surely be a huge advantage for children with autism as seen to be the conclusion of a study conducted by Nimer and Lundahl in 2007.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

The study was conducted to see the effectiveness of AAT on communication skills of children with autism. A case study approach was undertaken in finding the same. Communication skills were seen to be widely improved in the case of AA, AS and KJ. AA now talks appropriately and asks a lot of questions from being withdrawn earlier. He has also started to sing which was an impossible task earlier. AS now responds to queries and also talks and interacts more as reported by his mother. KJ’s communication is now more focused than being scattered. She also sings a lot and also responds appropriately. HA’s communication has not improved significantly. He is still improving but his mother mentioned that he has surely picked up a few words and added to his vocabulary from his AAT sessions.

It was seen that although AAT has worked towards the child’s growth in all the four cases, the difference has not been linear. This
could be attributed to the differences in interaction each child had during the therapy as found by Carenzi et al in a similar study. The common idea amongst the parents and the special educators is that AAT is an effective form of therapy. However they cannot ascertain that most of the changes that have taken place are due to AAT. They put forth that it could be a more holistic approach that has worked in favour of these improvements.

LIMITATIONS

This is the first research documented on AAT in India. One of the limitations could be that this study cannot ascertain that the positive changes seen in the area of communication skills of the autistic children in perspective can be solely attributed to AAT. The changes in the mentioned areas are also not quantifiable. Another major limitation of this study could be that the researcher was not a part of the therapy sessions from the time it started. The study was done as a part of academic requirement, within a specified time frame. This could have perhaps limited the scope of the study in some way.

FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

As a further research one could do a comparative of AAT as a single therapy mode being used for children with autism and AAT used along with a cluster of other therapies like in the current study. Another recommendation would be that the researcher should be a part of the therapy from the start in order to have a more in-depth perspective from an observer’s view.

REFERENCES


ENGLISH EDUCATION IN SRI LANKA; ENGLISH DEPARTMENT OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION

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ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the contribution of the departments of English of the universities and their impact on the local English education. Even though more than thirteen years of period of English teaching in the school, amount of acquired knowledge in language skills in English have been much less in comparison to other language learning and acquisition. Moreover, even after the school at the university education there is a separate particular place for English education as the department of English in the university. As a result of the lack of its capacity and failure, another different places English Language teaching Unit (ELTU) has also been established in the university set-up as a remedy. This assumes that there is an imbedded problem behind the contribution of the department of English in the universities in Sri Lanka even though the said departments remain consistent with sufficiently trained academics including senior chair professors, professors and other PhD holders who have been well qualified in most prestigious and full-pledged first class universities in the world. Based on the critical theory within qualitative discourse analysis as the key research methodology and survey analysis using questionnaire and interview method, this study concluded that the departments of English do not extent their support in developing English language at the students who are coming from the rural villages in lower middle class. Academics of the English of the said departments are always keeping their monopoly on the English education without extending their chairs to others. Instead of extending their skills to local students they always put their hand on protecting their places from local rural Sinhala Buddhist people. Instead of creating flexible methods to grasp English effectively they try to maintain their class interest and the well-made traditions of those first class English universities. In addition to trivializing local students’ abilities at the language learning they put their western perspectives at preparing English language modules, course books and syllabi from school to university postgraduate courses. This infers of a colossal feudalism in their contribution to extend and expand English education in this land. Finally this says that they maintain their personal interests of dominant ideological perspectives of postmodern colonialism including safeguarding their class and religion within feudalism. Despite of the fact that they emphasis on a modern culture of most free & liberal and open to gender & feminism and all sort of sophisticated democracies from which they expect public’s emancipation, they do not give the chance to local students so do improving English in the country.

Key terms: department of English, English language acquisition, Sinhala Buddhist students, University English academics, Feudalism and class interest.
“ACTING WHITE”; A TRANSFORMATION OF ANIMOSITY TO ADMIRATION IN BLACK PEER GROUPS

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ABSTRACT

Analysis of qualitative and quantitative data reveals that African Americans who are high-academic achievers are often labeled as “acting White” and incur costs to social status in interracial environments. Their high-achieving White counterparts, do not experience these same costs to their social status when achieving academic success. African Americans who do achieve well academically often attribute their success to Black peer academic groups that support and encourage their success. This paper will show that while Black high academic achievers may be displaced for “acting White” in primary and secondary school they begin to be admired by those same peers when they matriculate through college.

Keywords: acting white, education, academic groups, college

INTRODUCTION

As a child growing up in the inner city of Detroit, Michigan, I was subjected to violence, drug dealing, and a sub-par school system. My parents contemplated sending me to public school for my primary education. However, they were not confident in the education system and chose to send me to a nearby private, Catholic elementary school.

It was during this transition, I began to feel ostracized and ridiculed by the children who lived in my neighborhood. At private school, my education was strict and emphasized the use of grammar and reading comprehension. At home and at school I was encouraged to speak “proper” English. Consequently, I began to develop a vernacular that was different from my neighborhood colleagues.

While many of my peers spent their free time playing outside and watching television, I spent most of my time reading and doing homework. From interaction with the children in my neighborhood, I learned that they associated certain behaviors, careers, and lifestyles with race. Many of my activities and interests including reading, writing, studying, traveling, and volunteering would be considered “acting White” to them. While I did not feel the need to change myself to fit in with the other children, I did feel isolated and misunderstood by many of my peers.

Now approximately ten years after these encounters, I would like to know where ideas about “White behaviors” and “Black Behaviors” originate. I am interested in exploring the concept of “talking and acting White.”

According to researchers such as Fryer & Torelli (2010) “acting White” is the costs minorities incur for investing in behaviors that seem characteristic of Whites. (E.g. getting...
good grades in school). Many theorists attribute this phenomenon to internal racism or hatred. Several of the theorists I have researched however, do not support this notion, they believe that certain social identities perpetuate this phenomenon, while others perpetuate the opposite. This is supported by research that indicates high achieving; same-race peer groups can nurture success in minorities.

In this research, I seek to encourage a larger conversation in what it means to be White and Black in America. I seek to specifically study the shift in attitude from contempt to admiration in the views of successful African Americans. I want to learn what makes a person a “sellout” and what makes a person a role model in the Black community.

Overall, one principle that reigns supreme in the “acting White” conversation is the importance of learning and remembering personal histories and origins. In doing this one can learn expectations of their community while not being confined to them. Consequently, personal and community views can be expanded and personal success can be seen as something to be prized and not disliked.

**STATEMENT OF PROBLEM**

Why do African American students in inner-city neighborhoods often equate behaviors such as reading and studying as “acting White” and what effect is this belief having on the overall African American community?

Many theorists including Christie (2010) argue that this belief is due to internal racism or hatred. Other theorists like Fryer & Torelli (2010) believe this notion stems from social politics and perceived popularity. While it is possible that the “acting White” concept has derived from a combination of both Christie’s explanation and Fryer & Torelli’s explanation, all parties believe that the effect it has on the African American community is detrimental.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This paper seeks to answer two research questions.

RQ 1: What effects does the “acting White” concept have on African American students throughout their educational careers?

RQ 2: Are students who are ostracized for acting white in primary and second school admired by their peers when they matriculate through and/or complete college?

**DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES**

**African American students**- Students of African decent who are enrolled in and attend institutions of primary, secondary, or higher education

**Black Schools** – Institutions of primary and secondary education with a population that is composed primarily of students of African decent. These schools are often located in inner city neighborhoods

**Animosity**- Negative treatment or feelings of any kind

**Peers**- A person who is equal to another in age group

**Acting White**- the costs minorities incur for investing in behaviors that seem characteristic of Whites (Fryer & Torelli 2010)

**Primary Education**- Elementary school, grades Kindergarten through 8th grade

**Secondary Education**- High School, grades 9 through 12

**African American community**- A community of individuals who reside in the same neighborhood and are of African descent.

**Admiration**- A feeling of approval and wonder
**Bougie** - A slang term derived from the word “bourgeois” to mean uppity

**Code-switching** - This occurs when an individual switches between two or more styles of speaking or languages

**BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW**

When researching this topic, 10 articles and two novels that provided essential information in support of this thesis were identified. Each piece of work discusses the phenomenon of “acting White” and its origin. While some of the researchers agreed with one another regarding the cause of poor minority academic performance, others provided additional explanations. I grouped the articles into three categories – social status, social and cultural identities, and combinations of both.

**Social Status**

Fryer (2006) defines “acting White” as high achieving Black students enjoying less popularity or social status for behaviors such as raising their hand in class, making good grades, and having an interest in ballet. Fryer & Torelli (2010) enhance Fryer’s initial thesis by exploring the racial difference in the relationship between social status (popularity) and academic achievement in schools where interracial contact (diversity) is prevalent. Quantitative research was used in this study to show the correlation between popularity and grades.

**Social and Cultural Identities**

Datnow & Cooper (1997) explore how the formation of Black peer groups in predominately White independent schools help African American students reaffirm their racial identities and adjust to academic environments, that may appear unwelcoming to them. The two researchers explored how more students are beginning to attend predominately White independent schools due to special programs like the ABC and BEST programs in Baltimore, Maryland. While these students receive acceptance for their academic success from their respective Black peer groups, they may experience animosity from their African American peers who do not attend school with them.

Ogbu (2004) expands upon the thesis of Datnow & Cooper and Fryer Jr. & Torelli by arguing that minority responses to discrimination or “oppositional culture” do not completely explain differences in school performance among minority groups. He asserts that the collective identity (fictive kinship) and cultural frame of reference are also factors.

Carter (2003) specifically studied collective identity between “dominant” (mainstream) and “non-dominant” (minority) cultures. He studied 44 low-income African American students to learn how they adjust their behavior in situations that require “dominant” behavior (i.e. workplace, school) to ones that require “non-dominant behavior (i.e. spending time with family and friends). These behaviors can also be referred to as code switching. Carter encourages researchers to develop a more complex understanding when conceptualizing the behavior of low-income minorities.

Piper (1992) provides a narrative account of her experiences as a high-achieving minority student in academia. She details the discrimination she experienced from her school faculty members, community, and family.

While Piper (1992) reveals her struggle to assimilate to predominately “White” higher education, Waters (1994) explores the struggles second generation West Indian and Haitian immigrant students experience when assimilating to American culture. Water identifies three identities these groups must embody – a Black American identity, an ethnic or hyphenated national origin identity, and an immigrant identity.
Christie (2010) discusses “acting White” in the context of race, equality, and opportunity in America. Unlike most of the other theorists mentioned in this paper, Christie gives an unabridged look into his own experiences working as a Black man in the White House and Congress and how he has been perceived following his professional success. He also discusses how the first African American president, President Barack Obama, is often criticized for not “being Black enough” or not catering enough to the needs of the African American community throughout his candidacy.

Like Christie, Williams & Hunter (2003) also provides a detailed account into how her professional journey has been impacted by the “acting White” phenomenon. Williams, who grew up in a suburb with predominately White residents, attributes her early success to having the ability to speak well and present herself. She identifies speaking well as “talking White.” Williams asserts that her vernacular and personal interests made her “not Black enough” and “not White enough.” Consequently, she had trouble fitting in socially with others throughout high school and college. This resulted in avid drug use and social isolation.

**Combination**


**DETAILED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

**Oppositional Culture Theory**

The oppositional culture theory is a term used to identify the racial disparities in achievement between Whites and Blacks in the U.S. Ogbu’s research has transformed this term to include a subculture’s refusal to conform to the norms and values of dominant culture. Fordham and Ogbu used the theory to explain why Black students were underperforming in school. This theory can be categorized as a self-imposed cultural sabotage theory.

Several researchers have criticized Fordham and Ogbu’s theory because it does not identify other factors that may inhibit academic performance. This is a fact that Ogbu himself studied in his 2004 paper on the subject. While many do not fully agree with the oppositional cultural theory in this context it is the foundation of cultural discussion. The Oppositional Culture Theory has guided this research because it serves as a foundation for the breadth of all “acting White” research.

**Two-Audience Signaling Model**

The Two-Audience Signaling Model asserts that an individual’s education level can influence not only the amount of money they make, but also the amount of valuable support offered by peer groups. The perception of education can differ dramatically between employers who value education and social groups who look down upon it. This theory was created by Austen Smith and Roland Fryer to explain the socioeconomic benefits people enjoy based on their education and attractiveness to peers. The model separates what employers may perceive as desirable traits and what social groups perceive as desirable traits.

The model can easily be correlated to school environments by changing the employ spectrum of the model to school administrations. However, the research does fall short in its identification of peer groups. It does allow for the possibility that peer groups and employers may find the same types of traits desirable. This theory is important to this thesis because it discusses aspects of social capital and sacrifice African American
students must wager when pursuing academic success.

**Social Capital Theory**

Several scientists have studied the Social Capital Theory. The social capital theory expands upon the concept of peer group influence by actually identifying where people can gain or lose social capital and how this depends on the concept. A weakness of this theory can be found in its application. Social capital theory depends greatly on context. For example, Black students may gain social capital by stealing in one particular group but may lose social capital for this same behavior in a different group.

This theory is relevant to and guides these findings by further explaining the social ground that can be gained or lost based on an individual’s exhibition of “acting White” practices and behaviors. The theory identifies that the frame of reference of a particular group is important in understanding the perception of education and achievement.

**Attitude Achievement Paradox**

Proposed by Roslyn Arlin Mickelson, the Attitude-Achievement Paradox describes how African American students consistently exhibit more positive attitudes about education than White students despite their lower academic performance overall. This theory goes on to assert that Black students may be purposefully underachieving because they only see education as benefiting Whites.

This theory is relevant to this research because it starkly contrasts the implications made by the oppositional culture theory proposed by Ogbu. Mickelson asserts that Black students are not underachieving to be rebellious, but because they have on some level lost a sense of hope.

Recent developments can serve as weakness to this theory. For example, President Obama is a Black man who has succeeded due to his education. He would serve as a direct contradiction to a student who has internalized the Attitude Achievement Paradigm. Further research must be done on this theory to record how students process obvious threats to their belief that education only benefits Whites.

**Collective Identity and Fictive Kinship**

Collective identity refers to individuals’ attachment and sense of unity within a particular group. This theory highlights Datnow & Cooper’s research on African American educational peer groups in White independent schools. It is extremely pertinent to this research because it identifies that students adopt behaviors of a group to which they belong. This theory also expands the oppositional culture theory by creating parameters to which it can be applied.

For instance, some all-Black peer groups may value and encourage academic achievement, while others may not. A student’s academic performance can be dependent which one of the groups they belong to.

A weakness of this theory is that it does not specifically garner how parental and familial units can influence a student’s academic performance. However, it is important to this research because it begins to examine how a group influences an individual’s choices and how the group as a whole can be affected.

**CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, each of these theories supported the topic of this thesis and was instrumental in data analysis. This research specifically supported the notion presented in the Collective Identity and Fictive Kinship and Social Capital Theory regarding the importance of peer groups in academic achievement. In addition to peer influence, researchers identified familial influence as another major factor in achievement.
STUDY RESEARCH & SAMPLING

METHOD

For the purpose of this research, the researcher utilized two types of research tools – in-person interview (qualitative) and questionnaire (quantitative). A structure protocol was used in the interview portion of this research. Interview subjects were selected using a purposive or judgmental sampling method. Approximately 50 Howard University students completed the Collective Self-Esteem (CSE & CSE-R) Scale created by researchers Luhtanen and Crocker. The researcher chose to utilize both in-person interview and questionnaire in order to utilize personal accounts and numeric data to support this hypothesis.

The questions asked in the in-person interview were open-ended, structured, and unstructured. Each question centered on the subject’s experience with “acting White.” The audio from each interview was recorded by tape recorder. Each interview was transcribed, compiled and analyzed. Subjects were asked about their home and neighborhood demographics. They were also asked about experiencing social isolation, chastisement, and if they have experienced this same type of ostracization by their peers since entering college or after college completion. Participants were also asked if there was a change in how they were treated by these same peers between adolescence and college entrance/completion. Questions were asked to specifically understand if Black students categorized as “acting White” by peers during adolescence are viewed in admiration by these same peers after attending and completing college.

METHOD FOR ANALYSIS

In this study, the nominal method was used to analyze the questionnaire results. Each response from the CSE scale was reviewed. Statistics and pie charts were used to derive a conclusion. Interview responses were analyzed for trends and commonality in responses and outliers were determined and recorded. (“Different Types of Sample”)

DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS

The demographics for this study were taken from two sources. The first is Howard University’s Facts 2013 Booklet, an abstract drawn from several university databases between 2011-2012. The university has not yet released the Facts 2014 Booklet for the 2012-2013 school year. According to the booklet, there were approximately 9,921 students enrolled at Howard during the 2011-2012 school year. Forty-nine percent of these students were from the Mid Atlantic region, 27 percent were from the South, 12 percent were from the Midwest, 10 percent were from the West, and 2 percent were from New England.

Demographics for this study were also taken from the 2013 Howard University Undergraduate Graduating Student Exit Survey released in 2013. According to the survey, 70.9 percent of the undergraduate graduating class was female and 29.1 percent were male. The majority of the undergraduate graduating class was African American (84.6 percent), 6.1 percent was African, and 1.2 percent identified as Hispanic/Latino.

Interview Demographics

Twenty-three Howard University students were interviewed for this research. Four (17 percent) of the participants were male and 19 (82 percent) were female. The participants were all from the United States. Eleven (47 percent) of participants described their home neighborhoods as predominately African American, 7 (30 percent) identified them as predominately White, and 5 (21 percent) identified their home neighborhoods as mixed or diverse. All participants were between the ages of 18-25 and Black.
Questionnaire Demographics

There were 55 subjects who completed the questionnaire. All were African American and between the ages of 20-42. The exact gender of each participant is unclear however; the majority of the participants were female.

Findings/Interview.

Participants were asked the following questions.

1. Do you recall any experiences being ostracized for “acting White” prior to attending college?
2. What behaviors would you and/or peers consider “acting White?”
3. How did this teasing affect your behaviors?
4. When you return home from college to your neighborhoods do you notice that your peers treat you with animosity or admiration? (RQ 2)

Question 1 Responses.

Twenty-one students responded yes to this question. Students reported teasing from peers and family members. A few reported teasing from teachers as well. One participant reported being teased by his peers from home when he returns from college.

Question 2 Responses.

Most students indicated the following to be “acting White” behaviors.

- Style of dress (i.e. brand names, clothing fit, etc.)
- Vernacular
- Voice inflection
- Vocabulary
- Interests (One student said he was teased for playing in the band instead of playing basketball and football like his African American peers.)
- Friend groups
- Neighborhood or dwelling (A student was told she was not Black because she lived in a large home.)
- Classes (i.e. advance placement courses)

Students teased for “acting White” described being called “bougie”, an “annie”, and “stank.” One student mentioned the importance of code switching when interacting with individuals from school/work compared to those at home.

Question 3 Responses.

Most students said they did not modify their behavior in response to the teasing. A few mentioned attempting to adopt behavior prevalent among their tormentors, but eventually returned to their natural behavior. Students who never changed their behavior mentioned parental rearing as a major factor. Two students reported positive ramifications from the teasing. These students said the teasing encouraged them to learn more about the interests of their peers and the history and traditions of their families.

Question 4 (RQ2) Responses.

Twelve students said peers from their home neighborhood regarded them with admiration. These students said that their peers and families were impressed that they went away to school and to a Historically Black University. One student described being treated like a prince when he returns home to his hometown of Baton Rouge, Louisiana. He said that many of his peers did not attend...
traditional 4-year colleges and universities so his enrollment at Howard stands out. Three students reported no change in treatment. These students said they no longer interacted with those that ostracized them. Eight students said they were treated with both animosity and admiration. These students said that some people from their hometowns regarding them as stuck up and “bougie”, while others expressed pride in them.

**Findings Questionnaire.**

The Collective Self-Esteem Scale (CSE) measures four types of self-esteem.

(1) Membership Esteem – how good or worthy a member of the group one is.
(2) Private Collective Self-Esteem – how good one’s social groups are.
(3) Public Collective Self-Esteem – how one believes others evaluate one’s social groups
(4) Importance to Identity – how important one’s group is to one’s self-concept. (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)

**RESULTS.**

1. **I am a worthy member of the social groups I belong to.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree Somewhat</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree Somewhat</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
<td><strong>27</strong></td>
<td><strong>49%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **I often regret that I belong to some of the social groups I do.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disagree</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>27%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree Somewhat</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree Somewhat</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **Overall, my social groups are considered good by others.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree Somewhat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree Somewhat</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>45%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Overall, my group membership have very little to do with how I feel about myself.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<tr>
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5. **I feel I don’t have much to offer to the social groups I belong to.**

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<tr>
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**DISCUSSION**

The research analyzed in the literature review for this project did not attempt to answer RQ 2. However, several researchers examined in this paper did attempt to answer RQ 1. In order to compare the findings in this research to those of existing knowledge in the field, the theories analyzed in the Detailed Theoretical
Framework section of this paper were revisited. The research findings for this project did not support nor refute neither the Oppositional Culture Theory nor the Attitude Achievement Paradox. However, this research does correlate to the Two-Audience Signaling Model, Social Capital Theory, and the Collective Identity and Fictive Kinship Theory.

The Two-Audience Signaling Model identifies the aspects of social capital and sacrifice African American students must incur when pursuing academic success. African American students must exist between one community that may be leery of educated individuals and a broader, dominant community that places education as a virtue for success. This model explains participant responses to interview Question 3 regarding their behavioral responses to teasing. All students responded that they did not permanently change their behavior to fit in with their peer groups or families that teased them. This choice caused them to lose a level of social capital.

The Social Capital Theory explains that students who exhibit “acting White” or any behaviors that are non-traditional of the perceived dominant group may lose popularity and acceptance. For African American students the dominant group can be both the African American community in their neighborhoods and the “White/Western World”. These students are often forced to determine which group they identify with most, facing consequences for both choices.

The Collective Identity and Fictive Kinship Theory reinforces the importance of unity, belonging, and attachment with a particular group. This theory explains the results derived from the CSE Scale. Each participant was a member of the Howard University community, which is a predominately-Black peer group that encourages academic achievement, and a pursuit of a variety of interests. Consequently, the CSE Scale results prove Howard University students often find groups that increase their membership esteem, private collective self-esteem, public collective self-esteem, and importance to identity at the school.

RECOMMENDATIONS

While the “acting White” concept may manifest in institutions of learning, its perpetuation can be attributed to external influences. The values African American children learn in their respective homes and communities impact their academic performance and professional aspirations. African American students and professionals, who are identified as “acting White”, face difficulty assimilating into same-race, mixed race, and non-black peer groups. The “acting White” phenomenon causes derision among minority groups and has an overall negative impact on the African American community. However, when evaluating interview data, it is important to keep in mind that each student indicated that they did not permanently modify their behavior in relation to ostracization. Many students attributed this to parental influence. Consequently, the influence of parents on African Americans students can be more powerful than peer influence.

The promotion of diversity among Black peoples will help to eradicate the “acting White” phenomenon. Black students must learn that there is no one-way to exercise one’s heritage. Further research must be done on this topic to gain additional information to answer RQ 1 and RQ 2 as well as to identify alternative methods to eradicate the “acting White” phenomenon.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study have been identified. Weaknesses include the use of Howard University students only and the use of more female students than male. In addition to this, the pool of subjects was small. New research should be done to study students at
other HBCU’s and non-HBCUs to gain additional perspective.

REFERENCES


POETIC LANGUAGE AND PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS

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ABSTRACT

This research article has two purposes. One is to demonstrate the stylistic approach using linguistic elements for the analysis of text and the other is to show how it exhibits a vast variety of life philosophies worthy to be adopted by individuals for the betterment of life. Stylistics is concerned with using the methodology of linguistics to study the concept of style in language. Every time we use language we adopt a style of some sort. Language and style never moves beyond a concentration on the supremacy of words. These words of poets are not of arbitrary decisions but applied with specific purposes in grand style and it signals as different from ‘ordinary’ language. A stylistic analysis of the selection of some of William Wordsworth’s and Robert Frost’s poems is carried out to educate, explicate and expose to everybody that comes across this write up, in guiding them on how to analyse a poem from linguistic point of view to find out the philosophical underpinnings. The data used to illustrate and substantiate our claims are systematically sourced from some selected poems of the above mentioned poets. The lexico-syntactic patterns and choices, the phonological, morphological and graphological devices are the main stylistic elements used to prove our claims. Finally, we find that each of the elements however, has identifiable functions which contribute to the effective meaning of the poems. It can therefore be concluded that these elements trigger and play important roles in passing the intention of the writer across. The research vividly concludes that the literary writings of the poet reflect the philosophies worthy of adopting in our personal life.

Key words: stylistics, literariness, lexis, syntax, linguistic analysis, philosophy

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps now more than ever, we spend our days immersed in language. We communicate, talk, write and read through a vast array of forms and technologies. But most of us rarely stop to think about how language works, or how we succeed in getting our ideas across in words. It all seems to happen naturally. Poets, novelists, speechwriters or the others curious sometimes confront these questions, but it is a job that often falls to linguists and philosophers of language.

Here’s one striking puzzle: We speak and write with remarkably different aims. We sometimes try to get clear on the facts, so we can reach agreement on how things are. But we sometimes try to express ourselves so we can capture the uniqueness of our viewpoint and experiences. It is the same for listeners: language lets us learn the answers to practical questions, but it also opens us up to novel insights and perspectives. Simply put, language straddles the chasm between science and art.

A central challenge for philosophy is to explain how language accommodates these two very different kinds of enterprise. Literary theorists and translators often say that artistic language takes on special meaning (semantics), different from what we ordinarily find. Cognitive scientists often say instead that the difference comes from our ability to recognize the purposes and goals of speakers who use language in different ways (pragmatics). We believe, contrary to these
received views that the key differences are to be found in the different ways the audience can engage with language.

In our view, part of what makes language artistic is that we have to explore it actively in order to appreciate it. We may have to look beneath the surface, and think harder about what images the author has used, who the author purports to be, and even how the language is organized. These efforts can lead to new insights, new perspectives and new experiences.

Poetry is a form in which reader’s engagement is particularly striking and important. It’s a good illustration of the way philosophical work can help awaken us to the richness of the language that surrounds us, even in the seeming cacophony of the digital age.

How do we cultivate the poetic imagination? We must attune ourselves to the features we notice in a poem, as a prompt to experience its language more deeply. This search for significance can target any noticeable feature of the poem—regardless of the meaning, if any, the feature might literally encode. We can listen to the sounds and rhythm of the poem. We can feel its syntax and structure. We can even attend to its visual shape and layout before us.

However, even when we explore the familiar domains of sound, meter, rhyme and line, we must be prepared to explore the variable and open-ended significance of each observation. There is no one meaning or effect for parsing lines; for annotating lines; or in juxtaposing the two. What we find in all these cases is just a formal contrast, an echo of further differences, which we can appreciate more deeply only by probing the poem further.

In short, a poem — and artistic language more generally — is open to whatever we find in it. Whenever we notice that an unexpected formal feature amplifies our experience of a poem in a novel way, we add to our understanding. All the same, we can still say what makes these interpretive efforts poetic. They do not concern the ordinary significance of form in language. When we approach language prosaically, our focus is on arbitrary conventions that link words to things in the world and to the contents of thought. These links allow us to raise questions about what’s true, and to coordinate our investigations to find answers. But poetry exists because we are just as interested in discovering ourselves, and one another, in what we say. Poetry evokes a special kind of thinking — where we interpret ordinary links between language and world and mind as a kind of diagram of the possibilities of experience.

What makes poetic language interesting is its brevity. Sharp short sentences are laden with profound thoughts. The language is embellished and ornamented; yet it strikes sharp on our minds. The beauty of poetry is that it takes less times and leaves us with serious thoughts. Robert Frost says that poetry begins with delight and ends with wisdom.

**THE CONCEPT OF POETRY BY THE EXPERT POETS**

The idea about poem as per T.S.Eliot is that Poetry is when an emotion has found its thought and the thought has found words. Poetry is not a turning loose of emotion, but an escape from emotion; it is not the expression of personality, but an escape from personality. But, of course, only those who have personality and emotions know what it means to want to escape from these things.

Poetry is a criticism of life- Matthew Arnold

Why should one study poetry? What special features does it hold?

Poems are short in nature mostly. Poetic language is full of figurative language that is powerfully expressed. Poetic language does justice to the content matter. The content
becomes serious because of the form of the language with which it is presented. The concept of Duality (Form and Matter) immediately reflects the idea of Aristotle—a great philosopher.

**Research question**
Is it possible to deliver philosophical thoughts in poetic language in an impressive way?
Is poetic language a hindrance than an ordinary language in understanding the subject matter?

**Hypothesis:**
Linguistic analysis will be useful in decoding the poetic language.
Concentrating more on poetic devices would lead for better understanding of the content matter.

**Limitation:** The data analysis is limited only to random samples from some select poems of different authors.

**LITERARY DEVICES IN POETIC LANGUAGE**

**Foregrounding**
The meaning of foregrounding is that the poets try to attract his audience by making some words prominent and eye catching. For this purpose they may even break the general syntactic rules. Example: *She is the most brightest students in the class.* The use of double superlative side by side is wrong as per the grammatical rule but poets use it to highlight certain quality.

**Sound and meaning:** poets use certain vowel sound or consonant sound heavily to suit to the mood that well matches with the subject matter in the poem.

**Phonological devices Include:**

**Rhyme elements:** It consist patterns of rhymes. The stressed pattern and the rhyming scheme not only make the poem memorable but also set the correct tone.

**Alliteration:** It is the use of same letters or sounds at the beginning of words that are close together. It was used systematically in Old English poetry but in Modern English poetry is generally used for a particular effect.

**Consonance:** It is a half rhyme in which final consonants are repeated but with different preceding vowels.

**Assonance:** It is the effect created when two syllables in words that are closed together have the same vowel sound but different consonants or the same consonants but different vowels.

**Onomatopoeia:** It is the effect produced when the words used contain the similar sounds to the noisesthey describe: "murmuring of innumerable bees".

**MORPHOLOGICAL DEVICES INCLUDE**

**Affixes:** It is a process of forming new words by putting morphemes before some words. It further divides into prefixes or suffixes. These are two popular types of morphological operations. Prefixes generally alter the meanings of the words and suffixes changes its part of speech.

**Coinages:** It is the process of forming new words from the existing ones.

**Lexico-syntactic devices include:**

**Anastrophe:** Anastrophe is the inversion of the natural or usual word order. The use of anastrophes secures emphasis and focuses the readers’ attention.

**Parenthesis:** It entails the insertion of some verbal unit (extra information, and after thought or a comment) in a position that interrupts the normal syntactical glow of the sentence.
**Ellipsis:** Ellipsis entails the deliberate omission of a word or words, which are readily implied by the context: It is used to create brevity, reemphasis or ambiguity. He who will not when he may; may not when he will - John of Salisbury

Give it an understanding but no tongue - Hamlet - Shakespeare

**Asyndeton:** This is the deliberate omission of conjunctions between a series of related clauses.

Asyndeton produces a hurried rhythm in the sentence.

**Anaphora:** The use of words that refers to or replaces another word used earlier in the sentence

**Epizeuxis:** Repetition of a word or phrase without any breaks at all.

**Referential meaning:** words have direct meaning. It is also known as dictionary meaning.

**Connotative meaning:** some words go beyond their normal meanings; it may have multiple meanings.

**Archaism:** some poets apply words that are not in the present day usage; we need to find the meaning to get the sense of the word.

**Neologism:** some words newly coined to cater to need and the context which a poet wants to portray.

**Syntactical inversion**

“All things to end are made
All do not all things well
I love not man the less but the nature more”

**Figures of speech**

**Personification:** “Victory smiles on those who dare” - William James Linton

**Oxymoron:** Bad is the best of us - Beaumont and Fletcher

**Paradox:** Heaven lies about us in our infancy

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Child is a father of man” - William Wordsworth

**Philosophical Underpinnings in some select poems:**

"Philosophy is something reasoned and heavy; poetry something winged, flashing, inspired... It is the acme of life to understand life. The height of poetry is to speak the language of the gods." — George Santayana,

Half the world is composed of people who have something to say and can’t, and the other half who have nothing to say and keep on saying it. - Robert Frost

“Good fences make good neighbours”- Robert Frost

“The woods are lovely, dark and deep,
But I have promises to keep,”
And miles to go before I sleep, And miles to go before I sleep”. As indicated by the poet, we all have duties to accomplish before we relax to enjoy the beauties of nature.

The utmost extent of man's knowledge is to know that he knows nothing. - Joseph Addison (1672–1719)

**CONCLUSION**

It would be interesting to study poetry in order to discern life giving philosophies that are worth adopting in our lives. It is not necessary that we should spend much time in reading philosophical documents to understand human life. Some poetical lines can be much powerful in penetrating into our hearts and stay as long as our life span telling us what we should do not what we should omit in life.

This article comes to the end with the following poem where the poet summarizes
the meaning of human existence in poetic language.

REFERENCES


INFIRMITY AND FRAILTY OF ENDOSULFAN:
A CASE STUDY OF SOUTHERN COASTAL STATE OF INDIA

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ABSTRACT

Endosulfan is one of the pesticides. It is used to kill insects and mites on crops including tea, coffee, cotton, fruits, vegetables etc. It is a chemical marketed by different companies in variety of names in many countries around the globe. It is used in agriculture around the world to control insects and pets including whiteflies, leaf choppers and cabbage worms. India is the world’s largest consumer of Endosulfan because almost every kind of insects, pests found in our country. Endosulfan is acutely toxic and easily absorbed by the stomach and lungs though the skin. Therefore in recent times Endosulfan has emerged a grave public health and social issue. It draws the global attention In India Endosulfan pesticide was aerially sprayed in coastal areas of two southern States namely Kerala and Karnataka in late 1970 till 2001 regularly three times every year. The aerial spraying of Endosulfan was undertaken to control the problem of the tea mosquito bug which were consuming or spoiling the tender cashew nut flowers. They used helicopters to spray the Endosulfan pesticides. Unfortunately no guidelines were followed when the spraying was done. Plantation workers and poor localities were not cautioned about the precautions to be taken during and after the aerial spray of Endosulfan. In the beginning everybody was happy because of the control of insects. People went out to see the panoramic picture of spraying Endosulfan. But Just after three four years, the ill effects of Endosulfan spraying came to notice. By 1990s health disorders of very serious nature among the human population came to the lime light. The people living inside the plantations were exposed to this hazardous chemical for almost 25 years. Therefore the governments of two southern states banned the Endosulfan. Children were found to be the worst affected with congenital anomalies, mental retardation, physical deformities. In this background a sociological study has been carried out to find out the ill-effects of pesticide on the people. It was conducted in the coastal region of India. The present study found the horrifying health effects of the people especially on women and children. Recently the health minister of the Karnataka State reported that out of 92 villages of four taluks of the State, 5,221 endosulfan victims have identified as having serious health problems. Among these 5221, 179 persons were immobile and bedridden while others are suffering from mental retardation and other deformities.

INTRODUCTION

Endosulfan is one of the pesticides used to kill insects. As a Persistent Organic Pollutant, the use of Endosulfan emerged one of the grave public and social and environmental issues in recent times. There are many evidences that aerial spraying of Endosulfan has created ruthless hazards to human and environment. This pesticide is out of patent and is marketed by many different companies and under a variety of names including: Agrosulfan; Aginarosulfan; Banagesulfan; Cyclodan; Endocel; Endoson; Endonit; Endomil; Endosol; Endostar; Endodaf; Endosulfer; E-sulfan; Endorifan; Hildan; Redsun; Seosulfan; and Thiodan. Endosulfan is acute and highly toxic. It kills everything-even snakes;
Earthworms appeared from the soil in large numbers immediately after the spraying. Therefore Endosulfan has become number one of the poisonous pesticides. Usually a pesticide poisoning occurs when chemicals intended to control a pest affect non-target organisms such as humans, wildlife, or bees. There are three types of pesticide poisoning. The first of the three is a single and short-term very high level of exposure which can be experienced by individuals who commit suicide, as well as pesticide formulators. The second type of poisoning is long-term high-level exposure, which can occur in pesticide formulators and manufacturers. The third type of poisoning is a long-term low-level exposure. In this individuals are exposed from sources such as pesticide residues in food as well as contact with pesticide residues in the air, water, soil, sediment, food materials, plants and animals. Endosulfan no doubt belonged to the third type of pesticide poisoning.

Pesticide Action Network (PAN) Europe has given a brief history of Endosulfan. Its major observations are:

**Persistent Organic Pollutant**
Endosulfan has been defined at Stockholm Convention April 2011. According to this Convention ‘Endosulfan is persistent in the environment, bio accumulative, demonstrates long range environmental transport, and causes adverse effects to human health and the environment’. It has been listed as Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution and is recognised as a Persistent Toxic Substance by the United Nations Environment Programme. The use of Endosulfan pesticides first began in 1954.

**Widespread Contamination**
Due to its potential evaporate and travel long distances in the atmosphere, Endosulfan has become one of the world’s most widespread pollutants. It affected global water resources, soils, rainfall, snow and ice deposits and oceans, including in remote ecosystems such as the Arctic, Antarctic, Great Lakes, Canadian Rockies, Costa Rican rainforests, and Himalayas. It is shocking that Endosulfan has contaminated human breast milk and has been found in samples from women in Egypt, Madagascar, South Africa, India, Indonesia, Pakistan etc. and umbilical cord blood samples in Denmark, Finland, Spain, USAS, Japan (PAN).

**Threats to Wild life and Arctic Contamination**
Endosulfan is very toxic nearly to all kinds of organisms. Endosulfan has created threat to wildlife. It has been detected in the tissues of animals worldwide including polar bears, crocodiles and African Vultures.

Further, arctic concentrations of other pesticides such as DDT, Chlordane are now falling. Yet levels of Endosulfan remain high. Most of the species of fish found to extinct due to this pesticide.

**Unsafe to Users and Widespread Poisonings**
Endosulfan presents short and intermediate-term risks for mixers, loaders and applicators for the majority of users, even with maximum personal protective equipment and engineering controls. People have to use safety equipments like chemical resistant footwear, chemical resistant gloves, chemical resistant head gear and a respirator.

Endosulfan leads to the causes of unintentional poisoning particularly in Asia, Latin America, and West Africa. Most of the cases occurred due to the result of occupational exposure.

**Impacts on Health and Contaminates Food**
According to PAN (2008) acute Endosulfan poisoning can cause convulsions, psychiatric disturbances, epilepsy, paralysis, impaired memory and death. Long term exposure leads to neurological disorders, congenital birth defects, chromosomal abnormalities, mental retardation, impaired learning and memory loss.
Endosulfan is found abundant in food in the globe. Its substance found in fruits and vegetables as well as dairy products (milk, butter, cheese) and meat (beef, lamb, pork). In Africa, Asia and South America, Endosulfan is present in drinking water resources, while in USA, China, Australia and West Africa, Endosulfan has been detected in fish and seafood.

**World-wide restrictions on Endosulfan use**

Endosulfan is completely banned in countries like Belize, Singapore, Tonga, Syria, Germany, the USA, the Brazilian state Rondonia, the UK, Sweden, Netherlands, Colombia, and only two Indian states Kerala and Karnataka.

Endosulfan is severely restricted in countries like Australia, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Cambodia, Japan, Korea, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Philippines, Lithuania, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Denmark, Yugoslavia, Norway, Finland, Russia, Venezuela, Dominica, Canada. Further Endosulfan has been identified as a pesticide of concern due to health and environmental problems associated with its use in Ecuador, Mauritius and Paraguay (PRC, 1994)

World Health Organization classified Pesticide safety on some criteria. It documented the amount of a chemical required to kill 50% of a population laboratory rats. Under this system, Endosulfan was classified as Class II that is moderately hazardous to human health. However, the United States’ Environmental Protection Agency rated Endosulfan as Category I b that is highly hazardous.

**HISTORY AND BACKGROUND OF ENDOSULFAN IN INDIA**

Endosulfan is a highly toxic pesticide was sprayed in the cashew plantations of the coastal districts of Karnataka since 1980s till 2001 regularly two to three times every year. The aerial of Endosulfan was undertaken to control the problem of the tea mosquito bug. It is used in agriculture around the world to control insects and pets including whiteflies, leaf choppers and cabbage worms. India is the world’s largest consumer of Endosulfan because almost every kind of insects, pests found in our country.

Endosulfan and many other toxic agrochemicals were introduced to Indian agriculture during the ‘Green Revolution’. Cheap, effective and highly toxic Endosulfan was widely and readily accepted by the Indian farmers. Unfortunately, laws governing the use of these chemicals were incompetent. The lobby consisting of manufactures of agrochemicals and other large agro based industries always try and influence the Government policy. This resulted in numerous cases of Endosulfan poisoning. While the Government claims that there is no affordable alternative to the pesticide, the lethal mixture of negligence on part of the Indian farmers and the toxic Endosulfan led to the poisoning of thousands in Coastal districts of Kerala and Karnataka. In spite of this India stood against the ban of the pesticide even when an international consensus arose much to the horror of those who had been victims of the deadly chemical. Due to the pressure of domestic pesticide industry and farmers, Government did not take bold step to ban Endosulfan.

The concern related to the health and environmental impacts of pesticides, including Endosulfan is not new. The Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Agriculture and Co-operation, Government of India constituted a high power committee in 1991 under the chairmanship of Dr. S.N. Banerji, Ex-Plant Protection Adviser to the government of India, to review whether some pesticides, including Endosulfan should be continued to be used in India. Though the committee recommended the continued use of Endosulfan in the country it specified that Endosulfan should not be used
near water-bodies as it would pollute the water body and moreover Endosulfan is known to be highly toxic to fishes and that this should be put as a condition while issuing certificate of registration. In 1999, the Central Insecticides Board appointed an expert committee under the chairmanship of Dr. R B Singh to review the continued use of some pesticides including Endosulfan. The committee also insisted that labelling should be made mandatory in bold letters to avoid use of Endosulfan near water-bodies.

HISTORY OF ENDOSULFAN IN COASTAL INDIA

India is large consumer of Endosulfan in the world even today. Although many pesticides and insecticides had already been introduced then, Endosulfan only came to the Indian market in around the 1970s. The Plantation Corporation of Kerala (PCK) started trial spraying of Endosulfan in the cashew plantations of Kasargod in 1977-78. From 1981, the PCK started regular spraying of Endosulfan two to three times a year. And over 20 years of aerial spraying of this highly toxic pesticide on cashew plantations in Kerala and Karnataka has left many with mental and physical disorders. Victims suffer from horrific congenital deformities, physical disabilities, mental retardation and a range of gynaecological problems. According to a estimate issued by several organisations and concerned individuals, more than 9000 victims of Endosulfan have been identified in Kasargod district of Kerala alone, out of which over 4800 patients are bedridden, and over 1000 victims of Endosulfan have already died in this district.

The aerial spraying of Endosulfan was undertaken to control the problem of the tea mosquito bug which were consuming or spoiling the tender cashew nut flowers. They used helicopters to spray the Endosulfan pesticides. Unfortunately no guidelines were followed when the spraying was done. Plantation workers and poor localities were not cautioned about the precautions to be taken during and after the aerial spray of Endosulfan. It is mandatory that the people living near the plantations (where aerial spraying of the pesticide will be taken up) should be educated about the measures to prevent unprotected exposure to the chemical. Nearby schools and colleges have to be closed on the day of spraying and people and animals should be prevented from entering the sprayed area for the next 10 days. Wells and water sources have to be adequately covered to prevent contamination. The spraying should not be done when the wind velocity is high while helicopter engines should be shut 100 metres before the borderline to prevent the sprayed particles from spreading to unintended regions. But these precautions were not followed by the Government owned Karnataka Cashew Development Corporation except for publishing announcements about the spraying period in local newspapers, that too for a couple of years initially, and it was later abandoned. According to manufacturers, traces of Endosulfan cannot be found after three weeks, but in reality even 10 months after the spraying was done, it could be detected in water and soil. All these places receive more than 3,000 mm of rainfall per year, and one can imagine the penetration capacity of the pesticide in such a scenario. Some workers of the Karnataka Cashew Development Corporation (KCDC), engaged in aerial spraying of pesticide on the cashew plantations in the village, came to wash their containers in the stream. The next day, hundreds of dead fish, frogs, water snakes, crabs and other animals were found floating on its surface.

Pesticide firms argue that the chemicals are safe except for the lethal dose. In the beginning everybody was happy because of the control of insects. People went out to see the panoramic picture of spraying Endosulfan. But Just after three four years, the ill
effects of Endosulfan spraying came to notice. During that time, stunted growth and deformed limbs were noticed among new born living organisms.

By 1990s health disorders of very serious nature among the human population came to the limelight. Children were found to be the worst affected with congenital anomalies, mental retardation, and dangerous look like physical deformities. Men and women were also affected with various chronic ailments, many irreversible and difficult to treat. People were also exposed to the chemical throughout the year as it leched into drinking water streams. The people living inside the plantations were exposed to this hazardous chemical for almost 25 years. Therefore governments of Kerala and Karnataka banned the Endosulfan. Studies conducted after the ban of the pesticide show significantly higher concentration of Endosulfan products in environmental media like water, soil and lake sediments and human blood, even in a village 25 km away from the sprayed area. Most of the studies revealed the hazards of Endosulfan use and its impact on the food, water and beverages. Various studies conducted by Non-Governmental Organizations, Indian Council of Medical Research have revealed hazardous health impacts this organic pollutant.

A central expert committee has given a report to the Supreme Court endorsing ban on sale and use of Endosulfan in Kerala and Karnataka but said farmers in other states could be allowed to use the pesticide for agriculture. However, the expert committee jointly chaired by director general of Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) and Agriculture Commissioner of India in its interim report to the court found ample proof of health disorders among people and damage to the environment to recommend enforcement of SC's total ban on use of Endosulfan in the two south Indian states.

The major users of Endosulfan based on 2009-10 data including Haryana, Punjab, Bihar and Maharashtra did not report any negative effect of Endosulfan use on crops, human health, animal soil, and water with the exception of Kerala and Karnataka. Kerala was the first State to ban Endosulfan, in 2006. Karnataka banned it 2011.

**ENDOSULFAN PROBLEM IN KARNATAKA**

In Karnataka also ill-effects of Endosulfan were found since 1990’s. In Karnataka, cashew is grown only in the coastal districts of Karnataka. Dakshina Kannada district is the major producer of cashew nut in Karnataka. However, cashew grown in mostly in rural taluks likes Belthangandy, Puttur, Sullia and Bantwal. Therefore the consequence of Endosulfan was found only in these taluks. Among these four taluks, Belthangady was taluk was mostly affected by the Endosulfan. Health minister of the Karnataka State reported that out of 92 villages of four taluks, 5,221 Endosulfan victims have identified as having serious health problems. Among these 2,443 victims were identified in Belthangady taluk, 1372 in Puttur taluk, 726 in Sullia and 680 in Bantwal taluk. Among these 5221, 179 persons were immobile and bedridden while others are suffering from mental retardation and other deformities.

The KCDC aerially sprayed 32,604 litres of Endosulfan between 1980 and 2000 on 850 hectares in Belthangady and Puttur taluks in Dakshina Kannada. In addition, 11,225 litres were sprayed manually. The spraying affected nearly 20 villages. Health conditions in these villages are scary. The spraying in Dakshina Kannada was stopped in 2000 but contract labourers working in cashew plantations continued using the pesticide manually. Farmers are also using it in large quantities on
different crops and vegetables across Karnataka since it costs less.

According to the information provided by the activist aerial spray of Endosulfan severely damaged the flora and fauna of the area. Entire Belthangady has been earmarked as one of the rural taluks. Surrounded by famous Shri Manjunatheshwara temple at Dharmasthala, Belthangady taluk is situated at bottom Western Ghats and Nethravati River. It is also covered by dense forest. But due to Endosulfan the rich faunal diversity had lost. Large number wildlife like red monkeys, sparrow, crows, frogs, honey bees snails which were present in abundant. But they were also disappeared when spraying was carried out. Secondly abnormalities/ deformities were also found after the aerial spray. Honey bees which were profuse became almost completely absent during the spray. Local fishes were also disappeared. Most of the types of birds also disappeared.

In this background a study was conducted in Belthangady Taluk where the effect of Endosulfan was more with following objectives.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To examine the toxic effect of Endosulfan.
2. To find out the magnitude of aerial spraying of Endosulfan
3. To know the socio-economic background the Endosulfan victims
4. To observe the sociological consequences of Endosulfan victims

METHODOLOGY

Area of the study:
Belthangady Taluk is one of the rural taluks of the Dakshina Kannada district of Karnataka, India. Of the five taluks in Dakshina Kannada, Belthangady is largest in area and the second smallest in population. Belthangady taluk is mostly covered by forests. During monsoon the hills of the Western Ghats provide scenic beauty. Belthangady taluk has an average elevation of 685 metres (2247 feet) above the sea level. It covers an area of 1,375 square kilometres (530.9 sq miles). Belthangady Taluk had a population of 246,494, with 121,288 males (49.2%) and 125,206 females (50.8%). The taluk was 02.9% urban and 97.1% rural.

The Universe:
Belthangady taluk has 81 villages. Among these Kokkada, Patrame and Nidle villages in the taluk are the worst hit by the Endosulfan. The cashew plantations of these villages were owned by the KCDC. It had 850 hectares in Belthangady. By the recommendations of National Research Centre for Cashew (now it is renamed as Directorate of Cashew Research) aerial spraying was stopped in 2001. But the villagers continued the ill-effects of this pesticide. It was reported 251 people were affected by Endosulfan in Kokkada alone and 180 victims in Patrame and Nidle villages.

Out of a total population of about 8,000 in Kokkada, Patrame and Nidle villages of Belthangady taluk, nearly a thousand suffer from mental and physical disorders, handicaps of various degrees, blood and other cancers, heart diseases, dumbness, blindness, deafness etc. The insecticide has also been credited with rendering many women unable to conceive. Officially, two deaths have occurred during the last some years because of the side effects of Endosulfan while unofficially, the figure crosses 60. The State Health Machinery has identified 2443 victims at Belthangady Taluk of Dakshina Kannada district.

The Sample:
For this study the most suffered Kokkada village was selected. In fact it is very difficult to reach the houses of Endosulfan victims. Entire village is located in a forest. Houses are
scattered and located in hilly type places. These houses are not easily accessible and without pucca roads. Pathways have been created by the villagers. One can find only one tiled house surrounded by arecanut trees or paddy fields. One can access only two to three houses in a day in these villages. In fact it is humanly intolerable to see the plight of Endosulfan victims especially children. We were frightened to interact with the families of the victims. Pictures of physical deformities, mentally undeveloped persons are pitiable. Therefore proper sample was not under taken. Randomly selected first few houses of Endosulfan victims.

MAJOR OBSERVATIONS

Social and Economic Background of the Victims

As we know poor and marginalised usually are the victims of social maladies. Same is case with the present study. It was found from the study that all the victims of Endosulfan were poor plantation workers and members of their families. Most of the workers who live inside the plantations and live very close to the plantation were severely affected by this pesticide. This is only due to lack of knowledge about the negative externalities of the Endosulfan. Poor and illiterate Muslims and Christians, scheduled castes and tribes and backward castes (billavas, kumbars) are affected by this problem. Even though they are getting minute compensations, family members reported that it is not at all enough. These victims always need the support and help of others for every movements and activities. Especially ageing parents found very difficult to physically support their children. It is very sad to know that parents have grown older but victims have grown up. Therefore parents were unable to go out for work.

Social dishonour and Humiliation:

Dangerous consequences of this pesticide have given birth to physical deformities among children. In fact it is very horrible to see the victims with physical deformities. Endosulfan mainly affects nervous system, endocrine system and kidneys. There are number of children with congenital anomalies in the area. Women are giving birth to deformities children resulted in the social boycott by their own families. Women mostly suffer from social humiliation. It was also found that people are hesitant to marry from this area. Outsiders feared that their next generation also may get affected. Victims feel helpless. They themselves choose to be confined to families and avoid social functions due to social denial.

CASE STUDIES

In Belthangady taluk, Kokkada village is giving enough for one to assess the gravity of the situation. Endosulfan-affected families greet visitors with anxiety and despair on their faces. One in six houses in Kokkada, which has a population of 6,000, has its members suffering from either direct or indirect effects of Endosulfan. The trauma of the victims’ family members is equally grave. “My husband committed suicide as he was unable to cope with our son’s condition,” says mother of Baby, a young Endosulfan victim confined to bed. She struggles to make ends meet as the monthly compensation that her husband was getting on behalf of her disabled son has been stopped since the former’s death. (The Hindu)

During 2001 to 2010 over 20 victims from the village have chosen to end their lives rather than endure their fate, points out Shridhar Gowda, a noted activist. While Endosulfan has affected people of all ages, it’s those children like Kokkada’s Santhosh Minezes, who were born after the aerial spraying began, who are most affected. Santhosh, 22, has been confined to bed from the time he was nine months old. Unable to speak or move, he
communicates with his mother through feeble groans and grunts. When his mother was pregnant with him, the cashew garden surrounding their house was being sprayed with Endosulfan.

Such stories are found abundant in the villages of Belthangady taluk.

**REHABILITATION PROGRAMME**

Various NGO’s have been demanding to compensation to Endosulphan Victims of Coastal Karnataka. One such NGO is the Endosulphan Virodhhi Horatha Samiti. It insisted the State government to action against all managing directors and officials of Karnataka Cashew Development Corporation (KCDC) right from year 1980 to 2000. The KCDC had undertaken aerial spraying of cashew plantations in the four taluks in these two decades. One of the known RTI queries by Sanjeeva Kabaka from Puttur played an important role in banning Endosulfan. He has given the details of KCDC warning villagers through newspaper advertisements barely three days before the aerial spraying was carried out. The advertisement released on November 21, 1980 by the deputy conservator of forests, KCDC, Puttur stated that aerial spraying would be undertaken between November 24 and December 15, 1980. It also gave the areas where the cashew plantations are located and warned villagers that the chemical is highly poisonous and not to allow animals to graze anywhere near the cashew plantations for 10 days after the spraying is done. The KCDC knew that the chemical was highly poisonous, but despite that they went ahead with aerial spraying for almost 20 years. They should be brought to the book and the rehabilitation costs should be recovered from them.

As India prepares to go to the Stockholm Convention in Geneva in April, there are demands from states to ban the pesticide in the country and globally. India is one of the countries opposing the global ban, thanks to a very strong pesticide lobby in the country. The Pesticide Manufacturers and Formulators Association of India (PMFAI) are raising the pitch just before the countries meet to decide the fate of Endosulfan.

PMFAI is now masking its economic concerns, a loss of hundred crore, by propping the Indian farmers and the inevitable debt trap if a generic pesticide like 'Endosulfan' was taken away from them and they were forced to use an alternative, patented by the EU and ten times costlier.

The PMFAI is leaving no stone unturned. They are shedding crocodile tears for the farmers who will now fall in the trap of expensive chemical pesticides. They are completely ignoring the non chemical alternatives that are available in India and being successfully practiced in states like Andhra Pradesh (non pesticide management), parts of Punjab and Maharashtra (zero budget farming) and Sikkim (organic farming). These alternatives have not only brought farmers out of the debt trap they have also preserved the ecology and brought back the pollinators. The Pesticide Manufacturers Association of India, from December 2010, began vehement lobbying to assure that Endosulfan was not banned. But it received a body blow after Karnataka banned Endosulfan in the state.

**RECENT EFFORTS OF REHABILITATION FOR ENDOSULFAN VICTIMS**

**Distribution of ID cards for victims**

The Distribution of identity cards for victims of Endosulfan began on recently in Dakshina Kannada district. Barring Bedridden patients, others victims were informed to collect cards at the camps.
**Colour-coded cards**

The card is in three colours: maroon for those with 75 per cent disability, yellow for those with 50 to 75 per cent disability and blue for those with no disability but are endosulfan-affected.

The card will be required for getting monthly pensions, cashless treatment in hospitals, day care centre and connected to below poverty level (BPL) and Aadhaar numbers. The card has a number, name of victim, date of birth, father’s name, gender and phone number. On the reverse side, it has name of the primary health centre (PHC), panchayat, and signature of signing authority (Deputy Commissioner) and medical officer. If the card is lost, the holder must report to the PHC.

**High Court Order on Compensation**

The High Court of the State has come to rescue the agony of Endosulfan victims. On January 27th, 2014, the High Court of Karnataka came to rescue Endosulfan victims. The Karnataka high court directed the state government to pay interim relief to the 6,140 victims of Endosulfan use in the three coastal districts of Karnataka. A division bench comprising Chief Justice DH Waghela and Justice BV Nagarathna asked the state to pay the stipend from March 1 2014 onwards. The sum has been fixed at Rs 1,500 per month to those whose deformity is assessed to be 25%-60%, and Rs 3,000 per month to those with deformity more than 60%.

The District Commissioner’s three coastal districts namely Dakshina Kannada, Uttara Kannada and Udupi districts have been directed to ensure that all the victims or their nearest relatives open bank accounts. The monthly stipend will be directly credited to the victims account and can be remitted in the first week of every month. The court also made it clear that the amount would be inclusive of the Rs 400 and Rs 1,200 stipend already being disbursed by the state government as disability relief.

Recently Advocate Vaishali Hedge was nominated to study the problems of Endosulfan victims. She had travelled affected villages of Dakshina Kannada. She had also submitted her Report and submitted a series of recommendations, containing short- and long-term measures. She suggested the establishment of 24x7 care centres in the affected areas, identification of victims, a list of private hospitals where they can get free treatment,

- equipping day care centres with physiotherapy and additional facilities, providing pre-natal scanning facilities (except sex determination) as most of the diseases are congenital and can be detected early and also extending employment to one member of the family. She also recommended payment of Rs 3-5 lakh each to families, depending on the deformity, a permanent ban on Endosulfan and an Rs 500-crore tentative corpus for rehabilitation of Endosulfan victims. We do not know when these recommendations really put into practice.

**MEASURES**

On the basis of some of the observations and suggestions of the activists and NGO’s, some immediate measures need to taken to the victims and their families. Some of them are

1. More special schools are required.
2. Networking of the existing schools can be done. Facilities of special schools are to be developed appropriately after proper assessment.
3. More training is required for teachers and other staff in special schools.
4. More vehicles are required for transportation of children to schools considering the geographical nature demanding long time for travel.
5. There should be communication facilities

6. Computer education programs can be started for those who can utilise it.

7. A day care centres for disabled adults with skilled care takers.

On the whole, this research found out the dreadful and terrible situations of Endosulfan victims and their families. Parents support to the victims of Endosulfan is really amazing as well as unbelievable. Most of them are struggling hard to look after the victims. Since women and marginalized groups are the worst sufferers, Social welfare Board, Minorities and Backward class of the State Machinery also should make sincere efforts to look after during the time of nonexistence of parents. Had it been the upper and dominant castes, the dismal state of Endosulfan would have been a smaller amount. The role of media, print as well as electronic in making aware of these victims should be appreciated.

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APPROPRIATE COMPONENTS OF ICT BASED WATER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM FOR SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

The analysis of water related issues in Sri Lanka in last decade point up main issues like groundwater contamination than surface water contamination. There are many institutes for water environment management in Sri Lanka and more than hundred policies, laws, regulatory tools and standards with some provisions relating to environmental protection and management. Also there are several projects and research to address the different water issues. However the expected outcomes are not achieved. The foremost reason for the failure is the lack of integration between institutes, policies, strategies and even in the researches. When consider existing ICT based water management systems in world is most applicable solution for identified requirements in Sri Lanka. Furthermore ICT based applications are involved with water management in different ways such as water quality monitoring network, analyzing and visualization result with future prediction. The purpose of this research is identify the relevant componts which are should be included in ICT based water management system for Sri Lanka.

Keywords: water, monitoring, analyzing, quality, visualization, Sharing
FORMULATION OF GREEN POLICY;
RESPONSE FOR DAMAGE FOREST IN EAST KALIMANTAN

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ABSTRACT

Massive exploitation on coals in East Kalimantan, Indonesia abandon hostile environment due to not wise policies on environment from local government. The government provided licenses for Mining Companies to exploration and exploitation the coals. According to Indonesia Ministry of Environment, in 2008, there were thirty eight licenses for Mining Companies in East Kalimantan. It means that deforestation have been increasing from 350,000 ha per year to 8,1 million ha per year since 2004 until 2008. The local government policies that provided licenses contribute to swift on severe environment. Furthermore, It is needed systematic and methodological policies involved various entities to formulate wise and sustain policies on environmental development. There are some possible policies such as time limit on contract for Mining Companies to exploitation. Secondly, compensation for local area and rehabilitate post-exploitative area.

Key words: massive exploitation, local government policies, licenses, systematic and methodological ways
A STUDY OF CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION RESPONSES IN WANDURUPPA, SRI LANKA; READING THROUGH INTEGRAL THEORY

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ABSTRACT

Climate Change is known as a global threat and as one of the most discussed topics in the 21st century. Due to rapid population growth and large scale developments, humankind is at a high risk to the impacts of climate change placing sustainable urban development at risk. Climate adaptation, reducing the risks is necessary to maintain the sustainable development. National climate change action plan has included adaptation strategies, but the climate change adaptation is a relatively new field in the field of urban planning. Climate adaptation theories are still emerging and yet to be applied and tested in empirical grounds. In such context, this research attempted to explain how do people adapt to climate exacerbated disaster, how planning agencies response to the same and is there a gap between these responses by referring a SriLanka case study while using the Integral Theory as the conceptual base. The study explains the gap between urban planning practice and Theories and effort to explain the reasons for these gaps. A study has emphasized the need to integrate the existing domains of climate change knowledge with the diverse conditions such as social, psychological, and cultural dimensions of adaptation.

Keywords: Climate change, Integral Theory, Climate Change Adaptation

INTRODUCTION

“One of the most significant challenges of the 21st century is, ‘Climate Change’. However, there may be uncertainty surrounding the scale, scope and the pace of climate change”(Khailania & Ranjith Perera, Mainstreaming disaster resilience attributes in local development plans for the adaptation to climate change induced flooding: A study based on the local plan of the Shah Alam City, Malaysia, 2012)

Due to rapid population growth and high density development, cities around the world, are at high risk to the impacts of climate change. Looking at the above facts, we can conclude that climate change poses a serious threat to many cities, placing sustainable urban development at risk.

JUSTIFICATION

Climate change creates several influences to low and middle income countries like Sri Lanka, where the financial capacity to manage the impact is limited and vulnerable populations are higher in number. Therefore, authorities are including adaptation strategies into their work. However, “knowledge relating to the climate change adaptation is a relatively new field and related knowledge is still at a low level” (Wamsler, Brink, & Rivera, Planning for climate change in urban areas: from theory to practice, 2013). Urban Planning is to be responsible and capable to adapt to climate change impacts. But the “specific role,
the actions, and responsibilities of the authorities remain uncertain” (IPCC, Climate Change: Synthesis Report 2007a).

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

1. How do people adapt to climate exacerbated disaster? How planning agencies response to the same and is there a gap between these responses?

**OBJECTIVES**

The objective of this research is to read the climate change adaptation responses of local communities and planning agencies in the Wanduruppa village in Sri Lanka through the concepts of integral theory of adaptation.

**WHY APPLY INTEGRAL THEORY TO CLIMATE CHANGE ?**

From a broader perspective, adaptation is not coping climate change impacts but also dealing with people’s beliefs, culture and their views. Integral Theory offers an innovative framework that can used in the process of Climate Change adaptation. It is necessary to incorporate the current climatic knowledge with the social and cultural scales of adaptation. Integral Theory recognizes how society can adjust to these different life situations such as social sciences, psychology, and culture. Theory shows that adaptation cannot be theorizes using only bio physical environment, it should also need to include personal and cultural facts.

Theory considers the subjective and objective aspects of thingstaken individually and collectively (quadrants); together with their levels of development. I use only quadrants. Integral Theory provides a complete system integrating four domains of reality with a preparation of value-system/world-view levels.

For further reference shows the quadrant diagram (Figure 1) and headings:

- UL: upper left, psychology
- UR: upper right, behavior and things
- LR: lower right, systems and infrastructure
- LL: lower left, culture and practices.

![Figure 1: Sample Quadrant Diagram](image)
**METHODOLOGY**

The intention of this study is to identify the Theories, Current Adaptation Practices and the gap between theory and practices.

First, this research reviewed the climate change adaptation theories, current adaptation practices. Integral theory was selected as the conceptual base for the study, therefore; the theory was reviewed to identify the key attributes of the climate change adaptation process. And then to identify the core adaptation practice in Sri Lankan context, few discussions were carried with selected practitioners and Wanduruppa was identified as the case study. The research explored, compared, and contrasted the planning authorities” approach and community actions to respond rapidly varying flood scenarios in the Wanduruppa village by using the Integral Theory as the conceptual base. Finally, identify theoretical understanding as regards climate risk and the linkages between urban planning and climate risk, with current adaptation urban planning.

**SELECTION OF CASE STUDY**

In the Sri Lankan context four types of core climate change adaptation practices can be identified. They are,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate Change Adaptation Practices</th>
<th>Practice Areas</th>
<th>Selected Case Study</th>
<th>Reason for Selection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Disaster Risk Sensitive Land Use Plan (UDA Plans)</td>
<td>Kanthale, Ambalanthota</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Sensitive Land use Plan prepared by UDA for the Ambalanthota</td>
<td>• Town Planners involvement was high. • The Plan was implemented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Disaster Risk Reduction and Preparedness Plans</td>
<td>Rathnapura, Batticaloa, Kalmunai, Balangoda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Climate Resilient Action Plans</td>
<td>Negambo, Batticaloa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Resilient Cities Plans</td>
<td>Batticaloa, Kesbewa, Ampara</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WANDURUPPA AS A FLOOD PRONE AREA**

According to the final report of Sri Lanka’s disasters from 1947 – 2007 Ambalanthota has been listed as one of the highest disaster prone DS divisions in Sri Lanka. The report further elaborates that there had been an overall increase in flood from 1993-2007 in the south of Sri Lanka. The main reason for the occurrence of the flood is over-spilling of the Walawe River, which is one of the largest rivers in Sri Lanka and outfalls to the sea from
Pattiya Waraya river mouth locates near to the Wanduruppa village, Ambalanthota.

The main reason for flood occurrence in Wanduruppa GN is Sandbar formation. Rock ridge act as a barrier and build a sand bar by obstructing the river flow. The other reason for the frequent flood occurrence is meandering of the river basin. Near to the Pattiya Waraya river mouth two canals, namely Seethawaka Canal and GodavayaEla are running in either direction almost parallel to the sea. Godavaya canal takes a right angle turn to go into the sea at Godavaya. Because of Walawe River meander, it declines the velocity of the river flowing and that backing up of water upstream results in floods.

RAINFALL AND RIVER FLOW

With a contribution of seven major tributaries 14808 million cubic meters of water flows down the river in an average year. The river has a carrying capacity of 450 cubic meters per second without causing flooding. But the river and its branches had a number of diversions and restoration programs disturbing the natural annual river flow, which leads to frequent flooding.

Average annual rainfall ranges 1000mm to 2500mm receiving mainly from Southwest and Northeast monsoons. The lower part of the basin obtains more rains of the Northeast monsoon. The highest rainfall records are from April to May inter monsoons and October to November from 2nd inert monsoon (Table 1).

FLOOD HISTORY

The table below indicates only the major occurrence of sand bar formation as informed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Max (mm)</th>
<th>Average (mm)</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan</td>
<td>137.92</td>
<td>18.38</td>
<td>Non – Monsoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb</td>
<td>116.34</td>
<td>11.05</td>
<td>Inter – Monsoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar</td>
<td>127.54</td>
<td>15.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr</td>
<td>257.83</td>
<td>56.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>107.18</td>
<td>18.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun</td>
<td>105.40</td>
<td>13.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul</td>
<td>61.21</td>
<td>7.73</td>
<td>Southwest Monsoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug</td>
<td>97.54</td>
<td>21.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sep</td>
<td>182.37</td>
<td>30.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct</td>
<td>214.37</td>
<td>46.26</td>
<td>2nd Inter – Monsoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov</td>
<td>269.99</td>
<td>57.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec</td>
<td>183.13</td>
<td>32.76</td>
<td>Non – Monsoon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Meteorology, Sri Lanka.

by the Ambalanthota Divisional Secretary of state support to open the barrier (Table 2).
**TECHNIQUE OF STUDY**

In-depth interviews were conducted for identifying the community adaptation regarding the flood problem in their village and urban planning practices for climate change adaptation. In the in-depth interviews a semi-structured questionnaire was used to structure the interviews. Parallel to that observation was used as the major tool for identifying community adaptation practices and the observations were recorded through the photographs.

Wanduruppa villagers and the responsible authorities are the two main targeted groups for the interviews. The Transect Route Survey was carried out to do the in-depth interviews to identify the community adaptation. Stratified random sampling was used to select the sample from three route clusters and 20 households were interviewed through the study. (See Figure 1) Here the random sampling is not much more obvious. Therefore the snowball technique is also used to develop the sample. This snowball sampling is mainly used when interviewing the officers. At the beginning one interview was selected randomly and the next one selected was given by the first interviewee.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Extent of Rice (ha)</th>
<th>Damage Occurred</th>
<th>Homestead</th>
<th>Houses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18.06.1993</td>
<td>200-600</td>
<td>Threat of inundation to the 2.5 months crop</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.5 months crop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.09.2002</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Mature Crops</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.09.2003</td>
<td></td>
<td>Salinity in domestic water wells</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.03.2004</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sea water intrusion to water board intake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.06.2006</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>Intrusion of salt water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.10.2006</td>
<td></td>
<td>Salinity in domestic water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Disaster Detail, Wanduruppa Pradeshiya Sabha

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*Figure 3.3 - Map of Transect Route Survey*

Source: DRSLUP Plan, Practical Action, Author Compiled
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Applying Integral Theory to Identify the Applicability of Climate Change Adaptation Theories in Urban Planning Practice

Before moving to the analysis of community and planned adaptation it is necessary to identify what are the attributes coming under the Integral Theory quadrant. Basically, as earlier I explain quadrant consists of four main domains of reality. But here, for conduct my research I only consider about the one domain of reality known as “Individual Interior Subjective Experience (Upper left [UL] domain)”. Table 3 shows the selected 07 attributes of Individual Interior Subjective Experience domain to an area Climate Change Adaptation addresses.

In this chapter using interior subjective domain and its attributes going to identify if there is a gap between:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UL Individual Interior Subjective Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experience</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Truthfulness</td>
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<td>2. Climate Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Denial and Emotions</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Perceptions of “agency.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Level of personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Capacity to engage across the spectrum of development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Attributes of Individual Interior Subjective Experience
1. Community climate change adaptation practice, and

2. The urban planning practice (DRSLUP Plan)

Do that I have identified several questions which, given answers to the above mentioned attributes. Below table shows (Table 4) how to amalgamate the community and planned adaptation with interior subjective experience domain in integral theory.

Table 4 - Application of Integral Theory to Community Adaptation and Planned Adaptation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of the Experience</th>
<th>Parameters (Detailed Indicators)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Housing Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Livelihood Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Social Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Climate Awareness</td>
<td>2.1. What are Climate and its Change?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Community Perception about climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Denial &amp; Emotions</td>
<td>3.1.Denial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2.Emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Perception of Agency</td>
<td>4.1. Whether people feel powerful to act?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2. Whether people have identified solutions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Level of Personal Development</td>
<td>5.1.Do people take leadership to change?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Capacity to engage across the spectrum of development</td>
<td>6.1.Do they join with any other environment groups of their area?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community Adaptation- How do they adapt?

Communities which are exposed to climate change impacts such as flooding etc... for years have their own wealth of knowledge about how to adapt. The effects of flooding excessively increase the vulnerability of the (Figure 1)

Figure 1: Concrete Foundation of a house

Houses on raising foundations are another adaptation practice. This method acts as a shield to avoid the flood water from getting into the house (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Houses with raised foundation

Another one is people intended to build two or more than one-storied houses, so as to prevent the flood damage. The main reason is, if a flood occurs, people who live in the house can easily go upstairs and also it creates an added value because household items be kept away safely from the flood water (Figure 4).
Adding high concrete shelves to the houses as well as a raised floor level to prevent flood water entering the houses are another community adaptation methods that can be observed in the Wanduruppa area (Figure 5 & 6).
Conferring to the plan; The Ministry of Disaster Management has provided the housing and construction guidelines based on the risk zonation. They recommend any proposed house or building in the study area must be consistent with need to minimize the flood damage. This can be achieved, by using materials, equipments and construction techniques that are unaffected by flood.

Interestingly, through the interviews it’s highlighted though the authorities took action to prevent flooding, but there’s something is still missing. One respondent from Ambalanthota PS elaborates although they guided people to build their houses;

“….They have been given with all the guidelines to construct their houses to reduce impacts of flood. But actual situation is they won’t follow the orders. It is true, they
elevated their houses, but not above the maximum flood level given by us.” (Ambalanthota PS)

DRSLUP plan has given guidelines to the community to protect their houses from floods. But when it comes to practice, there’s a gap between the authorities and the villagers.

COMMUNITY ADAPTATION – LIVELIHOOD ADAPTATION - DO THEY ADAPT

Livelihood consists with people’s abilities, assets, or activities required to secure the necessities of their lives. Frequent flooding always makes great cost to the Wanduruppa community. So to achieve sustainable livelihood, and to recover and cope with their shocks they have practiced several adaptation measures.

A.1. Type of Adaptation – Paddy Cultivation

In Wanduruppa paddy cultivation is the predominant livelihood option. About 59% of the paddy lands in Wanduruppa goes under water. To protect their crops, they used to cut a trench and drain out flood water at the river mouth by clearing sand barriers between the river and the sea. This was a risky job which required a higher level of skill and needs to be done it carefully. (Figure 9 & Figure 10).

A respondent from Wanduruppa said:

“….If a flood happens in a time where the rice crops are at its early stages the damage is very high. In this time period we are aware about the sand bar formation. When we get news of the sand formation quickly we go and remove it” (Nandasiri, 56 years)

Figure 9: Removing of the sandbar between the river and the sea

Figure 10: Observing the river flow and Seashore level
COMMUNITY ADAPTATION – SOCIAL NETWORKING - DO THEY ADAPT

According to the interviews carried out in the study area villagers have their own social networking system to reduce the damages of flooding. Respondents stated that when there was a flood incident, they hoot and notify the whole village. This informal communication network act as main communication method when there is a flood. One respondent interviewed noted:

“…. If we hear anyone hooting, we know it means flooding. It helps us so much because then we have a little more time to put our goods in a secure place” (Somarathna, 45 years)

Apart from this mechanism villagers have a committee called Walawe Integrated River Based Disaster Management Committee (WIRBDMC). When there is a flood, the committee leads the villagers through an announcement using information vans, assembling members and lead to remove the sand barrier. The committee members have experience and skillful knowledge of how to drain out the flood water by removing the sand barrier.

About 60% of respondents stated that they mostly depend on their know-hows (for example, gathering of the clouds, sand bar formation, etc.) and their informal system in forthcoming flooding.

PLANNED ADAPTATION – LIVELIHOOD ADAPTATION AND SOCIAL NETWORK

With reference to information dissemination, it was noted that communities first receive early warning of pending events through the use of media and information van. In an interview with Ambalanthota PS official, it was revealed that the Ambalanthota PS does not have the resources to predict flooding, and have to rely on radio and the meteorological department.

The livelihood sector of the villages was not addressed by the plan.

CLIMATE AWARENESS

COMMUNITY PERCEPTION ABOUT CLIMATE CHANGE

Here to gather information, respondents were asked if they had known about the term climate change. From the answers, about 60% of interviewees showed that, they do not know about the term climate change, whereas 40% figured out that they know about climate change. And also they stated they became to know about climate change via radios, Televisions and through personal observations.

Most of the respondents indicated that they have known about the climate change through personal observations. They said they suffered from frequent flooding recently at unexpected times. And also they highlighted that the raining patterns have become unpredictable. They noted it as below:

“The weather conditions have different from the last10 years; obviously it’s getting more and more worsen almost every year. And the impacts are increasing” – (Retired school Principal 70 years)

The months of November and December were recognized by villagers as times of the year when floods mostly occur. While conducting the interviews a woman noted:

“…. Can’t you see the world is near to an end that is why it rains a lot and also that is the reason for frequent flooding.” (Thanuja 38 years)

This understanding indicates there is a need to educate people about what is climate change, effects of climate change and how to reduce the impacts of climate change.
PLANNED PERCEPTION ABOUT CLIMATE CHANGE

DRSLUP Plan strongly addresses and set up strategies to provide training on climate change with a focus on adaptation to climate change. The plan proposed awareness programs on climate change and flooding.

In the plan they have arranged focus group discussions and awareness programs to educate the community about the Climate change, its impact, etc…. for that they used by radio, television and newspapers, leaflets because it will helpful for community members to understand climate change and the impacts of flooding and the role people play in worsening the situation.

DENIAL AND EMOTIONS

Due to frequent flooding incidents villagers are affected emotionally. The stress and trauma of villagers have vast impacts on their day to day life. From the interviews it was discovered that people who had also faced flood could not recover to their daily routines. Interviewees stated that they felt insecure when it begins to rain.

“…. At any time begins to rain me and my family does not sleep, we keep awake because we do not know the consequences.” (Piyadasa, 44 years)

And they also spend days and hours cleaning the water and the mud in their houses, gathering, arranging and drying their goods and belongings (Figure 12)

Figure 12 - Women engaged cleaning the mud in a house after a flood

This emotional trauma and shock create a lot of discomfort and inconvenience to the villagers.

PERCEPTION OF AGENCY

Community Adaptation - Whether People Feel Powerful To Act? / Whether People Have Identified The Solutions?

The study discovered that villagers of Wanduruppa have developed adaptation practices to deal and survive before, during and after flooding. When conducting the interviews we have identified that their adaptation practices have been in some way helpful. Once when asked of the respondents how helpful their practices have been, most interviewees noted that their strategies reduce the housing and livelihoods damage owing to the frequent floods.

“Earlier it was easy for the flood water to enter my house, but after building this small wall it
is difficult for the water to enter the house” (Kamalawathi, 56 years)

However they identify several solutions, they do not feel powerful to act. As a respondent claimed:

“…Flood occurrence will be reduced if we cut a channel 20 km to the sea starting from the river mouth. But few of us cannot do it alone. Government must understand to get involved in this matter.” (Fernando, 48 years)

**Planned Adaptation- Whether authorities feel powerful to act according to the plan? / Whether plan has identified solutions to the exact problem?**

The study revealed that local government has the power to approve the housing/building plans given by the plan.

Additionally, one Technical officer of the Ambalanthota PS added that;

“….We cannot 100% satisfied with the co-ordination. Because Grama Niladari is the person deals all the problems of community. But he was appointed under Ambalanthota divisional Secretary. Most of the time mechanism goes between Grama Niladari and DS division. We [Ambalanthota PS] did not aware about what they do.” (Ambalanthota PS Interview)

Local Authority has the power to act according to the plan. But the co-relation between the authorities is low.

**LEVEL OF PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT**

**Community Adaptation- Do People Take Leadership to Change**

The other important factor that affects adaptation practices are to make a responsible group for flood management as well as leaders to take charge. When respondents were questioned to answer above mentioned factors, about 50% of the answers proposed both the individuals and as a group villager responsible for managing the flooding. But considerably 60% of the answers indicated the responsibility goes for Ambalanthota Pradeshiya Sabha and Divisional Secretariat division.

However, flood risk management is a common duty. Not only the government community also responsible for managing flooding. Therefor it is necessary to educate people about managing flooding.

**Planned Adaptation- Do Plan Encourage People to Take Leadership**

The study shows that the plan encourages institutions to give support and assistance to flood prone community. That assistance is as follows;

1. **Training programs**

   According to the plan training programs are conducted for

   - Evacuation
   - Boat Training
   - Search and Rescue
   - Camp Management
   - First Aid
   - Security

2. **Awareness creation programs**

   Awareness creation programs are organized by DMC and Ambalanthota PS through the radio, television, information vans to aware and share about the flooding information.

3. **Material Support**

   Materials like JCB (Bako) equipments, boats are provided by Ambalanthota PS to remove the sand bar in Walawe River Mouth. Material support includes medical support, food, clothing, and temporary housing etc...
This Plan highly encourages people to take leaderships in necessary situations. It educates and makes them aware regarding the way of acting in flooding with minimizing the impacts of it.

CAPACITY TO ENGAGE ACROSS THE SPECTRUM OF DEVELOPMENT

Community Adaptation - Do they joined with any other relevant groups in their area
This section of the study discussed about community interconnection with other relating groups in adapting to the damage of flooding. There are a few initiatives ongoing such as Thereputhabaya Farming Society. When conducting the interviews it was discovered that there is low participation of villagers in flooding discussions and in their meetings. This indicates a lack of unity within the community. Failure of community members to participate the meetings is as follows;

“Firstly, we used to meet as a community but we have stopped because local authority do not consider our views”, (Kamala 28 years).

Another member also recounted,

“Over the months we usually held meetings to be aware of how to deal with flooding issues but it did not give any result later and we stopped meeting.” (M.Yatila, 36 years)

People have stopped attending meetings as many of their suggestions are ignored by local authority.

Planned Adaptation - Are there any groups introduced by plan to join people about reduce impacts about flood?
Document review shows that community members should actively participate in the development planning process of the Ambalanthota PS meeting. The Plan encourages institutions like Ambalanthota PS, Ambalanthota DS, UDA, DMC to integrate with community when conducting meetings about flood prevention as community is the main victims.

The main task of the DRSLUP plan was to find a practical, sustainable solution to the frequent flooding with the participation of the inhabitants of the area. The Plan identifies the solutions for flooding by prioritizing the means of community participation.

COMPARISON OF COMMUNITY ADAPTATION AND PLANNED ADAPTATION: IDENTIFICATION OF GAP

This study reveals not only the strategies, devise by community members coping and adaptation to floods, but also government policies to cope and prevent floods. Appling the Integral Theory UL domain analysis going to analyze the gap between community adaptation and planned adaptation. Table 4 indicates the application of UL domain to adaptive measured used by the communities and authorities.

Table 4: The application of UL domain to adaptive measured used by the communities and authorities to identify the gap.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of the Experience (UL) Domain</th>
<th>Community Adaptation</th>
<th>Planned Adaptation</th>
<th>Inference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truthfulness</td>
<td>Household Adaptation</td>
<td>Authorities given building guidelines and regulations to practice (Elevate foundation, water</td>
<td>Community and authority both used adaptation practices to flooding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Settlers have retrofitted houses (e.g. Elevation, Slabs, concrete shells)</td>
<td>- People have elevated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
resistant materials, two storied). Foundations, but the height limits are different. Plan has mentioned the maximum flood limit but people have considered the annual frequent flood height. People considered the cost vs. frequency of flood.
- Some houses have elevated as layers instead of elevating the entire foundation.
- Some people are not afford to water resistant building materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Livelihood Adaptation</th>
<th>Villagers adapt their livelihood to respond flood.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Farmers cut the bar mouth when flood occurs during harvesting season but they do not during seedling season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Many of the men preferred to work in surrounding areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Fishermen do not go for fishing during heavy rain in the upstream.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan did not address the livelihood sector of the community.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Network</th>
<th>Having good Conduct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| Comparing to | Only the community used adaptations to protect their livelihoods. |
| Adaptation | community cohesion.  
- Informal early warning communication and evacuation | rehearsal to prepare for floods  
Mobile loudspeakers for early warning | the formal early warning system informal method is much efficient.  
- Informal communication is faster, certain and trustworthy |
|---|---|---|---|
| Climate Awareness | Awareness on climate change and flooding, community members should be educated.  
60% of the people having lack knowledge about climate change and its impacts.  
Strong local knowledge on flood occurrence, early warning signs by environmental and experiential knowledge. (looking at sky and clouds, wind and rain) | Plan strongly addresses how to educate people about climate change. It proposed various climate awareness programs to give knowledge about what is climate change, its impacts and how to overcome those impacts. | Authorities do not take much action to educate people about climate change, community knowledge.  
Community do not much interested to attend these awareness programs rather they believe their community know-how |
| Denial & Emotions | People living in Wanduruppa are emotionally frustrated. This emotional shock creates a lot of discomfort and inconvenience to the villagers.  
- People cannot sleep during heavy rainy days as floods are highly | Plan did not address about people’s emotions, their physiological feelings or traumas. | Due to frequent flooding people live in emotional stress, but authorities did not take any actions to reduce people’s frustration. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Perception of Agency** | Commun
ity have the knowledge how to reduce the flood damage, but their actions are mainly at household level. They have suggestions on how plan should be prepared but they do not have the power to act according to that knowledge. |
| **Plan** | Plan has been prepared with community consultation, but implementing agency (local Authority) does not consult community. |
| **There is a gap between community and authority in the plan implementation process.** |
| **Level of Personal Development** | People do plan and act to respond the flood at household level. |
| **Plan** | Plan suggested to educate people, how to act at flooding and minimize the impacts of flooding |
| **There are gaps between perception** |
| **Capacity to engage across the spectrum of development** | Community thought the village level development as a responsibility of government. Community participation is lacking in annual meetings. |
| **Community** | Given more priority for community participation to identify the solutions for frequent flooding. |
| **Community participation in future planning meetings is lacking.** |
| - People have stopped attending meetings as many of their suggestions are ignored by local authority. |
CONCLUSION

Climate change is a serious threat to 21st century. The impacts of these changes are severe and uncertain. Therefore, there is an urge of urban planning when handling climate change impacts. In urban planning practice, climate adaptation being still a relatively new field of activity, related knowledge and competence is however still scarce. Theories are still emerging. Practice is urgent and many actions are already taken.

This study discovered, how do people adapt to climate exacerbated disaster, how planning agencies response to the same and is there a gap between these responses by using the Integral Theory as the conceptual base. Through the results and discussions in the preceding chapters the study shows that significant gap between adaptation practices of Wanduruppa local community and planning.

Some areas which are mentioned in the theory only within the practice of community and some are only at plan such as Livelihood adaptation.

Some of the attributes in the theory consider only in one phase of the planning process, while not in the other phases.

E.g. Perception of Agency - Plan has been prepared with community consultation, but implementing agency (local Authority) does not consult the community.

For an integrated solution, it is necessary to involve all stakeholders. It is not only the responsibility of the communities or the local government, but also an integration of both community and the authorities. Additionally, what is not always explained by officials is in spite of building regulations and controls still unsuitable constructions are taking place due to political pressure and corruption at Ambalanthota PS. Authorities need to adequately recognize and integrated diverse life conditions such as psychology, culture, emotions when prepare a plan.

I recommended this research finding will contribute to knowledge development and organizational learning in urban planning practice in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, that any action research can conduct by using the results found in this study. And also the focus of this research will limit to identify theory & given practice. This cannot be generalized without more studies.

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HUMANITARIAN LOGISTICS: CHALLENGES FOR HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Exponentially increased number of disasters and continuous failure of humanitarian aid lead to increase in attention towards humanitarian logistics. This paper aims at understanding the conceptual framework of humanitarian logistics with a special focus on the human resources involved in the disaster relief operations. The study used a conceptual research methodology through an extensive literature review from both academic and practitioner journals. The study attempts to identify the challenges for planning and managing human resources for a humanitarian-aid organization considering the uncertainty of disaster location and intensity. The study also tried to indicate the scope for further research in the area. The paper is conceptual in nature and empirical research is required to validate the findings. The study sets an agenda for academic research. The findings of the study will help the academia to establish a framework for studying the humanitarian organizations which are different from the general business organizations. The study also provides a tool for the practitioners to understand the challenges, plan, hire and retain the human resources accordingly. Research focus from academia in the area of humanitarian logistics is less compared to practitioner’s research. Also, not much research concentrated on the human resources aspect of disaster management which is different when compared to the business organizations.

Keywords: Humanitarian Logistics, Disaster Management, Emergency Services, Human Resources, demand-supply of labor etc.

INTRODUCTION

On 16 June 2013, when half the world just woke up for a new day, not knowing what was happening in Uttarakhand, where thousands were waiting for once in a lifetime pilgrimage at Kedarnath, one of the holy shrines in India. At Kedarnath, another day with pilgrims started and in no time, Holy Ganges shook life disastrously. The cloud burst resulted in a massive destruction of life. As Indian Meteorological Department (IMD) in 2010 explained “cloud burst”, occurs when a cloud empties out its water content at speeds of over 10 cm per hour for more than an hour at one place and in Uttarakhand the total rainfall was 261 cm in three days. It took almost 15 days for the armed forces to rescue the people affected by the disaster while the Government announced that it might take 3 years to reopen the holy shrine for pilgrims. However, there are no official reports from the Government of India discussing the same.

According to the Disaster Management Act, 2005 of India, “Disaster Management means a continuous and integrated process of planning, organizing, coordinating and implementing measures which are necessary or expedient for-

1. Prevention of danger or threat of any disaster;
2. Mitigation or reduction of risk of any disaster or its severity or consequences
3. Capacity-building  
4. Preparedness to deal with any disaster  
5. Prompt response to any threatening disaster situation or disaster  
6. Assessing the severity or magnitude of effects of any disaster  
7. Evacuation, Rescue and Relief  
8. Rehabilitation and reconstruction

There is a general agreement that the world is increasingly experiencing the frequency and severity of natural and man-made disasters (Roh et al., 2008) over the few years (Fig. 1). Though, the numbers of people who are killed because of disasters has come down (Fig. 2), the numbers affected has exponentially gone up (Fig. 3). Considering the high cost of restoration, it is important that a proactive action is taken to reduce the impact (Veen, 2004; Alexandar, 2005).

Fig 1. No. of disasters reported 1900-2011

Fig 2. No. of people reported killed by natural disasters 1900-2011

Fig 3. No. of people reported affected by natural disasters 1900-2011.

Fig. 4. Estimated Damage caused by reported natural disasters 1900-2011.

A status report of Disaster Management in India (2005) clearly defined the framework, policies and procedures assigning the roles to the concerned personnel but, there is no evaluation of its implementation. Thomas and Mizushima (2005) called for ‘increased professionalization of humanitarian logistics through improved personnel selection, training and education.’

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This conceptual paper intends to present a clear overview of the concept of “humanitarian logistics” in general and the challenges for human resource functions” in particular. The paper also attempts to illustrate the thrust areas of humanitarian aid in India and identify the challenges from the existing challenges. Further, the study aims to propose an empirical study for advance research.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study used a qualitative method for understanding the concept of humanitarian logistics from the review of existing literature. It also tried to identify the HR challenges of humanitarian organizations from the studies done so far. The study used secondary data
from scholarly journals and research databases.

**HUMANITARIAN LOGISTICS: A LITERATURE REVIEW**

Exponentially increased number of disasters and continuous failure of humanitarian aid lead to increase in attention towards humanitarian logistics. The Fritz Institute of San Francisco, which worked on professionalization of humanitarian logistics, defined it as:

“The process of planning, implementing and controlling the efficient, cost-effective flow and storage of goods and materials, as well as related information, from the point of origin to the point of consumption for the purpose of alleviating the suffering of vulnerable people. The function encompasses a range of activities, including preparedness, planning, procurement, transport, warehousing, tracking and tracing, customs clearance etc.” (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005).

Business logistics and humanitarian logistics don’t differ in many characteristics. In either, it is about reacting to the situation with controlled costs (Chandes & Pache, 2010) but in the later, the lives are at stake and the acute time-frame makes it more complicated for co-ordination between the different stakeholders. A highly unpredictable damage caused by a disaster often creates a demand, meeting which can be operationally challenging (Cassidy, 2003; Murray, 2005). Wassenhove (2006) pointed out that about 80% of expenditure of not-for-profit organizations can be classified under the broad heading of “logistics”.

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

The very nature of humanitarian logistics defines different types of firms (Kovacs & Spens, 2009) providing humanitarian aid based on their response phase (Safran, 2005: Fig. 5). Some of the classifications are: Supranational aid agencies, Governmental Organizations, Big International Non-Governmental Organizations and One-man Non-Governmental Organizations. The difference in the organizational structures affects the response times of these organizations. However, the basic framework driving every humanitarian organization (Fig 6) divides the functions under three broad headings: Preparation, Response and Reconstruction (Kovacs & Spens, 2009).

![Fig. 5: Disaster Management Cycle. Source: Safran, 2005.](image-url)

organizations are able to achieve the The role, generally, of humanitarian organizations is visible mainly during the disaster, emergency, transition and recovery phases (Fig 5) but during the Prevention phase, it seems to be often neglected (Chaikin, 2003). Murray (2005) highlights the donors also insist that their aid should directly reach the affected and
not to be used for back office operations. Hence, training, preparation and prevention are generally neglected. Though logistics serves as a bridge between preparedness and response (Thomas, 2003), when it comes to implementation, only few results better.

![Diagram of disaster relief logistics framework](source)

**Fig. 6: A framework for disaster relief logistics (Source: Kovacs & Spens, 2009)**

Academically, the preparedness phase has received higher attention and hence, developed several decision support systems by creation and validation of realistic disaster scenarios. But all such systems assume the input data, generally the demand for goods, personnel etc. but fewer deal with immediate response phase and dynamic nature of disasters (Ozdamar et al., 2004). However, independent to the type or intensity of the disaster, certain items like water, medicine, chlorination tablets, blankets, tents etc. (Dignan, 2005), are frequently needed by the affected. Organizations like UNICEF, continuously collect such items and develop an inventory (Dignan, 2005) while some arrange for a ‘pre-purchasing’ agreement with the suppliers of such items (Murray, 2005).

The very nature of a disaster requires immediate response and the uncertainty of the situation and location till the disaster makes it more complicated. The efficiency and effectiveness of the relief operation depends extremely on the logistics as it forms 80% of the total cost of operation (Van Wassehove, 2006). The number of lives saved and the volume of area reached in the acute time-frame differentiates the success and failure of the logistics system.

The reconstruction phase often receives lesser attention from many humanitarian logistics organization. Most of the time, this phase is left to the Public departments which are entrusted with the responsibility of the infrastructure development. Kovacs & Spens (2007) highlighted that the effects of the disaster have severe consequences for a long time after the disaster.

The interesting portion of the whole process is the shift from speed to cost during the transition between the phases of disaster relief. Most of the humanitarian organizations receive and spend their funds during the response phase while the preparedness and reconstruction are generally ignored by the donors too.

**STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR HUMAN RESOURCES**

It is terrible to think that every disaster (natural or man-made) would be alike and plan the resources accordingly. Hence, planning for standardized procedures seems obsolete in humanitarian logistics. Yet, NPOs also compete over their competitors to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage through
core sets of knowledge and expertise of the personnel (Bohlander & Snell, 2004).

COMPETENCIES OF HUMANITARIAN 
LOGISTICIAN

For the effective functioning of a Humanitarian Logistics Organizations, it is understood that human resources play a key role. Hence, it is crucial to hire, develop and retain the “right” person at the “right” time in “right’ numbers. Tatham et al. (2010) illustrated the different skills and attributes that are essential in the personnel of disaster relief organizations (fig.7) in a T-Shaped model. An empirical study of strategic human resource management implications to humanitarian organizations by Hester (2005) yielded interesting results. It underlined that human capital (in terms of education and work experience) is not a better indicator of organizational performance but optimized training and minimized employee turnover can better predict performance, as suggested by Delaney & Huselid, 1996. Hence, as also recommended by Barney (1991), training for competencies can help NPOs improve their performance.

![The T-shaped model of logistics skills](https://example.com/t-shaped-model.png)

*Fig.: 7 The T-shaped model of logistics skills (Source: Tatham, Kovacs & Larson, 2010)*
Goulet & Frank (2002) emphasized that employees in NPOs are more committed to their organizations as against the employees of for-profits who are more committed to their careers. Hence, a retention configuration of for-profits (Collins, 2000) to enhance careers may not appeal to NPO employee. Out of the nine factors determining organizational climate of Litwin and Stringer (1968) (as cited by Montgomery, 2006), ‘responsibility’, ‘risk’, ‘support’ and ‘identity’ help retain an NPO employee. Burke & Lindsay (1985) found that, in order to retain an NPO employee; he must perceive some ‘level of achievement and satisfaction’. A Hay Group study (1999) found that 90% of 500,000 NPO employees mentioned that ‘learning’ and ‘making a difference’ as the top reasons for staying with an organization. Another study (Gershwin, 1996) pointed out that employees who participated in workplace learning had 21% higher retention rate than their counterparts.

CONCLUSION
The study revealed that the efficiency of HL organizations often depends on the planning and right functioning of the resources in the different phases of disaster. Though the visibility of such organizations is generally high during the immediate response phase, support from the Government and donors during the preparation and reconstruction phase are equally essential. With increase in frequency of disasters, focus of the disaster relief organizations on planning, acquiring, developing and retaining the human capital is highly crucial as it is them who act with all their strength during the response phase. The study highlighted the skills that are vital for the humanitarian logisticians and further study in this area would help us understand the HR processes involved in attaining such competencies. Also, a further study is aimed to conduct an empirical research to validate the skills and understand the specific HR processes in-use by select humanitarian-aid organizations.

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GIS BASED TSUNAMI RISK ASSESSMENT IN WELIGAMA, SRI LANKA.

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ABSTRACT

A tsunami is a natural coastal hazard generated in the deep ocean as a result of an earthquake, volcanic activity, submarine landslide or meteoritic impact. The 26 December 2004 earthquake off the west coast of Sumatra, Indonesia generated one of the deadliest tsunami in history. It demolished the coastal areas of Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, and Thailand, as these countries located shadow zone of this tectonic belt. Over thirty thousand lose their lives and also millions of worth extensive property damaged. As Sri Lanka situated in a shadow zone of the earthquake generated belt preparedness is very important factor. The study focused towards creation of a Tsunami risk map for Weligama area. The numerical simulation of tsunami inundation was carried out using ComMIT model with the major input parameters of earthquake source parameters, topography and bathymetry data. The December 2004 Sumatra Earthquake source parameters were used for generation, propagation, and coastal amplification of the tsunami waves and finally the inundation extent and water level was obtained to prepare large scale action maps on tsunami inundation to protect the coastal communities. The GIS tool has been used to incorporate the tsunami inundation depth to prepare the final tsunami risk map. Reliability of model results was compared with the field data and a high resolution QuickBird images with pre and post tsunami. The results from this study will be useful for long – term planning in vulnerable coastal communities and providing early warnings to take precautions to reduce impacts of tsunami in future.

Keywords: Tsunami Inundation, Numerical Simulation, early warning, pre and post tsunami, coastal communities.

INTRODUCTION

Tsunami is a series of large waves of extremely long wavelength and period usually generated by a violent, impulsive undersea disturbance or activity near the coast or in the ocean (Ramy, 2005). In the deep sea, it is propagate with high speed and the low wave amplitude. At the same time wave amplitude is rapidly increasing and converts in to killer waves and inundates low-lying coastal areas resulting mass destruction. When the tsunami waves reach shore, speed of the waves decrease according to the topography of the sea bed. Tsunami waves are mainly formed with the sudden displacement of seabed due to an underwater earthquake. In the deep sea, it propagates with a high speed and low wave amplitude. When the tsunami waves reach the shore, the speed of the waves decreases according to the topography of the seabed. At the same time, the wave amplitude increases rapidly and converts into killer waves and inundate low-lying coastal areas, resulting in mass destruction.

In order to reduce the impact of tsunamis, it is beneficial to have a thorough understanding of the area at risk, its population, infrastructure, and pattern of land use. In order to reduce the impact of tsunamis, it is beneficial to have a thorough understanding of the area at risk, its population, infrastructure, and pattern of land use. Early warning and evacuations based on inundation maps are the most strategic ways to minimize massive loss of life and damages to the property in risk community & most
countries now start to prepare disaster prevention plans. Therefore it is important to prepare large scale action maps on tsunami inundation incorporating land use details using a GIS tool. Hazard assessment studies integrated with inundation information allows determining level of vulnerability associated with coastal belt. Risk assessment process requires the use of mathematical models to simulate the generation, the propagation across the ocean, and eventually, the inundation for historical or hypothetical source.

1.1 Background of the study

Tsunamis are a major concern to the Pacific islands and Asian coastal nations because they may occur at any time, with little or no warning, and with destructive force. During the past decade, more people have died from tsunamis than from hurricanes, earthquakes, and floods combined. A tsunami is caused when there is a disturbance deep under the ocean such as an earthquake, volcano or a landslide. An underwater earthquake is the most common cause for a tsunami, but not just any underwater earthquake causes a tsunami. The earthquake needs to be a large enough earthquake of around 7.0 magnitudes or bigger.

Sri Lanka experienced its worst natural disaster on the 26th of December 2004 one of the hardest hit countries in terms of loss of life, infrastructure and assets. Current estimates stand at more than 31000 lives lost, over 4000 missing and 1 million affected. These are staggering numbers for any country, but especially for Sri Lanka when they are compared in relative terms and the capacity to recover (Herath, 2008). The reconstruction should take place based on an assessment of risks and appropriate measures to minimize losses from a future similar disaster. Although the frequency of Tsunami in Sri Lanka is very small, should avoid rebuilding the same disaster. To assess risks, accurate representation of topography when inundation impacts on people are considered. Therefore it is necessary to step up tsunami awareness effects such as tsunami forecasting methods and inundation maps at risk communities in Sri Lanka. Properly prepare against the threat of tsunami inundation, thus saving lives and protecting property. It is helpful for risk analysis process with population density and Land use information & Disaster management activities.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Any natural hazard results to a disaster depending upon its magnitude of the impact. Natural hazard such as an undersea earthquake may cause a Tsunami hazard to the coastal land region resulting in a disaster, damaging property and people. Since such type of natural hazards cannot be controlled, they can be monitored and precautionary/safety planning can be done along the coastal regions to safeguard from the damages. The assessment of Tsunami impact over the people and property was important for planning the relief actions. Hence the requirement for the Tsunami Disaster Mapping to identify the Tsunami affected for planning purpose is the essential exercises for managing future.

1.3 Justification of the Study

The tsunami impact study is undertaken along coastal belt of Weligama area, which is located at latitude 05° 51’ 14.697” N -05° 58’ 6.541”N and longitude 80° 34’ 57.477” E to 80° 22’ 7.139” E respectively. The study area was badly hit by tsunami waves and is highly affected to the fisheries sector as there is a major fishery harbour called Mirissa located close to the bay of Weligama. The tsunami resulted in major, but great damages to the Weligama area infrastructure & assets and lost massive of lives. Under tsunami inundation mapping along Weligama coast an integrated approach is adopted to identify the vulnerable areas.

The main objective of this study is to integrate a tsunami simulation model and remote sensing data with the available
topographic data using a GIS tool for Tsunami inundation mapping and risk mapping to identify the disaster risk to provide facility for decision makers to understand an evacuation planning & in public education & awareness activities.

1.4 Prior Knowledge

Inundation maps are depictions of coastal areas that identify regions, populations, and facilities that are at risk from tsunami attack, which could be used by emergency planners for disaster response and mitigation. Inundation maps require an assessment of local and far-field geologic hazards, and the calculation of coastal flooding (Kumar, 2008). Numerical simulations are useful tools for analyzing tsunami propagation, coastal amplification and inundation (Alpar et al, 2006). The numerical simulation of tsunami inundation was carried out using TUNAMI N2 model. The major input parameters for the model were earthquake source parameters, topography and bathymetry data. The December 2004 Sumatra Earthquake source parameters were used for generation, propagation, and coastal amplification of the tsunami waves and finally the inundation extent and depth were obtained for Galle city (Borah, 2007). The shallow water wave equations are governing equations behind the model. It uses a nested grid of topographic and bathymetric elevations and calculates a wave elevation and velocity at each grid point at specified time intervals to simulate the generation from Sumatra source, propagation through Ocean and finally inundation at land (Imamura, 1995). To establish a cost effective method and a quick determination of factors that influence damage intensity in tsunami prone areas, one must analyze the preparatory or causal controlling factors using remote sensing and GIS methodology(Willige, 2006). Tsunami intensity scale considers inundation depth as one of the vital parameter for quantification of level of damage caused by tsunami (Imamura, 2001). These depth ranges were chosen for hazard analysis because they are approximately knee-high or less, knee-high to head-high, and more than head-high (Timothy et al. 2004).

1.5 Study Area

The tsunami impact study is undertaken along the coastal belt of Weligama area, which is approximately 35 km long including the Weligama bay in the South coast of Sri Lanka (Figure 01). This area was badly hit by the 2004 December tsunami waves and is currently involved in large development reconstructions activities.

![Figure 01: Weligama Coastal Region](image_url)
1.6 Data and materials used

Bathymetry Data - single beam shallow water bathymetric data
GEBCO 30 sec. data
Topographic data - LIDAR 1:10,000 contours
SRTM data
Satellite Images- Quick Bird images (before and after the 2004 Tsunami event)
Digital Data – Land use data, 1:5000 building layer, Road network
Demographic Data - Census data (2001) from Central Bureau of Statistics, Sri Lanka

Data can be analysed and processed by using the following softwares:

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Data preparation

The run-up of the tsunami on to land is the most undeveloped part of the tsunami model, primarily because of the lack of the two major types of data i.e the high quality field measurements for testing of the models and fine resolution bathymetric & topographic data (Titov, 1997). Hence, in this study, all available local and global bathymetric data, topographic data and Lidar data were brought into the world geodetic coordinate system (WGS 84) and merged together to generate the Digital Terrain Model (DTM). By using Krigging method, data was interpolated for creation the three nested grids with both bathymetric and topographic data. Using DTM, all undesirable elevations and depths were removed and converted into ASCII grid format for propagation and the Tsunami numerical modelling to study tsunami inundation, maximum wave height, wave speed, and reflection in the Weligama coastal area. (Figure 02)

2.2 Tsunami numerical modeling

The ComMIT Numerical model was used for identifying the tsunami propagation, coastal amplification and inundation. The model was developed by Vasli Titov at the NOAA center for tsunami research, based on non-linear shallow water equations and governing equations. A magnitude of 9.2 on the Richter scale and 1200 km length of fault rupture were used as parameters of the earthquake scenario that was relevant to the 2004 Sumatra earthquake. It uses a three-nested grid of bathymetry and topography. A combination of high-resolution bathymetric and topographic data was used for the inner grid, which covers the entire study area while GEBCO and SRTM data were used for the other two grids. Models calculated the velocity at each grid point at specified time intervals to simulate the generation from the Sumatra source, propagation through the Ocean and finally, inundation at land (Imamura et al., 1995).

2.3 Inundation Map, Hazard Map and Risk Map Creation

The GIS environment has been used to incorporate and analyse the maximum wave run-up. According to the results, maximum wave run up “NetCDF” raster file used to prepare the inundation map of the study area. The computed inundation depth is classified into four ranges for quantification of level of hazard damages. The physical characteristics of the coastal area (land use and population) and the built environment in the area considered to determine the vulnerability. A risk to a natural event is defined as the mathematical product between vulnerability
and hazard; it refers to the expected loss from a given hazard to a given element at risk.

**Topographic Data**
- LiDAR Data
- Contours (From 1:10,000 & 1:50,000 map sheets)

**Co-ordinate System Transformation**

**Bathymetric Data**
- Coastline, Offshore & near shore bathy
- Nautical Charts
- GEBCO

**Data Preparation**

**Data Merging**

**Convert to Raster**

**Convert to ASCII**

**Tsunami Modelling**

**OUT PUT**
- Travel Time
- Run – up heights & Inundation Distance

**Model Output (Scenario)**

**ARC GIS**

**Inundation Map (Digital)**

**Hazard Map (Digital)**

**Vulnerability Map**

**Risk Map (Digital)**

**Disaster Risk**

Figure 02. Flow diagram of the methodology
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The inundation depth is one of the most important parameters for analysing the level of damage due to tsunami. Figure 03 indicates the computed inundation depth distribution along the Weligama coastal belt and the tsunami wave height was estimated at 3-4 m along the coastline. In this study, the inundation depth, which is given by the model, was classified into four levels; 0-0.5 m, 0.5-1.0 m, 1.0-2.0 m and greater than 2 m, using the Arc GIS tool for identifying hazard zones. Figure 04 indicates the Tsunami hazard map in the Weligama Bay area.

Vulnerability is defined as the potential for damage while hazard, for a Tsunami event, is defined as the wave height. In order to examine the vulnerability in relation to land use and population density was used. Vulnerability maps recognize sectors within the selected areas that are highly vulnerable to a maximum tsunami run-up and flood event. The inundation map integrates with land use based population density map of Weligama city to find the affected areas due to Tsunami. By using the weighted overlay method findout the risky areas in three stages like low, moderate and high risk (Figure 05).

According to the results of the tsunami affect in 2004, it can be realized that the area which was identified as the risky by the tsunami modeling, was greatly affected and lost massive of lives and damaged to the property. Hence, Preparation of tsunami inundation maps is very important for delineation of evacuation routes and long term planning in vulnerable coastal communities and to provide early warnings to take precautions to protect from any kind of natural hazards.

Figure 03: Inundation Depth distribution in Weligama Bay area
The results show the high hazard zone covering a larger area of the Weligama Bay and the coastline. The Quick Birds Satellite image clearly shows the damaged areas in the Weligama Bay (Figure 06) and overlay analysis has given a clear representation to evaluate the results given by the ComMIT numerical model.
CONCLUSION

The Tsunami numerical model was used for the tsunami hazard assessment, incorporating high-resolution near-shore bathymetric and topographic data to model the 2004 tsunami event. The results shows that the areas in Weligama Bay are in a high tsunami hazard risk area due to its low elevation and topography. The validation of the model results with field surveyed data on the 2004 tsunami event shows an 80 % match with the field observations. Accuracy of the Tsunami hazard prediction depends on the estimation of earthquake source parameters and accuracy of the DTM. Understanding vulnerability and hazard level, identification of possible mitigation measures, of the socio-economic impact caused by the event is very important to evaluate the level of the risk.

Tsunami risk assessment is performed in the study area incorporating tsunami hazard, population and land use vulnerability information. The risk map shows 97.61 % of the study area falls in very high risk zone while 1.735 % falls in moderate and the rest 0.65 % falls in low hazard zone. The inundation modeling used for tsunami hazard assessment incorporates high resolution near shore bathymetry and LIDAR (Light Angle & Detection Ranging) to model the December 2004 tsunami inundation even.

The study reveals that integration of remote sensing, GIS and demographic data with numerical inundation model is quite useful for tsunami risk assessment studies. GIS tools provide a scientific approach to the management of the possible disasters. The results output can be validating with the ground truth data to identify the reliability of the tsunami numerical model. The hazard map facilitates to decision makers to understand an evacuation planning & in public education & awareness activities & provides indication to demarcate suitable sites for rehabilitation. Understanding vulnerability and hazard level, identification of possible mitigation measures, of the socio-economic impact caused by the event is very important to evaluate the level of the risk.

Tsunamis are unpredictable events and increasing the uncertainty of preventive action, contribute to a very low social memory on these phenomena that is inversely related with a high demand for decision criteria based on scientific knowledge. This method is useful for tsunami risk assessment while the local authorities can use it for early warning and evocation purposes by creating different earthquake scenarios. The study could
contribute in reducing tsunami damage and planning mitigation measures in future.

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WOMEN IN PANCHAYATI RAJ INSTITUTIONS: A STUDY OF TWO VILLAGES IN RAJASTHAN (INDIA)

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ABSTRACT

The present research seeks to look into grass root democracy through the study of Panchayati Raj Institutions as it evolved since British Raj to present day, along with the main focus on the importance, role and participation of women in PRIs. It also aims to look into the difference in the governance pattern by an educated and uneducated woman Sarpanches, where one comes from the ‘dominant caste’ and the other from ‘dalit’ category. The view of women's empowerment as emerged from the above is a multidimensional one. It involves social equality through redefinition of women’s status in existing patriarchal and social power structures that can offer them freedom from impediments imposed by age old customs, beliefs and practices governing status and treatment towards them and ensuring them greater say in social and political spheres. The present study has taken note of such a broader view of empowerment of women, which receives little or no attention in most studies restricting themselves to mere presence in PRIs. This study laid stress on the role women played in and the resultant change occurred in their knowledge, skills and attitudes. As the main objective of the present study is to find out as to how women’s participation in PRIs proves to be ‘empowering’.

Keywords: democratic decentralization, gram Swaraj, patriarchy, women empowerment, leadership

INTRODUCTION

Panchayati Raj Institutions- the grass root units of self-government have been proclaimed as the vehicles of socio-economic transformation in rural India. Effective and meaningful functioning of these bodies would depend on active involvement, contribution and participation of its citizens, both male and female.

The present research seeks to look into grass root democracy through the study of Panchayati Raj Institutions as it evolved since British Raj to present day, along with the main focus on the importance, role and participation of women in PRIs. It also aims to look into the difference in the governance pattern by educated and uneducated women Sarpanches, where one comes from the ‘dominant caste’ and the other from ‘dalit’ category. And also the importance of PRIs should be obvious in country where almost 75% of the population resides in villages. The view of women's empowerment as emerged from the above is a multidimensional one. It involves social equality through redefinition of women’s status in existing patriarchal and social power structures that can offer them freedom from impediments imposed by age old customs, beliefs and practices governing status and treatment towards them and ensuring them greater say in social and political spheres. The present study takes note of such a broader view of empowerment of women, which receives little or no attention in most studies restricting themselves to mere presence in PRIs. This study lays stress on the role women played in and the resultant change occurred in their knowledge, skills and attitudes. As the main objective of the present study is to find
out as to how women’s participation in PRIs proves to be ‘empowering’

THE CONCEPT OF PANCHAYATI RAJ

Panchayati raj is not a new concept. From the Vedic period itself, Panchayats have been a part of the rural traditional cultural heritage of India. The word ‘panchayat’ literally means an assembly (Yat) of ‘five’ (Panch) ‘wise’ and respected elders chosen by the village community. They were also considered as the incarnation of God (Panch Parmeshwara). The village Panchayats handled their local affairs themselves without any help from the state. They had greater powers, both executive and judicial and even the King and his officials treated its members with respect and courtesy. The village Panchayats distributed land among the cultivators, collected taxes from the produce and paid the government’s share on behalf of the entire village. Groups of villages were formed for undertaking those works of public utility and welfare, which could not be economically or efficiently undertaken by a single unit. The functions of the village Panchayats comprised not only the normal civic duties but all conceivable kind of public affairs, industrial and commercial, social and religious, administrative, judicial and legislative. Their chief social obligation was education, health, sanitation, water supply and the maintenance of public distributions and emergency measures during the time of famine etc. during this period, the village communities used to discharge even such functions as internal defence and security, independent of the state, which followed the policy of non-interference so long as it received its share of land revenue.

Panchayati Raj is a system of democratic institution of local self-government at the village, block and district level set up under state legislation. It is a three tier hierarchic structure, at the village level; it has two institutions, namely the Gram Sabha, and the Gram Panchayat. At the block level, it has a statutory representative body called Panchayat Samiti; and a representative local body at the district level called Zilla Parishad. Panchayati Raj is a set of interconnected democratic and popular institutions at the village, block and district levels in which the representatives of the Samitis and Zilla Parishes and Cooperative organisations function with the support and assistance of various development agencies of Government working together as a team. The primary object of Panchayati Raj is to enable the people of each area to achieve intensive and continuous development in the interest of the entire population. Thus the village Panchayat is a decentralized form of administration for the participation of the people at the social, economic and administrative level of the country with the final vision of evolving an integrated Indian community.

The British Parliament passed the Government of India Act, 1919, by which local self-government was made one of the provincial transferred subjects under the charge of a popular minister. Thus, subsequently Acts were passed in eight of the provinces in British India for the establishment of village Panchayats. But in none of these states attempts were ever made to infuse the spirit of self rule.

Following the Government of India Act, 1935, popular ministers assumed office in 1937 in different provinces and they took genuine steps to make local bodies truly representative. The breakout of Second World War further pushed this institution into oblivion due to the resignation of ministries.

In spite of long years of experimentation and initiatives to vitalize local self-government, it was clear on the eve of independence that the task had not been accomplished. However, operation of local self-government provided educated Indian classes the working of representative principle and it created a democratic tradition.
The advent of independence opened a new chapter in socio-economic reforms embodied in the Directive Principles of State Policy enunciated in the part IV of the Indian Constitution which resulted in a federal system of public administration, adult suffrage and the acceptance of the objective of welfare state to secure to all Indian citizens: justice, social, economic and political and equality of status and opportunity.

73RD CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT ACT

It has been widely recognized by the govt., public leaders, and others those PRIs have not been able to “acquire the status and dignity of viable and responsive people’s bodies. The main reasons mentioned by the govt. and others for this are “absence of regular elections, prolonged super sessions insufficient representation of weaker sections like SC/ST and women, inadequate devolution of powers and lack of financial resources.

For this purpose, the 73rd Amendment Act, 1992 has been passed. In the Constitution, Part IX and schedule XI have been inserted to contain certain provisions for the panchayats from the village, the sub-division and district level. These provisions are:

I. Panchayats will be institutions of self-govt.
II. There will be a gram sabha for each village or group of villages comprising all the adult members registered as voters in the Panchayat area.
III. There shall be a three tier system of Panchayats at village, intermediate block/taluk and district levels. Smaller states with population below 20 lakhs will have the opinion not to have an intermediate level Panchayats.
IV. Seats in panchayats at all three levels shall be filled by direct election. In addition, chairpersons of village panchayats at intermediate level and chairpersons of panchayats at intermediate level can be members of panchayats at the district level.
V. Members of Parliament, M.L.As and M.L.Cs could also be members of Panchayats at the intermediate or district level.
VI. In all the panchayats, seats would be reserved for SC/STs in proportion to their population. Offices of the chairpersons of the Panchayats at all levels shall be reserved in favor of SC/STs in proportion to their population in the state.
VII. One third of the total no. of seats will be reserved for women. One third of the seats reserved for SC/ST will also be reserved for women. One third offices of chairpersons of panchayats at all levels shall also be reserved for women.
VIII. State legislatures have the likely to provide reservation of seats and offices of chairpersons in Panchayats in favor of backward classes.
IX. Every Panchayats shall have a uniform five year term and elections to constitute new bodies shall be completed before the expiry of the term. In the event of dissolution, elections will be compulsorily held within six months. The reconstituted Panchayats will serve for the remaining period of the five year term.
X. It will not be possible to dissolve the existing panchayats by amending any act before the expiry of directions.
XI. A person who is disqualified under any law for election to the legislature of the state or under any law of the state will not be entitled to become a member of Panchayats.
XII. An independent Election Commission will be established in the state for superintendence, direction and context of the electoral process and preparation of electoral rolls.
XIII. Specific responsibilities will be entrusted to panchayats to prepare plans for economic development and social justice in respect to 29 subjects listed in the Eleventh Schedule. The 74th Amendment provide for a District Planning Committee to consolidate the plan prepared by the panchayats and municipalities.

XIV. The panchayats will receive adequate funds for carrying out their functions. Grants from state govt. will constitute an imp. Source of funding but state govt. are also expected to assign the revenue of certain taxes, to the Panchayats. In some cases, the Panchayats will also be permitted to collect and certain the revenue it raises.

XV. In each state a Finance Commission will be established to determine the principle on the basis of which adequate financial resources would be ensured for panchayats.

XVI. The National Development Council constituted a committee on plan projects under the chairmanship of Balwant Rai Mehta and its report was submitted in 1957 with the main suggestions of instituting democratic decentralization in rural areas with the help of a three tier system- the Village Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti at the block level and Zilla Parishad at the district level. The same three levels have been retained even now but with a new vigor. Interestingly enough, another committee, known as Ashok Mehta Committee; looked into the functioning of democratic
WOMEN AND PANCHAYATI RAJ INSTITUTIONS

The political status of women depends on the degree of equality and freedom they enjoy in the shaping and sharing of power. The recognition of women’s political equality in the Indian constitution was a radical departure, not only from the traditional ideas about the status of women but also from notions of women’s rights prevalent in the advanced countries. The two major forces which acted as catalysts in the achievements of political equality of women were the national movement and the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi.

Women in India have been denied their due share in public decision making bodies even though there are some very prominent exceptions. Being relegated to the confines of their homes for centuries, they hardly come out to take part in the public activities.

Ever since the advent of women’s suffrage, women activist have been concerned with increasing the participation of women in leadership and other dimensions of political life. Women all over the world now vote in near equal proportion of men, but they do not serve in equal numbers in political office. During the United Nations Decade of Women, numerous recommendations were made to rectify this imbalance. In the Report of the World Conference of the U.N Decade for Women, held in Nairobi in 1985, resolutions were passed emphasizing the need for political parties to nominate women candidates to various political offices.

The revival of Panchayat Raj through the 73rd Amendment was an exercise in democratic decentralisation in the face of uneven progress in organising and functioning of Panchayats in India. The move deepened democracy by bringing elected government structures of village to intermediate and district levels through the mandate in the Constitution, whereas the elected legislatures are only at the national and state levels in the Constitution. It has also added 2.38 million elected representatives to 2, 46, 690 Panchayats. These included 1.26 million women, who constituted 44.52 per cent of the total number of elected representatives.

Rajiv Gandhi while speaking on 15th May 1989 to explain the rationale for the mandate in having Panchayats under the Constitution also mentioned the rationale for “securing reservations for women so as to fully involve them in the management of Community Affairs”.

Immediately after the Amendment and with the first Panchayat elections, women’s mandated entry in the new Panchayats led to number of studies, analysis and comments. This development of women’s entry in the political institutions could not be ignored but was addressed with disbelief and scepticism about any major impact. The role of the family members was constantly an issue for trying to work on their behalf. The myths about women’s passivity and disinterest in politics, the doubt that only well to do, politically connected women will enter these bodies and that they would be only ‘namesake’ members and proxies for their male kin hogged headlines in media and even in quick micro studies in different parts of the country. But then women’s entry and their socio-economic profile questioned these stereotypes.

As the present study is on the role of women as leaders at grass root level politics, attention will be paid on the changing role of women in Indian politics at the village level. The Indian constitutional law guarantees to all women the fundamental right to equality and political participation. It recognizes the political rights of women without any discrimination, distinction or qualification to participate in the decision making process at all levels. One of the important aspects of the political life in Indian democracy is electoral participation. A quick glance at women’s participation in
election over the past four decades confirms the initial hopes placed by the founding fathers of the Indian constitution. The extent, nature and level of Indian women’s participation are greater than in many other countries. Secondly, this participation has been more or less steadily expanding over the years. Thirdly, the gap between men and women, in the electoral turnout, is getting more and more narrowed. It is relevant to point out that the number of women getting elected to representative bodies is steadily increasing since independence. Despite the increase in the turn out, it is a paradox that the number of women contesting the elections still constitutes little of the total number of contestants. Even where seats are reserved as in Panchayats, women candidates do not come forward too easily.

Women, constituting half of the humanity are being marginalized all over and one of those marginalized areas for women is the area of electoral politics. The status of women in Indian context cannot be defined simply. In order to understand the nature of constraints and disabilities that affect women in the performance of their multiple roles in the society, the economy and the polity, they have to be seen not as a homogeneous group but as members of different sections of population according to the difference in their caste, class and community status.

The Constitution of India contemplated a social revolution brought about through the use of law as an instrument of social change. The attainment of equality of status for women was one of the specific objectives, which is implicit in the Preamble, Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy. In order to assess the impact of these constitutional provisions, one has to consider the legal and administrative measures taken there. Status of women in India is largely determined by traditional norms of caste and community.

In India the attainment of independence followed by the establishment of a Republic in 1950, brought to women the promise of adult franchise and complete equality of opportunity in all spheres. This equality is inseparable from active political participation. Without active and continuous participation of women at all levels of government, equality in all spheres cannot be achieved. Further, national development will be more effective if every citizen irrespective of being a man or women has an active share in all the activities.

The Committee on the Status of Women was appointed by the government of India in 1971 to evaluate the changes that had taken place in the status of women as a result of constitutional, legal and administrative measures adopted since independence. It was also to examine the impact of the complex processes of social change on various sections of Indian women, particularly rural women.

The Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act 1992 ushered in a new era in the history of Indian women. Indian women were fortunate in getting their franchise as soon as India became independent. However, the right to vote did not help them to improve their status. The PR Act gave them a chance to wield greater power, for the Act which came into effect on April 24th 1993 has a provision for not less than 1/3rd of the elected members being women, not less than 1/3rd chairperson at different tiers of Panchayat (i.e. Village, Block and Zila) being women. This means, that about 20 lakhs women would be contesting elections, out of which 8 lakhs women would be elected as members and out of which 80,000 would be chairpersons’ women, especially rural women could take part in decision making which has so far remained a far cry for them. The power envisaged in the Act has given them Constitutional rights to deliberated debate and decide important policy matters, which concern the people’s day-to-day life.
With the passage of this Act, women could stake their claim in the process of planning, policy formulation and execution of rural development programs and fund allotment. Also, laws can be enacted and amended, program planned and executed. The 73rd Amendment of the Constitution gave innumerable opportunities to women to redefine their power.

A significant feature of this Act was that, it recognized that although women had entered politics even earlier, real power had eluded them. The 73rd Amendment seeks to ensure that women not only participate in politics, but they are in a position to wield power.

Map of Rajasthan State

STUDY AREA

Rajasthan is located in the northwestern part of the subcontinent. It covers 3, 42,239 sq. kms, Rajasthan lies between latitude 23 degrees 3’ & 30 degree 12’, North and longitude 69 degree 30’ and 78 degree 17’, East. It is bounded by the international boundaries of Pakistan in the west and northwest, on the north and northeast by the states of Punjab and Haryana, on the east and southeast by the states of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh, and on the southwest by the state of Gujarat. The Tropic of Cancer passes through its southern tip in the Banswara district.

Rajasthan, meaning “The Abode of the rajas”, was formerly called Rajputana. When India achieved independence from British rule, it comprised 18 princely states, two chief ships (Ajmer-Merwara) and a few pockets of territory outside the main boundaries. After 1947 the Princely states and the chiefships were integrated into India in stages, and the
state took the name of Rajasthan. It assumed its present form on November 1st, 1956, when the recommendations of the Sates Reorganization Commission came into force. The Aravalli ranges, the world’s oldest mountain range, that run from Delhi to Idar (in Gujarat) divide the state into two parts. The northwest region, covering two-thirds of the state consists mostly of a series of sand dunes, is known as the Thar Desert. Bikaner, Jaisalmer, Jodhpur, Barmer, Nagaur and part of the Jhunjhunu, Churu and Sikar districts form part of this region. The rest of the state located in the eastern and southeastern region has large fertile tracts.

According to the 2011 census, the state has the population of 68 million persons of which 35,550,997 are males and 32,997,440 are females. Rajasthan accounts for 5.50% of India’s population and holds 8th rank amongst states and Union territories. Rural op. proportion of SC &ST, Sex ratio, literacy level-male & female

Administratively, Rajasthan is divided into 32 districts/ Zila Parishads, which are further, divided into 241 Tehsils, 183 Municipalities, 237 Panchayat Samitis and 9,184 Gram Panchayats covering 41,353 villages and 222 towns, according to 2001 census. The two districts of Rajasthan selected for sample study, namely Tonk and Bikaner represent two different cultural regions. The geographical profile has been discussed below.

Map of Bikaner District
BIKANER DISTRICT (SAMERDHA
NOSERA VILLAGE)

Bikaner District is a district of the state of Rajasthan in western India. The historic city of Bikaner is the district headquarters. Bikaner is also Division with the four districts: Bikaner, Churu, Sri Ganganagar and Hanumangarh.

The district is bounded by Ganganagar District to the north, Hanumangarh District to the northeast, Churu District to the east, Nagaur District to the southeast, Jodhpur District to the south, Jaisalmer District to the southwest, and Punjab Province of Pakistan to the northwest.

Bikaner district has five divisions: Bikaner, Nokha, Loonkaransar, Khajuwala and Dungargarh. In Bikaner there are two tehsils Bikaner and Kolayat, while in Khajuwala, there are three tehsils: Khajuwala, Chhattargarh and Pugal. Nokha, Loonkaransar and Dungargarh have only one tehsil with the same name.

There are 923 villages and 219 Gram Panchayats. There is one Municipal Corporation (Bikaner) and six Municipal Councils: - Deshnok, Nokha, Dungargarh, Khajuwala, Loonkaransar and Napasar.

According to the 2011 census, Area of district is 30247.90sq.km. The district has a population density of 78 inhabitants per square kilometer (200 /sq mi). Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 41.42%. Bikaner has a sex ratio of 903 females for every 1000 males, and a literacy rate of 65.92%. Nosera is a small Village/hamlet in Bikaner Tehsil in Bikaner District of Rajasthan State, India. It comes under Nosera Panchayath. It belongs to Bikaner Division. It is located 3 KM towards North from District head quarters Bikaner.

Nosera is surrounded by Kolayat Tehsil towards west, Nokha Tehsil towards South, Lunkaransar Tehsil towards North, and Sri Dungargarh Tehsil towards East.
TONK DISTRICT (SODA VILLAGE)

Tonk District is a district of the state of Rajasthan in western India. The city of Tonk is the administrative headquarters of the district. The district is bounded on the north by Jaipur district, on the east by Sawai Madhopur district, on the southeast by Kota district, on the south by Bundi district, on the southwest by Bhilwara district, and on the west by Ajmer district.

Tonk is situated on National Highway No. 12 at a distance of 100 km from Jaipur. It is located in northeastern part of the state between 75.19' & 76.16 East longitudes and 25.41' and 26.24' North Latitude. The total area of the district is 7194 km square.

According to the 2011 census, the district has a population density of 198 inhabitants per square kilometer (510 /sq mi). Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 17.33%. Tonk has a sex ratio of 949 females for every 1000 males, and a literacy rate of 62.46%. Soda is situated 60 kms from the city of Jaipur. It falls in Tonk district an erstwhile princely state which has now been declared by the government as one of the most backward districts of Rajasthan.

The Tonk district is home to more than 1,211,000 people with an average literacy rate of 53%, lower than the national average of 59.5%.

METHODODOLOGY

The sample for this study will be purposively selected from 2 villages named Soda (Tonk District) of Jaipur and Samerdha Nosera (Bikaner District) Bikaner respectively. Respondents will be both male and female and will be selected on the basis of variables such as: literacy and education, nature of employment, family background, age, marital status, religion, and caste and class background.

The present study will be based on research done through field work based on primary and secondary sources including both qualitative and quantitative research methods. It will be looking into the work done by the two female Sarpanches (taken for study) through case study technique of qualitative method. It is a method of intensively studying a phenomenon over time within its natural setting in one or a few sites. Multiple methods of data collection, such as interviews, observations, prerecorded documents, and secondary data, may be employed and inferences about the phenomenon of interest tend to be rich, detailed, and contextualized. Case research can be employed in a positivist manner for the purpose of theory testing or in an interpretive manner for theory building. I will be also proceeding with interview schedules and participant observation, again a qualitative research method, in order to understand the meanings and implications of the respondents for my study. The focus group interviews among the villagers who will be selected through stratified and snow ball sampling methods for semi structured interviews will also be done.

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ON TAIWAN'S "SEXUAL HARASSMENT PREVENTION ACT" VIA SUSAN BORDO'S FEMALE BODY POLITICS

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ABSTRACT

This research paper aims to connect Taiwan’s “Sexual Harassment Prevention Act” with Susan Bordo’s female body politics. And the research explains Taiwan’s societal awareness grown towards women’s rights of autonomous self. In the first chapter, the background about the establishment of the Act is explored with the accompaniment of two cases in Taiwan. In the second chapter, the author intends to a). explore the hidden motif behind the development of Taiwan’s “Sexual Harassment Prevention Act” through examining problematic cultural entity that has objectified women as "products,” b). expose male-dominant ideology through pop and media culture that confront with the essence of the Act in the third chapter, and c). explain the dilemma that women of the day encounter with. The author hopes that this paper can help shed a new light not only on women’s rights but also their body autonomy and bridge the gap between the Act and women’s right to body from masculine ideology.

Key Words: Taiwan’s “Sexual Harassment Prevention Act,” Susan Bordo’s female body politics, women’s rights, autonomous self, women as "objects,” masculine ideology

INTRODUCTION

RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION

The author has devoted to gender and sexuality studies in the past five years and presented more than five refereed papers in international conferences and published some papers in post-conference proceedings with ISBN and ISSN numbers. For example, a paper that draws how one's sexuality identity is determined by his gender and deals with how queer identity might be examined from a "soul mate" aspect was presented in the international conference held in University of Stirling, Scotland, UK. in 2010. Also in 2010, a paper proposes an adult man's presumed sexuality as a homosexual with the implication that he transgresses traditions in the Western society. Was he abnormal if this adult man cannot resist odor and delicate body of children back to the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century in Andre Gide's The Immoralist? Can the narrator be seen as a pedophile? Moreover, one of the author's refereed conference papers discusses the issue of sexuality that has transgressed and transformed across traditional gender boundary in Lord Byron's Manfred. The paper was presented in The University of Sydney, Australia in 2011.

As the author goes on doing research, he finds out that the legal development in historical
framework imposes binary opposition on issues of sex, gender, and sexuality. And nowadays in 2014, the author has a kind of disapproving feeling that judicial system seems to implicate and reinforce gender inequality even more than ever. Tension and conflict have formed with accompaniment of Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. Since then, a series of academic explorations that aim to anti-dichotomizes gender norms(either-or gender entity) have been undertaken in research fields interwoven with literature and culture, legal studies, social theories and criticism in the West.

However, Taiwan's judicial system towards dealing with sex, gender, and sexuality issues tends to be more conservative. Specifically, Taiwan's judicial system quite often deals with sex, gender, and sexuality issues with binary opposition perspective without taking social, gender, and economic concerns into consideration. And up the present, some research and legal studies have initially conducted to focus on legal discourse from sex, gender, and sexuality dimensions. However, hardly can anything academic attainment associated with how gender awareness forcefully influences judicial system and lawmakers be found. And an academic phenomenon that draws particular attention to the relationship between men and women has rapidly formed and become a target worth careful analysis.

This research paper argues that Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act should be examined through cultural norm without simply resorting anything about gender equality and inequality to/ through western judicial system in Taiwan. The author here does not deny the function of enforcement in judicial system and the function of criminal tribunal but he thinks gender issues need to be examined with a broader perspective from Susan Bordo's (female and male) body politics, for example, to see how the view of body as the (re)production of cultural and societal consciousness influences law makers to draft and pass Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. Since Ms. Bordo is adroit in connecting the image of male and female body with social media, advertisements, a track that explains how societal awareness towards the judicial progress in legal system deserves advanced studies.

Furthermore, the author asserts that any consideration that urges the birth of legal decision making can not fall into the myth of dichotomy and simply claim that women shall be protected and they deserve equal work opportunity. And that is all. Contrarily, a particular framework prescribed with Taiwan's cultural and societal context shall also be emphasized with a certain discussion of western concepts on body politics. As Susan Bordo notices,

"...knowledge is not something achieved by a pure mind that 'distances' itself from the object it studies. Rather, knowledge is 'embodied,' produced from a 'standpoint' by a body that is located as a material entity among other material entities" (Leitch, 2001).

As the rationale and motivation have been discussed, a brief outline that is layered with logical arrangements in this paper is shown subsequently. In the first chapter, the author commences from historical review with viewpoints from the West to discuss definition of "sexual harassment," and societal awareness towards its implications from mass media and mass communication, judicial system and workplaces. In the second chapter, Sexual Harassment Prevention Act mainly helps shape a progress towards women's rights not only on sex matters but also on their rights to dignity and body autonomy in Taiwan. In the third chapter, Fitzgerald's categorical model (1988) of sexual harassment is adopted to analyze Taiwan's and the West's categories of sexual harassment. Subsequently, Susan Bordo's concepts on female body politics is borrowed to highlight the significance of
Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. In the end, the author provides relevant suggestions and expected contribution towards the future research.

BACKGROUND

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE WEST

Three forces have confounded to ensure women's body and rights protected since the late 1970s. The three forces have their distinct societal entities and significance but coincidentally converge with a very unique way. Three forces are recognized as a). mass media and mass communication, b). judicial courts cases, c). workplaces and employment. Mass media and mass communication (Farley, 1978, p.15) play a determinant role in the progress of sexual harassment prevention and the establishment of act because they first introduced the term of "sexual harassment" (Wiener, 2007) to the contemporary public in 1978. In addition, judicial reform has been believed the second drive, which deals with a great number of cases and incidents about "sexual harassment." It is more complex because incidents taking place become a case submitted to civil courts for compensation or criminal court for corporal punishment and they involve divergent issues such as racial, ethnic, societal, and religious differences. Third, incidents about sexual harassment in workplaces have been talked about since the mid 1960 with emergent empirical studies by which women in real cases were observed to see whether they were sexually harassed or exploited.

In Gutek, A. Barbara's article, "How Can We Make Our Research on Sexual Harassment More Useful in Legal Decision Making?," "sexual harassment" was first introduced by a journalist in 1978.

Perspectives towards the issue that draws how women are discriminated from such contexts as family, workplace, governmental institutions through mass media and mass communication are always quick and sensitive. Lin Farley, the journalist, coins the term, "sexual harassment." (Wiener, 2007) and wrote a book, Sexual Shakedown in 1978 (Wiener, 2007). The book illustrates various incidents and provides the following definition of "sexual harassment." As Lin notes, "Sexual harassment is best described as unsolicited nonreciprocal male behavior that asserts a woman's sex role over her function as a worker" (Wiener, 2007). Moreover, as Leitch notes, "She [Susan Bordo] insists on the practical consequences for women's daily lives of feminism's analysis of contemporary culture" (Leitch, 2001). The image of a "worker" in the "social reproduction," and "practical consequences" has configured to signify that women are numb and submissive recipients because women's role over sex is noticed and emphasized rather than her function descended from biblical allusion.

More serious is the implication that women might lose their job if the matter of their being sexually harassed is revealed.

Furthermore, judicial campaigns that protect women from being harassed can be observed as from the origin of legal scholar's advocate over the definition of sexual harassment. Catherine MacKinnon argues that "sexual harassment was a form of sexual discrimination" (Wiener, 2007) Women's role, under the circumstance of workplaces, is often erased and is denied an equal opportunity. Ms. Mackinnon's argument parallels with the birth


1 In Gutek, A. Barbara's article, "How Can We Make Our Research on Sexual Harassment More Useful in Legal Decision Making?," "sexual harassment" was first introduced by a journalist in 1978.

2 In the Old Testament, God assigned women as a role that is supplementary to that of men. Once men and women are put together, they become a whole. From such an implication, it seems that women are subject to men and women shall be undoubtedly subordinate.
of "Title V II of the 1964 Civil Rights Act," which actively forbids "discrimination on the basis of sex," (Wiener, 2007) applied in every aspect of civil life in the U.S. From Ms. Bordo's viewpoints, "...the discourses through which society produces, understands, defines, and interprets the female body" (Letich, 2001) becomes more persuasive and overwhelmingly significant.

As an agenda in legal incident is pointed out, in 1980, "the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission established guidelines on sexual harassment," which sets a milestone to ensure women and their rights not to be exploited on job occasions. As Gutek asserts, "Empirical studies of workplace and academia started appearing in print..." (Wiener, 2007). In Taiwan, citizens have started to be aware of the fact that female body politics is irrefutably self-autonomous. Taiwan's societal concept from cultural consumption that explains women's body and rights to body autonomy subverts male-dominated ideology which denies women possessing their body autonomy. It is even magnified through the progress of judicial system and the judiciaries' intention to the protection of women from being sexually harassed. "'Social codings [through workplaces],,' as Ms. Bordo argues, 'of beauty, of motherhood, of sexual modesty or its opposite place the individual woman in relation to the prevailing images and conventions" (Leitch, 2001).

On Feb 25, 2013, a sexual harassment incident in Taiwan's military happened. A female corporal was sexually harassed by the major general who once took the position in Taiwan's Reserved Commanding Headquarters. The major general in this case is suspected to have harassed the female corporal several times in Taiwan's High Speed Railway and made the female corporal feel uncomfortable about the major general's vulgar language and behavior. According to Chinese Television System (CTS) news released on Nov 18, 2012, "Minister of National Defense has been irritated with the news and commanded that this incident shall be submitted to the tribunals for investigation." An uneasy relation among genders (male, female, and LGBT people) arises under such circumstance. As Susan Bordo asserts, "Even if the relation is one of negation and resistance, the power of the categories is still felt as the individual struggles against them [public opinions]" (Leitch, 2001).

On the other hand, the major general of the case at the press claimed that "The female corporal did not express her uncomfortable feelings during the time when they chatted,  

3 Please refer to Social Consciousness in Legal Decision Making: Psychological Perspectives (Wiener, Bornstein, Schopp& Willborn, p.154).
conversed, and interacted on Taiwan High Speed Railway and did not submit this case to the military commission for advanced investigation after returning to the military fortitudes." Therefore, Taiwan's Sexual Prevention Act is introduced and opinions from academia, judicial system, and lawyers will also be included in the discussion subsequently. Ms. Bordo further argues that "Everybody is marked by the relation to the 'constitutive mechanisms' of a 'power' that 'shapes.'" (Leitch, 2001)².

PART I : THE PURPOSE.

On Feb 5, 2006, Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act was ratified and passed. It is ratified to supplement with Gender Equality in Employment Act and Gender Equality Education Act. Mostly, articles in Sexual Harassment Prevention Act, except for 12, 24, and 25, are not applicable. On Jan 23, 2009, Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act conducted by Ministry of Health and Welfare was amended. In its updated version, Article 1 of Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act states that "The Act is formulated in order to prevent sexual harassment and protect the rights of victims." The purpose of the Act is specifically illustrated: prevention of sexual harassment and victims' rights protected. And one can infer from Article 1 to realize that sexual harassment is a kind of behavior that is forbidden. However, something very weird turns out rapidly soon after the following questions have been raised. Who are the victims? And who are the offenders? Are the victims specifically women? And are the offenders men?

If a presumption ensures that women are victims, men become the offenders. It seems natural that women, from feminists' views, shall be protected. They are free from being labeled as the defeated when gender issue is raised and discussed. Yet, one can virtually be astonished at the fact that the presumption simultaneously signifies women as weak ones in society and their relations with men remain unstable and victimized because some organizations flatly specify its function to protect women. Therefore, more conflicts and confrontations breeding gender inequality emerge. The author does not here deny that women's right and their body shall be protected either by judicial system or societal awareness to the thorny issue. But if not dealt with properly, the cases might leave the ones involved great damage because the victim cannot expect justice and nor does the accused. Moreover, "rights of victims" denotes a wide range of rights given to the victims. The presumption that poses women as weak recipients to sexual harassment ensures women's status as unequal to that of men.

Article 1 in Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act is highlighted with clarification that sexual harassment is forbidden. But something seems missing. In What is Sexual Harassment Manual issued by U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "Unwelcome behavior" is defined. As defined,

"...sexual conduct is unwelcome whenever the person subjected to it considers it unwelcome. Whether the person in fact welcomed a request for a date, sex-oriented comment, or joke depends on all circumstances"

From Ms. Bordo's perspectives, "female praxis": individual and collective action with clear, conscious goals that are pursued through...

² Please refer to Leitch, 2001, p.2361.

³ Please refer to the website, Stop Violence Against Women. [Available at: http://www.stopvaw.org/sexual_harassment]
a series of purposive strategies" (Leitch, 2001).

**PART II: DEFINITION & SCOPE.**

As Article 2 stipulates, "the so-called sexual harassment in the Act refers to the sexual statements or sexual behavior violating another person's wishes..." (Sexual Harassment Prevention Act). Hence, one sees the definition of "sexual harassment" in Taiwan's framework about Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. "Sexual harassment" not only refers to verbal "sexual statement," but also a specific "sexual behavior,"--both violating the other's rights to his/ her dignity and body autonomy.

Article 2(A) defines "sexual harassment" with a more specific sense. As Article 2(A) points out,

"If a person's obedience to or rejection of another's sexual advances become a condition of obtaining, losing or reducing their rights and interests in work, education, training, services, plans or activities" (Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act).

Article 2(B) maps the banning scope of "sexual harassment" in terms of texts, pictures, voices, images or other objects dissemination that induces hostile and insufferable feeling. It corresponds to what has already been discussed the influence and historical development in terms of the rise of mass media and mass communication. Since texts, pictures, and voices are rapidly exchanged through mass media and mass communication mechanism, one's rights to his/ her rights to body autonomy is exploited very soon once the unwelcome object reaches the recipient's hands. As Article 2(B) claims,

"If texts, pictures, voices, images or other objects are used to inundate or intimidate; or if languages and behaviors of discrimination, and insults or other methods are adopted. – For such reasons, the other's person's dignity of character is impaired. Or if another person feels scared, feels disliked with hostility or feels offended; or if another persons' work, education, training, services, plans, activities or other normal habits are improperly influenced" (Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act).

**PART III: PARTIES THAT ARE REFERRED TO.**

Article 3 in Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act specifies the location where sexual harassment might happen and be banned. As Article 3 regulates,

"The civil servant named in the Act refers to an employee who is engaged in public affairs. The organization named in the Act refers to a government organization. A troop under the Law refers to an armed force, and a school is under the jurisdiction of Ministry of National Defense. Schools referred to under the Law include both national or private schools. The institution named under the Law refers to a corporate juridical person, a partnership, or a non-corporate body which has its own representative or manager or other institutions."

**PART IV: INSTITUTION THAT IS RESPONSIBLE FOR SEXUAL HARASSMENT ISSUE.**

Article 4 clarifies the competent authority responsible for sexual harassment prevention. As Article 4 stipulates,

"The competent authorities referred to in this Act are the Ministry of the Interior at the central level, municipal governments at the municipal level, and county governments at the county (city) level."
The competent authorities shall take responsibility for eliminating the boundary by which women's rights of body autonomy is exploited. "'Anorexia,' for Ms. Bordo, may be an eloquent bodily articulation of the unreasonable demands our society places on women" (Leitch, 2001).

PART V: BEHAVIORS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT SPECIFIED.

Article 25 specifies sexual harassment behaviors banned by Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. And it stipulates that "When a person kisses, hugs or touches the bottom, breast, or other physical private parts of the other person when the latter one cannot quickly respond or resist..." (Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act). At to what extent shall sexual harassment behaviors be punished in Taiwan's context? This question has been answered in the previous pages that indicate a proportion of concrete punishment in Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act. And the focal point shifts to a paradigm by which Taiwan's and foreign vision towards sexual harassment are different.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT CATEGORIES

LEGAL AND SOCIAL FRAMEWORK IN TAIWAN

A comparison might be raise according to Fitzgerral's Types of Sexual Harassment Behaviors. He points out five dimensions: gender harassment, seductive behavior, sexual bribery, sexual coercion, and sexual assaults. They also represent seriousness of sexual harassment behaviors. But interestingly, some items are rarely seen in the context of Taiwan. The items excluded are seductive behavior, and sexual bribery. However, in Taiwan, two categories of behaviors are normally identified as the action of sexual harassment and induce punishment. First verbal articulation that spreads dirty words of sex-implied meaning is identified as a concrete behavior of sexual harassment. Second, sexual coercion is seen more active, intentional, and aggressive.

Picture 2: "Parts of the Body, Italian Vocabulary Lesson" by the artist, Larry Rivers

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6 Please notice the fact that this artistic masterpiece is created by Larry Rivers (American, 1923-2002) and is named, "Parts of the Body, Italian Vocabulary Lesson." Its dimension is as follows: Frame: 6 ft. 3 1/2 in. x 58 1/2 in. (191.8 x 148.6 cm) 5 ft. 9 in. x 52 in. (175.3 x 132.1 cm). The credit is given to Dr. Robert and Nancy
Figure 1: Fitzgeral et al (1988), the model based on the Western concept to Sexual Harassment

Figure 2: Scope in Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act

Magoon and the masterpiece is in honor of Sam and Bessie Proctor. [Retrieved from http://www.harn.ufl.edu/collections/?mainGraphic=harn_header_coll_mod.jpg]
CONCLUSION

SEXUAL HARASSMENT VS. NEO-LIBERALISM!? 

Surprisingly, a norm, according to the author's observation and self-reflection, has emerged in cross-disciplinary academia and has corresponded to the author's current research attainments. A norm that has recently arisen is the phenomenon identified as "neo-liberalism." It advocates one's individual autonomy that accompanies his/ her body and is magnified to align with sex, gender, and sexuality. "Neo-liberalism," in the framework of how Taiwan's Sexual Harassment Prevention Act is viewed through Susan Bordo's female body politics sheds a new light on a presumption about body politics. A presumption that one's body is controlled by oneself might induce a further investigation because the significance of body is conveyed by social and cultural entities. Therefore, body might be embedded with a concept of "double." The body signifies one's individual identity and exemplifies its identity in society and culture. And Taiwan's judicial system and practitioners often ignore gender discourse and the significance of body politics that determination the direction of relevant concept development. From this research, readers get an idea about why there is always be confrontation between such advocates of sex, and gender.

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FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN TRANSNATIONAL DRUGS TRAFFICKING: DISTINCT CHARACTERISTICS FROM VIETNAM PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Although the last two decades have seen a number of scholars presenting that female play a considerable role in transnational organized crime, criminologists have focused insufficient concentration on how organizational structure and modus operandi in transnational narcotics trafficking’s operations was implemented by female. A few, if not, publications in recent times focused on this topic to find out the role of women in organized crime groups as members and leaders of its organizations within national, regional, and global scale. These evidences were likely to create doubts on the predominated issue of a ‘boost rise’ of women empowerment in comparison to ‘boss man’ of the underworld. Based on primary data with multi case studies were coded and secondary sources with previous reports and publications by official authorities, this paper analyses female role in organizational structure of transnational drugs trafficking in Vietnam. The study divides into four parts with the first section introduces and reviews of literature on women’s participation in drug trafficking. The second focuses on introduce overall picture drugs trafficking in Vietnam and the roles of female offenders. The third one evaluates organizational structure of transnational narcotics trafficking’s groups by women’s participation. The final part will draw and discuss distinct characteristics of women’s participation in transnational narcotics trafficking in Vietnam.

Keywords: female criminals; transnational narcotics trafficking; organizational structure

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

In today’s “borderless” world transnational security threats and challenges are connected, and must be addressed at the global and regional as well as national level and require governments everywhere to “see, think, and act globally” [1]. Currently, thus, the illicit drug trade problem have been becoming increasingly as one of the major social concern in many countries are sabotaging the rule of law at all levels [2]. Evidentially, to date, illicit drugs in general and transnational drug trafficking in particular have been threatening seriously the health and welfare of all communities’ levels with the billions of dollars generated by the drugs trade through the power of dispersed and diversifying criminal networks [3]. In addition, potential dangers of transnational drugs trafficking and organized crime groups are closely interrelated to undermine human security [4]. As a result, it is an obvious issue that transnational drug trafficking had received the most attention from criminologists [5], political scientists working in the field of international security studies in recent times [6], and both law enforcement agencies in general and anti-drug enforcement in particularly [7]. Amongst of mainly contributions of male in drug trafficking groups around the world, the percentages of female involvement in these networks has been increasingly become as one of the concerned issues faced by government and their law enforcement agencies. In other words, at that time, it comes as no surprise that women have become more involved in the drug trafficking networks. If in the past,
women could be counted on to struggle for their right to be loosely a part of a male-dominated world, not only in Latin America, but also around the globe; at present, women have tended to enter many groups that were previously appealing to men[8]. For example, in Mexico, the increased involvement of women in the drug industry is not only a problem for the women themselves; it affects the region’s crime rate and prison systems as well[8]. Prisons in Latin America are quickly becoming filled with women imprisoned for drug trafficking that it was not surprising with remarkable number in 2007. Only in Mexico, there has been a 400 percent increase in the number of women jailed in imprisonments for activity mostly linked to organized crime[9]. Considering that many countries in Latin America lack proper laws to deal with drug crimes, it is no surprise that women are overflowing the prisons[10]. From the over the earth’s distances, at the Southeast Asian regions in general and border Vietnam with Laos, Cambodia and China in particular, the Vietnamese female within both organizer and mules of transnational drugs trafficking’s networks will be also presented and analyzed in the light of Vietnam context. Given do these, the paper will review the roles and contributions of women in criminal network before contact and gauge in Vietnam’s transnational drugs trafficking cases involving female’s attributions.

REVIEWs OF lITERATURE: FEMALE INVOLVEMENT IN TRANSNATIONAL DRUGS TRAFFICKING NETWORK

Female and Transnational Drugs Trafficking

Criminological scholars has recently begun to concentrate on concepts such as “criminal career” and “career offender” proposing that there may be discernible patterns in the criminal histories of offenders. Yet these scholars, thus far, main objectives almost focused exclusively around male offenders. A little attention, if any, has been explored to questions such as whether there is such a thing as a female “criminal career” pattern and, if possible, how that career starts and what shapes its boundaries. Regarding to the street-level drug economy, a remarkable body of research has examined the way in which gender structures women’s opportunities to engage [11-15]. Researchers have drawn a highly sexist and segregated culture, where street-level drug markets often are exemplified expressly by well-structured distribution systems operated by men, with women existing only at the lower ranks and positions. Much of these studies were concentrated on qualitative in design, offering a thick, descriptive analysis of women’s participation in particular drug markets within specific neighborhoods or cities of national domain.

Since the early 1980s, researchers have examined drug use by female population rather than male, concentrating on heroin use and the gendered roles associated with involvement in this drug market [16, 17]. In the light of ‘cause and effect’-theoretical frameworks, scholars have suggested that prostitution was a primary method of drug acquisition, often supplemented by income from other illegal activities [16, 18, 19]. More recent research, for example cocaine’s market, has targeted on the changing nature of the drug markets of the 1980’s, which according to some researchers has altered dramatically the dynamics and context of women’s involvement in drug use and selling [15, 20]. To some extent, it can be seen evidently that partly of these changes derived as a result of the increased availability, and ease of use, of inexpensive cocaine products, as well as the weakening of social bonds that once inhibited women’s involvement in the drug trade [20]. As a result, some scholars have suggested that woman have been reasonably expanded career opportunities in this highly profitable rise market through obtaining high incomes from themselves drug involvement, such as buying and selling [15], transporting and trading [21].
There appears to be little consensus, however, on this point. Other studies have proposed that the growth of the crack cocaine market did not provide increased access to lucrative job opportunities for women. Instead, women continue to be “confined to an increasingly harsh economic periphery,” forced to rely on sex work that offers reduced earning capacities than historically has been available for such other works[22, 23]. In fact, many women are already willing to become a part of the drug industry because of their difficult economic situations, and the fact that these dangerous missions were capable of rewards of considerable benefits[24]. The possibility of easily obtaining money to sustain a comfortable life style for their families is appealing to many women who consider drug trafficking as the one direction they can obtain access to a luxury life[10]. Meanwhile some women are able to reach a high position in their drug trafficking networks, most women who get involved are taken advantage of because they lack relevant economic chances[24]. These women are frequently convinced to act as ‘drug mules’ or ‘drug couriers’ and are assured it will be a transferable and advantageous journey [25]. The risks are not adequately explained, and, in fact, some women are even sent on missions, totally unaware that they are carrying drugs[24]. To some extent, this purposed paper is to focus on female’s contributions in organizational structure of transnational drugs trafficking networks in Vietnam. Thus, all of selected case studies from the High Court’s records only cover drug trafficking with “transnational” – element which offender are either Vietnamese nationality or foreigner committed a drug-related crime under Vietnam Penal Code. In other words, any domestic case within Vietnam’s market will be not mentioned and examined at this study.

Transnational drug trafficking’s network and female involvement

In order to analyze and examine the distinct characteristics, both organizational structure and modus operandi, of transnational narcotics trafficking, the current study selected social network theory to explore the nature of drug trafficking and therefore, reviewing literatures in terms of the roles/tasks of transnational narcotics trafficking’s network is considered as one of the central objectives of this research. One of the main factors to determine functions and responsibilities of individual in a drug value chain, including supply and distribution scale, is based on the nodes’ position of those in a criminal network value chain. More particularly, Decker and Chapman consider that distinguishing tasks and roles should be identified clearly that who individual have physical contact with the drugs and those who have no contact with the drugs[26]. Pursuing this logic argument, this section review critically a number of researches on drug trafficking that established and developed typologies based on roles/tasks.

As one of the pioneer experts in organized crime and transnational drugs trafficking’ fields in current three decades, Williams [27] notes a network is likely to assist researchers and policy-makers perceive a series of connected nodes, including individuals, organizations, and firms within closed linkages together. Network can vary in size, membership, shape, cohesion and can be large or small, local, regional, or global, cohesive or diffuse, centrally directed or highly decentralized[27]. He also considered that one of the closely related strength of transnational drugs trafficking networks is their capacity to flow around physical barriers and across legislative systems or geographical boundaries through their members’ functions [27]. Moreover, role of individual membership are “rarely so specialized that substitutes cannot readily be found” [27]. In other words, as one “scale-free network”, it was established by a
variety of “complex system” share a significant property per node that means some nodes have an enormous number of connections to others, whereas most nodes have just a handful [27]. Basically, the popular nodes will be called ‘hubs’ which is covered by a lot of links, including core groups (leader/organizers) and peripheries’ linkages (insulators, communicator, extenders, monitors, crossovers) [28]. Though these roles are common in most transnational criminal network, depending on “scope”, some of these networks will be required more specific tasks [28, 29]. Basically, although those personnel are frequently only bear with very limited roles in their network system, their responsibilities are also significant contributions in a drug trafficking chain [29].

Basing on William’s typologies, including core and “external” roles, it is not only identify personal functions and individual positions of each nodes in drug trafficking network, but also explore what “potential” actors can be covered in these networks. Therefore, this role-based typology will be applied and compared in Vietnam context to examine functions/responsibilities of female involvement transnational drug trafficking’s network as well.

TRANSNATIONAL DRUGS
TRAFFICKING IN VIETNAM AND
FEMALE’S CONTRIBUTIONS

Drug Trafficking in Vietnam: A Glance

Changes in Vietnam’s political and economic system after the “Revolution Period” (known as “DoiMoi”) in 1986 to the first years of twenty-one century, affected directly and indirectly to social living of people. While economic growth and regional integration bring many positives such as the increased mobility of goods, services, people and money, they also provide opportunities for transnational organized crime to threaten human security and challenge the rule of law in Vietnam, nowadays [30]. In particular, transnational drug trafficking, one of the dangerous transnational organized crime’ activities have expanded their subjects of activities, taking full advantage of the differences in the legislative regulations and the scientific and technological approaches and experiences of the law enforcement organs of countries to commit offences [31]. Additionally, improving in infrastructure, communication, and transportation have created opportunities for illicit drug traffickers to operate transnationally [32-37]. Furthermore, close proximity to the ‘Golden Triangle’ (Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand), combined with porous national land borders and a long coastline, results in conditions amenable for trafficking illicit drugs into Viet Nam, which has experienced and increase in illicit drug trafficking over the last two decades [38]. Statistics on seizures and drug-related arrests confirm that throughout the 1990s, Viet Nam has been continuing to face with trouble with this situation, particularly for heroin, cannabis [39], and Amphetamine Type Stimulants (ATS) [40]. As a consequence of this expanding transnational flows, an increasing amount began to be diverted for domestic consumption needs [41]. Therefore, for these reasons and factors, the number of drug-related cases in Vietnam increased considerably over the last decades with respect to both the number of seizures made and of people involved in trafficking.

Under the direct impact of the regional drug crime, drug criminal activities of Vietnam still remained complicated with the whole of national scale, particularly, focused mainly along four border routes in North-west, Central-northern, North-east and South-west[42]. With the first location, at North-west border route where around 12 per cent of total national drug cases was investigated and arrested by law enforcement agencies, the common drugs trafficked, including heroin and opium, attributed more than 48% and 92% respectively [41]. Right at the border-line, a number of transnational drug trafficking
syndicates closely incorporated with the local drug traffickers to store a significant amount of drugs so that then trafficked into Vietnam whenever they find suitable time. Along this route, particularly, a main case of heroin was illegally trafficked into Vietnam by various armed criminal groups [30], especially ethnic minorities’ groups lived closed border lines between Vietnam and Lao PDR [43-45]. Second route is the Vietnam-China border line where there are two discrepant drug trafficking trends at the same time existed. The first tendency is the number and the amount of psychotropic substances trafficked from outside into Vietnam continued decreasing compared with the year. Meanwhile, the second tendency in terms of opium and heroin trafficking cases from Vietnam to China, has been also increasingly grown with diversity of groups and their operations [46]. At the current situation, seemingly, almost all national border gates, open-economic zones, trading areas on the Vietnam China border line found drug trafficking cases[47]. Among them, particularly, according to both Vietnamese and Chinese’ police offices that some national border gates such as MongCai, Tan Thanh, HuuNghi and Lao Cai very often found drug trafficking cases[47]. Among these areas reportedly saw synthetic drugs coming into Viet Nam and heroin going out. Thirdly, on the South-western border with Cambodia, the major types of drugs trafficked into Vietnam were ATS, in which there was even ice form of methamphetamine, one of the popular ATS’ types in Vietnam at that time. Some certain amount of the trafficked illicit drugs were used to satisfy the demands of drug abusers at the social evil pots, casinos at Moc Bai, Ta Keo Border Gates and the others further went to Ho Chi Minh City and some provinces of the South-West part of Vietnam. Along with that, on this route, the fact has showed that trafficking precursors have been increasing for the past years. Regarding to the ATS, it reportedly came into the country through foreign criminal networks. Drug trafficking through air routes, predominately using the Tan Son Nhat International airport continues to see drugs trafficked both into and out of Viet Nam. Among some detected cases, there were some cases with more than 10 tons of precursors. Fourthly, in terms of Costal and Island areas, law enforcement agencies of Vietnam have found some drug trafficking routes to exercise drug trafficking from the Northern provinces to the Central Costal provinces and Southern ports. It was noted that, there were some evidences of using Central Costal Port as a transit point to traffic drugs to the third countries. Finally, with respect to inland market, in recent years, cannabis cultivation and trafficking emerged as an unusual phenomenon in some northern provinces through hiring farmers to cultivate for exporting cannabis seeds to the other countries. Also ATS abuse in the night clubs, discotheque in the big cities continued taking place complicated. The modus operandi used for drug trafficking were more and more spontaneous, sophisticated and artful. In some cases, drug criminals used internet as a communication means to conduct drug crime activities. They also used trans-national trucks as a common means to traffic drugs into Vietnam by the land-road. They also used advanced telecommunication technique to operate members of the drug syndicates. Drug traffickers were well equipped with fire-arm weapons and decisively opposed drug law enforcement. Together with land road, sea routes, postal services were also used by drug traffickers to commit drug criminal activities. At assessment of UNODC [50] on transnational organized crime in East Asian and the Pacific evaluated that Vietnam, at the moment, has been increasingly becoming as one of the transited and destination point, particularly with heroin [50]and ATS[50]. In addition to geographic proximity to major centers of drug production, and the country’s long land borders with Laos and China, Vietnam’s growing relative economic prosperity means that there is a growing domestic market [51, 52]. Then there are the
extensive ethnic Vietnamese social connections with the advanced industrial countries, some of which are used to facilitate trades to larger consumer markets in Europe and North America [53].

The Annual Report of the Ministry of Public Security of Vietnam [42] states that drug abuse has become a widespread phenomenon not only in urban areas but also in the countryside, afecting all strata of Vietnamese society. More specifically, the end of 2012, United Nations on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) notes that in Vietnam, there are 172,000 drug users profile management, up 8.5 per cent compared to 2011. In particular, the number of male drug users accounted for 96 per cent in comparison with 4 per cent of female, the proportion was less than 16 years old was 0.2 per cent, the 16-30 years-group with 50 per cent and the 30-49 years old with 8 per cent, respectively. Under classifying types of illegal drugs, the heroine users now account for the largest proportion with 84.7 per cent, followed by synthetic drugs with 6.5 per cent, opiates with 6.4 per cent, cannabis with 1.6 per cent, pharmaceutical drugs with 0.3 per cent and finally the other drugs with 0.5 per cent, respectively [54]. Only in 2012, law enforcement agencies of Vietnam investigated 19,582 cases, arrested 29,786 offenders and seized 390,3 kilograms heroine, 74,6 kilogram opium, 134 kilogram cannabis, 128,9 kilogram and 335.470 tables of ATS that is rose of 2.435 cases and 4.853 offenders in comparison with 2011, respectively [55].

Female’s Participant in Transnational Drug Trafficking Network in Vietnam: Case Studies

As Central Network: Organizer or Leader

In the first case (coded as C1), the C.Tr (the uppercase letter after ‘C’ represents for name of offender in case, for example, the ‘Tr’ belong to first name of core offender in case) was played an organizer to operate, manage and control the whole of her network’s amphetamine type stimulant (ATS) trading from Kenya, Qatar, Philippine to Vietnam’s areas. With roles and functions of leader, C1.Tr has been responded to drive policies and operations for her peripheries, including almost female with various background and knowledge. Some of them were her relative family and bonds of friendship, meanwhile, amongst of those are student or pupil who cover foreign language (e.g. English and French) to exchange and contact with their partnership’s network in overseas; whereas, the rest of drug courier were poor education, insufficient economic, and lack of ATS’s knowledge whose became potential victims of C1.Tr. One of the principal regulations of this network, statement of rule (known as luatrieng), was established and implemented by C1.Tr for her nodes that is “silent” communication and “separate” responsibilities. It means that each individual offender only know and employ them orders after got directly requirements from C1.Tr’s information. With any circumstance, she have never appeared and involved directly with trading, concealing and transporting drugs from Vietnam to other destination at overseas, including Philippine, Kenya, Qatar, and so on. As one of the most particular in this case, the “drug mule” or “drug courier” roles belong to female, no any male involvement in the C1’s case. Under the C1.Tr’s leadership, any drug couriers after receiving her routes, including destination and arrival’ air tickets, will be employed as independent roles, no connect with anyone, no except for C1.Trwhen either in Vietnam or second nations. Also, when taking illegal drugs from overseas to come back Vietnam, they were also encouraged to continue transport from Southern to Northern provinces where there will be supported and colluded with other groups before transporting and trading with Chinese’s partners. With this closed cycle, one-by-one’ process, drug mules will also obtain more benefits and money from the C1.Tr.
Differing with the leader’s role of C1.T to control and manage the whole of receiving, transporting and selling drugs from Africa to Vietnam via other countries, in the case of C4, core offender is young women, was born 1991 but covered pre-convicted times, of the Court with total punishment of twenty-eight years in imprisonment regards to drug trafficking in the past. Almost of trafficking’ exchange between Vietnam and Laos’ linkages was ordered and required her cabinets to employ and she is seldom appear directly to trade. However, understanding the clement policies in Vietnamese Criminal Code for pregnant women those who not punished, with the purposes to investigate of law enforcement and avoid punishment of court, sometimes, the C4.Th contacted actively with Laotian drug’s nodes or one representative of Laos’ broker so that trading and receiving heroine and ATS into Vietnam via the Thanh Thuy’s International Border-gate, one district of Nghe An province shared a common land with Khamlibomxay, Lao PDR, before carrying out these production distribute into domestic markets. In light of the wholesale distribution, the C4.Th operated and managed the other ‘sub-kiosks’ with her closed complicities involving monitor and guardians that was created a ‘dense knit’ to run during a long time before crackdown by police force.

As Drug Mule or Drug Courier

In light of the terms ‘drug mule’ in transnational drugs trafficking network, this current paper supports and follow up proposal of the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) as defined: “A drug courier who is paid, coerced or tricked into transporting drugs across an international border but who has no further commercial interest in the drugs” [56]. To fix up with this definition, in the period of two years, 2007-2009, there were appeared the vast of victims of drug trafficking network those who are female with the variety of social positions and educational background were became as potential targets of African drug trafficking networks. One of the popular modus operandi to seek mule or courier is African offenders selected those have a little or professional foreign language, such as English and France, to make friend. And then, they suggested and ordered to carry their ‘legal’ productions, frequently with the first stage, those victims did not know there are ‘illegal’ drugs. For example, in case C2, when agreeing and accepting the first suggestion of the C2.F who he is Kenyan trafficker at Hochiminh City, the C2.D carried his clothes and shoes’ model to Malaysia with $500 and to Cotonou, Benin with $1000, exclude re-turn air tickets and accommodations. After the smoothly travelling with high profits, she also promoted her younger sister, C2.T involving as well. At the time, law enforcement agencies arrested and examined directly C2.T’s luggage which contained around 4.1 kilogram of ‘ice drug’ concealed in false bottoms of suitcases on 18 June 2007 at Tan Son Nhat International Airport. After her sister arrested, though staying at Cambodia, the C2.D also confessed with police for her criminal behavior during colluding to C2.F with purposes for transporting 7.5 kilogram ATS from overseas to Vietnam within eleven times. Particularly, both two sister C2.T and C2.F were university’s candidate during joining and transporting the ATS in African drug trafficking’ network operated at Vietnam.

Similarly, with educational background level at University of Vinh, however, the C5.M found out her partnership as one de factor’ relationship first who will cover heroine markets’ domestic distributions before she connect with other core groups to link with Laotian supplier. Under this organizational structure and modus operandi, she was not only establish closed cycles to drug mule into heroin markets of Vietnam but also create a flexible exchange’ network with Lao’s partners via relative relators, including her younger brother and local minorities,

In fact, the drug mule with female involvement in transnational narcotics trafficking’ networks has been increasingly become as one of the concerned issues with law enforcement agencies in Vietnam in recent years. The mules are couriers are cover both Vietnamese and international nationalities. Case of C7 is one of the particular circumstances with commit a drug-related crime by Thailand women student. In order to get a dream free traveling around the world and obtain considerable money, the C7.Pr’ offender was accepted to carry the ATS’s from Benin to Vietnam via Casablanca and Doha. Though perceiving the strict punishment to take this illegal drug into Vietnam, the C7.Pr pursued to target carrying ATS in Africa’s market after connecting with Nigerian man at Bangkok’s Trade Centre on January 2011. She has been arrested with around 3 kilogram Methamphetamine in her clothing’s luggage with specially-adapted pockets at Tan Son Nhat Airport on 29th October 2011.

As Peripheries of Network

In most of cases involvement female’s contributions, except for some case female were core membership as leader/organized, such as case C1 and C4, at least one of roles in their networks belong to women. Amongst these significant nodes in transnational drugs trafficking networks, the ‘broker’ is considered as one of the remarkable roles to bridge between nodes in one network or between this network and other. In fact, brokers provide critical linkages between these nodes by making introductions between participants from different groups, such as exporters and transportation rings or distributors and wholesalers and arranging transactions between them. For example, in the case C3 with drug syndicate was led by one of the most wanted warrant man in Vietnam with serial criminal record in terms of drug trafficking in the past. Though she is not a leader of her network, with larger partnership and social relationships both in Vietnam and Laos, she is easier to take these advantages to connect with her boss, C3.Y in Vietnam and other nodes in Laos in trading and transporting heroin from Bolikhamxay to Vinh city, Nghe An province via National Road No.46. Through the brokerage’s activities of C3.H, this network was existed and operated during 3 continuous years with successful transportation from Laos to Vietnam including the vast of heroin and the ATS estimated by the official report of law enforcement agencies.

The role of peripheries in transnational narcotics trafficking’ network in Vietnam is not only exposed and employed at the domestic node’ groups, but also covered by overseas coalitions. In this circumstance, the female continue to play as one of the necessary linkages to structure and operation. One of the specific case proved this argument is case of C6 with two main female offenders involving. If the C6.Th is considered as leader to control the whole of ATS’ domestic markets in Vietnam, similar roles of C1.Tr and C4.Th as above mentions, whereas, C6.H plays as ‘dynamic bridge’ to assist C6.Th connect with Cambodian nodes to buy ‘ice drug’ in trade’s process. In this case, as a Vietnamese-Cambodian citizen, the C6.H attributed positively to find suitable sources to provide for C6.Th’s orders. In addition, she took the advantages of herself about Cambodia’s routes to advise the C6.Th in selecting routes, including official and unofficial roads between Vietnam and Cambodia’ border-gates, to transport illegal drugs return Vietnam’s markets.

CONCLUSION

It is needed to emphasized that the illicit drug trade problem have been becoming increasingly as one of the major social concern in many countries, even transnational drug trafficking and other organized crime network
are sabotaging the rule of law at all levels [2]. Transnational drug trafficking and its preventing and combating is no longer an abstract issue, and the realities of these impact are being to any countries, regions, and even spread out the global [57], including Vietnam as well. Modus operandi used by the drug traffickers becomes more and more sophisticated. The level of hardship and danger has therefore risen in the process of investigation and enforcement of drugs related cases. This study is still exist a lot of limitations can be affected on the quality of research process. One of the obvious barriers is research methodologies that the Author was only based on selected case studies through the High Court’s profile to analyzing, meanwhile, the current situation of female involvement in transnational narcotics trafficking’s networks in Vietnam is still continuing complicatedly. After all, notwithstanding, some of main characteristics of Vietnamese female’s participants in transnational narcotics trafficking’s network might also identified. Firstly, if they are foreigner, they could only play as drug mule in their organization, meanwhile, Vietnamese female offenders could cover either organizer/leader or drug mule or both of them. In other words, not clearly evident case can prove the role of core members as organizer/leaders by international female offender in Vietnam context. In contrast, the vast of female traffickers in Vietnam contribute as core membership in her networks to control and manage her rings to operate from overseas to Vietnam, almost at Laos, Cambodia, and China. The rest of offender attribute as communicators, insulators, executors, and helpers in their syndicates. Secondly, regarding to relationship between gender and sentencing, it can see obviously that almost of female in these above cases must be caught up with the most serious and strictest punishments of Vietnam’s government. Under Vietnam’s Penal Code, those who are indicted for producing or selling 100 grams of heroin or 300 grams of other illegal narcotics, except for some of special categories of offenders, including individuals below age 18 at time of crime; pregnant women; women nursing children under the age of three years old; mentally retarded; mental ill. Thus, only the C4.Th amongst of all cases was pregnant carrier during committing a drug-related crime can be avoided to capital punishment. Thirdly, with respect to female offenders’ background, there are various ages, level, and social position in Vietnam context. More particularly, with female plays as an organizer in their transnational drugs trafficking’s network, they had covered the drug-related criminal behavior in the past and even with a lot of experiences against law enforcement’s detecting and investigating. Meanwhile, fourthly, in respect of drug mules, almost of them are the first time to commit a drug-related crime. Based on the High Court’s record, it can be considered that their main reasons led to drug mule, frequently, belong to lacks of economic conditions in their life, except for the C2.D, C2.T and C5.M, at least, pursuit on their education institution before arrested. However, either non-literacy or educational level’ offenders, both of them can cover their modus operandi concealment illegal very tricked and sophisticated scenario. One of the popular operations was applied in these above cases of female that drugs were hidden in false bottoms of suitcases and smuggled in clothing with specially-adapted pockets, or stashing inside books, suitcases with false bottoms and bags of the drug sewn into the lining of specially-adapted clothing. To inclusion, in order to make sense the distinct characteristics of the role of female in transnational drugs trafficking’s networks in Vietnam, further researches and scholars in light of demographical and anthropological fields should be implemented in the future. By doing this, there are organizational structure of these drug trafficking networks is likely to more comprehensive understand and support
meaningful information for law enforcement to against it within national and regional scale.

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GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN DISABLED ADOLESCENTS: AN ANALYSIS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT IN A COSMOPOLITAN CITY IN PAKISTAN

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to understand gender differences in the psychological adjustment of disabled adolescents in the Pakistani context. In the light of the literature review, it was assumed that disabled male adolescents would show greater levels of psychological adjustment as compared to disabled female adolescents. The sample population consisted of a total of 100 disabled adolescents experiencing visual, auditory or physical disabilities. The hypothesis was strongly supported by the results [t(98)=2.576, p<.05(.012)] as disabled male adolescents were found to rank higher on levels of psychological adjustment as compared to disabled female adolescents. Gender discrimination hence emerges as a significant issue for disabled adolescents. The research carries implications for clinicians and educationists alike, as well as policymakers; especially with regard to the development of the girl child in the existing cultural milieu in Pakistan.

Keywords: adolescence, girls, gender, adjustment, disability, blind, deaf, physically disabled

INTRODUCTION

Gender is usually considered an important variable when dealing with adolescents. Gender disparities may play a significant role in the Pakistani society and may affect self esteem as well as the level of social support given by primary and secondary caregivers, the community and the society at large, to the individual. Psychological Adjustment, the variable studied with regard to gender in this research, is the ability to have an accurate perception of reality, the ability to cope with stress and anxiety, a positive self image, the ability to express the full range of emotions and to have good interpersonal skills (Haber & Runyon,1984).

The interplay of gender with psychological adjustment is best understood through the lens of various socio-cultural factors that often come in play when viewing the maladjustment – adjustment continuum. These can lead to issues increasing in level from gender differentiation at the very least to gender discrimination. In general, emotional maltreatment arising out of a lack of social support shown by emotional neglect including psychological unavailability and emotional abuse such as verbal criticism and hostility are linked to increased aggression and social withdrawal in middle childhood and lowered socio-emotional competence in early adolescence. This is more significant for boys than for girls. (Shafer, Yates & Egeland, 2009).

According to Mirza (1994), in a normal sample of post graduate students, females were seen to have unhealthier perceptions of family dynamics and were consequently found to be more maladjusted than their male counterparts. The reasons for this can be several but the study suggests the factor of oppression of females by the male dominated society as one
of the main factors in the indecision they face in life.

Disability can be broadly categorized in two dimensions for the purpose of this study - sensory or physical disability. This is the difficulty or loss of ability of an individual to meet socially defined behavioural expectations (Turner & McLean, 1989; World Health Organization, 1980), and consequently regarded by society as different in appearance or behaviour (Itteyerah & Kumar, 2007). Schillmeier (2008), on the other hand describes inclusive differences in disability as the practice constituting disabling practices in everyday life brought about by the relationship between the sensory experience and the material environment – a perspective that he argues is under-researched and still highly neglected by both social science as well as disability studies. It is relevant here to understand the relationship some culturally disabling notions may have on a factor such as gender.

Literature reviews show a strong tilt towards gender inequality in Pakistan especially in the case of the disabled. Ayubia (1986) while studying a sample of 200 male and female children focussed on nine different factors that play an important role in the social adjustment of those with a sensory or physical disability. Apart from significant male – female differences in which females were found to be less socially adjusted than males, the biggest factor was that of having a ‘dependency upon others’ along with a ‘doubtful future’. Other important factors were the ‘disability to play’, ‘organic inferiority’ and ‘sense of insecurity’.

In the Pakistani and Indian cultures, boys are seen as the natural breadwinners of the family and consequently it has been observed that much more care is taken of their needs, as in the case of the blind (Mehta, 1984), than those of girls. In many tribal cultures in Pakistan, investing in a girl’s education or providing vocational guidance is considered a waste, however in certain cases the situation reverses. It is interesting to note that as a disabled girl is hardly ever expected to get married, she is taught household chores or sewing to pass her time in her father or brother’s house and earn her living in this manner to lessen the burden of those with whom she is destined to live. In case she does get married, she is hardly ever allowed to forget the fact that she is disabled. The problems increase in cases of facial disfigurement (Das & Addlakha, 2001, 2007). Even in old age, there is no respite for the disabled populace claims Cohen (1998) in his account of the Indian geriatric population.

While in issues related to self confidence and self image, no significant gender differences have been discovered in the adolescents with low vision in the 12 – 17 years age group (Khan, 2008), Kazmi (2001) in the case of blind adolescent girls, reports a higher average score on subjective well being as compared to blind adolescent boys indicating better adjustment for the girls.

Among the handicapped population in Pakistan (Ayubia, 1986), whether they are blind, deaf and dumb or physically disabled, better social adjustment of boys is reported as compared to girls. Boys on the other hand have been found to dislike ‘sympathetic attitude of other people’ which is again significantly different from that of girls and contributes to their lack of adjustment where found. This along with heightened sensitivity has been found to correlate with an inferiority complex in girls, who also experience a ‘sense of uselessness’ and ‘lack of confidence’ which is significantly different from that of boys and affects their self esteem (Ayubia, 1986 & Ahmed, 2003).

In the generally conservative cultural context of Pakistan, the play time and leisure activities of blind female students are limited to indoor singing and a local dance luddi. Activities that may bring them in contact with males outside the classroom are discouraged, while making them focus more on studies to supposedly fill in the gap (Bano & Hameed, 2011).
General recreation aside, regular physical education classes in schools and sports activities also suffer. The physical education of visually challenged girls remains substandard in Pakistan. Researchers Bano and Hameed (2011) have severely criticised the quality of teachers as well as the equipment for physical education provided in special schools. Their work shows a marked disparity between these girls as compared to the visually challenged boys and the normal population. According to them, as a result, the physical posture of the girls is affected and even the curriculum along with the sports opportunities provided lag behind severely in terms of international standards.

It is important to understand the nature of Pakistani society that may lead towards gender discrimination. According to Hofstede’s five dimensional model (1991, 2001), Pakistan scores 50 on the dimension of Masculinity/Femininity which translates into it being a Masculine society. Such a society is driven by competition, achievement and success – a pattern that starts in school. However there is gender differentiation as males are expected to be assertive as the future heads of the family and females are not expected to show assertiveness. Fathers being the breadwinners are expected to decide the family size and deal with hard facts in the family and their work would take precedence over family issues. Mothers are expected to show more maternal attributes, acting as the buffer for the feelings of their children and others in the family and for encouraging girls to cry out their feelings dissuading boys from doing the same. This may be one of the causes of additional stress in the long run for the females. If the burden of a disability is added to this, coping styles may be compromised, leading towards reduced adjustment. As the Pakistani society is a collectivist culture the amount of support received and considered to be supportive at a subjective level, is observed to be of importance in determining the psychological adjustment of the disabled person. The scenario seems to be worse for the self esteem, social support and the adjustment of females (Nancoo, 2011).

The analysis of the literature suggests that disabled male adolescents will show greater levels of psychological adjustment as compared to disabled female adolescents.

METHOD

Participants

A total of 100 male and female disabled adolescents between the ages of twelve years to twenty years (with blindness, hearing impairment and physical disabilities – orthopaedic) were included in the sample. There were a total of 40 blind adolescents with full blindness or partial blindness at a severe level, 34 deaf adolescents with full deafness or partial deafness at a severe level, 26 physically disabled adolescents with orthopaedic disabilities. They were divided into two groups later based on gender for statistical analysis (47 males and 53 females). Various vocational training centres, special schools for the blind and the hearing impaired and occupational settings in Karachi were explored to conduct detailed interviews and build adequate rapport in order to use psychological tests with disabled adolescents.

Adolescents with known and documented cognitive and intellectual deficits in thinking, judgement and perception, or those diagnosed with Autism, Mental Retardation, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and/ or Cerebral Palsy, based on teacher or caregiver reports were excluded from the study even if they had an additional sensory or physical disability. This was done to ensure the attentive and cognizant responses of the participants of the study who were expected to fill out the given self report questionnaires on their own or with the help of the researcher. Keeping in view the literature review and the issues surrounding the area of multiple disabilities with mental retardation (Thomas &
Singh, 2006), this was also ruled out in the case of the participants. In addition, adolescent beggars and/or street children with disabilities are not included in the sample in order to control for extraneous variables that may affect the given psychosocial variables.

**Procedure**

The study took place in five phases including the first phase of test selection, the second phase of the development of the demographic information questionnaire, the third phase of the identification of the sample, the fourth phase of test administration and the fifth interlinked phase of the compilation of the data after which statistical analysis procedures were carried out. It was decided in the first phase that an indigenous scale in the Urdu language would be used to measure adjustment levels in order to maximize the reach towards the local population. The selection of the Psychological Adjustment Scale (PAS) in Urdu by Fizza Sabir (1999), an M.Phil. candidate at the National Institute of Psychology, Islamabad, was therefore made on the basis of its usability with the student population. SPSS Version 16 was used to compute the results and analyse the data.

**Measures**

**Demographic information form.**

This form has been used to collect data about psychosocial variables that could influence the results. It includes information about the name or abbreviation in cases of persons who do not wish to disclose their identity, gender, age, education (grade level currently enrolled in and last grade level completed), marital status, birth order, and number of siblings, family structure (nuclear or joint), occupation, socio-economic status and nature of sensory or physical disability including type, duration and cause.

**Psychological Adjustment Scale (PAS), (Sabir, 1999).**

This 27 item scale measures psychological adjustment according to the theoretical framework of Haber and Runyon (1984) that describes good psychological adjustment along five subscales A: an accurate perception of reality (items 3, 6, 23 and 27), B: ability to cope with stress and anxiety (items 2, 4, 7, 8, 25 and 26), C: a positive self image (5, 10, 13, 15, 16, 17, 21), D: ability to express the full range of emotions (items 1, 11, 14, 18, 22 and 24), and E: good interpersonal relationships (items 9, 12, 19 and 20). It has no age limitations and according to the author, it can be used with youngsters, adolescents or even old people. It has been standardized with University students for which population the scale has high reliability at 0.83 while the split half reliability is 0.85.

It has a 5 point rating scale with response categories for Strongly Agree (scored 5), Agree (scored 4), Neither Agree Nor Disagree (scored 3), Disagree (scored 2) and Strongly disagree (scored 1). Items 1, 4, 5, 7, 11, 14, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, and 25 are negatively phrased. A total score is computed with a cut off point of 81. Students scoring above 81 are considered to have better psychological adjustment and those scoring below 81 are considered to have poor psychological adjustment.
RESULTS

Table 1

Gender Distribution of the Disabled Adolescents Sample Data (N = 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender distribution</th>
<th>Blind (n = 40)</th>
<th>Deaf (n = 34)</th>
<th>Physically disabled (n = 26)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A definite difference in the approach of the respondents was observed during data collection with regard to both genders and this is important information, considering the type and quality of the results obtained. Most disabled boys as compared to disabled girls wanted the researcher to communicate the results to their families as well and where contact numbers were given, the results were provided.
The hypothesis is accepted as a highly significant difference at the 95% confidence interval is observed in the mean psychological adjustment scores for disabled male adolescents ($p < .05$).

**Table 2**

*T-test between Disabled Male Adolescents and Disabled Female Adolescents for the Variable of Psychological Adjustment (N=100)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>157.87</td>
<td>17.783</td>
<td>2.594</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>.012*</td>
<td>2.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>146.83</td>
<td>24.148</td>
<td>3.317</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*$p < .05$*
Figure 2 is a clustered box plot depicting the values of psychological adjustment in blind males and females, deaf males and females, physically disabled males and females along with the nondisabled males and females presented here as an adjunct for comparative understanding.

The results support the idea that female disabled adolescents are more likely to experience issues related to psychological adjustment in various settings as compared to male disabled adolescents who may show better psychological adjustment.
DISCUSSION

Gender issues, especially gender discrimination are brought under the spotlight while putting forth the assumption that disabled male adolescents will show greater levels of psychological adjustment as compared to disabled female adolescents. The results show significant support for the hypothesis \([t(98)=2.576, \ p<.05(.012)]\) following the trends of earlier researches (Ayubia, 1986, Ahmed, 2003, Holmbeck et al., 2010). The results for this study with regard to gender differences can be understood under the umbrella of the predominantly patriarchal society of Pakistan, with a high Masculine dimensionality (Hofstede, 2001 & Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010) where many women are confined to their homes and movement outside the home or indulgence in activities that may grant them social freedom, is frowned upon or considered undesirable. Feminine attributes are understood as crippling with regard to their being able to assert or to take care of themselves (Qadir, Khan, Medhin & Prince, 2011). This factor gains precedence in the case of female disabled adolescents who are perceived as weak by society.

During the interviews it was found that apart from those disabled females currently studying in schools, generally disabled females were given lower preference in continuing their studies or were kept illiterate while males were illiterate or could not continue their studies only due to extremely low socioeconomic status. Disabled boys were often enrolled in vocational training centres and parents were more concerned about their future skill status as breadwinners of the family. While this created pressure on the disabled male adolescents, it was seen that it also provided them with an environment both inside and outside their homes where they were allowed to showcase their abilities, bring back earnings and consequently increase their feelings of self worth resulting in better adjustment patterns.

Most females were found to be leading a severely restricted life bound by cultural norms and traditions especially in the more conservative households. The results of a report by UNICEF (2003) mirror this pattern as it is seen that the girl receives poorer quality nutrition, health care and attention which may later affect the life expectancy. While a few seemed to be content with their lot, having adjusted to the ‘protection’ this lifestyle seemed to provide them, many openly regretted the loss or lack of their movement. Security issues were a major concern for the parents of the female adolescents who were more confident about disabled males being able to take care of themselves outside the homes as compared to disabled females. The issue of restriction and disability thus emerges as a double edged sword providing a safety net within the confines of the home environment on one end and an increase in frustration levels lowering self esteem and feelings of competence on the other. Individual differences still arise as the researcher discovered in an encounter with two blind females in the hospital setting who were allowed to step out of their homes only to visit the hospital; a privilege ironically not available to their sighted sisters. In these isolated cases, their disability had become an unexpected source of freedom for them. Nevertheless it is a cause for concern that socio-cultural trends in gender disparity have not changed over the decades in the case of disabled individuals. Resultantly, disabled female adolescents show lower levels of psychological adjustment as compared to disabled males. This posits important questions related to the clinical implications for disabled females and their later adjustment patterns in marriage and motherhood. Zaidi, Mohsin and Saeed (2013) discovered strong support for adult physically disabled females to be diagnosed with anxiety and depression as compared to adult physically disabled males.

The results and the discussion for the variable of gender in disability emerge with strong
underpinnings of gender inequality, and subjugation led by security concerns of the family members as seen through the lens of a typical collectivistic and masculine environment. The dynamics of this setup are far too complex for a complete makeover however possible niches could be created for greater acceptance and viability of equalization of opportunities available for disabled males and females.

CONCLUSION

Global trends, research evidence in Pakistan and the implications of this study point towards a greater need for understanding the needs of female disabled adolescents in order to build a cohesive society. Caregiver attitudes notwithstanding, it is the female adolescent’s own perception that may create attitudes of self pity as she makes sense of her own self worth and this may in the end lower her self esteem. Adolescence is the best time period to introduce interventions on a clinical as well as educational level targeting the adjustment and coping strategies of disabled female adolescents.

LIMITATIONS

The sample size poses one of the major constraints of the study; however the nature of the study and the ground realities encountered during the intensive interviewing process made it difficult to gather a larger sample. In context of the sample size, the inclusion – exclusion criteria has been applied stringently and while this increases the validity of the results, a hitch is encountered in the reduction in generalization of the results to include all disabled adolescents.

This study has utilized traditional methods of psychological testing due to the unavailability of psychological tests for any of the variables made in Braille or Pakistan Sign Language. This is singularly unfortunate as several participants from the deaf adolescent population had to be excluded from the study on account of their difficulty with the written material.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A cross sectional research design across different strata of age related subgroups with different disabilities is suggested that would help in identifying age related patterns and differences. This is imperative for the formulation of adjustment based variations and clinical interventions.

The far reaching effects of changes in the nature of gender and other demographic information variables would also have to be considered in a longitudinal research plan. As Lee and Rojewski (2013) discovered, in a longitudinal multidimensional study of 585 individuals, mainly gender and socio economic status from among the factors of self concept, locus of control and mathematics achievement created the high aspiration or low aspiration divide in learning disabled or emotional-behavioural disorder groups in the long term.

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INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES:
AN AGENT OF SOCIAL CHANGE FOR RURAL WOMEN IN ODISHA

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ABSTRACT

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) have ushered in the new era and possess the prospective to generate educational and job opportunities, awareness on the basic available health care facilities, legal provisions, government programmes and welfare schemes etc. The benefits amassed from the combination of knowledge and ICT should not be confined to the upper strata of the society but need to liberally flow to all the sections of the female population. The extent of areas in which ICT can put a larger control in the hands of women is extensive and constantly increasing, from managing water distribution at the village-level to standing for local elections and having admittance to enduring learning opportunities. With such an unmatched prowess, ICTs definitely can bring a social change in the rural hinterlands of Odisha, a state in India. A large portion of rural women in the state are reeling under poverty and lack awareness. They are absorbed in the farm sector (which doesn’t promise a hefty return, always) and are unskilled manual laborers. The socio cultural barriers discourage their public participation and decision making ventures. Socially, majority of women in rural Odisha are tied up by age-old traditions. Disparity in women's access to and participation in all communication systems as well as lack of mobilization proves to be a roadblock in their emancipation. It is in this context that this paper wants to examine the underpinning dynamism of culture and technology and if the former fosters or hinders ICT penetration in rural areas of Odisha.

Keywords: ICTs, knowledge, awareness, women, social change, cultural barriers, emancipation

INTRODUCTION

The modern day civilization is characterized by the powerful and prolific force of the Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The expansion and proliferation of ICTs have picked up the swiftness for economic and social change, across all areas of human activity worldwide. ICTs facilitate in interactive communication unimpeded by space and time, volume and medium as well as are pocket friendly as they lessen the cost of communication and information processing. Knowing the mammoth power that the ICTs possess and the instantaneous potential to transform the society, it’s best not to remain aloof. In many instances, poor people have experienced benefits in the form of income hike, advanced health facilities, better education and training, access to job opportunities, engagement with government services, contacts with family and friends, enterprise development opportunities, increased agricultural productivity etc.

However, in the recent years, the concept of ‘digital divide’ has been extensively researched, and has caused a swirl among the debaters and the civil society organizations for its economic, social and political
consequences. There have been quite many studies that divulge, the gap that subsists between two categories of people i.e. those who have access to ICTs and those who do not. Such kind of compartmentalization causes exclusion, endangering social integration and hampering economic growth. The digital divide has many dimensions and can be categorized as global, regional and national. At national level, there is no single divide, but multiple divides: for instance; within countries, between men and women, young and elderly, rich and poor and most importantly rural and urban.

Among the named minorities, the most significant section is comprised of women. The prevalent societal (‘patriarchal’ to be precise) norms, power relations and predominance of English as the medium of information broadcasting generate roadblocks for women, who tend to be illiterate, lack the required skills and are often criticized for any endeavor that men feel women must not attempt to. In addition, women also bear the impact of blockades like restrictions on mobility, irrelevant content etc. The fact that there is a socio-cultural relationship between gender and technology, provides an implication that male and female in the identical social set up may not enjoy equal access to ICTs. Women’s rights groups working in rural areas point to how access to household assets is affected by gender. If the household has one radio, it is most likely to be used by men. Women may not have the leisure to listen to the radio, nor may be allowed to join the men sitting outside the house listening to the radio. ICTs and policies to encourage their development can have profound implications for women and men in terms of employment, education, health, environmental sustainability and community development.

Policy is needed to ensure that investment in ICTs contributes to more equitable and sustainable development as these technologies are neither gender-neutral nor irrelevant to the lives of resource-poor women. Women want information and to get engaged in communication that will improve their livelihoods and help them to achieve their human rights. Hence, in spite of success stories of ICTs amongst the poorer sections of the society, it remains a challenge for the government and other agencies to successfully permeate the impact of such technologies in all the nook and corners. Existing literature from many quarters have revealed that excepting the influential lot and also chunks of middle class, ICTs have remained out of access to most of the rural, poor and marginalized communities.

Domestic responsibilities, cultural restrictions on mobility, lesser economic power as well as lack of relevance of content to their lives, further marginalize them from the information sector. Drawing implications from the above, the present paper focuses on key questions and concerns of the use and accessibility of the ICTs and the potential that it possesses to transform the position of women in the Indian society, more specifically in Odisha. The questions range from who are the ‘real’ beneficiaries of the ICTs? Who is monopolizing the course of ICTs? Is there an opportunity (or possibility) to bind ICTs to dole out bigger and definitely significant goals of equality and justice? More importantly, the prime concern that this paper raises is the issue of gender and women’s equal right to access, use and shape ICTs.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Analysts like Modoux (2002) agree with the fact that there is a digital divide and it is a ‘cyber ghetto’ where ever increasing growth rates in the adoption of ICTs is characterized by higher costs and often lower quality equipment and service. The ‘digital divide’ is widening if one also considers the increasing concentration and homogenization of the media (Pendakur and Harris 2002). Moreover, even in the community of practice committed to ‘digital opportunities’ there is a risk that the
gender gap remains. According to Hafkin and Taggart (2001), a digital impartiality is prominent and surfaces in three ways: (1) few women are rarely involved in the needs assessment of ICTs for development; (2) attitudes were that high-end information technology ‘is not for women’ who are still being treated as passive recipients of information and not as active information users and communicators; and (3) there is considerable delay in addressing the limitations faced by women in accessing supposedly ‘public’ information spaces, or even private sector initiatives such as cyber-cafes. These biases are often toughened in bigger arenas such as national and international policymaking and investment planning because women’s organizations have had quite insignificant opportunity to take part in an active role in developing the ICT sector and eradicating the related gender concerns (biases). This means that it is an utterly grave scenario and that the information society must have a gender-responsive policy and funding structure. In the prevalent discourse on gender and information technology, two prevailing theoretical viewpoints are essentialism and social construction (Trauth, 2002). Essentialism is the assertion of fixed, unified and opposed female and male natures (Wajcman, 1991, p. 9). The existence of biological difference between the sexes has led to a tendency to assume that other observed differences between men and women are due to biological determinates as well (Marini, 1990). While theorizing information technology with gender IT, the essentialist theory assumes the existence of pertinent intrinsic distinctions between women and men with respect to information technology. Essentialism underlies research on gender and IT that views gender as a fixed variable that is manipulated within a positivist epistemology. The other leading theoretical perspective stresses on the social construction of information technology as a male sphere. The theory furthers that there is an essential incompatibility between the social construction of female identity and the social construction of information technology. This explanation for women’s relationship to information technology looks to societal rather than biological forces. Thus, the causes of gender underrepresentation can be found in both the information technology sector and in the wider society.

The paper also draws noteworthy attention to the conventional view that such technologies have only technical rather than social implications. As it is already known that the striking changes have remained untouched by majority of the mankind. Existing power relations in society decide the enjoyment of benefits from ICTs; hindering the gender neutrality from these technologies. Access to new ICTs is still a faraway reality for the vast majority of women.

**ICTS: MEANING AND ROLE**

ICTs are the entire assortment or the expanding assembly of technologies that hand out information and communication requirements in the society. The range of what is known as the ICTs includes ‘a complex and heterogeneous set of goods, applications and services used to produce, distribute, process and transform information’ (Marcelle 2000). The ICT arena consists of a diverse spectrum that consists of both ‘old’ and ‘new’ technologies. These include hardware, software, media for collection, storage, processing, transmission and presentation of information in any format (i.e., voice, data, text and image), computers, the Internet, CD-ROMs, email, telephone, radio, television, video, digital cameras etc. While radio, television and print media were primarily used to perform these tasks earlier, with the advent of the new ICTs, these have now been considered as traditional ICTs. However, many of these traditional ICTs are effective than web-based solution, as they can resolve issues such as language, literacy or access to the Internet (UNDAW, 2002).
The new-fangled ICTs generally refer to the budding applications or technologies that depend on the Internet, mobile or cellular phones, computers, telecommunication networks and websites or databases as well. Such technologies are capable enough in providing timely and the accurate information to rural and remote hinterlands and are economic, cost beneficial and interactive in manner.

In spite of possessing immense potential for transforming the lives of the people, there have been notions that these technologies have conventionally doled out ‘vested interests’ – television, for instance, has been blatantly used as a tool of “cultural imperialism” by the developed world to push its version of globalization. But ICTs also carry strong possibilities for empowerment of the excluded. The written word broke the power of the few who possessed knowledge in oral traditions. The invention of paper, and later printing, opened the floodgates of knowledge dissemination. Apart from the aforementioned roles that the ICTs played, a quite significant component that cannot be omitted is the role played by the TV. The latter not only enriched the communication, by broadcasting every piece of news from all over the world, but also made the family sit together to watch any favoured programme. In addition, telephone has also facilitated significantly in smooth and free flow of communication amongst people and even in many cases has solidified their interpersonal interrelations. Such technologies facilitate flawless interactive communication on the one hand, and economical as well as high on efficiency quotient. These technological possibilities allow for interesting social opportunities, of bottom-up and peer communication and easy creation, storage, low-cost reproduction, manipulation and distribution of information (Gurumurthy, 2006).

A critical evaluation of the evolution and genesis of the dialogue on gender issues in connection with new ICTs have certain connections with the previous earlier analysis about women with the technology as well as the media. During the 1990s, gender issues in communication and media focused on three broad issues: the equitable access of women and women’s organizations to the means of public expression; women’s access to professional careers and decision-making positions that have traditionally been male preserves; and the portrayals of women reinforcing or changing stereotypes.

**WOMEN IN ODISHA: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE**

In general terms, the status of Indian women from all walks of life, has witnessed quite many changes since previous years. Though they were honoured and enjoyed an (somewhat) equal status with men, there position suffered severe setbacks during the medieval age. Odisha is not far behind where women are at risk of being ignored and left out from the benefits of the governmental welfare policy schemes and programmes. Illiteracy and poverty being major issues, women in the state suffer from being the marginalized lot. Even though Odisha had a favorable sex-ratio compared to the national average as per the 1996-2001 estimates, a disturbing trend has also been recorded since then, regarding falling female to male sex-ratios. Life expectancy of women in Odisha stands at 62.4%. The decline in female to male ratios (FMR) is majorly prevalent in the age group of 0-6 years, and also in the neo-natal age group where we find a higher female child mortality rate. The female to male ratio for the 0-6 age group for the state as a whole declined by 17 points; from 967 in 1991 to 950 in 2001. Interestingly, the decline in FMR in urban areas is more than in the rural areas- from 949 in 1991 to 927 in 2001, while the rural segment showed a decline from 969 in 1991 to 954 in 2001. These statistics make it clear that sex-selective abortions are on the rise in the
urban areas as well, making it a cause for concern.\textsuperscript{7}

\textbf{Health}

Similarly, the infant mortality rates [IMR-87/1000-Total; rural-90; urban-56] continue to be dismal. Studies show a higher female IMR than the male IMR in the urban and tribal populations, in the post neo-natal and in the 1-4 age groups [boys-29.9 \& girls-37.8]. This indicates a strong discrimination between boys and girls in post weaning periods and access to medical care. This discrimination eventually results in poor nutritional status of girls and women in the state. About 48\% women have a BMI below 18.5 while 63\% suffer from anemia. And this is most marked in the rural, illiterate and SC/ST women. Maternal mortality rate is around 258 in the State against national average of 212 in one lakh births. Though the situation in Odisha is comparatively better than many other States so far as protection and development for girl child is concerned, the declining sex ratio in the State, high infant mortality rate, low nutritional level for girl children, health and well being of women in age group of 19-59 years, care and protection of elderly women above 60 years are the areas of concern. Primary reasons for this are a lack of communication facilities- health services are hampered as there are no roads to many villages; lack of coordination between different agencies, lack of information about services and also, in tribal areas, a lack of communication skills and hesitation of tribals to approach a doctor.\textsuperscript{8}

\textbf{Literacy and Education:}

A critical glance at the literacy rate, as per the 2001 census, depicts that while the total literacy rate was 63.61\%, the same stood for male and female literacy rates at 75.95\% and 50.97\% respectively. The prevalent figures clearly indicate that there exists an ample breach between male and female literacy rates in the state that leads to the consensus of a gender in case of literacy. There is also evidence that the tribal women also have a lower literacy rate that furthers their marginalization in the society

\textbf{Workforce Participation:}

The work done by majority of the women, in the state, go unnoticed and unaccounted for. As per the 2001 census, the state has a female population of 180.94 lakh (49.3\% of the total population). Women work participation rate in Odisha as per 2011 census is 41 per cent against national average of 39 per cent. This major segment of the state’s resources, however, is absorbed in the unorganized sector that is plagued with poor or irregular wages, no structured work environment, no labour union to voice the issues of the women workers etc. As most of them are engaged in work that falls in the unpaid category, hence, the work goes unrecognized. These poor women have no alternative than to resort to poor wages and simultaneous exploitation and marginalization. Adding to their woes, lack of basic and proper education and inadequate skills and training prove to be roadblocks for the poor women who are not able to cope with the new work environment that is predominantly machine based. The latter also proves detrimental to the old-age livelihoods of the poverty stricken women (especially tribal women) as it erodes the entire livelihood base as machines (that requires skills for being operated) take over manual labour. This deprivation leads to mass unemployment followed by socio-economic insecurity.

\textbf{Violence against Women:}

There has been an ever increasing trend of crime against women in the state that occurs not only in the public domain but within the

\textsuperscript{7} \url{http://thpindia.org/status-of-women-in-odisha}
\textsuperscript{8} ibid.
four walls of the home. Alarming and disturbing data implicates that since the late seventies and early eighties there has been an ever increasing cases of rapes, dowry torture and other violent incidents against women. Amongst all the aforementioned case, the frequently occurring is the case of domestic violence which goes unnoticed and unrecorded as women. The reason for such incidents might be many, but the battered woman either doesn’t have sufficient strength to report the same in the police station or is herself not aware of the legal proceedings that would follow suit. The woman, in many instance, doesn’t feel safe within the family as well outside the i.e. in the society. Such kinds of insecurities showcase the familial and societal environment that the woman lives in. To combat the frequent occurrences of such incidents there is inadequate police force as well as feeble administration. While the nature of crime against women might have different dimensions in both rural and urban Odisha, but irrespective of the fact, there is an evidence of perpetual violence against women that devalues the status of women in the society.

Crimes against women in Orissa have recorded an increasing trend. The concern is also on the increasing percentage that these crimes constitute in the overall crime scenario. The number of rape cases registered has increased from 207 in 1989 to 816 in 1999 and then subsequently decreasing. Dowry cases, which include dowry, related murders, suicides and torture cases, have shown an exponential growth over 500% and in 2002 the cases totaled to 1503. Large shares of the dowry cases relate to dowry torture cases. Non-dowry torture is a separate category of cases being registered, which also has a phenomenal increase with 177 cases in 1989 to 524 in 2002. 

**Political Representation:**

The post 73rd and 74th Constitutional amendment (1993) era witness an eventual evolving of women from the cocoon and actively take part in the electoral process. The introduction of the local self-governance especially the three tier system has helped in the increment of women’s political participation. However, the bigger question that surrounds the same is political emancipation or empowerment. In spite of many elections after the significant amendment, many women still are in reeling under the challenges of decision making process, actively indulging in the political sphere, contesting in more numbers etc. Given the low status of women in Odisha, in almost all domains, be it education, health, employment and in decision making positions, they are reluctant and in many instance absolutely not ready to take part in the entire election procedure. Those in elected positions have had to face great obstacles from even their own families, apart from others in the society. No kind of a support system or a favorable environment has been provided to them to take advantage of the benefits granted to them by our Constitution. Incidents of violence and manipulation by their political opponents and other vested interests continue to hamper women’s political empowerment in Odisha.

It is quite visible that grave issues still exist in Odisha where women are under constant threat of being exploited or sidelined from the reform measures. Rural women, in general, are under more threat as they lack awareness levels,
necessary education, access to the governmental agencies, administration and police force and more importantly the courage and power to raise the voice against injustice and unfairness. Apart from inequalities in the health, education and employment sectors, inequality in the political arena is a new challenge for rural women. Even though these women representatives are provide and trained with the essential leadership and management skills for effective participation in the Panchayati Raj system, there is a bigger challenge of sensitizing other stakeholders from the government to the media to the society at large, on the magnitude and requirement of eradicating discrimination against women at all levels.

CONCLUSION

As has already been mentioned, ICTs do play an immensely important role in smooth flow of information and communication and at the same time they ensure that the information reaches on time and is adequate to mitigate the immediate demands. Women in Odisha, still considered as a backward state, suffer from serious setbacks when it comes to the aforementioned empowerment issues. There has been lot many factors that have debarred the women of the state to address their concerns and sufferings. As gender inequality is embedded in a series of systemic inequalities, there is a need to employ different types of empowerment. Economic, social and political empowerments are all inter-related and all these are critical for women empowerment, though the importance vary during diverse phases in the entire process of empowerment.

The World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS), held in 2003 in Geneva, saw ICTs as vital tools for women’s empowerment: “We are committed to ensuring that the Information Society enables women’s empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society and in all decision-making processes. To this end, we should mainstream a gender equality perspective and use ICTs as a tool to that end” (WSIS, 2003).

There have been many success stories in, globally, that depict the swift propagation of ICTs is contributing positively to women’s socio-economic empowerment (Aitkin, 1998). A range of ICT models have been used to support the empowerment of women all over the world and there is substantiation to show that ICTs have enhanced women’s access to information, provided new employment, created new class of women entrepreneurs and improved their access to government (FAO, IFAD and World Bank 2008). While there is recognition of the potential of ICT as a tool for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women, a “gender divide” has also been identified, reflected in the lower numbers of women accessing and using ICT compared with men (UNDAW, 2005). Though ICTs offer considerable potential for reaching women with relevant information and services, women’s ownership and access to ICTs is low, as in most other sectors in rural Odisha. Their use continues to be governed by existing power relations whereby women frequently experience relative disadvantage.

Rural women in Odisha face significant disadvantages in information, communication, transactions, access to services, access to skills and education, access to earning and employment opportunities and “voice”. Despite much support for the diffusion of ICTs in rural areas, gender disparity in access to ICT services continues, much to women’s participation (FAO, IFAD and World Bank 2008). There is an emergent concord that the impact of ICTs in developing countries is not gender neutral, demanding an engendered approach (affirmative direction to include gender concerns and realities) to ICT based projects. There is lack of comprehensive sex disaggregated ICT data in the state. However, the data on access to and use of ICTs that are available indicate that women’s participation in the information society lags behind that of
men. Even when women and men have equal access to the internet either through home, work or school, women may not have the opportunity to access the Internet (Tracey, 2003). In many districts of the state, men use mobile phones more frequently than women. Men also used public kiosks more frequently than women and they also travelled to access phones more often.

In the context of Odisha, the socio-cultural attitudes differentiate against women’s access to technology and technology oriented education. Questions are raised as to what importance or significance does a computer hold for a rural female farmer? There also have been evidences that women in rural hinterlands of the state are less likely to own communication assets, such as a radio or mobile phone. Rural women are less likely to allot their earnings to use in public communication facilities, except when they need to communicate with family or to arrange for income transfers. They are often unwilling to visit “cyber cafes” or public internet centres, which are often owned by men and visited by men. The café culture often excludes girls and women from frequenting them. Rural women’s multiple roles and heavy domestic responsibilities limit the time they can allocate to learning and using ICTs until and unless they realize the potential information benefits and time-saving elements of using these technologies. (Source: FAO, IFAD, World Bank, 2008)

ICT Initiatives in Odisha have been undertaken and the state also has an ICT Policy implemented since 2004. But to utter disappointment, there are still hundreds of rural women who are untouched, un-served and devoid from the utilities and benefits of ICT. What is progressively evident is the reality of a gender digital divide, which can only be addressed through enacting and enforcing gender sensitive ICT policies. However it is also relevant to mention here that ICT is not the only solution to all the restraints and restrictions being faced by women. It is imperative to identify the existing barriers that hinder the use, access, ownership and control of ICTs for the rural women in state. They could be related to ‘gender-socialization’ and cultural patterns or information availability and adequacy of content.

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FERTILITY BEHAVIOR AND ASSESSING THE POSITION OF TODD’S EMMANUEL IDEOLOGY IN THE IN SRI LANKAN CONTEXT.

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ABSTRACT

When addressing the dilemma of new home economics and fertility change in Sri Lanka we are inevitably confronted with a combination of institutional and human factors: Reflecting women’s new role in the society and the domestic level. There are many avenues through which female autonomy may impinge on fertility and an economic calculus in fertility decision-making and the relative significance of "structural" and "cultural" content in characterizing the empowerment of women in both developed and developing countries. Sri Lankan women enjoy comparatively a higher level of quality of living with compared to other south Asian counterparts and record total fertility rate (TFR) in 2013 as 2.15 (CIA, 2014) reflects one of the biggest issues currently plaguing many advanced industrialized countries which is the persistence of below-replacement fertility rates. (Which are 2.1 for developed and taken globally, the total fertility rate at replacement are 2.33).

On the other hand Emmanuel Todd presents an extremely powerful interpretation for the rise of ideologies in the modern age with the presentation of the societal modernization and cultural change, and shows further that family structure leads to the position or disposition of women at home and in the society. He argued that women’s position today was impacted by the cultural ideology in the process of modernization.

In the light of the above, this paper explores the evolution of the position in Sri Lankan women today related to the proximate determinants of the current fertility status and the ways in which Todd’s ideology can explain the fundamental causes underlying with the fertility behavior in Sri Lankan context.

Key words: Fertility, Todd Emmanuel, and Women Empowerment.

INTRODUCTION

“Ireland of Asia”, the name was given to Sri Lanka by Krik (1969) due to the delay in marriage and its impact on fertility. In fact, World Bank (1992) mentioned that Sri Lanka had a record in 1990 for lowest fertility rate among a group of 43 developing countries in the world and it has lower than some of other countries those have higher income level than Sri Lankan, that was GNP Per Capita$470. This is shown in Figure 1.

Fertility decline with a rise in life expectancy is a universal feature when a country goes up in the process of development and every industrialized county has experienced a demographic transition from high to low fertility.

The total fertility rate (TFR) defined as the average number of children to be born to a woman who goes through her reproductive ages according to the age-specific birth rates. When we look at Asia, the fertility trend has changed dramatically. Sri Lankan women enjoy comparatively a higher level of quality of living with compared to other south Asian counterparts and record total fertility rate (TFR) in 2013 as 2.15 (CIA, 2014) reflects one of the biggest issues currently plaguing many advanced industrialized countries which is the persistence of below-replacement fertility rates.
Figure 1: GNP Per Capita And Fertility of Low-Income Countries:

(Which are 2.1 for developed and taken globally, the total fertility rate at replacement are 2.33. Figure 1 NP per capita and fertility of low-income countries: 1990.

On the other hand, Emmanuel Todd presents an extremely powerful interpretation for the rise of ideologies in the modern age with the presentation of the societal modernization and cultural change, and shows further that family structure leads to the declining fertility in the development process. In the light of the above, this paper explores the evolution of the position in Sri Lankan women today related to the proximate determinants of the current fertility status and the ways in which Todd’s ideology can explain the fundamental causes underlying with the fertility behavior in Sri Lankan context.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the theoretical consideration and empirical backdrops on modernization and family dynamics related to fertility. Section 3 presents the Todd’s Emmanuel ideology and fertility behavior and its approach to the Sri Lankan context. Discussions on determinants of fertility differentials in Sri Lanka are presented in section 4. Finally section 5 concludes.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION AND EMPIRICAL BACKDROPS ON MODERNIZATION AND FAMILY DYNAMICS RELATED TO FERTILITY

Gender equality is measured in the core institutional factors such as level of educational attainment, economic participation and opportunity, health and political empowerment. These factors in turn enable or constrain women and couples to combine work and family activities, and hence influence the timing of childbearing. Chesnais, (1996) expressed that when women are at face value, for example, offered similar educational and employment opportunities of men, but these opportunities are then severely restricted by having children, women will react by having less and later children.

The classic ‘demographic transition theory’ postulates that the modernization process including industrialization, urbanization and secularization first brings about mortality decline followed by fertility decline. This theory posits a long-run equilibrium in which fertility rates are similar to mortality rates and population growth is zero. The rational choice framework associated with neoclassical economics provides a compelling explanation for the universal relationship between industrialization and lower fertility, but does not explain fertility variation.

The theory of a ‘second demographic transition’ formulated by European demographers seeks to explain this inconsistency, but does not appear to fit the experiences of Sri Lanka or other Asian countries very well. Sri Lankan women have shown a rapid demographic transition from high to low fertility since 1950s with rise in literacy rates, which has shown averagely over developing country contexts.

How can Economic theories explain on declining fertility postulates that with increased women’s educational attainment in Sri Lanka? Woman’s education is one of the most important determinants of the timing of first births, as well as for overall fertility levels. Rising levels of formal education have been hypothesized to impact on a variety of aspects: individual income, the ability to decode symbols of social distinctiveness, the credentials to access the labor market, or capacity for a lifetime of learning (Bourdieu, 1977; Becker, 1981; Caldwell, 1982;). Theoretical accounts based on mechanisms such as the opportunity costs of women, or on socialization effects, have all emphasized the importance of the link between education and fertility decisions. Education is often seen as a means to accumulating human capital, which can later be used in the market-place. This
perspective is pushed one step further by the New Home Economics approach.

Women’s growing economic independence as an outcome of better education and improved career opportunities, is one of the major causes in the decline in fertility, since a growth in the earning power of women raises the relative cost of children and thereby reduces the demand for them (Becker, 1981). Parents use market goods, services and their time to achieve the production and rearing of children. Due to the gender-division of labor within the household, the time of the mother accounts for the majority of the total costs. Its value increases as a consequence of the increase in her educational attainment, and this fact impacts the relative costs of children.

Later theories of neo-classical economics do not always hypothesize a reduction of fertility as a result of a higher accumulation of human capital, but rather a postponement of the onset of fertility if the lifetime potential earning profiles of women increase steeply (Ermisch, 1990; Ermisch and Francesconi, 1999).

According to the diffusion model, the spread of new ideas and behaviors is also responsible for fertility decline. It is possible that with social interactions and the consequent transmission of information, new ideas, such as regulating fertility and use of modern contraceptive methods, becomes accepted as a ‘social norm’.

More employment opportunities and higher wage levels, the opportunity cost for child-rearing also would rise and women would prefer employed labor to childcare (Vikat, 2004). Thus, fertility depends on the economic cost and benefits of children, which might differ among income levels (Gauthier, 2007). In the economic model, reducing the cost of children by means of government policy would increase the demand for children (Bjorklund, 2006).

Moreover, the cross-country relationship between female participation rates and fertility rates has reversed its sign: the correlation between total fertility rates and female participation rates across developed countries was negative and strongly significant during the 1970s up to the early 1980s (Ahn and Mira, 2002). However, beginning in the mid-to late 1980s, the correlation became positive and equally significant. That is, as more women became gainfully employed, levels of fertility declined less. Several scholars (Rindfuss and Brewster, 1996, Ahn and Mira, 2002) have posited a weakening link between female employment and fertility due to increased use of market childcare and the rising income effect of wages at high levels of the female wage.

Rindfuss et al. (2003) find that the relationship between fertility rates and female labor force participation varies across countries, with those countries that minimize the incompatibility between mother and work roles—i.e. facilitate the efforts of women who want to fill both roles being more likely to see increasing numbers of working mothers. Countries in this group are likely to have higher proportions of females who are both employed and mothers, because women can more easily combine these two roles, than countries that do little to minimize the role incompatibility. Scandinavian countries can be given as best examples.

Examining fertility rates has yielded some clarification on the relationship between levels of religiosity and fertility, and women’s labor force participation and fertility. Countries with higher levels of religiosity and traditional (Catholic) family values, e.g. Spain and Italy, are in fact among the lowest fertility group (Billari and Kohler, 2004).

Although gender and the family dimensions that were conspicuously absent from earlier welfare policy regime analyses of the 1980s (Orloff, 1993), current theorizing about the welfare state recognizes the significance of
relationships between states, markets and families, and the impact of these on society (Esping-Andersen, 1999; Gornick and Meyers, 2003). Furthermore, analyses focusing on the ability of women to combine parenting and paid work have sought to evaluate how different welfare states either enhance or limit women’s opportunities (Gornick and Meyers, 2003).

Evidence from numerous studies suggests that family policies do indeed have a positive impact on fertility. One of the main theoretical tenets of research on the demographic impact of family policies concerns economic calculations. These factors influence the formation of individual preferences and values towards childbearing and indicate that a full test of fertility determinants must include both micro- and macro-level analyses.

**EXPLANATION OF TOODS EMMANUEL DEVELOPMENT IDEOLOGY ON FERTILITY TRANSITION IN SRI LANKA**

Emmanuel Todd presents an extremely powerful interpretation for the rise of ideologies in the modern age with the presentation of the societal modernization and cultural change. In his books *The Causes of Progress: Culture Authority And Change (1987)* and *The Explanation of Ideology (1985)* he has explained that family structure leads to the position or disposition of women at home and the society. He argued that women’s position today was impacted by the cultural ideology in the process of modernization. He explained the modernization process in different countries in a different way in whole world. In this section I would like to explain the ways and which Todd has explained the cultural ideology in the process of development related to the fertility transition in Sri Lanka.

In short, his books are a systematic historical atlas of 1500-1990 looking at the development across the world by country of what Todd identifies as the key markers of modernity: Therefore Todd’s system is indeed globally and he focus mainly Literacy, Contraception, Industrialization and Dechristianization (decline of religious practice and/or belief). Ideology (as expressed through revolutions and elections) (In Todd’s modernization theory, he attempts to systematically correlate family structure, literacy, godlessness and political ideology, as:

Family structure + Literacy + Godlessness = Political Ideology

Todd attempts to systematically correlate again with birth control, Todd posits the equation:

literacy + dechristianization = birth control

Family systems and agrarian systems

Modernization phases (literacy, industrialization, dechristianization, contraception)

Ideology (nationalism, socialism, religious conservatism)

(Willy C. http://www.craigwilly.info

According to Todd’s theory on authority and inequality countries are characterized: These principles of discrimination and hierarchy are projected both onto both domestic and international politics. Those types have impacts on women’s autonomy at home and the society. In Emmanuel Todd’s *Invention de l’Europe*, four premier European family types are identified according to two major criteria: an individual freedom or under the authority of his parents in adulthood, and in terms of inheritance (Todd 1990). Further he has categorized closer to all countries in world map according to his classification. (Appendix 1 shows Todds world classification on family types throughout the world).

These categories are: the “absolute nuclear” family, liberal and non-egalitarian
(that is, indifferent to equality), the “egalitarian nuclear” family, liberal and egalitarian; children are completely free upon adulthood, founding independent families and inheritance is equally distributed, the “stem” family, authoritarian and non-egalitarian, several generations may live under one roof, and the first-born child, mainly a boy will inherit the entirety of property and family headship (and thus perpetuate the family line). Other children typically leave the home to get married or become priests/soldiers. The fourth is the “communitarian” family, authoritarian and equal. Several generations may live under the same roof until the eldest die and the inheritance is divided equally.

Then what would be the relationship to Sri Lanka? Sri Lanka is categorized under the asymmetrical community family structure. This system can be applied in a global scale and sees the dynamic interaction of different but mutually influencing masses of humanity and nations.

Much of literature explains that education and fertility has interlinked and age at marriage matters. Todd in his book *The Causes Of Progress*(1987) shows that the correlation coefficients that associate ages at marriage with literacy rates, distinguishing between the two sexes, emphasizes women’s specific role in the process of cultural development. The correlation between female age at marriage and male literacy rate (+ 0.79), which is markedly higher than the coefficient of correlation between male age at marriage and female literacy rate (+ 0.695) young people in all the cases. (PP 15). This is explained in the Table 1.

| Table 1: Coefficient Correlations Between Age At Marriage And Literacy Rates |
|---|---|
| Age at women at marriage and female literacy | Plus 0.83 |
| Age at men at marriage and male literacy | 0.79 |

Coefficients are calculated for 52 countries. Literacy rates are for young people who were between 15 and 20 years old around 1970. Ages at marriage are for around 1970. Source (PP 16)

Around 1970s women were marrying latest in Japan, Singapore, the Philippines and Sri Lanka at between 24 and 25 years of age, on average. But this is much less than in northern Europe during the era of its take off, there are ages of women at marriage were registered as between 26 and 28 years.

Todd wrote, “around the 1970s, women were marrying latest in Japan, Singapore, the Philippines and Sri Lanka - at between 24 and 25 years of age, on average. But this is much less than in northern Europe during the era of its takeoff; there the ages of women at marriage were registered as between 26 and 28 years.”

Todd excellently describes the need for ideology and religion. He describes that when family takes actions or decisions far from religion then its leads to a better position for women in the society and the home.

He wrote “after 1850 a Nordic-Central European group emerges, noteworthy for having literacy rates of over 70 per cent (counting both sexes together) and average ages for women at marriage of over 27 years. This group comprises Scandinavia, Germany, Switzerland and the Netherlands”. He explained further. On family structures, a link exists between certain types of family structure and the spread of mass literacy works well for the continent of Europe, including Norway, Sweden, all exhibit the same sort of family structure, that is one simultaneously
bilateral and vertical (Todd 1987 pp.36-37, 43).

Todd argues that mass literacy, in freeing the individual from the Priesthood and allowing for mass communication, “triggers” political revolution and the “age of ideology.” Ideological fervor is usually contained or limited so long as people remain practicing Christians: Life is brutish and short, but dreams of a better world are relegated to a heavenly afterlife. But as soon people are “godless and literate,” there is upheaval (Willy C. (http://www.craigwilly.info). Todds explanation on Literacy and fertility can be shown as follows.

Figure: 2 Todd’s Todds Explanation on Literacy And Fertility

Todd has explained 3 levels of feminism within a family system as explained usual anthropological categories of patrilinearity Matrilineality and matrilinearity. the definition is most widely accepted on the criterion of the kinship. According to Todd it considers a family system to be patrilineal if it confers a pre-eminent role in social life on the kin of the husband, bilateral if it gives equal roles to the kin of the husband and the wife, and matrilineal if it exalts the kin of the wife. He further explains in this case patrilineal connotes a system in which the son is considered to be simply the genetic product of his father, bilateral one is which he is considered to have been made by both his parents, and matrilineal one that takes the mother alone to be responsible for his existence (1987 Pp. 18). This typology and development potential can be explained as follows.

Source : Todd (1987)

Table 2: The Family Typology And Development Potential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of women</th>
<th>Degree of authority</th>
<th>g-vertically</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patrilinearity</td>
<td>patrilineal non-vertical type (medium )</td>
<td>Patrilineal Vertical type Um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilaterally</td>
<td>Bilateral non-vertical type (medium )</td>
<td>Bilateral vertical type very strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrilineal</td>
<td>Matrilineal Non-vertical type weak</td>
<td>Matrilineal vertical type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : Todd (1987 )
DISCUSSIONS ON DETERMINANTS OF FERTILITY DIFFERENTIALS IN SRI LANKA

This section explains the determinants of the fertility behavior in Sri Lanka and discusses its relevance to Todd’s development ideology theory.

The following figure shows a Schematic model to Decompose determinants of Fertility in Sri Lanka. According to the figure female literacy rates responsible for the core changes in the society, which governs the low fertility level. This argument has proven by many empirical studies in many country contexts. There are a number of arguments for increasing education level if Sri Lankan women might lead to childbearing delay. One of the most important factor involves balancing education and mother roles. Both are time-intensive, making it difficult to do them simultaneously. Sri Lankan women who desire high educational attainment levels are likely to postpone parent-hood. Further, better-educated women are likely to pursue careers, or educated women simply treated as part of a dowry and further lead to higher rate of return in the employment sector and greater authority and autonomy in both society and family level.

Rise in marriage age in Sri Lanka basically governed by the female education patterns. This argument is supported by most of the research findings in Sri Lanka, for example Anrudh (1981) has concluded that female education is shown to be negative related to cumulative marital fertility in Sri Lanka. De Silva (1992) concluded that increases in the opportunity cost of having children through a narrowing of gender inequalities, especially through increasing female education and employment opportunities, may result in more autonomy for women, leading to further declines in wanted fertility in Sri Lanka.

Figure 3: A Schematic Model To Decompose Determinants Of Fertility In Sri Lanka

Source: Composed by the Author
John Caldwell, Indra Gjanayake et al. (1989) concluded in their research on "impact of marriage delay on fertility decline" that female education makes higher responsibility for delayed marriage and delayed marriage leads to low fertility. Also, educated women have power to choose the marriage partner than the less educated women. When we consider factors of religion and urbanization, women in western province or Buddhist women have higher probability to select their partner and in Sri Lankan context this is called as love marriage. This argument is supported by Todd's ideology explained in the demographic transition.

"Clearly, urbanization, education, movement up the socioeconomic scale, being Sinhalese (either Buddhist or Christian), and the passage of time all tend to increase the proportion of lovemarriage" John Caldwell et al. (1989 Pp. 4)

Figure 3 shows the relationship of Female Literacy rate and the Total fertility rates in the time period 1960-2014 in Sri Lanka and it has been negative. Rise in marriage age is depend on variables such as duration of the school years and many other factors such as female labor force participation etc. Mainly female literacy rate makes the foundation for all the positive factors those affect the decline the fertility level in Sri Lanka. Breast-feeding makes the pause between childbirth.
Women’s labor force participation has been linked to the postponement of childbearing in several ways. Within the sociological literature the focus is on the incompatibility between caring for children and parents and those aspects are discussed in the theoretical section. The figure 4 explains the relationship of Female force participation with the Female Literacy rate in Sri Lanka after 1971. It has shown upward positive relationship.

In most developed countries, there are policies that have been adapted explicitly to influence high fertility levels or designed to make it easier for mothers to be in the paid labor force, there are a wide variety of policies and institutional arrangements in the educational system. (This is explained further by Tendo and Meewalaarachchi(2014) as labor market and housing market that likely inadvertently affect the timing of parenthood (see Rindfuss and Brauner-Otto, 2008 for a more extensive discussion). For example, in Japan the ‘new graduate recruitment system’ has been the principal mechanism whereby young people find regular jobs that is jobs that are full-time, offer fringe benefits and fall under the lifetime employment model (Inui, 2003).

Figure 4 Female Labor Force Participation With Literacy Rates In Sri Lanka.

![Graph of Female labor force Participation rate vs Female literacy rate](image)

Source: Meewalaarachchi (2008)

In contrast to some other countries, Sri Lanka has never had large proportions of women who remained childless throughout their lives. No higher records of pathological sterility.

The national family planning programs inaugurated in late 1965 has introduced efficient and reliable oral contraceptives, commonly known as ‘the pill’ This program has no doubt had an impact on the level of fertility prevailing in Sri Lanka.

According to De Silva (1992) Sri Lanka with more than 62 per cent of currently married women of reproductive ages relying on contraception in 1987, one of the highest prevalence in Asia, provides a rare opportunity to investigate this proposition with a longitudinal database. Moreover, the 1991 population policy statement of the Sri Lankan government has set a replacement fertility target to be achieved by the end of this decade.
SUMMERY AND CONCLUSION

Sri Lanka has recorded as the leader of Asia by demographic achievements, means that the first country in South Asia to reached the below replacement fertility achieved by 1995-2000.

On the light of the above, this paper addresses the Emmanuel Todd’s theory of the cause of progress in the cultural ideology with relevance to the fertility behavior in Sri Lankan context. Results and discussion show that among the few main determinants, mainly female literacy rate has the highest impact on the decline the fertility level in Sri Lankan context. Fertility levels in Sri Lanka began to decline long before a policy decision to introduce family planning as a government program was made in 1965. Many institutional, program and socio-economic factors were in place during this period, which facilitated the fertility decline, but literacy has been remarkable.

It is proved that female literacy level has contributed to lower the Fertility level through the rise in marriage age, in Sri Lanka. This is supported by Todd argument on demographic transition and Cultural ideology. According to Emmanuel Todd’s (1987) in Sri Lankan life expectancy increased 32 to 66 while literacy increased 40 to 75 between 1920 to 1967. Also malaria was eradicated by DDT has turned the country into an island of true modernity within the third world. Delay in marriage has contributed significantly to fertility transition in Sri Lanka since 1970’s.

On the contrary, Todd’s has shown that Sri Lankan society is matrilineal or feminist and it’s the main cause for achieving higher literacy rates (Ex: Table 2 and Todd (1987 Pp. 83). But we have enough evidence to show that Sri Lanka has long way to go to gender-neutral society. Therefore I do not agree with his classification for Sri Lanka as “Matrilineal and Vertical Matrilineal systems predominate in Kerala, but are no more than substantial minorities within Sumatra and Sri Lanka as a whole” (Todd 1987 Pp. 83).

Probably Todd’s has referred to Tamil society that prevailed around 1971, since he has some academic references from N. Yalma (1967) who has written on Tamil community. Tamil Morrs of Sri Lankan around 1971 numbered 900,000 in a total population of 12 million, that is about 7.5 percent of the total Todd (1987 Pp. 83). As Todd explained matrilineal and vertical family system prevails in Tamil community to some extent, where kinship transfer through daughters. But still this society is considered as patriarchal. There are tons of empirical studies and statistics have proven that Sri Lankan women have to face gender unequal society in many senses. Ex: SLDHS 2016/7 demonstrates that 44 percent of women make joint decisions with their husbands on their own healthcare while corresponding percentages for major household purchases and visits to her family or next of kin were 58 and 65, respectively.

Also I agree with EU writer’s comments on that Todd’s family structures can only approximate unconscious pre modern values and has not mentioned about values other than equality/liberty. These are surely interesting areas for exploration: How do we define and measure a nation’s unconscious values in the pre modern, modern and postmodern ages? Todd, being a “good liberal,” was also a “good European,” and therefore a priori in favor of European integration in general.

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APPENDIX

1 Todds world classification on family types throughout the world
THE IGNORED SHARE OF VICTIMS OF TERRORISM FROM HUMAN RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT

Terrorism is an organized threat; a sever type of extremism and global radicalism. Terrorism leaves a lot of casualties in every country of the world. It imposes destructive impacts on the societies. By instilling horror and fear, terrorist groups deprive societies from their primary rights to peace and security. Terrorism severely endangers human rights, threatens democracy and challenges the first demands of the people for enjoying a life free from any sense of fear too. The number of victims of terrorist acts is increasing; however, the policies adopted for fighting against terrorism appear to be ineffective instruments. Terrorist attacks have spread their impacts on the societies and on the life of the victims. For protecting the primary rights of people in the face of this borderless and lawless war and controlling the impacts of terror on the society, a new solution must be worked out. In this paper, we are going to focus on the victims who are solely viewed by terrorist organizations, as objects to convey a message and exert intended influence; these victims are disregarded by international organizations too. Identifying a spectrum of victims of terrorism including direct victims, survivors, families of victims and witnesses, we will analyze the damages each sustains. At the end, having the ultimate goal of promoting the rights of these victims, the researchers present a plan for controlling impacts of terror on the victims of terrorism.

Key words: human rights, impacts, security, terrorism, victims of terrorism

INTRODUCTION

The extent of the impacts of the violence committed by terrorists is beyond just killing innocent people. In fact the whole society is being threatened by terrorist groups. This threat even overshadows democracy and other achievements of human civilization. The double approaches toward countering terrorism, dividing terrorism into ‘good’ and ‘bad’ categories, abusing the official lists of terrorist organizations, divergence and dispersion of the definitions of terrorism and finally the inefficiency of the instruments designed for this purpose have all led to the ignorance of the principles of human rights not only in countering terrorism but also in supporting victims of terrorism. This is an issue far beyond security, military and legal approaches in counterterrorism efforts.

The lost ring in fighting against terrorism is where the terrorists act actually takes place; the society. We are speaking about victims of terrorist acts; the people who have been totally ignored and disregarded by not only terrorists but also by the responsible counterterrorism officials. On this basis, taking cognizance of the civil society, specifically those founded on the basis of the concerns of the victims of
terrorism, must be analyzed for the purpose of administering the rights of terrorism victims and fighting against terrorism.

In this paper, focusing on the role of victims of terrorism in countering terrorism, a set of recommendations are made which could be the subject for discussion among government officials, representatives of victims’ associations, the media, academics working in this area and, of course, former victims and their relatives.

PART ONE: STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

1. Definition:

Terrorism is an organized threat; a severe type of extremism and global radicalism. Terrorism has left many people dead and wounded in every country of the world. The threat of terrorist attacks is permanent, global and widespread. Terrorism is a kind of intentional violence with political motivations which is perpetrated by unlawful groups for the purpose of influencing a special group or level of people. Bruce Hoffman (1998), a leading expert on terrorism, defines terrorism as “the deliberate creation and exploitation of fear through violence or the threat of violence in the pursuit of political change.”

Terrorism is a violence perpetrated directly against civilians and with an aim of achieving a political or ideological objective. One of the main differences of terrorism with war is the type of violence terrorism employs directly against civilians. Alex Schmid (2012) states “The victims of terrorist attacks are usually defenseless civilians and unarmed non-combatants. That is the main difference between a terrorist attack and an act of warfare by armies or guerrilla forces where two armed opponents face each other and generally try to avoid, to the extent possible, civilian casualties.”

2. The Extent of this Threat:

Our world still suffers casualties. The numbers of victims are increasing. Just during the recent years, tens of thousands of civilians are killed in terrorist attacks specifically in Iraq, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Yemen, Somalia, Nigeria, Thailand, Russia, Philippines, Lebanon, Syria, India, Iran, France, Norway, Sweden and the United States of America.

Indiscriminate attacks against people in public places have increased since 1990 and surged during recent years. This is somehow related to the introduction of suicide bombings too.

3. Impacts of Terrorism:

In every terrorist act we can think about a range of damages and victims. Other than wounding and killing people, terrorists spread fear and distrust in the societies. They also commit hostage taking and kidnapping civilians for blackmailing. However, the impacts are not limited and their consequences expand to the survivors of terrorist acts, families of the victims, witnesses and the whole society.

Ursula Wilder (2012) puts this issue in this way “terrorism is about hijacking the attention of the public with scenes of random carnage, and what locks the attention of viewers is fear and sympathetic horror. The terrorist understands the way others react to the use to which he puts human bodies but stands apart from such reactions while ruthlessly manipulating them. He exploits the compassion of audiences as much as he exploits the bodies of his comrades and victims.”

Terrorism severely endangers the human rights, threatens democracy and challenges the first demands of the people for enjoying a life free from sense of fear. Therefore, we are facing a dire threat which applies modern tools in the worst form.
4. Inefficiency of the Strategies for Countering Terrorism

Many national laws and international resolutions have been ratified on the condemnation of terrorism and a lot of international institutions are established for the implementation of these regulations. Lots of activities have also been done in national and international levels for countering terrorism. But considering the deplorable events we are witnessing, it seems that there is a long way to the real implementation of such instruments.

For controlling the impacts of terrorism on the society, protecting the primary rights of the people and finally safeguarding the heritage of human civilization in the face of terrorism, as a borderless war, a new solution must be worked out.

In this session, we would make some suggestions on the role of victims of terrorism in countering terrorism which could be later technically discussed and worked by governmental officials associations of victims of terrorism, media, academics and dependents of the victims of terrorism. Let us begin with defining victims of terrorism and then referring to their problems, pose our strategic practical solutions for supporting victims of terrorism and fighting against terrorism.

VICTIMS OF TERRORISM

The consequence of terrorism for society and survivors of terrorist acts are nightmares and bitterness. For helping these innocent civilians, healing their wounds and at the same time countering terrorism, effective steps must be taken. Listening to the voice of the victims of terrorism can even stop, for a moment, the members and supporters of terrorists and make them doubtful. Reflecting and conveying the voice and the words of the victims could be a positive practical step for having a world without terrorism. Schmid (2012) also emphasizes on this issue “ways need to be found to make the voices of victims heard in a different way, one that does not encourage sympathy for criminals and terrorists and does not make “heroes” out of some of them.”

In any terrorist act, a spectrum of victims could be conceived. In drawing such a spectrum we can imagine a circle in which individuals and groups, based on their closeness to the center of the incident, are considered as more afflicted by terrorist attack. The closest people to the core of the incident are the victims who are merely counted in the media just once the number of casualties is being announced. Then there are the survivors of terrorist acts, the hostages and the families of the victims, the witnesses and the society. It must be indicated that victim or victims of terrorism are not limited to the people who are killed in a terrorist event like a terrorist bomb explosion. The definition of victims of terrorism in beyond these people since what is left by terrorism is not merely losing the life; those who lose their father, mother or child in such atrocities, would undoubtedly be hurt in various ways and would feel this loss for the rest of their lives.

1. Direct Victims

These victims include the people who lose their lives in a terrorist attack, the survivors of the incident afflicted with physical and emotional damages, the hostages taken by terrorists and the families of the victims of terrorism. They have all been targetted by the brutal violence of terrorists. The fond relationship between children and families of these victims leads to the loss of peace and security for the entire family. This issue proves true specifically regarding with children whose parents are killed in a terrorist attempt. Thus, terrorist events leave numerous long-term and short-term impacts on the family life.

The issue that differentiates between terrorism and other types of violent acts is the large-scale violence carried out in the normal
condition, in a public place. In such condition, all people including the victims, the survivors of the attack and the witnesses were not expecting such an incident. In such a calm peaceful atmosphere suddenly terrorists enter, spread fear and try to escalate it. Gradually insecurity and horror replaces the normal quiet life of the people. One of the deepest impacts for the people experienced this condition is the grave sense of suspicion against others. For these victims every normal life condition could be imagined as a threat. They permanently expect a similar attack against them might be repeated. This sense of uncertainty is mentioned by Horgan (2005) caused by the randomness of the attack is imagined to instill a feeling of uncertainty in the public regarding “safe behavior,” prompting fear that anyone could be the next victim.

As it is mentioned above, an act of terrorism is a large-scale violence which is carried out in an ordinary situation at a public place. Therefore, it leaves deep impacts on the witnesses too. One of the impacts of terrorism on the survivors is an intense long-term feeling of insecurity, distrust and suspicion as to the surrounding and the people around themselves. In some cases it is been observed that due to the feeling of such a threat and for escaping its harm, the person becomes isolated. In many cases also the victims become sensitive to any factor associating a terrorist act. Such factors (e.g. Sound) are in tantamount to some negative codes conveyed to the mind of the victim. Ganor (2005) states this type of personalization in this way that you or someone close to you may not have been hurt in a recent attack, but it could very well be you the next time, since the victims have the same profile as you.

2. General Victims

Terrorism is an effort to destabilize legitimate governments and making the society insecure; it threatens democracy and weakens the pluralist civil society. Terrorism challenges the ideal of the people for having a life free from any fear. Therefore, one of the main victims of terrorism is the society.

Acts of terrorism are committed by individuals and groups, so strengthening the role of civil society can also reduce the power of terrorist groups for recruiting new members and also controlling long-term and destructive impacts of terrorism.

Recognizing the role of NGOs in protecting victims of terrorist acts, as civil societies established by families of victims of terrorism is crucial. Bruce Hoffman and Anna-Britt Kasupski put the importance of such associations in 2007 “There is simply very little published material available on victims’ groups formed specifically in response to terrorist attacks”.

The attendance of the survivors and families of the victims in public sphere can direct civil societies onward concentrating on protecting the principle rights of the people against terrorist acts, specially their right to life, recognizing their concerns and problems, identification of some ways for helping them and finally supervising the implementation and execution of counterterrorism instructions and resolutions.

OUTLINING SOME NECESSITIES:

A) The necessity of controlling the impacts of terror on the society:

There is a kind of closed approach toward countering terrorism which focuses on terrorist groups and ignores victims of terrorism. Based on this approach, the states or a coalition of them are considered responsible for the problem of terrorism and the capacity of civil society is totally neglected. However, in the face of such a borderless and lawless war, for protecting the primary rights of the people and human society, collaboration of the civil
society in countering terrorism and extremism must be taken into account.

**B) The necessity of promoting the rights of the victims of terrorism**

Terrorism has always been a tragic event for the victims, whether for those who have lost their lives or suffered an injury or for the civilians who lose their peace and security in a climate of horror and fear. Terrorists mostly target the people that don’t have a small role in the existence of the creation of the situation which is apparently the incentive or the excuse of the terrorist violence.

On the other hands, when an act of terrorism is being carried out, the only focus is unfortunately on perpetrators or the elements behind the terrorist operation. The victims are merely being included in the primary reports related to the figures of the causalities. Later, identifying the perpetrators of the terrorist act and their incentives are put on the top agenda of the responsible authorities. This issue has turned to a normal pattern all over the world. The claimants of the fight against terrorism have all adopted inadequate policies for achieving their goal; the policies which sometimes even deprive citizens from their fundamental rights and freedoms and even threatens the friendly relations between countries. Responding this concern, the UN Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms while countering terrorism, Mr. Ben Emmerson, on June 2012 issued a report on the human rights of terrorism victims. In his report, he argued on the adoption of a new international legal instrument which specifically addresses the human rights of victims of terrorism.

**C) The necessity of raising the voice of the victims of terrorism**

The way terrorist attacks are being covered by the media can play a crucial role in decreasing terrorist operations. Therefore, putting this responsibility on the shoulders of some competent agents, who can truly reflect the realities, is of great importance. Raising the voice of real victims of terrorism can be helpful in this regard.

**PART TWO; SOLUTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

Three major issues could be identified regarding with suppressing terrorism:

1. **Problem:** the wide range of victims of terrorism and the extent of the damages caused by terrorist acts on the societies are among the main issues which have been ignored in the fight against terrorism.

   **Solution:** the necessity of designing guidelines for supporting victims of terrorism;

   The sufferings of the victims of terrorism and the close relatives must be recognized and these people have to enjoy national and international support and solidarity. Therefore, there is a need for laying out a guideline entitled “Human Rights and Supporting Victims of Terrorism” based on the concerns and needs of the victims of terrorist acts and identifying the solutions for helping them and protecting their principle rights. Such a guideline could serve as a permanent global source for supporting victims of terrorism and countering terrorism.

   Based on such an instrument, on one hand, the status and dignity of the victims of terrorism could be promoted and on the other hand the governments and international institutions pledge themselves to adopt appropriate measures for protecting the principle rights of people, specifically the Right to Life, against terrorist acts.

   *Taking an effective step for promoting human rights in the countries:* in the light of acknowledging and stressing on the role of
nongovernmental organizations (aimed at supporting victims of terrorism and controlling impacts of terror on the societies) the requirements for promoting human rights and minimizing violence would be satisfied. Mr. Ben Emmerson, the Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms while countering terrorism, in his report of August 18, 2011, has also emphasized on the necessity of considering and recognizing the pain and suffering of the victims of terrorist acts in adoption of a permanent comprehensive strategy for fighting against terrorism. As the UN Special Rapporteur, he has pledged to promote the rights of the victims of terrorism and stressed on the responsibilities of the states before victims.

2. **problem:** lack of coordination in national and international levels for fighting against terrorism

**Solution:** activating the civil bodies for realizing an international consensus at all levels of the international community

Terrorist attacks have spread their impacts on the societies and on the life of the victims. Therefore, the commitments of international organizations, the collaboration of states and finally the contribution of the civil societies would be necessary for fighting against terrorist organizations and controlling the impacts of terror.

Terrorism victims, more than anyone else, are familiar with the concept of fear and horror and the impacts of terror on the society. Despite sustaining the gravest damages, they have taken appreciable steps for fighting against terrorism and realization of the aspiration of a ‘world without terrorism’. It is worth mentioning that most of these families have organized their activities in the form of civil entities.

On the other hand, several international institutions have also been established with parallel missions and common concerns; but the ignored point is the lack of an organic connection between these establishments. On this basis, consideration of this issue and consolidation of the connections between associations of victims with special working groups and entities of the United Nations including Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF), Working Group on Supporting and Highlighting Victims of Terrorism, Counterterrorism Committee (CTC) and Counter-Terrorism Executive Directorate (CTED) could resolve the problem of lack of coordination in the activities focused on fighting against terrorism in national and international levels and develop a prevailing consensus between all involved parties.

Reinforcing a global network of victims of terrorism and international concerned institutions; one of the obstacles before civil society’s effective interaction in counterterrorism measures is the lack of coordination among counterterrorism strategies at local, national and international levels. Accordingly, establishment of a global network of victims of terrorism in order to achieve an international consensus on countering terrorism would be another major step in achieving the desired goals.

3. **problem:** the moral and ethical capacity of the victims of terrorism in counterterrorism efforts

**SUGGESTIONS:**

A) **Recognizing the role of victims of terrorism in counterterrorism plans**

Victims and survivors are the best cause for fighting against violence and extremism. Victims, survivors and families of the victims are the people who suffer from physical, psychological, social and economic consequences of the event. This is while the
agents behind terrorist attacks or the necessity of punishing them are always more emphasized on. The counterterrorism policies and media also focus on condemning or reporting about supporters and perpetrators of terrorist acts rather than highlighting the victims or survivors of terrorist attacks.

During the recent years associations of victims of terrorism are established and organized their activities for the purpose of raising the voice of these victims; in some countries they have managed to achieve this goal. This issue has to be welcomed since no one entitles more than victims of terrorism to have a significant role in this way and the communities are responsible before these people.

Significant conferences have recently been held on the issues of protecting and observing the rights of the victims; however, there has never been a fair position for the victims to take their role as the main stakeholders. One of such conferences is The Global Counterterrorism Forum (www.thegctf.org) which has held three sessions in the United States of America, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates.

The point is that terrorism victims don’t want to keep silent and merely attract international support for assisting victims of terrorism- the utmost measure, so far, carried out for victims in such conferences. The reality is that the concern of the victims is something beyond just avoid being ignored. Victims of terrorism want to assume an active role as a part of civil society in suppressing terrorism.

These people are the moral capital of the societies and their role in counterterrorism efforts must be strengthened. They are a social source of power that must be mobilized for suppressing extremism and violence.

Resolution 13/26, of the Human Rights Council has “deeply deplored suffering caused by terrorism to the victims and their families and expressed its profound solidarity with them, and stressed the importance of providing them with proper assistance”.

B) Making sufficient efforts to establish norms as to the connection between media and terrorist incidents:

The image that victims of terrorism reflect on terrorism in public sphere specifically via media must be emphasized in this regard. Showing the impacts of terrorism and its everlasting consequences like fear, anxiety and stress, on the families can open a new viewpoint on the destructive nature of terrorism. Highlighting the voice of these victims can also be helpful for foiling the recruiting activities of terrorist groups.

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CONSUMER PROTECTION IN SRI LANKA: AN EVALUATION OF THE PREVALENT LAW AND ISSUES TO BE ADDRESSED.

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ABSTRACT

Consumer protection has magnetized the populace recently, owing to a chain of raids carried out by the Consumer Affairs Authority. This scenario demands an evaluation of the prevalent consumer protection law in Sri Lanka. The Consumer Affairs Authority Act, No 9 of 2003 was enacted to protect the interests of the consumers which basically provides for the establishment of the consumer affairs authority, the promotion of effective competition, protection of consumers and regulation of internal trade. This act encapsulates comprehensive statutory provisions which curb unfair business practices and protect consumer interests. But its inherent weaknesses deter the smooth implementation of consumer protection. Unlike the Consumer Affairs Authority Act in Sri Lanka which is preventive and punitive in nature, the Indian Consumer Protection Act, which is compensatory in nature provides simple, speedy and inexpensive solutions to the consumers’ grievances. The Indian Consumer Protection Act can be utilized to supplement the current consumer protection law of Sri Lanka. When consumer awareness increases, it affects the ‘Consumerism’, which has become a fast emerging force influence major business decisions in the world. In line with that, Sri Lanka should also enhance consumer awareness at the national level. This paper analyses consumer rights, measures taken by the Act in order to strengthen consumer protection and issues regarding the current policy that need to be addressed.

Key words: Consumer protection, consumerism, consumer awareness, consumer rights

CONSUMER PROTECTION IN SRI LANKA: AN EVALUATION OF THE PREVALENT LAW AND ISSUES TO BE ADDRESSED.

“Consumer protection” has been playing a vibrant role in the economies worldwide. Even today it is increasingly exhibiting its dominancy, by magnetizing the general populace towards it. To respond this demand, the local legislative bodies had to focus on drafting laws with regard to consumer protection. Today, those consumer protection laws are demanding timely renovations in line with recent changes of the consumer behavior. This paper aims to evaluate the consumer protection law of Sri Lanka and issues to be addressed to enhance its quality it. The recommendations are made in light of a comparative analysis done with Indian consumer protection law highlighted consumer rights, consumer awareness and consumerism.

METHOD

This paper takes the form of a comparative analysis. The consumer protection law of the Sri Lanka is compared with the Indian law, along with relevant international guidelines. Relevant statutes, books, reports, newspaper articles and web articles have formed the base of this analysis.

RESULTS

It is observed that Indian consumer protection law bears a more innovative approach on strengthening and safeguarding consumer rights which are more compatible with the recent demands of the consumer. Indian law has provided simple, speedy and less
expensive remedies to redress the consumers’ grievances. Therefore the Indian Consumer Protection Act can be utilized to supplement the current consumer protection law of the Sri Lanka which is craving for both substantive and procedural amendments.

DISCUSSION

Late American president, John F. Kennedy, delivering a special message to the Congress highlighting the significance of ‘consumers’, stated that, “Consumers by definition include us all. They are the largest economic group, affecting and affected by almost every public and private economic decision. Yet they are the only important group, whose views are often not heard”.  

When defining the term “consumer”, it simply means a person who pays for what he/she consumes. In other words, one that consumes, especially one that acquires goods or services for direct use or ownership rather than for resale or use in production and manufacturing is called a consumer. As some writers argue, the definition of the consumer is restricted to living persons and excludes commercial users. Within the context of Sri Lankan consumer protection law, “consumer” means any actual or potential user of any goods or services made available for a consideration by any trader or manufacturer. According to that, the any ‘actual person’ or ‘potential user’ can be taken within the meaning of the “consumer” in Sri Lanka which opens up the possibility of including a wide range of consumers without restricting its meaning by excluding the commercial users who buy for resale or use in production and manufacturing. This can be considered as a commendable move of the consumer protection law of Sri Lanka. When it is compared with the interpretation given under the Indian consumer protection law, undoubtedly the Indian definition is ahead of the curve. It comprehensively defines the “consumer” with including a wide range of modes of payment as well. This obviously avoids ambiguities and assists smooth interpretation of the term ‘consumer’.

Since the governments were demanded to regulate the trading and consumer affairs to safeguard consumer rights, “consumer protection” came into play. In practice, it is hard to find a universal definition for consumer protection, since it is molded by the public policy of the country within which it is defined. In theory, it means enhancing consumer welfare. ‘Consumer protection’ is a group of laws and organizations designed to ensure the rights of consumers as well as fair trade, competition and the free flow of truthful information in the market place. Consumer protection and consumer rights are closely linked. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights has recognized, the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, in light of which, the United Nations have provided several guidelines with relevance to consumer rights such as the right to satisfaction of basic needs, the right to safety, the right to be informed, the right to choose, the right to be heard, the right to redress, the right to consumer education and the right to a healthy environment. Though these are mere guidelines which are non-binding, the countries have utilized them to frame their consumer protection laws.

Basically the consumers are vulnerable. They can be easily tricked and mislead by the manufactures. Consumers often suffer without proper redress for physical injuries such as permanent disabilities, deformities and death caused as a result of consuming defective products. In such cases, proving the nexus between the consumer and the manufacturer is also a Herculean task. More often consumers have to sue against traders and manufacturers who are powerful, both politically and economically. To create a balance between the consumer and the manufacture, in such cases the consumers should be provided with additional support.

Today the economies are wide open and the consumers are capable of getting access to
varieties of goods and services at international markets as well. But these consumers are more vulnerable because the international law has only provided a set of non-binding guidelines with regard to consumer protection. Therefore consumer protection is demanded both domestically and internationally.

‘Consumer awareness’ can be defined as the understanding by an individual of their rights as a consumer concerning available products and services being marketed and sold. It should be enhanced in order to punctually respond the downfall of consumer protection. In this sphere the ‘consumer activists’ role is also important. Though consumer activists are rare in Sri Lanka, in countries such as the United States of America, Canada, and India consumer activists are highly performing their role in order to uplift the level of consumer awareness and suffice consumer protection. For instance, Ralph Nader, an American consumer activist, known as the father of consumer movement owing to his priceless contribution to enhance consumer awareness. Bindu Madhav Joshi, is also a consumer activist who has dedicated himself in order to spread consumer awareness in India.

Not only individuals but also some organizations have taken the responsibility of boosting consumer awareness both at national and international level. For instance, the European Consumer Organisation (BEUC), The European Law Group (ECLG), Consumers International, are actively taking part in consumer protection through publishing reports, organizing consumer awareness campaigns for the best interest of the consumers internationally.

Though such organizations are rare in Sri Lanka, India has become a cradle for many important national level consumer organizations such as the Consumer Guidance Society of India (CGSI) and the Consumer Education and Research Center (CERC), which was oriented to educate and carry on researches under consumer protection. In Sri Lanka, it is criticized that, even though there are legislative enactments and many regulatory bodies to regulate consumer affairs and rights, the consumer activism is at a very weak and ineffective level. It is also noted that, the consumer societies in Sri Lanka are not as active as they are required be, due to manifold reasons.

In Sri Lanka, the Federation of Consumer Associations of Sri Lanka (FOCAS) is playing its role regarding consumer protection and also takes steps to network and strengthen voluntary consumer associations in Sri Lanka to reach grass roots levels. But it is found that, such societies are easily established, their existence is often interrupted in Sri Lankan society. Basically due to lack of direct access to the benefits and unawareness of their operation the consumers in the island hardly show any interest of becoming members of such societies. This tendency is highlighted as a core reason which has paralyzed the consumer protection in Sri Lanka.

In Sri Lanka, there is a major legislation to regulate internal trade, consumer protection and other relevant matters along with a number of corresponding enactments. This paper is mainly projected on the major statute, Consumer Affairs Authority Act No 9 of 2003 (CAA Act). As the CAA Act stated, the policy of the government of Sri Lanka was to provide for the better protection of consumers through the regulation of trade and the prices of goods and services, to protect traders and manufacturers against unfair trade practices and restrictive trade practices, to promote competitive pricing wherever possible and to ensure healthy competition among traders and manufacturers of goods and services. It is obvious that, this act is per se enacted to provide consumer protection and to regulate internal trade, as the other acts repealed under it, were not directly responding those matters sufficiently.
The CAA Act was commended due to numerous reasons. Compared to the previous law regarding consumer protection, the Consumer Protection Authority Act, No 1 of 1979, the CAA Act contains broader objectives as mentioned above. The CAA Act has also established two major bodies namely, the Consumer Affairs Authority (CAA), and the Consumer Affairs Council (CAC). The CAA is the investigative body which implements the Act, while the CAC remains as the advisory body and adjudicates the matters. The functions of the CAA are broadly spelled out in the CAA Act, which has made CAA a stronger and more powerful regulating body than the Consumer Protection Authority under the previous law. This Act also brings a wide range of goods and services under its application including professional services as well.

The CAA Act has provided an opportunity to consumers to make complaints related to ‘the production, manufacture, supply, storage, transportation or sale of any goods’, or to ‘the supply of services that are not compatible with the required standards or specifications’, to the authority. The Authority can order the manufacturer or trader of such goods or services to compensate the aggrieved consumer, or replace the goods or refund the amount paid for such goods or services.

Other than that, if the complaints were justified the errant traders and manufacturers are penalized under the procedures by imposing penalties consisting of fines and imprisonment. The nature of the penalties is more deterrent than the ones which were under the previous law. The CAA Act provides a comprehensive provision specifying the offences and the penalties which urges to be revised in light with the changes of consumer behaviours.

Next striking feature of the current consumer protection law of the country is the provision that enables the Minister to consult the CAA to declare certain goods and services as essential to the “life of the community”. The retail price of these goods and services cannot be increased without the “written approval” of the Authority. This provision has a timely value as it responds one of the current issues in the market, where the traders are misusing their powers to increase the prices of the goods and services in an arbitral manner.

Other than that, this act has also recognized several offences with regard to unfair trade practices. The persons who engage in such practices are penalized due to violating the said provisions of CAA Act. Though there are some salient features in the CAA Act, some of the inherent weaknesses of it have caused an adverse impact on the consumer protection of the country. The CAA Act has set out several offences and provisions to subject the wrong doers to certain penalties, there is no provision in it to directly claim damages and redress the injuries caused by defective products. The CAA bill was presented with an intention of responding the issues faced by the society at large, instead of redressing the individual consumer. This might have left the CAA Act without a direct provision for consumer protection. But it is obvious that, not the society at large, but the individual consumer inevitably becomes the ultimate victim, especially of consuming defective products. The only possible way to recover damages in such situations, is filing a delictual action under the ‘product liability’. Even under that action, such consumers suffer the injuries without proper redress, due to the inability of proving the relationship between consumer and manufacturer.

The CAA Act does not sufficiently provide for procedural fairness. Though the CAA Act has spelled out the provisions with relevance to the Consumer Affairs Council, it lacks of a provision which enables parties to appeal against a punishment or an order delivered by the Council. The absence of such provision has caused a violation procedural fairness which forms a part of natural justice, audi alteram partem or hear the other side.
The powers which enable the Minister to consult the Authority to declare certain goods and services, is also criticized due to the political influence which can have on those decisions. Also the powers granted to the minister on appointing members to the Authority and the Council is also amounted to greater criticisms due to the risk of the appointment of politically biased members. On the part of consumer protection appointing such members with lack of knowledge and skills with regard to this field, makes the entire CAA Act a futile effort made on consumer protection. But it should be mentioned that, the minister doesn’t possess a discretion regarding any of the matters, which is not subjected to any form of restrictions. For instance, when appointing the members to the CAA or the CAC, there are certain prerequisite qualifications the minister should consider.

The CAA Act has left room for unnecessary confusions without specifying the provisions spelling out the interface of the CAA and the other relevant authorities, such as Public Utilities Commission of Sri Lanka (PUCSL). PUCSL was established to regulate utility industries, possessing all powers and functions of competition, promotion and consumer protection relevant to those industries under the Public Utilities Commission of Sri Lanka Act, No 35 of 2002.

The Consumer Consultative Committee (CCC), appointed under the PUCSL Act, is protecting the interests of consumers by advising the PUC on appropriate standards for the services provided to consumers; monitoring the extent to which the needs of consumers are being met; and promoting awareness of the standards prescribed and the rights of consumers with respect to such standards. Later, the CAA Act provided similar provisions encapsulating all goods and services. This overlapping has paved the path for a collision between the CAA and the PUCSL when discharging their duties. The issue becomes worse because the CAA Act hasn’t specified how to interface with PUSL and deal with matters relevant to utility goods and services which comes under the PUCSL Act.

PUCSL Act has mentioned that, it is per se superior to the CAA Act (including other written laws) and it also encapsulates a provision which has clearly mentioned how PUCSL should co-operate and act in harmony with authorities such as the Central Environmental Authority (CEA), Urban Development Authority (UDA) and Telecommunication Regulatory Commission (TRC) and other relevant bodies which may be designed by the Minister for the purpose of the provision. Indeed, through the Minister, this provision can be utilized to co-ordinate consumer protection missions of PUCSL with the functions of the CAA avoiding unnecessary tension between them. But yet there’s vacancy of a specific provision in CAA Act regarding this matter.

The participation of the judiciary, in preserving the consumer rights under the persisting law of the country, is at a considerably low level. This can be highlighted as one of those issues, which needs to be addressed, when evaluating the consumer protection law of Sri Lanka. Here the term ‘judiciary’ must be understood in its full sense, including both the bench and the bar. The consumer protection law finds difficulty in exhibiting its full capacity not only because the bench doesn’t perform its role of interpretation properly, but also because the bar which consists of lawyers who are judicial officers and per se duty bound to assist the adjudication process of the courts, shows lack of interest in bringing about the cases regarding consumer protection and preparing sufficient room for the law to get effectively applied. Therefore the bar should also shoulder some responsibility regarding the lethargic performance of the judiciary with relevance to consumer protection.

Even though the law itself encapsulates manifold salient provisions to strengthen consumer protection and cases are presented...
by lawyers, it is in vain unless those provisions are interpreted by the judges in a highly sophisticated manner. For instance the provision in the CAA Act which denotes that, “no trader shall, in the course of a trade or business, engage in any type of conduct that is misleading or deceptive or is likely to mislead or deceive the consumer or any other trader” can be mentioned.  

This provision has expressly prohibited the misleading or deceptive conduct of traders, not only against the consumers but also against any other trader. But it has neither been interpreted by the judges nor been brought into their attention by the lawyers so far. As Dr. Wickrema Weerasooriya has stated, our consumer law has been revolutionized by including this section, though its potential has not been understood by the lawyers and there’s a dire need of raising the awareness of this provision among them.

Apart from those issues regarding the law and judicial practices, there are several other issues which need to be addressed in order to implement the prevailing consumer protection law. If concisely said, the scarcity of necessary resources, both financial and human, the political influence over the regulatory bodies, lack of consumer education, lack of public participation, lack of transparency and accountability of the authorities and officials have slowed down the implementation of the consumer protection law of the country.

If the above mentioned issues can be addressed by bringing amendments to streamline the major consumer protection law of the country along with an attitudinal change of the consumers, the prevalent law could be uplifted to the expected consumer protection standards. Then indeed, the consumer protection law of Sri Lanka can throw some light on the saying “consumer is the king”, without limiting it to mere words.

Indian consumer protection law, is commended as one of the most effective consumer protection laws in the world. This law was inspired by the theme “jago grahak jago” which means “consumer is the king”. A comparative study of current consumer protection laws of India with Sri Lanka, will obviously teach some lessons that would be extremely important to supplement and develop the law of the Sri Lanka.

Basically the consumer protection law of India is denoted in the Consumer Protection Act no 68 of 1986 (CPA) which was amended by the Consumer Protection (amendment) Act in 2002. Before introducing this act there were other laws which protected the Indian consumers from different forms of exploitations. The CPA was not in derogation of any such law. It came into the limelight, with a unique institutionalized mechanism which was per se for consumer protection. As a result, the Indian consumer protection law is capable of protecting the rights of a wide range of consumers in different dimensions through its speedy and less expensive remedies.

The main objectives of enacting this act were to provide better protection for the interests of the consumers, to establish ‘Consumer Councils’ and other authorities to settle the consumer disputes.

CPA has provided the basic consumer rights. It is applied to all goods and services unless it is exempted by the Central Government of India and covers the private, public and cooperative sectors without any discrimination. CPA has introduced an institutionalized mechanism that runs to the grass-root level of the country in a compensatory nature without limiting itself for punishments.

As the CPA has provided, the Indian consumer protection mechanism is simple and well-structured. The Act provides for the establishment of the ‘Consumer Protection Councils’ under three layers from national level, state level to district level, with the main objectives of promoting and protecting rights and interests of consumers in the society.
These councils consist of the citizens and organizations representing different interest groups with regard to consumer rights protection\textsuperscript{41}. This is also a positive move of Indian consumer protection law and policy which encourages the consumer activism and participation of such groups in the main mechanism unlike in Sri Lanka.

Without limiting the entire mechanism to a single centric body, CPA has decentralized the mechanism. ‘Consumer Disputes Redressal Agencies’ (CDRA) which are quasi judicial in nature, were established under the CPA.\textsuperscript{42} The jurisdiction of these councils is decided upon the monetary value of the matter \textsuperscript{43}. So it is much convenient and less ambiguous to the complainants to decide where they should constitute their complaints. Similar to Consumer Protection Councils, these were also established at the same three levels and known as ‘District Forums’, ‘State Commissions’ and ‘National Commission’.\textsuperscript{44}

An interesting characteristic of these forums, is the consistency of its membership. It is compulsory to appoint a woman as one of the three members of each forum.\textsuperscript{45} Mandatory representation of women in redressing consumer disputes, is commendable, as they are often victimized by exploitations at the market place mostly as housewives and mothers.

To enhance the confidence of the consumers CPA has provided that, the District forum to be presided over by a District court judge, State Commission to be presided over by a High Court judge and the National Commission to be presided over by Supreme Court judge, selected among the judges who are either retired or still in office.\textsuperscript{46} This is a wise approach which can be adopted under the CAA Act in Sri Lanka with regard to CAC, not only to boost public confidence but also to add some judicial character to it.

Unlike in CAA Act, the reliefs available to the consumers under the CPA are more practicable and adequate to address the changes taken place in the economy. For instance the CPA has provided relevant provisions to issue corrective advertisement to neutralise the effect of misleading advertisements\textsuperscript{47} which is ideal to be introduced to Sri Lanka as well. Similar to CDRA in India, the adjudicative powers vested in the Consumer Affairs Council in Sri Lanka must be heightened.

The CPA has interpreted the term ‘complainant’, representing all the consumer groups to its fullest possibility. According to that, a complainant means, not only a consumer, but also any Voluntary Consumer Association; the Central and State Governments and in a case of a death of a consumer his/her legal representatives can make complaints under the CPA.\textsuperscript{48} The deficiency of such an interpretation, in the CAA Act can be supplemented by amending the law in light of the CPA.

Unlike the CAA Act, the CPA strengthens the procedural fairness, by providing provisions for an appeal procedure. Within 30 days from the date of order, dissatisfied the party, with an order of the District Forum, can appeal to the State Commission\textsuperscript{49}. The orders of the State Commission can be appealed to the National Commission\textsuperscript{50}. The power to hear appeals from the National Commission is vested in the Supreme Court\textsuperscript{51}. The orders of each agency are final, unless appealed by the parties.\textsuperscript{52} This mechanism illustrates how to assure natural justice utilizing less expensive and less time consuming methods.

As discussed above, an institution itself cannot protect the interests and the rights of the consumers in the entire society. The active role of the consumer is also important. Reforming the laws should go hand in hand with boosting consumer awareness. In a society where the consumers are active and aware of their rights, poor implementation of the law will be hardly pardoned. In India, not only the regime of law is powerful, but also
the regime of the consumer activists. Unlike in Sri Lanka, the consumer activism in India inspired the Indian legislature to introduce the CPA and also keeping a vigilant eye on its implementation. This is where the ‘consumer advocacy’ has to be introduced and developed in Sri Lanka to enhance consumer protection in addition to law reforms, as it is in India.

Consumer activism, has paved the path to ‘consumerism’ which is considered as a universal phenomenon popped up recently. It can be explained simply as, “the activism of the consumers and the response from the Government, traders, industrialists and manufacturers.” If defined in a much extensive way, “Consumerism is a movement or policies aimed at regulating the products or services, methods or standards of manufacturers, sellers and advertisers in the interest of buyers, such regulation may be institutional, statutory or embodied in a voluntary code occupied by a particular industry or it may result more indirectly from the influence of consumer organizations”.

Consumerism has become an emerging force which is influencing the major business decisions in the world. This concept has shifted many consumer laws from ‘caveat emptor’ or ‘buyers beware’ to ‘caveat venditor’ or ‘sellers beware’. This has created a balance between the autonomy of the seller and the vulnerability of the buyer.

As consumerism is all about the consumer its effectiveness depends on vigilance of the consumers. Owing to that, there is an inviolable duty to the consumers to be keen on their interests and rights both individually and collectively. In enhancing consumerism the government has to play its role as well. As there’s a limit up to which the consumers could against the exploitations without the support of the government.

Consumerism has not sufficiently developed in Sri Lanka, due to lack of consumer activism. But it cannot be disregarded because of the importance attached to it in the global economy. To improve consumerism in Sri Lanka, consumer activism must be enhanced, simultaneous to the substantive and procedural reforms addressing the current needs of the economy and the dynamic behavior of the consumer.

Concluding the discussion the following statement of Mahatma Gandhi, which had eloquently expounded the significance a of a consumer to a trader. This is weighty to be recalled as it could possibly have a commendable impact on consumer protection policy of any country. “...A Consumer is the most important visitor on our premises. He is not dependent on us we are on him. He is not an interruption to our work; he is the purpose of it. We are not doing a favour to a consumer by giving him an opportunity. He is doing us a favour by giving an opportunity to serve him.”

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AN ALTERNATIVE MECHANISM, TO GET RID OF THE CURRENT GOVERNANCE SYSTEMS PROBLEMS.

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ABSTRACT

Today the world in one hands faced with very seriously risks like Spread of nuclear weapons. And international terrorism, Industrial wastes and etc. In other hand due to Scientific and technological achievements like biotechnology and nanotechnology, Aerospace, ICT and etc. human society have faced with the greatest opportunity in the history. Actually today human society is located on a situation that facilities and conditions toward achieving to both sustaining life and destruction of human civilization are Prepared. In the other throughout history so far, human societies have always faced with some huge problems such as (unjust inequalities, violence that caused by wars and the cumbersome bureaucratic problems etc.) This problems historically has been engaged many philosophers and intellectuals, many theories to fix the problem have been written and based on new ideas whole or some parts of social organization and government structure have reformed or changed but still this social problems remained in all societies even in modern communist and democratic regimes, because their causes has remained unchanged. In continue I’ll explain the root and cause of this historical problems and I would offer an alternative that is an intelligent network for social management that is able to rapid reaction, growth and reconstructive itself.

Keywords: transformations, intelligent social network, unjust inequalities, challenges.

INTRODUCTION

The world today is facing new opportunities and challenges that due to new social conditions and modern scientific and technological achievements are very different than previous century’s conditions. These new challenges and opportunities naturally are require different mechanisms for leadership and management, to clarify the issue, let’s clearly explain it.

Today the world on one hand faced with very serious risks like mass production of various types of war tools and broadcast it around the world, Spread of nuclear weapons. Complex political challenges among the various governments and international terrorism, Industrial wastes and their impact on the environment and atmosphere, etc. Some of this risks, any moment, able to delete the concept of life in the entire world.

on the other due to Scientific and technological achievements like biotechnology[1] and nanotechnology.[2] Nuclear science[3] and Aerospace Technology, ICT etc. have faced human society with the most massive transformation in its history, today human society is located on a situation that facilities and conditions toward achieving to both sustaining life and destruction of human civilization are prepared. And he is free to choose anyone. no longer, concept of global village not limited to the human communication system rather, many of society’s issues and phenomena and other sciences and technologies and their functions also have the properties of universality and rapid growth, and any kind of them positive or negative consequences, in any part of the world directly or indirectly have an impact, on all human societies. All of us are
passengers on a ship, but each one determined different objective and destination and everyone unfurl Sail towards self-destination. In this time our ship officially has 195 Captain.[4] As is evident our world is a monolithic unit and any events that occur anywhere in the world directly or indirectly affected on the whole of world. So divided the world among sovereign states is a historical mistake.

Throughout history so far, human societies have always faced with some huge problems Such as (unjust inequalities, violence caused by civil and international wars and the cumbersome bureaucratic problems, etc.) This problem historically has been engaged many philosophers and intellectuals ‘Thousands of books and theories to fix the problem have been written. And based on new ideas whole or some parts of the power system components has been reformed or changed or interrelationships of these components are re-engineering. But still this social problems remained in all the societies even in modern communist and democratic regimes because their causes has remained unchanged. So what is the cause of this problems?

After many years researching I realized that this problems has one fundamental cause that under the shadow of popular belief it has remained hidden and unchanged so far. Here I will explain the root and cause of this historical problems. Then would offer an alternative mechanism for resolve this problems. This mechanism can improve the welfare of all peoples and eliminate of violence and war in the world. And as well as it is a strategy for better manage the world’s human and material assets.

**Dissect and analyze the problem**

All over the history, people have believed that social problems have caused by political leaders and authorities that they have abused their power and status therefor, while dispossess them, have positioned others on seat of government. New Rulers According to Intellectual theories, new conditions and possibilities, have done limited change in some part of the government body and institutions. But they have obtained same results of previous rulers and this problems have been repeated in all kind of governments. After some years researching and for the following reasons, I realized that to identify the roots of these problems and to resolve them they should be analyzed from two aspects:

First, it’s apparent and superstructure aspect that human since the emergence the rule so far consistently have reformed and changed it. The second one is its hidden and infrastructure aspect that Humans have not looked to it as a case of social problems so far. While it has been the bed and base of all social problems in the History. To clarify the issue, I will examine each one separately.

**Apparent and superstructure aspect**

Apparent and superstructure aspects of social problems are Social Stratification and Inequalities and cumbersome bureaucratic problems. Social stratification involves relational set of inequalities with economic, social, political and ideological dimensions. Philosophers and Scholars of sociology in definition and causes of its Many have spoken: Marx believed ‘ classes as defined by people’s relationship to the means of production in two basic ways: either they own productive property or labor for others.[5] And he believed that by eliminating of private property inequality and social stratification is destroyed. Weber introduced three independent factors that form his theory of stratification hierarchy, which are; class, status, and power. Wright Mills believed that the source for that power lay not only in the economic realm but also in the political and military arenas.[6] American sociologist Lloyd Warner rejected Karl Marx’s way of looking at inequality. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker, Kenneth Eells, implicitly argue that stratification system arise out of
different style of life, that all complex societies have rank ordering because of the division of labor and furthermore stratification is a result of how communities judged individual lifestyles.[7]

As Studying Social Stratification theories show and also according to natural human sense of competition and supremacy, can conclude that the creation of social stratification is an objective fact, and contrary to some scholars think it cannot be eliminated. Social inequality is natural and it is one of the reasons for individual and social progress. But what is problematic and actually has wasted most of human capital is unfairly inequalities. Unfairly inequalities is not resulting from a natural rivalry for progressing, it is only because of the power and exertion that person or dominant group deprived right of subordinates to operate and competition by exertion. That its Striking examples are the patriarchal exertion in the family, various forms of coercion and compulsion to subjugate, like subjugate people by government through military force and subjugate a country by Trans-regional or international exertion through military or economic superiority. What in appearance can be seen as outward of social resource division is that, throughout history wealth, material and spiritual facilities are divided into very unjust inequalities form, So that mast of these facilities is located in hand of very small minority of the community members. Also other apparent aspect that has been cause of social problems and most time have made public dissatisfaction is the inefficient administrative systems, and the cumbersome laws of bureaucracy.[8] Hundreds of books about the management styles and lubrication of administrative systems have written, and excellent management methods are designed, but what is the cause of bureaucracy problem is the political power that is dominant over the organization of community executive management. “This topic will be explain in the future in detail”.

What It can be inferred from expression of these social theories is that all of them believe that the cause of all social problems is incorrect functioning of the governance system, but without consensus on a specific subject as the origins of problems each one blamed one aspect of government organizations and have proposed to amend it. But actually these theories have only seen the apparent angles of the issue and actually this appearances themselves, caused by one fundamental cause that is hidden in the shadow, of people's beliefs.

The hidden and infrastructure aspect

As was pointed out The origin of social problems, not only in the appearance of social phenomena or management method because themselves are caused by power system and the government domination by force, is main source of all social and administrative problems, therefore contrary to popular perception, this unjust inequality not caused by wealthy citizens who have eaten share of others, and not arising from such and such a leader or a ruler that are be tyrants, The governance system because of domination by force is problematic not only those who are sitting on the throne of government. Actually even no prophet has not and will not be able to establish justice in the framework of this governance system. This method of the governance system was built of the time pharaohs of Egypt and so far has not been change. If throughout history thousands of war and bloodshed and Unfair inequalities Have occurred, These is not only because the rulers are innately unjust, rather even more overwhelming of rulers hope to implement justice in their territory have sat on the government throne, but themselves also have incurred to Injustice.

Origin of government

From the beginning of human creation, man for satisfaction of their safety needs, has
refuge to the superior power. Therefore they has followed, those who had more physical strength or specific information and skills. So some people, like men who have more physical strength or scientists and magicians, and prophets who had specific information and skills, by their specific talent, gathered people around themselves and have formed the government. These people were sacred in the sight of their people and the people considered them as a representative and a symbol of superior power and have worshiped them. The belief that, these people has Superior power, has caused people support and protect them, and popular support, has legitimate their domination. Public Ideological belief to the rulers Lead to empowering them and this power has led to govern the ruler on society. Till now humans in framework of them region, religion, race, or clan in the form of ideology have believed rulers, such as ultrasonic power, they introduce their power system, as a sign of their selves identity, that’s why they have protected it strongly.

This issue has remind unchanged so far. The concepts of patriotism and nationalism and state, flags, etc. That now, people proudly remember it, is Sign of continuity the same ancient ideas and unfortunately no one of intellectuals don’t give the people an alternative to manage the society instead govern over it. To clarify this issue first, let’s examine the characteristics of governance systems, Then we analyze, effects and performance of power in the government.

Some general characteristics of governance systems that unchanged so far:
A. Government administration made up of bureaucracy system that is systematic processes and organized hierarchies in form of pyramid which formed the body of nonelective government officials. [9] (Figure 1)
B. Decisions and Legislation are made in the top of the pyramid and implemented in the bottom of it, and lower classes are obliged to obey the law and commands ordered by the ruling class, while they have not effective role in the preparation of legislation.
C. Communications from top to bottom is unilateral and mostly is symbolic. Lower class rarely and hardly can have associated with the top of the pyramid.
D. Power is above the law and law is authority demands which, by the force will dominate over the lower classes of society.

In contemporary democratic societies Interests of the ruling class will inspire to the people by the mass media as holy and requires then as law will dominant over the society. (Figure 2)
Powers operation in the government system

1. The force element has changed the social management to governing over society.
2. Power, has led to divide social assets in very unfairly form.
3. Power has led to sensitivity and military competition between states and has encountered the world with violence. For this reason, a huge part of social capital used for safety and protection and expansion of power system.
4. The huge section of human resources in effect of dominance lost their opportunity to flourish and they become passive. Because power avoids of fair competition between community members.

Power in government and belief that this power is sanctity, has caused to establish the dominance instead social management therefor all social unfair inequalities come from this issue. It is contrary to the communist theories of Marx that he knew social inequality and classification is caused by capital element and property law. Because actually political power has influence on the capital and property low and they are secondary factor in social stratification. So all these social problems have a common root its why, in all government systems from in absolute monarchy in ancient Egypt until democracy in the contemporary period has been repeated.

To clarify this issue, let's examine ancient and current forms of government systems.

Old governance systems:

First government forms founded based on the sacredness of a person in the society. The persons called themselves superior power and representatives of God on earth. [10]

Throughout history many of this authoritarian regimes have been built with different titles like Monarchy, Constitutional Monarchy, Dictatorship, etc. (Figure 3)

Rule of this authorities was Hereditary, and they claimed only themselves and their descendants deserve for ruling. In different societies have had different titles and epithets, including: King, Queen, Emperor, Czar, Caesar, Caliph etc...[11] Society is formed around some dependent states of feudal groups or tribes with the same pyramidal structure but in smaller framework.

Specifications of primitive absolute power system:

1- The government established based on power of ruler and administration of government, is through a bureaucratic hierarchy system.[12]

2- Laws, adopted from top of the power pyramid, and identically extended to all the regions and communities in the country. Pass or amend laws is very time consuming and difficult.

3- A very large and powerful military to protect the system against internal and external threats and to develop the government Territory has been formed.

4- Other lower classes of society who are seen in shape by purple color are producers of all the wealth in society, while they have lowest share of their achievements.

Contemporary governance forms:

In the latest government forms, such as socialism and capitalism, democracy, etc. All ancient government properties have repeated In both of them laws will adopted in top of the pyramid by the very small set of rulers and pass or amend laws is very time consuming and difficult. Very huge army for protecting of
government and extend it have built, a complex and time consuming and costly bureaucracy system is responsible for administration. Only some of characters and selection methods for positions of government and some relations among the organs of power system, has been changed. Result of this new government system also is same result of ancient government. In support of government legislations large part of public wealth have located in the hands of a small number of people, while the manufacturers of public wealth still are the most disadvantaged of Social stratum of their achievements. Power system, with the motto of social security uses more than half of all social assets to strengthen the military and purchase and produce weapons, while all the tensions and conflicts in society have been caused by the fears and sensitivities of these programs. (Figure 4)

But what has exacerbated social problems is established, the various power systems in the vicinity of others. These sovereign powers that the vast majority of their properties are the same, adjacent to each other have made very dangerous tensions and sensitivities. Establishment of independent powers, beside each other is like the putting multiple magnets together, they are constantly being absorbed and excreted each other and its result was all those war, violence, and destructions that has destroyed more than half of all human capabilities and achievements so far. Otherwise the present achievements of mankind, a few thousand years ago should be obtained. (Figure 5)

as is evident, on one hand the exploitative competition among the countries throughout the history, has caused devastating wars and tensions between the various government, that today, with human access to mass destruction weapons this conflicts have been a threat to survival of human life. Also, with claims of respect to the sovereignty of independent states, the countries competition activities, without any international supervision have caused this social and environmental crises. We cannot retain the world against the threat of nuclear war and terrorism, and dozens of other industrial and environmental threats by advice and admonition of some symbolic personality or by design some non-binding rules In the United Nations or other similarly conventions.

Now the question is, whether can manage society without power factor?

Innately humans are greedy and hegemonic and to obtain their demands sometimes violate the rights of others and this issue create social crimes phenomenon. Therefore, in order to prevent social crimes and protect the rights of individuals indisputably we need power. Society management without the power is similar to the Earth without gravity. What is problematic is establishing different powers together in the world, it is like the earth with so many different gravity. Human community at least in this century because of communication technologies is unified. Now the consequences of any event in anywhere
will be reflected in other areas. Concentration of power in the hands of certain people, caused to dominant. And dominate means getting the right of subordinates. Throughout history people knew all Injustices arising from force dominant. For resolve it they did some huge revolutions, including: Revolution against slavery and colonialism, and now feminist revolution against patriarchy is going on. Humans coming revolution will be against the government and its force dominance. The most destructive forms of domination in human history is the government dominate and today’s human society, more than anything else need to the remove it.

So what is the alternative for resolve this social problems? As I mentioned what have caused all of these huge social problems is govern by many type of power systems over the society instead managing it by one common center. Therefore to eliminate these problems, have to design an integrated management system for whole world. This system must provide the possibility of direct participation and fair competition for all segments of society. A system that, if arise any problems or defects in some parts of it same part can quickly repair itself and does not require to request and deciding high officials.

In current parliament system for legislation,[13] problems and needs of Guilds and Groups of each area are propounded by the regional representative in the House of commons, during some certain formal and informal procedures if representative be able to obtain the approval of a majority of the House The request will be approved, Then legislation is submitted for review to the Senate or the Lords. This House, according to the interests and security of the power system will check it out and In the case of discretion, will approval finally. This process is very time consuming and sometimes it takes several years to enact a law.[14] If, at the time of law enforcement, problems or malfunctions be seen, to amend or cancel it again same the primary route should be over.

Humane society, for transition from these crisis and achieving to unparalleled future horizons, requires to re-engineering in the organizational structure and management. Here, rudimentary and brief I will provide a new mechanism. In future I will describe it in detail. This mechanism is a strategy for change the government system to social management. To solve the shortcomings and problems unlike what has been common so far not hope to reform the current system, because as was explained foundation of this system is problematic. Therefore I have proposed and designed a new mechanism under "Harawezy mechanism" title,

Harawez [hæɾæøːæz] in the Kurdish culture and language, is the name of the process that during it, people by the participation and collaboration of each other, as a group will doing public service works or help the needy and helpless. So Harawaz is the group participation for doing public affairs.

Harawezy mechanism

This mechanism is reengineering of social management system in order to achieve maximize productivity of human resources and abilities.

Human abilities in group increases several times and by precision engineering of the groups, Man hundreds of times faster will achieve to their goals, accordingly this mechanism is based on the following principles:
1. Foremost should remove the think of independent states from the mind, the world is integrated and our life is interdependent to each other. Although I am aware of all aspects of these own words and it seems impossible but I hope, humanity before suicide understand the importance of this issue. (Figure 6)

(Figure 5)

2. Should encourage and lead the society members to establish the groups.

3. Every human groups that formed based on human needs by set of individuals should be recognized.

4. Formation of groups should not be limited by determine political boundaries. Everyone should be free to be members of any set of human groups anywhere in the world.

5. Any group that, not opposed with humanitarian principles and not a threat to the freedom and interests of others, should be recognized.

6. Internal rules and conditions of entry and exit of members, shall be provided by members. Group managers should be elected by vote of the members for limited time in form of the board.

7. Identity and purpose and function of each group should be registered in legal reference.

8. Each group should have the right to share and interact with other informal groups. Agreements of each group with other groups should be registered and be recognized.

9. All groups within a geographic area should form an assembly to regulate their relations. Such as urban and regional houses. (Figure 7)

(Figure 7)

10. All Peer groups (which have similar objectives and activities) for coordination and exchange information and capabilities as well as competition between groups should form an assembly. Members of the Assembly should proposed by groups and selected by popular vote within their group for a limited time. Each group in the common region will have a representative on the assembly. (Figure 8)

(Figure 8)

11. Assemblies surrounding areas should come together to form a union. Also Unions of different areas should to coordination and regulate communications form an international council for all the world.

In this mechanism, to obtain synergy in functional power and achieving to maximum of efficiency has ordered formation of specialized groups depends on human needs. For example set group of a city will include: Business group, academic, agricultural, industrial, healthcare, cultural and artistic groups and so on. The result of this mechanism will be the establishment an integrated Holarchical management system. (Figure 9) [15]
So, for harmony and public discipline, in this system two kind of parallel relationship for group’s relations has been predicted. As can be seen in (Figure 8) if we consider the range of six nearby cities. First relationship is the connection of each certain group with peer groups. For example in (Figure 8) suppose! The yellow group are universities, now university of (a) city can make communication with university group of (b,c,d,e,f) cities. And all of them can make a union together. And at higher levels this union can make communication with other union of other area and finally they can make a universal Association.

Second, relationship of each group, is the commutation of each group with other groups in their geographical area. (Figure 7) For example: Relationship between academic, business and manufacturing groups and etc. in (U) city. Correlation of these groups is due to: A) some of this groups are complementary to each other. B) Due to the neighboring they have affected on each other.

Executive and legislative mechanisms in the Harawez mechanism
In Harawez mechanism according to failures of present system an accurate and effective strategy is defined to this end, that I would describe it briefly here.

Assembly task in each area is the legislative and public affairs planning and law enforcement, then several neighboring cities or areas together, also will form a union that its task is regulation of relations between cities and their surrounding areas and managing common regional challenges and opportunities and performing the public affairs of beyond the city.

Finally, a united association for adjust and approve the general principles of the laws and regulations should be held that it will be a parliament for whole of the world. This association members should offer from unions around the world for limited period. (Figure 10)

In this mechanism, the Global Assembly adopted a general and universal laws and based on it’s the lower level assemblies, planning and regulating rules and affairs, of their area, and also lowest assemblies like cities or regions assembly Will Follow the decisions of their upstream assemblies.

Legal system in Harawez mechanisms
In this mechanism, judicial system also like Executive and legislative mechanisms is consisting of a network of judicial institutions which is independent of the executive and legislative systems, And is parallel with them. In each city or region that an assembly will be held there, an independent judiciary also will be established. President of Justice Centers should elected from lawyers for a limited time by public vote. Adjacent cities, which together have formed a regional parliament Is necessary to establish a Regional Justice
Center also. Jurisdiction of the Court regional Petitions investigation and appeals of Auto-da-fe of cities. Finally, Global Justice Forum to oversee and regulate relations and determine eligibility of regional courts will be established. The task of this court will be appeals of regional disagreements also.

**Security and Police system**

Law enforcement and judgments of courts and social security will be police Responsibility. This force Officer as well as associations and judicial system will defined in cities, regional and global levels. Associations of each city will chooses a representative to form regional command forum, among officers for a limited period. The task of this Forum will be a regional police operations. And finally a global command forum will be formed to maintain global security. This system does not require the extensive and costly armies and advanced weapons. Only police force, for protect the security and prevent social crime is enough. Because the political and ideological allergen boundaries and the stressor power poles do not exist. So the international community management mechanism will be consists of three parallel system. *(Figure 11)*

![Property and economic system in Harawez mechanism](image)

*Property and economic system in Harawez mechanism*

This system believes that private property is the human incentive to work and grow and it is his natural right. Contrary to belief of some intellectual currents like Socialist and communist, what makes an unfair inequality in the world is not a property right. Rather it is the governing force. That, because of it, as was explained, firstly more than half of community assets have wasted by force system. And secondly, it have taken, the possibility of fair competition in society. In this system, as will be described in future in details, shortcomings of the current property law, has been removed And possibility of fair competition are provided for all segments of society.

For example, in the Harawez mechanism, share of capital of production like, wages of labor are determined in the employment contract and added value of company, which is the result of joint effort of labor and capital owners, in proportion to their impact, will be divided between them.

**CONCLUSION**

As was explained, the international community needs an integrated management, the world today cannot be operated by the ideas of several thousand years ago. Considering that human efforts within group has much more synergy and impact, therefore the best planning for human development is establishment and development and engineering of social groups. This mechanism is a strategy and a road map to achieve:

- Greater welfare and prosperity for all, and in all parts of the world.
- World lasting peace.
- Realization of justice.
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BRAIN DRAIN REDUCTION IN SRI LANKA

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ABSTRACT

Brain drain has been a serious issue in Sri Lanka since a couple of decades. As we all know brain drain affects in two ways to the macroeconomic environment of the country. Firstly, country loses expertise such as scientists, professionals, doctors etc. Secondly, the country loses luxurious spending patterns since these professionals engage in white collar jobs; they are paid in higher salaries compared to other professions. The main two reasons for these professionals to leave the country are inability to reach their expectations of higher living standards and lack of R&D opportunities. This can be solved by formation of macroeconomic policies to develop R&D by the government or policy makers of the country. By opening up research firms in the country and provide adequate research opportunities makes them stay on our own soil by contributing immensely to the development of the country. Argonne National Laboratory, Biosecurity Research Institute and Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory in the USA are prime examples for such research institutes. On the other hand, this will create number of jobs, reduce unemployment and uplift the living standard of the people in the longer run. For example a doctor who finds a treatment for a disease would be encouraged to do further research on that and come up with successful concepts/products. This will reduce the health cost of the government and also helps to decline the budget deficit by minimizing related imports. By stopping brain drain, brain gain can be obtained if the country receives the focus for its R&D in the international arena.

Keywords: R&D, brain drain, macro economy.
THE ROLE OF HUMAN FUNCTION IN DEFINING HAPPINESS

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ABSTRACT

In this paper I argue that the Aristotelian concept of “human function” is at the heart of understanding the moral concept of “happiness” (εὐδαιμονία). There are many controversies related to Aristotle’s account on happiness. My statement is that we can gain a better insight on happiness by reference to “human function” (τὸ ἔργον τοῦ ἀνθρώπου), provided that we understand what the philosopher meant by this latter concept. According to Aristotle, happiness is the highest good for humans and the human good is a proper exercise of the human function. Thus, the understanding of happiness relies on the understanding of human function, because human good and perfection depend, in Aristotle’s account, on the proper exercise of this function. Aristotle gives a complex account on reason, but in the tenth book of Nicomachean Ethics he seems to support an intellectualist view on happiness, i.e. a view which only makes reference to the activity in accordance with the virtue appropriate to the most elevated part of our soul. In other words, contemplation would equal happiness. However, such a narrow view would contradict Aristotle’s comprehensivist approach in the first book of Nicomachean Ethics. An intellectualist account would be in contradiction with Aristotle’s definition of eudaimonia from the first book of Nicomachean Ethics. Contemplation alone is not happiness, but it is a special type of happy life. However, happiness comprises other “goods” as well, since the human function refers to the complex part of the soul which is reason.

Key words: happiness, function, reason, comprehensivist approach, intellectualist view, contemplation

THE ROLE OF HUMAN FUNCTION IN DEFINING HAPPINESS

INTRODUCTION

The difficulty of understanding the seventh chapter of the first book of Aristotle’s Nicomachean Ethics is caused by several ambiguities that we face while reading the text. These ambiguities are primarily related to the way we understand eudaimonia (εὐδαιμονία), which is happiness, as supreme good and its relation to human function. Aristotle himself tells us in the seventh chapter of the first book of Nicomachean Ethics that eudaimonia is the highest good and that to explain what happiness is one must show what the human function (τὸ ἔργον τοῦ ἀνθρώπου) is.

The account on eudaimonia and human function has given rise to many controversies caused by the ambiguous text of Book I of Nicomachean Ethics, as well as by some inconsistencies between this book and Chapters 6, 7 and 8 of Book X, which some authors even think were erroneously included in Aristotle’s work. In any case, Aristotle is assigned too many flaws and illogical statements or invalid judgments. The text should be understood, however, in the context...
of the Aristotelian logic, not in the logic of each commentator.

I will further analyze the content of Chapter 7 of Book I of *Nicomachean Ethics*, also calling at the Greek philosopher’s various works and I will argue that there is enough coherence in his writings in order to understand what Aristotle’s message about happiness was. I will not give a broad interpretation of *eudaimonia*, but I will limit myself to explain the concept in the text of Chapter 7 of Book I of *Nicomachean Ethics* and by reference to the concept of function (*ergon*), which is actually at the heart of understanding the meaning of happiness. I will endeavor to show, through the analysis of Chapter 7 of the first book of *Nicomachean Ethics*, that there is consistency between this book and the tenth book, to this coherence also contributing various passages from *De Anima*, *Topics* and *Metaphysics*.

**THE MAIN APPROACHES IN INTERPRETING HAPPINESS AND THE HUMAN FUNCTION**

The main interpretations resulting from the difficulties posed by Book I and Book X of *Nicomachean Ethics* can be grouped into two main orientations: the inclusivist and the intellectualist or monistic. There is a more radical orientation, which considers that publishers have wrongly introduced chapters ζ, η and θ in Aristotle’s *Nicomachean Ethics*. Timothy D. Roche contradicts those who support this idea, arguing that the three chapters are prefigured even in Book I of the treaty (Roche, 1988). He also challenges the approaches of reviewers who claims that Aristotle proposed a selfish version of *eudaimonia*. Roche (1988) is also criticizing other authors who have argued something more absurd namely that according to the intellectualist vision of *eudaimonia* there are allowed even immoral actions if they serve the philosophical activity.

The followers of the inclusivist interpretation of the concepts *eudaimonia* and *ergon* argue that for Aristotle happiness and human function are actually some compounds, but not in the sense that comprehensivists understand this composed feature. For inclusivists the composition of *eudaimonia* and respectively of *ergon* is based on much closer relationships and they are in a much more profound mutual support than the comprehensivists deem them to be. For the latter, *eudaimonia* and *ergon* are simply amounts of other elements. There are some passages that seem to support this comprehensivist interpretation, but there are also others which seem rather to favor authors who interpret the concepts of *eudaimonia* and *ergon* in an intellectualist manner. These latter rely mainly on excerpts from the tenth book of *Nicomachean Ethics* where Aristotle comes back at the idea of *eudaimonia* as an activity of the soul in accordance with the most perfect virtue, this activity being a contemplative (θεωρητική) one and belonging to the intellect (νοῦς), which is the highest element within us and whose objects are also the highest among the objects of knowledge. Under this approach, human function is an activity of the intellect (*nous*) alone.

Disputes between the two orientations originate as well in the difficulties raised in translating the Greek text. Some authors translate the term *teleion* (τέλειον), when we meet it as the attribute of happiness (*Nicomachean Ethics* 1097b20), by “final” and others by “complete”. Translation differences arise again at in a passage where we meet τέλειοτάτην as an attribute of virtue, translated by “the most complete” (*Nicomachean Ethics* 1098a15-17). In these circumstances differences in interpretation are unavoidable. The inclusivists will prefer the translation "complete" for both the attributes of *eudaimonia* and of virtue, while monists will opt for "perfect".
Aristotle distinguishes between several species of good (ἀȖαșંȞ). In medicine, for instance, health is the good and it is the end, the goal (τέȞος) for which all actions (πȡάȟİȚ) are done (Nicomachean Ethics 1097a15-21). Actions are done for an end, but among ends there are some which serve to fulfill other ends. There is a final end (τȞȞȞȞ) for which all actions are done, and the supreme good (ἀȖαșંȞ) is such a final end (Nicomachean Ethics 1097a25-29). But if there are several final ends, the supreme good will be the most final (τȞȞȞȞ) among the ends (Nicomachean Ethics 1097a30). For Aristotle, eudaimonia is a final end in an absolute manner (Nicomachean Ethics 1097a32-1097b5).

Being desired for itself and not for some other end, happiness has the attribute of self-sufficiency (αȖαșંȞ), but this is self-sufficiency in the context of family life and of life in the city as well, and it is not the sufficiency of the solitary human being (Nicomachean Ethics 1097b9-11). This account on self-sufficiency is important, because it shows that Aristotle did not mean by happiness only the theoretical or contemplative activity. Aristotle states in the tenth book of the Nicomachean Ethics that the theoretical (θȞȞȞȞ) activity has, in the most obvious way, the feature of self-sufficiency that we find in happiness. Still we cannot accept the theoretical activity alone as defining eudaimonia, because happiness requires, according to Aristotle, a life in family and in the city, while contemplation can take place in solitude (Nicomachean Ethics 1177a 12-33). Moreover, Aristotle does not state in Book X that happiness is nothing else but contemplation. Only commentators interpreted it as such. We are only told that among all activities contemplation is self-sufficient, as happiness also is, and it is self-sufficient to the highest degree.

We also have to consider what Aristotle tells us in the fifth chapter of the first book of Rhetoric. The philosopher states that the end of the individual and people in general is eudaimonia and its constituents. These constituents are: internal goods (of the body and of the soul), external goods (a good birth, friends, money and honors) and luck. Aristotle then explains what each of these components means. So far everything seems to favor the comprehensivist and perhaps the inclusivist interpretation too. In Nicomachean Ethics Book I Chapter 8 we have a hierarchy of goods, the most important and the highest being the goods of the soul and, moreover, Aristotle claims, eudaimonia is not something that depends on chance or luck. While the passage from Rhetoric seemed to favor an account on eudaimonia as a compound made up of several goods, there are also some other aspects which raise some doubts regarding the validity of the comprehensivist approach of happiness: the ranking of the goods, the definition of eudaimonia in Nicomachean Ethics Book I, Chapter 7 and Chapters 7 and 8 from Book X.

In Book I Aristotle summarizes the attributes of happiness: it is final (τȞȞȞȞ), self-sufficient (αȖαșંȞ) and it is the end of action (Nicomachean Ethics 1097b20-21). Aristotle deems however that acknowledging eudaimonia as the supreme good is not enough for defining happiness. Opinions about eudaimonia differ, and in order to overcome these disagreements and to explain the meaning of happiness we need to understand what the human function is. As the flutist has a function – that of playing the flute – and his good and perfection (τȞȞȞȞ και τȞȞȞ) lie in (ἐȞȞαȖαș) this function, in the sense that they depend on the proper exercise of his function3, in the same way the man has a function of his own. His good and perfection will depend on the good exercise of this function.

So what is the human function? And once we answer what the human function is, how do we
define happiness? Aristotle’s answer is as follows: “the characteristic activity of a human being is an activity of the soul in accordance with reason or at least not entirely lacking it” (Nicomachean Ethics 1098a9). Thus, Aristotle tells us what is essential for the human being since the function indicates the activity that makes something to be what it is. So the human being is a rational being, his/her function is reason. How did Aristotle come to state this? By elimination. In the first place, Aristotle writes that a life based on nutrition and growth (ἡ λαῖπος καὶ ἡ τηλειοτάτη ἐνεργεία) is not what we are searching in order to define the human function (Nicomachean Ethics 1098a1). A life of perception (ἀληθητική) is common to (κοινή) all living beings (Nicomachean Ethics 1098a1-2), therefore is has to be eliminated as well. The vegetative and the sensorial life are not proper for the human being, whereas the rational life is proper for the human being that is the human being is the only being who can lead a rational life. In Topics Book I Chapter 5 Aristotle states that a property (τὸ ίδιον) is something that does not indicate the essence of a thing, that is the property is not its definition, but yet belongs to that thing alone. The property is also predicated convertibly of that thing. Thus, if we say that it is proper to the human being to learn grammar, then we also have to admit that if someone can learn grammar that someone is a human being. But learning grammar is not the essence of the human being. For the human being it is proper to live a certain type of life characterized by activity of the soul and actions in accordance with reason (ψυχῆς ἐνεργείαν καὶ πράξεις μετὰ λόγου). The good human being lives this kind of life in a good and beautiful manner from a moral point of view (Nicomachean Ethics 1098a15). A good action is that which is made in accordance with the appropriate virtue (ὁμολογου ἀρετῆν). The human being’s good (Ἀθρόπατον ἀγαθόν) is therefore the activity of the soul (ψυχῆς ἐνεργείαν) in accordance with virtue and if there are more virtues, then it is activity in accordance with the best and the most complete of the virtues (Nicomachean Ethics 1098a15-17). Translation of teleiотaten (τελειοτάτην) is problematic. Some authors propose translating teleiотaten by “perfect” and then use this translation as a ground to justify a monist (intellectualist) interpretation of happiness. Others claim that teleiотaten must be translated by “complete” and they ground a comprehensivist interpretation on this translation. We must pay attention not to confuse the best and most complete virtue that Aristotle deals with in the first book of Nicomachean Ethics with the highest virtue (ἡ ρεβίστην) from the tenth book. What happy life from Book I Chapter 7 and respectively from Book X Chapter 7 have in common is not the complete or the perfect virtue, but their contents: both comprise goods of the soul. Aristotle is very clear about it in Book I for he says that the happy life is an activity of the rational part of the soul in accordance with the virtue of this part of the soul. This is a complex, comprehensive virtue, the most comprehensive, it is autarkic. Eudaimonia is autarkic as well, for it comprises all that is necessary for us to be happy. In book X Aristotle brings into attention the activity in accordance with the virtue appropriate to the highest part of ourselves i.e. the intellect (νοῦς). Aristotle deems justice in a generic way to be a complete virtue (τελεία ἀρετῆ) as well. However, we cannot claim that the philosopher meant to say that the activity of the soul in the case of eudaimonia was in accordance with justice as a virtue. In Book V Aristotle talks about justice as a perfect virtue in the sense that under its umbrella we can find all the ethical virtues. In the case of happiness we deal with a complete virtue of the entire rational part of the soul and with eudaimonia as activity in accordance with this complete virtue over a complete life (βίω τελείω).
THE HUMAN FUNCTION AND ITS PROPER VIRTUE

The structure of the human soul, as it is conceived by Aristotle, helps us in understanding that the virtue from *Nicomachean Ethics* Book I Chapter 7 is a complete virtue, i.e. a generic virtue corresponding to human function. The soul has an irrational (ἄλογον) part and a rational (λόγον) one. The irrational part comprises two elements. The first is the vegetative/nourishing faculty (δυνάμεις), which is widespread, therefore we must exclude it from the list of candidates for the human function (Nicomachean Ethics 1102b1-2, De anima 415a24-25). The latter element of the irrational part of the soul is the appetitive (ἐπιθυμητικὸν) or desiring (δρεπτικόν) component, but it also has a connection with the rational (λόγον) part of the soul in the sense that the desiring element obeys less or more the rational element. The desiring part of the soul is common to all living beings which have a sensitive faculty. Of course, these beings are the animals and the human beings, therefore we cannot find the human function in the activity of the soul related to the sensitive faculty.

One may notice that in *De anima* Aristotle refers to faculties of the soul whereas in *Nicomachean Ethics* he talks about functions. In *De anima* Aristotle had not aimed as subject the human function and its connection to eudaimonia. In *De anima* the philosopher describes the soul and nothing more; that is why he does not need to give an account on human function. In *Nicomachean Ethics* it was not enough to remind the structure of the soul, it was necessary to reveal what is the activity of the soul which makes human life to have something proper to it, unmet in the life of other living beings. This is the reason why *De anima* sheds light on faculties/potentialities, while in *Nicomachean Ethics* Aristotle brings into attention the problem of the activities corresponding to these faculties. Therefore we can talk about a nourishing function and respectively the function of nourishing, a sensorial faculty and respectively of perception as a function and so on. The faculties of the soul in *De anima* are: nourishing, desiring, sensitive, of movement and thinking (De anima 414a30-32). The manner in which a faculty/potentiality (δυνάμεις) becomes actual is to be in a state of functioning/activity (ἐν-ἐργ-εῖα). Besides, Aristotle distinguishes in *Metaphysics* as well between activity (ἐνέργεια) and faculty (δυνάμεις) (*Metaphysics* 1048b5).

In the *Nicomachean Ethics* Aristotle does not broadly debate the possible human functions, but he only removes the functions that can be also predicated about other living beings and about plants. After Aristotle removes these common functions he reaches the human function that is the one that cannot be predicated convertibly. For Aristotle is important to frame the most important concepts of his philosophy in the patterns established in his writings on logics. The predications that may be made related to these concepts are very important. This is the reason why the monolithic interpretation of Thomas Nagel goes too far. Nagel claims that the functions do not have any meaning if they are separated and explained each separately and that they do not give any account on what is really proper to human beings unless we conceive them as coherently organized in a monolithic, conjugated manner. If we would judge them in the manner in which some do – united in a collection that constitutes the human function, without a hierarchy of the under-functions – it would be difficult to distinguish if a good digestion for instance is a component of eudaimonia or if it just contributes to it. Nagel deems more plausible the monolithic interpretation in which the function is a compound in which we do not have to pay higher status to intellectual activities, but put them in the same place with the theoretical and practical activities, because
they are supporting each other. Nagel states that this is the appropriate approach for happiness as well (Nagel, 1980). However, since Aristotle himself makes a hierarchy of functions and activities and if he does not seem to conceive the functions in the conjugated manner that Nagel ascribes him to do, then we have no reason to embrace this monolithic interpretation. If Aristotle would have advanced a monolithic conception why would have he strived to distinguish the faculties, the functions, the activities and to reveal what is proper to human beings? Only as a pure logical exercise? This is unlikely, especially as eudaimonia or the human good is the object of politics and the political science has a very pragmatic role.

One cause of so many controversies and interpretations is the misunderstanding of the concept of human “function” (ergon). The definition of happiness revolves around the function, but ergon is a concept that has generated a lot of debate, mainly because of the content of the tenth book of the Nicomachean Ethics. Some authors interpret Chapters 7 and 8 from Book X as a proof that Aristotle deems contemplation – the activity in accordance with the highest (κρατίστην) virtue of the intellect (νοῦς) – to be the perfect happiness (τελεία εὐδαιμονία). However, we must not forget that the human function and happiness are inseparable in Aristotle’s thinking. Therefore, we should go deeper into the understanding of the concept of ergon.

In Metaphysics Book III Chapter 4 Aristotle tells us that the function a thing accomplishes is its final cause. Both the final cause and the function of eyes is seeing. The final cause is in the same time an essential end, its absence would make the eye to stop being what it is. Briefly, the functional definition of the eye is the following: the eye is an organ of the body (genus) responsible for the function of seeing (differentia) (Mureșan, 2006). The human being has a functional definition as well: humans are rational beings. The function of humans is the rational life and their good lies in their function (ἐν τῷ ἔργῳ ... εἶναι) (Nicomachean Ethics 1097b26), i.e. the function is a necessary condition for the good, but the good is not a necessary condition for the function, the good is just proper to the function. Happiness as contemplative activity is also proper to human function, but is not the only proper of human function. In a hierarchy, contemplation is at the top and it has a lot in common with eudaimonia. However, contemplation is not the complete eudaimonia from Book I, it just shares the same genus with eudaimonia: it is a good that lies in the human function.

Aristotle explains that the intellect (νοῦς) is superior to other parts of the soul and consequently the same is the activity in accordance with nous. But Aristotle does not forget that people live in society, that they are not gods and therefore they need to exercise ethical virtues as well, not intellectual virtues alone. Humans need also external goods to a lesser extent than they need ethical virtues, but still need them. Only contemplation is independent of such things, but after all it would not be possible either without satisfying the other necessary conditions for an entirely happy life, that is in the absence of other goods of the soul.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we may say that in Nicomachean Ethics Book I Chapter 7 Aristotle gives a comprehensivist account on eudaimonia. This account on happiness as activity, on the human good depending on the good exercise of the defining function of humans – reason – is compatible with the account on contemplation as a type of happy life in Nicomachean Ethics Book X Chapter 7 and 8. Aristotle offers a lot of explanations in the first book of e Nicomachean Ethics which prevent us to believe that he suddenly changes the definition of happiness in the tenth book where he seems to identify eudaimonia with
the theoretical life. We have no more reasons to believe that the editors of Aristotle’s works have wrongly introduced some chapters in *Nicomachean Ethics*. The account on happiness in the first book of *Nicomachean Ethics* prefigures the account in the tenth book. Aristotle simply reserved some space, at the end of the treaty on ethics, for describing a special type of happy life: the theoretical, contemplative life, i.e. an activity in accordance with the highest virtue of the highest part of our soul – the intellect. After he showed in the first book what *eudaimonia* was and how it was related with the human function and then he gave an account, in the following books, on ethical and intellectual virtues, Aristotle finally shows, in the tenth book of *Nicomachean Ethics*, how do the features of a happy life apply to the contemplative life. There is no proof in the tenth book that Aristotle deems the contemplative life to be the end beyond which there is no other end. There is no proof either that everything that leads to *eudaimonia*, including actions optimized by all the intellectual virtues, would not be an end in itself. These things and action are ends in themselves, but they are also desired for the final end, even if they can be put in a hierarchy where contemplation is at the top.

ENDNOTES

1 The *highest good* is David Ross’ translation of the greek word ἄριστον that appears in Aristotle’s text. Roger Crisp translates it by chief good.

2 Roger Crisp translates τὸ ἔργον τοῦ ἀνθρώπου by “the characteristic activity of a human being” and David Ross by “the function of man”.

3 The good of the flutist is to play well the flute; this good is accomplished through a good exercise of the function of playing the flute. Therefore, in order to be a good flutist one must exercise well his/her function.

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UNDERGRADUATE THESES IN SOCIOLOGY IN TWO UNIVERSITIES IN MANILA, 2003-2012

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to contribute to the existing studies on the logic of practice of Philippine sociology by examining the undergraduate theses of sociology students in selected universities in Metro Manila from the year 2003-2012. The undergraduate students of sociology are the future generation of sociologists. They play an indispensable part on the revitalization and continuation of sociology in the Philippines. A thematic content analysis of the theses shall be undertaken. Focus will be given to the thematic, theoretical, and methodological frameworks utilized by the students. Adapting Bourdieu’s theory of practice, this study is underpinned by a theoretical position that situates the practice of undergraduate theses production within the interplay of the student’s habitus, capital and the field of Philippine sociology in general. Thus, the choice of topic, theoretical, and methodological framework is not an isolated practice but brought about by the relations between a student’s disposition (habitus) and a student’s position in the academic field (capital), within the current state of play in the field of sociology.

Keywords: Philippine sociology, undergraduate, theses, theory, method, practice,

INTRODUCTION

Many assessments of Philippine sociology have engaged in documenting trends in sociological research. There has been a considerable amount of literature focusing on the dominant thematic, theoretical and methodological traditions explored by sociologists in the Philippines (Abad & Eviota, 1982; Talledo, 1993; Bautista, 1994; Bautista, 2001; Lanuza, 2004). These trends were juxtaposed with the prevailing general atmosphere in the discipline.

What is most notable across literatures is the hapless number of researches dealing with theory development and construction. Abad and Eviota (1982) opined that the flowering of applied research in the 1970s meant a virtual stagnation of basic sociological research, resulting to diminutive advances in theory construction and methodology with reference to the Philippine milieu. To which Antolihao (1999) would agree, stating that there is an underdevelopment of sociological theory in the Philippines. Lanuza (2004), in his assessment of the state of Philippine youth studies, argued that “unlike its western counterpart, the local research is often tied up with policy analysis at the expense of critical perspectives” (p.363). He added that this has to do with the dominance of the functionalist paradigm which “provide empirical bases for state policing and surveillance and the reproduction of values of tradition-bound institutions” (Lanuza, p.363). Nonetheless, researches concerning theory construction are not forever lost in the discipline. Talledo (1993) found out there is a breakthrough in the Philippine Sociological Review articles during the 1980s found in the area of theory. The 2000s saw the increasing dominance of policy-driven research and the rise of audit system in overseas development assistance (Porio,
2011). This would necessarily lead to the de-centering of universities as center of epistemic cultures.

Most literatures underscored the primacy of the Functionalist paradigm in the studies of Filipino sociologists (Abad & Eviota, 1982; Bautista, 1994; Talledo, 1993; Lanuza, 2004). However, it is never unchallenged by the Marxist and the neo-Marxist tradition which created a substantial polarization in the discipline (Bautista). But the 1990s will see the increased pluralism in the discipline ushering in “theoretical attempts to integrate opposing perspectives and different levels of analysis” (Bautista, p.9). On the other hand, a different shift would be evident on the earlier years of the 2000s. Lanuza (2004) saw the use of post structural and postmodern analyses on graduate and undergraduate studies on youth. As early as the late 1990s, sociologists already contemplated on the postmodern turn in Philippine sociology (David, 1998; Pertierra, 1998). Nonetheless, according to Lanuza “postmodern social theory has not influenced policy-oriented empirical studies, especially those that deal with macro dimensions. They remained confined to academic studies” (p.367).

Just like in the case of theoretical orientations, there exist a polarization of methodological underpinnings among sociologists in the Philippines (Bautista, 2001). The divide is between Positivism and Phenomenological orientation. However, the debate between these two methodological camps facilitated the convergence of methodologies in the discipline (Bautista). Lanuza (2004) saw the signs of turning away from the positivist assumptions and the structural functionalist paradigm of some recent studies on Filipino youth. He attributes the change to the “growing disenchantment of western social scientists with positivism, and the ascendancy of post modernism in the social sciences” (p.367). But unlike its western counterpart, less has been said about the use of postmodern methodology in Philippine sociology. The foremost explanation is the continued dominance of policy-driven research. “Alongside this trend is the emergence of the audit/assessment culture and knowledge management systems among bi/multilateral institutions engaged in overseas development assistance (ODA) programs” (Porio, 2011, p.264). And as such, the structural functionalist paradigm is still the framework of choice (Lanuza; Talledo, 2003).

However, most literatures available on the development of sociology in the Philippines have focused on the knowledge produced by more seasoned and full-fledged sociologists (Abad & Eviota, 1982; Talledo, 1993; Bautista, 1994; David, 1977; Cariño, 1980; Weightman, 1987; Hunt, 1984). There is an absence of literature pertaining to the contribution made by undergraduate students in knowledge production within the discipline. Nevertheless, the next generation of sociologists is given the task of carrying the torch to the 21st century (Bautista), so to speak. Thus, where that gap in the knowledge is present, it is where this study would like to stand-in. The undergraduate students are much part of the discipline as other seasoned and full-fledged sociologists. If one would like to undertake a painting of the complete picture of Philippine sociology, one has to account for every detail of its structure.

Thus, this paper examined the sociology undergraduate theses in two universities in Metro Manila namely: the University of the Philippines Diliman and the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, from the year 2003 to 2012. Specifically, it aims to: 1) describe the general thematic, methodological, and theoretical trends in the undergraduate theses from 2003 to 2012; 2) contribute to the existing literatures pertaining to the development of sociology in the Philippines; and 3) make some useful recommendations for the future development of undergraduate research in the discipline.
The studies above were able to provide patterns on the research undertakings of sociologists in the Philippines. These are instructive for understanding the choices made by the undergraduates on making their theses. Adapting Bourdieu’s theory of practice, this study is underpinned by a theoretical position that situates the practice of undergraduate theses production within the interplay of the student’s habitus, capital and the field of Philippine sociology in general. Thus, it is proposed that the choice of topic, theoretical, and methodological framework is not an isolated practice but brought about by the relations between a student’s disposition (habitus) and a student’s position in the academic field (capital), within the current state of play in the field of sociology (Maton, 2008).

METHODS

This study conducted a thematic content analysis of sociology undergraduate theses in two universities in Metro Manila namely: the University of the Philippines Diliman and the Polytechnic University of the Philippines Manila, from the year 2003 to 2012. These universities were chosen because in Metro Manila these are the universities which have a sociology undergraduate program.

SAMPLING

Both universities do not have organized archives of undergraduate theses unlike for the masteral and doctoral dissertations. Undergraduate theses are kept and stored by individual thesis advisers. Thus, retrieval is a problem. Since the main goal of this study is to establish a certain pattern on the themes, theories and methods used by the undergraduate students on their theses and not to generalize, non-probability sampling technique was utilized. Hence, through convenience sampling, all available undergraduate sociology theses completed during the year 2003-2012 was included in the sample.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Major data of this study were collected through thematic content analysis. As a supplement to the content analysis, face-to-face interviews with thesis advisers were conducted and questionnaires were sent out to students. Creswell (2003) argued that though “content analysis describes what is in the text, it cannot reveal the intentions of those who created the text or the effects that messages in the text have on those who receive them” (p. 236). Thus, the interviews and questionnaires will provide the necessary data on the motivations and reasons behind the choice of themes, theories, and methods of the undergraduate students on their theses. This study adapted the topics matrixed by Talledo (1993) as themes. However, the themes were adjusted to cater to emerging topics.

RESULTS

POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES MANILA (PUP)

THEMES.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of topics among the undergraduate theses produced in the Department of Sociology in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines from 2003-2011. Out of the 33 theses examined, sixteen 16 of which fall under the Social Organization category. Within the broad category of Social Organization, there are eight sub-topics, to wit: Social group and organization, Social stratification, Medical sociology, Education, Family, Women studies, Youth studies, and Popular culture. Please see Figure 2. The sub-topics of Youth studies and Popular culture were added as these are emerging topics not originally specified by Talledo (1993). Among the eight sub-topics of the Social Organization category, the most explored were Social groups and organization,
Women studies, and Youth studies. The second most explored category is Social Change. The sub-topics under this category are social movements and rural and urban studies, with the former garnering a higher incidence. Please see Figure 3. The category where each thesis false is not mutually exclusive. There are instances where an intersection of different categories is present i.e Youth and Deviance.

METHODS.

There is a clear slant towards the qualitative methods. Out of the 33 theses examined, 25 fall under qualitative. The use of mixed method (qualitative and quantitative combined) is more resorted to than purely quantitative. Please see Figure 4. Interview is the most popular data-gathering technique. Theses using the quantitative method used survey but adopted a non-probability sampling in choosing samples. Mixed method technique would usually include both survey and in-depth interview.

Topics explored by the undergraduate theses in PUP are bent toward the descriptive i.e determining effects, factors, and attitudes regarding a social phenomena.

THEORIES.

As far as the undergraduate theses in PUP is concerned, theories used in framing their analyses are diversified. A slant towards the Symbolic-interactionist perspective and its derivatives is evident. Critical theories, including feminist theories, are also popular choices in the theoretical framework department. But there are also signs of borrowing from other disciplines i.e psychology. This creates a multi-disciplinary character to the analyses made by the theses.

PRACTICE.

An undergraduate thesis in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines is a requirement to earn a Bachelor of Science in Sociology degree. Thesis making is taken on the last semester of student under the Thesis Writing course (SOEI 4023) carrying a three unit credit. Under the official curriculum of the course, thesis writing is taken with three other subjects – HIST 1023, SOCI 3183, and SOCI 3033. Together there are 12 units to be taken during the last semester stay of the student in the University. To prepare the students in the thesis writing, a total of nine units of methods subject (General Statistics, Introduction to Social Science Research, and Methods of Research) and six units of theory subject (Sociological Theory 1 and Sociological Theory 2) are taken by the students in their lower years. Please see appendix for the BS Sociology curriculum of PUP.

Students enrolled in thesis writing have the option of doing an individual or a group thesis. They are also free to choose their thesis advisers. However, final grades shall be given by the thesis defense panelists who are usually chosen by the students. Students are given leeway in the overall conduct of their thesis production. Thus, students shared that they consider topics and methods which they think are easier to do.

UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES DILIMAN (UP)

THEMES.

Figure 5 shows that the topics explored by the students in UP is similar to that of their PUP counterpart. The category of Social Organization ranked first, 17 out of 25 theses fall under this category. Within the sub-topics under Social Organization, the emerging topic Popular Culture ranked first. Please see Figure 6. Just like in PUP, Social Change category placed second as the most explored topics tied with the Social Psychology category. Also, most topics are intersections of different categories i.e. Youth and Popular Culture. A number of theses also affirms a multi-disciplinary approach to the conceptualization
of the subject matter of inquiry i.e. Sociology and Literature.

METHODS.

There is also an inclination towards the qualitative methodology. Please refer to Figure 7. 22 out of the 25 theses choose qualitative as their choice of method. Not one of the theses tried to travel the path of a purely quantitative model but opined to foray at the same time into the qualitative realm by way of triangulation of methods. Thus, there are three theses using mixed-methods.

Undeniably, the character of most inquiries are descriptive i.e. accounting of experiences and auditing of impacts.

THEORIES.

The theses produced in UP are not the ones to shy away from the use of diverse theoretical traditions in their analytical frameworks. What can also be gleaned is the use of more contemporary derivatives of the classical theories i.e. the third place framework. However, there is a slant towards the use of Critical theory.

PRACTICE.

Like their PUP counterparts, UP Sociology students are expected to hand-in a thesis as a partial requirement for a Bachelor of Arts in Sociology degree. Thesis making is only one of the five subjects required to be taken by students during their last semester. Thus, a total of 12 units is taken together with the three units of directed research or thesis writing. In preparation for thesis writing, 17 units of methods subjects (Social Statistics, Quantitative Methods, Qualitative Methods, Survey Research, and Special Topics in Research Methods) and 12 units of theory subjects (Theory I, Theory II, Special Topics in Sociological Theories, and Sociology 179) are taken. See appendix for the BA Sociology Curriculum of UP Diliman.

Thesis production in UP is an individual undertaking. Students are assigned randomly to their respective thesis advisers. Grades are given by the thesis adviser alone. No panel defense is required. Students are also given latitude in the choice of topic, methodology, and theories they will utilize in the production of their theses. Given time constraints, some students shared that they tend to choose the topics and methodology which they think are easier.

DISCUSSION

The finding that most theses from the two universities revolves around the subject of social organization has already been pointed out by a previous study (Talledo, 1993). It can also be pointed out that the category of Social Organization and Social Change are standard subject matters of inquiry of sociologists in the Philippines (Talledo). Thus, the theses studied did not depart from the standard areas of study in the discipline. However, what is lacking is a clear preference towards theoretical work. Within the studies there are small provinces of theorizing but this is only undertaken to provide an analytical framework to the study. This may be due to the fact that from the standpoint of mainstream Filipino sociologists, doing theoretical work does not have an immediate utility (Talledo). However, it may also be argued that a multi-disciplinary approach on studies being pursued by the students fertilizes the theoretical grounds of the discipline in the Philippines. However, this does not mean that students must succumb to intellectual theoreticism. It is important to point out the limits imposed on all theoretical knowledge by the social conditions of its performance (Bourdieu, 1993).

Students have tendencies to look for topics which interests them but at the same time easier to finish. During the thesis writing process, students' from both universities are subjected to the pressure of finishing their thesis while trying to complete the
requirements of their other subjects. Further, the production of a thesis becomes merely a ritual necessary for one to transition to another stage in life. But each thesis contributes to the knowledge produced within the discipline. It could be a good starting point where researches responding to the needs of Philippine society could flourish because unlike their more seasoned counterparts, undergraduate students are not so much burdened by the limitations of a research fund. The 2000s saw the increasing dominance of policy-driven research and the rise of audit system in overseas development assistance (Porio, 2011). Therefore, “the modal choice of topics reflects the kinds of development concerns which sociologists and donors tend to share” (Abad & Eviota, 1982, p.145).

Though not burden on the dynamics of sociologists-donor relationship, the choices made by the students in their theses is contoured upon a different limitation. One of the main difficulties that the researcher encountered is the retrieval of the theses. Both universities do not have an organized archives of the undergraduate theses unlike the masteral and doctor dissertations. From this, the relative disadvantage position of the undergraduate student is evident. Their works are not as important as those of their post-graduate counterparts. Positions in a field are related to one another, not directly through interactions or connections, but in terms of exterior relations of difference, especially in regards to efficient forms of power or capital (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992). Because of the limited theoretical and methodological arsenal that the students have, not to mention that their grades depend on these people, they are required to follow their thesis adviser in the case of UP students and the panelists in case the of PUP students. The choice of topics, theories, and methodologies becomes a collaboration of the students and their advisers and panelists.

Each thesis represents the consolidation of all the capitals acquired by the student in their study of sociology. The thematic, theoretical, and methodological sophistication of the thesis is dependent upon the quality and quantity of knowledge acquired by the students. The choice of methods and theories that will fit the inquiry at hand is based on a student's training. Thus, in the case of the theses which cannot fully commit to a quantitative methodology can be analyzed within the back-drop of the subjects undertaken to fully orient a student in the given method. In the case of PUP students, the subjects on methodology in general are wanting. However, it will be different in the case of UP students. Compared to their counterparts in PUP, they are more equipped in the area of quantitative methodology specifically but among the theses reviewed, qualitative paradigm remains the most popular. What could possibly explain such preference is the structuring debate within the discipline itself – the qualitative and quantitative divide. Traditionally, qualitative methodology is seen to be "easier" compared to its counterpart. Since time is very important in thesis making, a student is attracted towards the "easier" choice.

As far as the theses reviewed are concerned, quantification is not a popular choice among the undergraduate students. Thus, the ascendancy of the positivistic tradition in the works of sociologists seen by Talledo (1993) is not present in the case of the theses analyzed. Most of the theses explored the qualitative paradigm coupled within the frameworks of symbolic interactionist perspectives and critical theories. The topics looked into the micro processes, such as individual cognitions and "voices" of subjects through in-depth interviews, and the mediating mechanisms that link them to the macro.

Not only do internal debates of the discipline factor in the choices made by the students but the ability of the field to define topics as "interesting" or "uninteresting". If there are interesting topics within the discipline, there are also "taboo" topics that most sociologists
wishes to evade. These topics are communicated to the students during their entire study of sociology through books, conferences, journals, and lectures. Sociology exposes what is repressed and silenced therefore questioning the very conditions of possibility of the present scheme of things. It produces truth that no one asks of it (Bourdieu, 1993).

The study at hand is able to give a glimpse of the practice of knowledge production in Philippine sociology through the undergraduate theses of sociology students. It can practically help in reviewing research priorities of existing Sociology departments in two the universities. The process of research mentoring during the early years of the students leading to the thesis writing phase could help improve the selection of topics, theories, and methodologies of the students. Sociology departments may also consider relieving students of other subjects while they are undergoing thesis production so as they can focus their attention to the latter. Corallarily, Sociology departments from the two universities may look into the propriety of putting up an organized archival practice for these undergraduate theses as these are good starting points of researches. Evidently, these theses do not embody the totality of the knowledge produced in the discipline. It is this paper’s limitation and weakness. To undertake the task of depicting Philippine sociology, future studies must focus not only on undergraduate theses in these universities but other Sociology departments in the country.

REFERENCES


# APPENDICES

## BACHELOR OF SCIENCE IN SOCIOLOGY

### FIRST YEAR

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VERIFIED CORRECT BY:

Prof. [Name]
Chairperson, Dept. of Sociology

DR. NENITA T. BUAN
Dean, College of Arts
## Bachelor of Arts in Sociology

**College of Social Sciences and Philosophy**

**140 units**

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**Total Number of Units**

140

1 A minimum of 6 units should be taken in each foreign language.

* Sci 1 & Fil 40 satisfy the 6-unit Philippine Studies requirement.

Note: As a requirement for graduation, all students are required to take six (6) units in one of the National Service Training Program (NSTP) component. ROTC & Civic Welfare Training Service are offered by UPD.
### Bachelor of Arts in Sociology

**College of Social Sciences and Philosophy**

140 units

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**Official Checklist**

Prepared by [Name]

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**University of the Philippines**

Diliman, Quezon City
**FOURTH YEAR**

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**TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS**

140

1. A minimum of 6 units should be taken in each foreign language.

2. Econ 1 & Phil 40 satisfy the 6-unit Philippine Studies requirement.

*Note: As a requirement for graduation, all students are required to take 6 of (6) units in one of the National Service Training Program (NSTP) component. ROTC & Civic Welfare Training Service are offered by UPD.*
Figure 1. Distribution of Topics in Undergraduate theses in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, 2003-2011

Figure 2. Distribution of Sub-topics under the Social Organization category in the Undergraduate theses in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, 2003-2011
Figure 3. Distribution of Sub-topics under the Social Change category in the Undergraduate theses in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, 2003-2011

Figure 4. Methodology used in the Undergraduate theses in the Polytechnic University of the Philippines, 2003-2011
Figure 5. Distribution of Topics in the Undergraduate theses in the University of the Philippines, 2006-2012.

- Social Organization: 17
- Social Change: 1
- Social Psychology: 3
- Deviance: 3
- Practice of Sociology: 1

Figure 6. Distribution of Sub-topics under the Social Organization category in the Undergraduate theses in the University of the Philippines, 2006-2012.

- Social group: 5
- Social exchange: 4
- Women: 3
- Emerging topics: 2
- Youth: 2
- Popular culture: 1
Figure 7: Methodology used in the Undergraduate theses in the University of the Philippines, 2006-2012

Quantitative | Qualitative | Mixed methods
--- | --- | ---
22 | 3 |
DEFINITION OF THE CHILD IN INDIAN LEGISLATIONS

Mrs. Vibha Sharma
Department of Public Administration, MCM DAV College, Sector 36 - A, Chandigarh, India
vibhasharma9@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

A child needs special care and protection which adults do not need, so to provide the same nationally and globally, International Legislations and Conventions define the child as ‘a person below the age of 18 years’. According to the ‘Convention on the Rights of the Child’ a child is a person below the age of 18 years unless, under the law applicable to the child majority is attained earlier. Similarly, the International Labour Organisation stipulates the minimum age of 18 years in the case of Hazardous work, and only under strict conditions it is to be reduced to 16. According to ILO the basic minimum age of work should not be below the age of finishing compulsory schooling. There are exceptions to the definitions given by International bodies and legislations in the developing countries. Under different legislations in India the definition of the child is different. The first policy of the Child – National Policy for the Child in 1974 did not define the child, while the latest policy ‘National Policy for Children 2013,’ is the first child policy that defines the child. As there was a lack of a clear definition of the child, different legislations have defined the child in varied ages. Due to this factor there has been a gap in the provision of services and the rights of the children. This paper examines the definition of the child under various legislations in India.

Key Words: National Policy for Children, definition of the child, legislations.

INTRODUCTION

‘Child’ - the future citizen of a nation needs to be nurtured and cared for in its tender and vulnerable age to enable him to become a dynamic citizen of tomorrow. In the developing countries, poverty forces a family to send the child to take up work outside their homes when they should actually be inside the schools. Children are found working in the most inhuman, hazardous and hostile circumstances where they may be abused and exploited due to their vulnerability. Children have been denied their rights for a long time and their welfare was just not on the agenda of the governments almost all over the world. Initially child welfare was undertaken by individuals or religious organisation like the Iranian Mosque of the Holy Shrine at Mehsud (Baig, 1979). Later on Individuals like Eglantyne Jebb who founded ‘Save the Children Fund’ and International organisations like the League of Nations and United Nations brought the child at the centre stage of the society. Slowly the world community recognised the vulnerable position of children and endeavoured to ensure them their rights.

Definition of the Child

To provide welfare the need to give a legal definition to the child became paramount. ‘Convention on the Rights of the Child’ an International Treaty was the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights-civil, cultural, economic, political and social – to the children. The Convention was formed as the world leaders felt that the children needed a special convention just for them. (Convention on the Rights of the Child). According to Article 1 of the ‘Convention on the Rights of the Child’ a child is a person below the age of 18 years unless, under the law applicable to
the child majority is attained earlier (Rights of the Child, 1990), as they need special care and protection which adults do not need. This is an international law that the State Parties must ensure to all children without discrimination in any form (Rights of the Child, 1990). The State Parties who have ratified the Convention are obliged to bring their legislations, policies and practices in accordance with the standards of the conventions. It is also a method to hold them responsible and accountable before the International Community.

A large number of legislations have been undertaken at the International level by the United Nations and other related organisations like International Labour Organisation. As per the International Labour Organisation in case of Hazardous work the minimum age is to be 18 years and only under strict conditions it is to be reduced to 16. It further states that the basic minimum age of work should not be below the age of finishing compulsory schooling which is generally 15 years of age. In this case there is exception for the developing countries where the minimum age is 14 years. Children between the ages of 13-15 years may do light work that does not jeopardise their health and safety or hinder their educational or vocational orientation and training. In the case of developing countries it is between 12 -14 years of age (ILO Conventions and Recommendations).

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS FOR THE CHILD

Constitution of India, the supreme law of the land is a very comprehensive document that makes provisions for the welfare of every section of the society including children. The main provisions for the welfare of children have been provided for in the following parts of the Constitution (Kashyap, 2010):

1. **Fundamental Rights:** Art. 14 provides that the State is not to deny to any person equality before law (here the rights of the child are also included); similarly Art. 19 (1) states that every person has freedom of speech and expression, so the children also have the stated right; Art. 17 prohibits discrimination of any citizen including a child; similarly Art. 23 prohibit trafficking of human and forced labour. Besides these specific provisions for children are under Art. 15 (3) under which, the State can make special provisions for women and children; and Art. 21 that provides for free and compulsory education to children and 21-A that provides for free and compulsory education to children from six to fourteen years of age.

2. **Directive Principles of the State Policy:** Directive Principles of the State Policy though not enforceable by law, act as very effective guidelines for the Central and State governments for making relevant laws. Child specific guidelines include Art 39 which does not ban child labour out rightly but makes sure that children do not enter a vocation that is unsuitable for their age besides ensuring that a child is given all opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner; Art. 45 directs the government to provide early childhood care and education up to 6 years of age; Art. 46 the Constitution of India directs the State to promote the interests of children belonging to the weaker section especially the SCs and the STs.

3. **Fundamental Duties:** Art. 51 of the Constitution directs the government to follow International Laws and Treaties that have been ratified by the government while making policies and laws in the country.

**POLICIES FOR CHILD WELFARE IN INDIA**

The government of India has formulated child welfare policies and plans to ensure that the provisions for the welfare of the child in the Constitution take a concrete shape in the forms of legislation, policies and programmes.
Following is a brief review of the child welfare policies in India.

a) National Policy for Children -1974
The National Policy for Children did not explicitly define the child but in its provisions stated that the State is to take steps to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14; Informal education is also to be provided to children who are not able to take full advantage of the formal school education; and no child under 14 years is to be permitted to be engaged in any hazardous occupation or be made to undertake heavy work (National Policy for the Child, 1974). The child here is not defined as a person less than 18 years of age.

b) National Charter for Children 2003
This charter (National Charter for Children 2003, 2004) was adopted by the government to reiterate its commitment to the cause of children so that no child remained hungry, illiterate, or sick. The National Policy for Children 1974 was the base of this charter so it also considered the rights of the child up to 14 years of age.

c) National Plan of Action for Children - 2005
Government of India re-affirming its commitment towards the welfare of the child brought ‘The National Plan of Action for Children’ (National Plan of Action, 2011). The basic objective of the plan was to ensure all rights to all children up to the age of 18 years to enable them to realise their potential and grow up to be a healthy and productive citizens, by providing an enabling environment for their survival, growth, development and protection. In this document the child is defined as a person up to the age of 18 years.

d) National Policy for Children, April 26, 2013
The National Policy for the Child, 1974 was the first policy made by the Government of India for child welfare. There was no change in the policy for about 39 years and in the absence of a single definition of the child, the child was defined differently in various legislations. The National Policy for Children, 2013 adopted on April 26, 2013 (Ministry of Women and Child Development, 2013) by the Government of India for the first time gives a definition to the Child and recognises that a child is any person below the age of 18 years. All aspects of the development and welfare of the child are included in this policy. The definition of the child as provided for in this policy is in conformity with the definition given by the United Nations Convention for the Rights of the Child. The National Policy for Children 2013 clearly states the following in the policy document:

“Declaring the children as a nation’s “supremely important asset” in the National Policy for Children, 1974, the Government of India reiterated its commitment to secure the rights of its children by ratifying related International Conventions and Treatises........”

Most of the legislations made to implement the child welfare policies are based on the conventions and treaties the government has ratified.

DEFINITION OF THE CHILD IN INDIAN LEGISLATIONS

In order to provide protection and other child care facilities for the holistic development of children a number of legislations have been passed by the Union Government. Following is a brief review of the legislations:

e) Legislations related to Child Labour
Child labour is a menacing problem in India, a developing country having a large population, rampant poverty and unemployment. In order to ensure that under age children are not employed by the industries, a number of legislations have been enacted by the Government of India to prohibit and regulate child labour in the country. Following is a brief review of such legislations:

f) The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986
This Act has been framed to prohibit and regulate child labour. According to this Act a
‘child’ means a person who has not completed 14 years of age. This Act (Ministry of Labour and Employment):

- prohibits the engagement of children in certain employments;
- provides for the regulation of the conditions of work of children in certain other employments;
- regulates conditions of work of children including fixing hours and periods of work, weekly holidays, notice to inspector etc;
- provides for penalties for employing the child or permitting any child to work; and
- provides for specific procedures relating to offences, appointment of inspectors and powers to remove difficulties.

This Act allows a child to be employed with certain conditions. It does not consider the child to be a person under the age of 18 years as required by the ‘National Policy for Children’ adopted in 2013.

**g) The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act 1933**

This Act (Malik, 2009) prohibits pledging of labour of children. Pledging of labour refers to an agreement between the parent or the guardian in return of any payment or benefit received or to be received, undertake to cause or allow the services of the child to be allowed in employment. Under this Act the child means a person under the age of fifteen years and a guardian means any person having legal custody over the child.


According the Mines Amendment Act 1983 (Malik, 2009), no person below the age of 18 years is to be allowed to work in any mine or part thereof. It further states that apprentices and trainees below the age of 16 years may be allowed to work, under proper supervision in a mine or part thereof by the manager. In such a case prior approval of the Chief Inspector or the Inspector is required. There is a provision of getting the medical examination conducted to ascertain the age of the person in case of a doubt about his age.

**i) The Factories Act 1948**

The main objective of the factories Act was to regulate the working conditions in factories and ensure that basic minimum requirements for safety are provided. This Act also has provisions for the regulation of the employment of children in the factories. According to Section 2 of the Factories Act (Malik, 2009):

- a ‘adult’ means a person who has completed 18th year of age;
- an ‘adolescent’ means a person who has completed his 15th year but not his 18th year of age;
- a ‘child’ means a person who has not completed 15 years of age; and
- a ‘young person’ means anyone who is either a child or an adolescent.

Under the provisions of Section 23 of this Act no ‘young person’ shall be required or allowed to work at any machine to which this section applies unless he has been fully instructed about the dangers arising in connection with the machine and precautions observed and has (a) received sufficient training in work at the machine; or (b) is under the adequate supervision by a person who has a thorough knowledge or experience of the machine.

**Other Legislation concerning Child Labour**

A number of legislations have been passed by the Parliament which prohibits employment of children below the age of 14 to 15 years. These legislations include (Malik, 2009):

- The Plantation labour Act, 1951;
- Apprentices Act 1961;
- The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958;
- The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961;
- The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966; and
- Dangerous Machines (Regulation) Act, 1983.

**j) Legislation related to Child Protection**

Children especially vulnerable children in difficult circumstances need special protection. With an aim to provide protective environment
for children in difficult circumstances the Government of India has provided for the following legislation:

Independent Commissions at the national and state levels to monitor all laws, policies, programmes and administrative mechanisms, from a child rights’ perspective is provided for under this Act (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2006). The National Commission was set up in March 2007 under the stated Act. In these Acts ‘Child Rights’ mean child rights adopted in the Convention of the Rights of the Child and ratified by the Government of India. Child here is defined as a person between 0-18 years of age.

l) Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2000 (as amended from time to time)
The Act (Ministry of Law, Justice and Company Affairs) defines juvenile / child as a person who has not completed 18 years of age. The Act deals with juvenile in conflict with law as well as juvenile in need of care and protection by providing proper care, protection and treatment by catering to their development needs and by adopting a child friendly approach and the adjudication and disposition of matters in the best interest of children and for their ultimate rehabilitation (Ministry of Law, Justice and Company Affairs).

m) Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act 2012
This Act has been drafted for strengthening the legal provisions for the protection of children from sexual abuse and exploitation. It defines the ‘child’ as ‘any person’ below the age of 18 years and provides protection to all children under the age of 18 years from the offences of sexual assault, sexual harassment and pornography (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2012). This Act for the first time clearly defines these offences and also states that the offence is treated as aggravated if it is committed by a person in a position of trust or authority of the child like a member of the security forces, police officer or a civil servant.

n) The Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956
The Government of India has ratified an International Convention for Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Persons and Exploitation of the Prostitution of others. Under Article 23 of the convention, traffic in human beings was prohibited and any contravention of the provisions is punishable by law. Under Article 35 such a law has to be passed by the Parliament. So the Government of India brought “The Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls” bill in 1950, which ultimately became the Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956 (Ministry of Women and Child Development). Under this Act a ‘child’ means a person who has not completed 16 years of age. The Ministry of Women and Child Development has proposed that the age 16 years should be substituted with the word eighteen years. This bill has lapsed as it was not passed by the Parliament.

o) Miscellaneous Legislations related to Children
A number of other legislations made by the Government of India in the field of education, child marriages and the like have provisions for children. Following is a brief review of some such legislation:

p) Right of Children to free and Compulsory Education Act 2009
Right to Children to free and Compulsory Education Act 2009 was enacted in response to the 86th Constitutional Amendment Act 2002 through which Article 21-A has been inserted in the Constitution of India to provide free and compulsory education to children of six to fourteen years of age as a fundamental right. A child according to this Act means a male or female child of the age six to fourteen years for the purpose of providing free and compulsory education (Right to free and Compulsory Education Act - 2009, 2009). If this Act is viewed along with the ‘Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986, then as per the Indian legislations a child
is required to be in school up to the age of 14 years and thereafter can take up employment subject to certain conditions. There is thus no bar on a child to take up employment from 14 -18 years of age. This Act again is in contravening to the definition of the child under the ‘National Policy for Children – 2013’ and can be a cause for the gap in services to the children in the absence of a single definition.

q) Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006
Child marriage has been one of the major social problems of the country. Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929 (as amended in 1979) has been passed to restrain child marriages before the age of 21 years in the case of males and 18 years in the case of females. Due to a number of shortcomings under this Act an improved legislation was brought in 2006 – Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006 (Ministry of Women and Child Development). This Act too has different definitions for the male and female children – 21 years for the male child and 18 years for the female child. In light of the ‘National Policy for Children – 2013’, the government may have to reduce the age of the male child from 21 years to 18 years.

Analysis
The Government of India in order to give the child his due and also conform to the International legislations and ratifications has brought out a number of legislations to develop the child holistically. The socio-economic conditions prevalent in the country force a very large number of children to work outside their homes where they may be exploited or abused. The government of India keeping in mind these factors and the requirement of compulsory education up to the age of fourteen years has banned the employment of children under the age of fourteen years. In order to regulate the industry and not allow it to employ children under 14 years in dangerous and hazardous trade, the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 has been formulated to protect the children and their childhood. Along with this the government has also come up with the RTE – Right to Education Act under which it is the right of a child to be educated from 6-14 years of age. Legislation like the Juvenile Justice (Care & Protection of Children) Act, 2000 (as amended) have been enacted to protect the child who is in conflict with law and reform him rather than treat him like a criminal.

Variation in definition of the Child
Analysis of the definition of the child reveals that the:

- National Policy for the Child - 1974 was a brief document that tried to enumerate all the issues of children. It provided for free and compulsory education for children up to the age of 14 years and that no child under the age of 14 was permitted to undertake hazardous occupation or perform heavy work. Child was not mentioned as a person under 18 years of age in this policy document.
- Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986: Provided that no child under the age of 14 years could be engaged in hazardous work or heavy work. Here also the definition given by the CRC is not adhered but the definition by ILO is followed. So the child labour was not out rightly banned for children below the age of 18 years.
- Factories Act, 1948, The Mines Act, 1983, The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958 The Plantation Labour Act 1951 and other such legislations: The child means a person who has not completed 15 years of age. And an adult means a person who is above 18 years of age and adolescent means a person between 15-18 years of age. A young person means a person who is either a child or adolescent. A young person could be allowed to work on a dangerous machine only under instructions and by giving
him proper training. **So a young person could be employed even to work on dangerous machinery.**

- **Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000:** Under this Act the *child means a person who has not attained 18 years of age.*

- **Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006:** This Act defines the child as a person who has not completed the 21 years of age in case of males and 18 years of age in case of females. Under this Act a **marriage of a boy less than 21 and girl less than 18 years of age is considered as a child marriage.**

- **The National Policy for Children adopted in 2013** for the first time considers a child as any person below the age of 18 years, in accordance with the definition given by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

The definition of a child in different legislations in India is different. Due to this factor there is a gap in the provision of services and the rights of the children. The Cabinet for the first time since independence adopted a policy document at the union level that defines the ‘child’ as any person under the age of 18. The Government will now have to amend all the Acts related to children that define a child in a conflicting manner. The Acts include The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, The Child Marriage (Prohibition) Act and other such Acts to bring them at par with the National Child Policy. This would also be in conformity to the definition of the child given by the UNCRC. Though the country has ratified the Convention but there are a number of gaps in the definition and implementation of the same. The Government will also have to face contentious issues and find a delicate balance between the priorities and requirements of ‘children.’ The Government of India has brought The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Bill, 2012 to assess the situation and bring the needful changes in the definition of the child in Indian legislations.

**The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Bill, 2012**

The Child Labour (Prevention and Regulation) Bill, 2012 was presented by the Ministry of Labour and Employment in the *Lok Sabha* (Lower house of the Parliament) in 2012 and referred to the Standing Committee on Labour by the Speaker of the *Lok Sabha* in consultation with the Chairman of the *Rajya Sabha* (Upper House of the Parliament). The Standing Committee invited experts, other ministries, Non Governmental Organisations and the like to comment on the Bill. The Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India proposed prohibition of employment of children below the age of 14 years in all occupations and processes. In its opinion it would also help in their enrolment in schools in view of the Right to free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 and prohibiting employment of adolescents (persons who have completed fourteenth year but not completed eighteenth year of age) in hazardous occupations and processes and to regulate the provisions of service of adolescents in line with the ILO Convention 138 and 182 respectively (Standing Committee on Labour 2013-2014, 2013). The linking off the compulsory age of education with the age to enter employment was also proposed. This way if the age of compulsory education is increased then there will be an automatic increase in the age to enter employment.

**Dilemma of a uniform definition**

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child defines the ‘child’ as a person below the age of 18 years whereas ILO Convention 138 permits 14 years as the minimum age of employment under certain defined conditions. We observe that in developing countries like India the magnitude of child labour is
enormous. Children even below the age of 14 years are found working even in hazardous conditions in the underbellies of the metropolitan cities. If the government tries to bring parity in different legislations by defining the child as any person below the age of 18 years there are bound to be problems to deal with the situation. If an out of school after the age of 14 years is not able to get employment up to the age of 18 years then child may face hardships. In such a situation when it is difficult for him to continue his education due to the socio-economic situation of the family his chances of turning to crime may increase. If the age is not brought at par with the UNCRC then the childhood of a large number of children may be affected.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Government of India besides bringing parity in the definition of the child in different legislations can also resort to the following measures for the welfare of the child:

- The gap between their childhood and adulthood can be bridged by providing them with platforms to enhance their skills for a better employment later;
- The schools should impart and enhance the vocational skills of children besides providing them with the basic education. It will be beneficial to children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of the society. The Government provides for Mid-Day Meals in schools and along with vocational education – a certain amount of vocational education is already provided - the enrolment in schools may also increase as attending school will be beneficial for the child;
- Child welfare programmes like the Kishori Shakti Yojana (Programme for young girls) and Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for the empowerment of Adolescent Girls have been launched by the government to empower the girls in vocational, life and nutritional skills. Enrolment in these programmes can be effective in delaying the child in taking up work in industry;
- Similar schemes for the adolescent boys can make a difference in the lives of young boys. The need today is to initiate the child into vocational education when their compulsory education is complete. This can be initiated with the help of platforms which the government already has for the welfare of the children. The platforms may be the schools at the rural and urban levels where extension in their education can be provided in the form of vocational education;
- The Government of India has also launched Integrated Child Protection Services Scheme to take care of the child in need of care and protection. The scope of this programme can be expanded with the help of rural and urban local government to vocationally equip children and delay their employment;
- The problem of child labour can only be tackled by viewing this menace in the larger perspective. The Government has initiated steps to do so by starting a number of national level programmes like National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme, Food Security Scheme, National Rural Health Mission, Integrated Child development Services Scheme Integrated Child Protection Services Scheme and the like.

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RIGHT TO LIFE AND ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION: CONSTITUTIONAL APPROACH OF INDIA

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ABSTRACT

The Indian Constitution is the first Constitution of the world, which contains specific provisions on environment and it is one of the very few Constitutions in the world, which provides for specific provision for the protection and improvement of the environment. Many Constitutions acknowledge the fundamental right to live in a healthy environment. The central and state governments have passed hundred of statutes with sole objective of controlling, preventing and managing pollution from various fields of environment. Constitutional amendments and enactment of necessary laws have been introduced by the central as well as state governments. Protection and development of environment involve several regulations. These regulations cannot enforce without Constitutional basis. Environmental protection has become part and parcel of one of the inalienable fundamental rights’ enshrined in part III of the Constitution. John Rawls says that environmental rights like human rights are a special class of justice. The fundamental rights and directive principles of the state policy highlight Indian commitment to protect and improve the environment. At present, most environment actions in India are brought under Article 32 and Article 226 of the Constitution. The writ procedure is speedy and offers direct access to the highest courts of the land. Nevertheless, class action suit also have their own advantages. The powers of the Supreme Court to issue directions under Article 32 and that of the High Court under Article 226 have attained greater significance in environmental litigation.

Keywords: Constitution, protection, provisions, advantages

INTRODUCTION

The Forty-Second Amendment to the Indian Constitution in 1976 introduced principles of environmental protection into the Constitution through major Articles of 48A and 51A(g). Article 48A, part of the Directive Principles of State Policy, obligated the State to protect and improve the environment. Article 51A (g) obligated citizens to undertake the same responsibilities. The Article 253 of the Constitution, which gives the Parliament the power to make laws implementing India’s international obligations, as well as any decision made at an international conference, association or other body. The Supreme Court of India in most of cases, elaborated the Article 21 of the Constitution of India.

The Constitution provisions provide the basement for the framing of environmental legislations in the country. Article 48A the Constitution provides with the protection and improvement of environment and safeguarding of forest and wildlife.

On the basis of these provisions, the environment protection act, 1986 and Wildlife protection act, 1972(amended 1986) have been enacted by the parliament.
On the basis of these provisions, the environment protection act, 1986 and Wildlife protection act, 1972 (amended 1986) have been enacted by the parliament.

The part IV-A of the directive principles of the state policy, fundamental duties have been added under Article 51-A by the 42 amendment of the Constitution in 1976. Under Article 51-A (g) provides that, to protect and improve the natural environment including forest, lakes, rivers, and wildlife and to have compassion for living creature.\(^1\)

The Constitution of India has basic features in respect of the power of the judicial review by the Supreme Court. The part III of the Constitution, which guarantees fundamental right to the people and part IV of the Constitution, which guarantees, the state is under obligation to implement the directive principle. Article 39-A of the Constitution provides ‘Right of Access to Courts” to the citizen. In exercise its powers of judicial review, the courts can enforce the Constitutional and legal rights by interpreting the Articles 21, 48-A and 51 A (g) of the Constitution.

The environment related laws enacted by the parliament under Articles 252 and 253 of the Constitution of the India. The Water Act (prevention and control of pollution) 1974 has been enacted by under article 252 of the Constitution.\(^2\) This act became effective at the State level.

The courts in India have given a new interpretation to the Constitutional provision relating to protect and improvement of the environment. The Supreme Court held that the essential feature of the sustainable development such as precautionary principle and the polluter prays principles are part of the environment protection in India.

The Constitution of India obligates the every state and every citizen has a duty to protect environment.\(^3\) In this research an attempt has been made to analyze the various Constitutional provisions which are the protecting the environment.

Article 21 is the heart of fundamental rights and has received expanded meaning from time to time and there is no justification as to right to live a healthy environment, cannot be interpreted in it. The right to decent environment and right to life are intrinsically linked that two cannot be separated. The contaminated environment will kill human life. Thus, the right to pure and decent environment underlines the right to life which is meaningless in the absence of pure, decent and healthy life supporting ecosystem which sustains life.\(^4\)

In the first indication of recognizing the right to live in healthy environment as a part of article 21 was evident from the case of Dehradun v. State of U.P.\(^5\) In this case, the rural litigation and Entitlement Kendra, Dehradun and a group of citizens wrote to the petition to the Supreme Court against the progressive mining which denuded the Mussoorie Hills of trees and forest cover and accelerated soil erosion resulting in land sides and blockage of underground water channels which fed many rivers and springs in the valley. The Court ordered the registry to treat the letter as writ petition under Article 32 of the Constitution. The Court ordered the closure of number of lime-stone quarries

\(^1\) Article 51A of the Constitution of India  
\(^2\) Central pollution Control board’s report, India  
\(^3\) Article 48 A and 51A,g of Indian Constitution  
\(^4\) Gurip Sing, Environment Law in India,at60  
\(^5\) AIR 1985 S.C. 652
which grave pollution. The Court observed; “this is the first case of its kind in country involving issues relating to environment and ecological balance and the questions arising for the consideration are of grave moment and significance not only to the people residing in the Mussorie Hill range…but also in their implications to the welfare of the generality of people living in the country.”

In M.C.Mehta v.Union of India7 (Oleum Gas Leak Case) The Supreme Court treated the right to live in the pollution free environment as a part of the fundamental right to life under Article 21 of the Constitution.

The Andhra Pradesh High Court in T.Demodar Rao v S.O Municipal Corporation, Hyderabad8laid down that right to live in healthy environment was specially declared to be part of Article.21 to the Constitution. It observed:

“It would be reasonable to hold that the enjoyment of life and its attainment and fulfillment guaranteed by article 21 of the Constitution embraces the protection and preservation of nature’s gifts without (which) life cannot be enjoyed. There can be no reason why practice of violent extinguishment of life alone should be regarded as violate of Article 21 of the Constitution. The slow poisoning by the polluted atmosphere caused by environmental pollution and spoliation should also be regarded as amounting to violation of Article 21 of the Constitution.”9

RIGHT TO LIVELIHOOD

The right to livelihood as a part of the right to life under Art.21 of the Constitution was recognized by the summit Court in Olga Tells v. Bombay Municipal Corporation.10 In this case, the Court held that, if the right to livelihood is not treated as a part of the Constitutional right to life, the easiest way of depriving a person of his right to life would deprive him of his means of livelihood to the point of abrogation. Such deprivation would not only denude make life impossible to live.11 The Court further held that the State may not by affirmative action, is compelled to provide adequate means of livelihood or work to the citizens. But any person, who is deprived of his right to livelihood except according to just and fair procedure established by law, can challenge the deprivation as offending the right to life conferred by Art.21.12

In the case of Subhash Kumar v. State of Bihar and others13 case the Court held that, Art 32 is designed for the enforcement of the fundamental right of a citizen by the Apex court. It provides for an extraordinary procedure to safeguard the fundamental right of a citizen. Right to live is a fundamental right under article 21 of the Constitution and it includes the right of enjoyment of pollution free water and air for full enjoyment of life. If anything endangers or impairs to have recourse to Art.32 for the prevention of pollution is maintainable at the instance of affected person or even by a group of social workers or journalists.

Animal and Environmental Legal Defense Fund v. Union of India14 is yet another case where the Supreme Court protected the right to livelihood of the tribal villages and at the same

6 A.I.R.1985 S.C.652-653
7 A.I.R. 1987 S.C.1086
8 A.I.R.1987 A.P.171
9 Id., at 181
10 AIR1986 SC180
11 AIR 1986 S.C. 180 at 189-190
12 Id. At.194
13 AIR 1991 SC 420
14 (1997) 3 SCC 549
time showed its concern for the protection of the environment. In this case, the petitioner, an association of lawyers and other persons who were concerned with the protection of environment, filed a public interest litigation challenging the order of the chief wildlife warden, forest department, granting 305 fishing permits to tribal villages formerly residing within the National park area for fishing in the reservoir situated in the heart of the National park.

**DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES AND FUNDAMENTAL DUTY OF CITIZEN**

Part IV of the Constitution, containing Articles 36 to 51, deals with Directive Principles of State policy. The Directive principles from the fundamental feature and are designed to achieve socio economic goals. In India, due place has been given to Environment Protection in the Constitution. The important provisions of Indian Constitution dealing with Environment Protection are given in Part IV at Art. 48 A, 51 and Part II of the Constitution.

The Constitution Amendment of 42nd Act, 1976 has provided direct provisions for environment protection and it made fundamental duty to protect and improve the environment. The new two article have been inserted in the Constitution, which are the Articles 48 A and 51 A (g). Article 48 A reads;

“The State shall Endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to safeguard the forests and wildlife of the country”.

Article 51 A (g) reads;

“It shall be the duty of every citizen of India to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, and wild-life and have compassion for living creatures.”

In protecting the natural environment Art.48-A is of immense importance today. Because with the activist approach of judiciary in India the legal value of Directive Principles has constantly grown up in the Indian Constitutional set- up.

Under Part III of the Constitution, which guarantees fundamental rights to the people and Part IV, the State is under obligation to implement the Directive Principles. Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles constitute the ‘conscience’ of our Constitution. The purpose of the Directive Principles is to fix certain social and economic goals for immediate attainment by bringing about nonviolent social revolutions.

In T.Demodar Rao v. S.o Municiple Corporation,Hyderabad, the Court pointed out that in view of Articles 48-A and 51 A (g), it is also the ‘obligation’ of the State and all other including Courts. In the case of Kinkri Devi v. State of the Himachal Pradesh that the High Court of H.P, held that the Article 48 A and 51 A (g) are constitutional pointer to the State and a Constitutional duty of the citizens not only to protect but also to improve the environment and to preserve and safeguard the forests, the flora and fauna, the rivers and lakes and all other water resources of the country.

Article 39-A of the Constitution provides ‘Right of Access to Courts “to the citizens. In exercise of its powers of judicial review, the Court enforces the Constitutional and legal rights of the underprivileged by transforming

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15 Dr Viney Kapoor and PURNIMA Kanna, Human Rights and Environmental Protection, Nayaya Deep, 2009,at 66

16 A.I.R 1987A.P.

17 Id. At 181


19 Id., at 8-9.
the right to life under Article 21 of the Constitution and by interpreting the Articles 48-A and 51 A of the Constitution. The Supreme Court of India has given a new dimension to the environmental protection in India.

**DISTRIBUTION OF LEGISLATIVE POWER**

Under India’s federal system, governmental power is shared between the Union or Central Government and 26 state governments.\(^{20}\)

India is a federation of sorts. The legislative and administrative relations between the union and the states are governed by the provision contained in part xi of the constitution. Parliament has the power to legislate for the whole country, while the state legislatures are empowered to make laws for their respective states.\(^{21}\)

Article 245 provides:

1. Subject to the provisions of this constitution, parliament may make laws for the whole or any part of the territory of India, and the legislature of a state may make laws for the whole or any part of the state.

2. No law made by parliament shall be deemed to be invalid on the ground that it would have extra-territorial operation.

Article 246 further divides the subject areas of legislation between the union and the states. This division is based on three lists. The Seventh Schedule to the Constitution contains these three lists as follows.

1. **Union List**
2. **State list**
3. **Concurrent**

Indicating therein the matters with respect to which parliament and the state legislatures have power to make laws, parliament has exclusive power to make laws with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the Union List. The Parliament and the legislature of any state are competent to make laws with respect to any of any state has exclusive power to make laws for such state or any part thereof, with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the state list. Article 246 makes parliamentary legislation on matters in the Union and the concurrent lists paramount. Parliament has also power to make laws which respect to any matter for any part of the territory of India not included in a State, notwithstanding that such matter is a matter enumerated in the State List.

From environmental point of view, allocation of legislative authority is very important. Thus, the subject matter of environment impact of which has local as well as national bearing, are left to be tackled by the Centre as well as States. There are 200 Central and State Legislation on environmental protection.

**CONCLUSION**

Hopefully, this paper shows that a more active way in dealing with the Constitutional provisions concerning the environment protection. In the Indian Constitution, there is clear distribution power between the centre and the States. Therefore, the Courts in India played a major role to enlarge the scope of the Constitutional provisions. Articles 21 have incorporated a wider perspective of the Constitution. Actually, the Supreme Court of India, apart from being environment friendly. It has given birth to wide range of new principle to area of environment protection.

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\(^{20}\) Shyam Divan and Armin Rosencanz, Environmental law and policy in India, p.42

\(^{21}\) Id. at 43.
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PUBLIC PERCEPTION OF DISASTER LANDSLIDES AND EFFORTS TO OVERCOME IN SUBDISTRICT KALORAN CENTRAL JAVA INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the public perception of a landslide in the district Kaloran Waterford District Central Java Indonesia. The population in this study is the people who have experienced catastrophic landslides. The variables of study include public perception of landslides, landslide disaster management by the community, and landslide disaster management by the government (BPBDs, districts, villages). Data collection techniques using tests, questionnaires, interviews, and observations. Analysis using descriptive analysis and triangulation analysis to test the validity of the data. The results showed the public perception of the landslide (aspects of cognition) classified as less as much (56.76 %), Public perception of landslides (affective aspect) classified as good (40.54 %). Public perception of landslides (aspect konasi) classified as good (45.95 %). Landslide disaster relief efforts by the poor in terms of utilization of early warning and prevention efforts that require funding. Landslide disaster relief efforts by local governments (BPBDs) less in terms of hazard warning signs, monitoring the implementation of regulations on spatial planning, building permits, relocation of residents who are in landslide-prone areas, satisfaction of basic needs and education of disaster. Suggestions should be directed to the community to participate in disaster relief efforts landslide.

Keywords: Perception, Disaster, Landslide

INTRODUCTION

Temanggung District is a district that has several areas prone to landslides. One district that has a high level of vulnerability to landslides is a village in the district, especially Kaloran Kalimanggis, Getas Village, and Tleter. Recorded over the last five years as many as 13 landslides occurred in the village of Kalimanggis, 9 times landslide in the village of Getas, and 7 times the landslide in the village of Tleter (Temanggung Regency in figure, 2009). The phenomenon of landslides in the District Kaloran especially in the three villages experienced almost every year, the Village Kalimanggis, Getas Village, and the Village Tleter provide an understanding of its own to society. By seeing and hearing the catastrophe phenomenon will shape the public perception of the disaster itself.

Perception as a process which is preceded by the sensing process, ie a process receives a stimulus by individuals through sensory organs (Walgito, 2003:87-88). There are three aspects, namely perception Cognition, Affection / Emotions, konasi. Aspects of cognition concerns the knowledge component, affective aspects regarding the feelings and evaluation components, and aspects concerning konasi motivation, attitude, behavior or activities of individuals according to their perceptions of a particular object or situation.

According IDEP Foundation are the subject matter of landslides are: understanding avalanche, landslide causes, common symptoms, impact, preparedness measures, actions in the event of landslides, and action after landslide.
Disaster risk reduction in Indonesia prioritize important aspects that need to be addressed. National Action Plan for Disaster Risk Reduction (NAP - DRR) arranged as a commitment of the Government of Indonesia to the UN Resolution NO.63/1999 who followed up with the Hyogo Framework for Action and the Beijing Action. Disaster risk reduction in Indonesia is done by considering sustainability and participation of all parties (Wuryanti, 2007; Astuti and Sudaryono, 2010).

One of the priorities of the Hyogo Framework for Action is the importance of using knowledge, innovation, and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels (in the long term is expected to be able to build disaster preparedness for effective response at all levels). This is consistent with the framework developed in disaster risk reduction or mitigation, include four framework are: 1) Awareness (behavioral change); 2) Knowledge Development (one of which Education and Training); 3) Public Commitment; 4) Risk Assessment.

The second concept is the main target of Knowledge Development studies and training. One of the priorities for action PRB is the importance of knowledge, innovation, education for building safety and resilience at all levels. Of the many disaster mitigation activities, is one of the most strategic learning or education to the community. Education is an effective means to build people's behavior in the face of disaster (Yaniv, 2010).

Based on the observations or the observations that have been made in the District Kaloran that often occurs in the area of landslides, especially in the Kalimanggis village, Getas and Tleter. Various attempts have been made to raise public awareness of landslide disaster done had, but the fact is not shown significant results.

Based on these descriptions, the researcher aims to determine perceptions about landslides in District Kaloran Temanggung, assessing landslide disaster relief efforts by people in the District Kaloran Temanggung, and knowing the landslide disaster relief efforts by the government in the District Kaloran Temanggung.

METHODS
The research sample is an overall population of 37 households in three villages in the Kaloran district the Village Kalimanggis 15 families, 17 families Getas Village, and the Village Tleter 5 families with the consideration that the three had high levels of vulnerability to catastrophic landslides characterized almost every year in the three villages landslides occur mainly during the rainy season.

The variables in this study include: (1) Public perception of landslides are studied based on three aspects, namely the perception of aspects of cognition, affective aspects, and aspects konasi. (2) Variable Disaster landslides in the study divided into two by a landslide prevention and mitigation of landslides society by the government (BPBDs, districts, villages). Methods of data collection in this study using the test, questionnaire, interview, and observation/observation. Analysis using quantitative descriptive analysis and triangulation analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Results
Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Cognition Aspects)
The perception from the aspects of cognition that knowledge plays an important role in people's lives. Increased knowledge can improve the awareness and sensitivity about the knowledge of the public understanding of landslides, causes, various phenomena of environmental degradation and disasters around the residence.
Table 1. Level of Public Knowledge About Landslide Disaster in District Kaloran (Aspects of Cognition).

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<td>8-14</td>
<td>Less</td>
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<td>56.76</td>
</tr>
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<td>11</td>
<td>29.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>22-28</td>
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<td>8.11</td>
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Based on Table 1 are known as 2 respondents (5.40%) have the perception of the criteria is very less, they do not know the causes, common symptoms, the impact of landslides and their efforts to overcome. A total of 21 respondents (56.76%) have less perception, most people already know the causes and effects of landslides but do not know the common symptoms and the response to the disaster. A total of 11 respondents (29.73%) have a good perception, respondents who are on these criteria have to know the causes, common symptoms and effects of landslides but do not know how mitigation efforts. A total of 3 respondents (8.11%) were the criterion very well, they have to know the causes, common symptoms, effects, and prevention of landslides.

**Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Affection Aspects)**

Perception viewed from the aspect of feeling and affection include evaluation, both components play a role in people's lives. Through the affective aspect, people can use reasoning to assess a good or bad thing and that can be done and what not to do. A person who has feelings and is able to evaluate will be encouraged to take precautions against environmental damage and disasters in the neighborhood.

Table 2. Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Aspects of Affection)

<table>
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<td>40.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>66-80</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data, 2012.

Based on Table 2 are known as 3 respondents (8.11%) have very less perception, respondents who are on these criteria was frightened and traumatized by the landslide occurred, but they have not been able to evaluate the landslide mitigation action either by himself or by the government. A total of 7 respondents (18.92%) have the perception that the criteria are lacking, they have been able to evaluate countermeasures by himself but has not been able to evaluate the response by the government. A total of 15 respondents (40.54%) had a good perception, they have been able to evaluate mitigation actions by himself and partly government countermeasures. A total of 12 respondents (32.43%) have a very good perception, they have been able to evaluate the landslide mitigation actions by himself and by the government-wide.
Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Konasi Aspect)

Konasi aspect (attitude) is an important component for the realization of an action or behavior. The better a person's attitude in the face of disaster phenomena, will be compelled to take action for the response to the disaster.

Table 3. Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (konasi Aspect)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interval Percentage Score</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16-28</td>
<td>Very Less</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29-40</td>
<td>Less</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>41-52</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>53-64</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number 37 100

Source: Primary Data, 2012

Based on Table 3 are known as two respondents (5.40%) had the perception that very less, they only know the response after the landslide occurred. A total of 6 respondents (16.22%) have the perception that the criteria are lacking, because just knowing the response at stages during and after an avalanche course. A total of 17 respondents (45.95%) had a good perception, they know the landslide disaster relief efforts both stages before, during, and after the landslide occurred. A total of 12 respondents (32.43%) have a very good perception of knowing landslide disaster relief efforts both stages before, during, and after the landslide occurred in depth.

DISCUSSION

Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Cognition Aspects)

Based on the research results, it can be seen on the public perception of landslides which in this case is relatively less knowledge, ie 21 respondents (56.76%). This is consistent with a low educational background that the majority of the public elementary education. Majority of public knowledge only in the category of fairly new one because people follow the extension of the landslide. This is consistent with the results of the interview that in the District of New Kaloran once held by government extension programs handled by Waterford County BPBDs. The extension is only followed by a small portion of society that most people's knowledge of landslides obtained only from their understanding of the phenomenon of landslides that occurred as well as through print and electronic media with limited information.

Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Aspects of Affection)

Based on the results of this research is that the public perception of landslides (affective aspects: feelings and evaluations) are classified as good, as many as 15 respondents (40.54%). This is because people often witnessed even become victims of landslides. Some people experience a landslide many times each year during the rainy season, giving rise to feelings of trauma/fear, feel materially harmed because there are parts of the house were destroyed by landslides. The intensity of landslides that often occur also provide experience for the community to evaluate how and what to do when a disaster both for prevention of landslides occur again.

Public Perception About Landslide Disaster (Aspect konasi)

Based on the analysis of the survey results revealed that the public perception of
landslides from konasi aspect quite well that 17 respondents (46%). Society has to know what efforts can be used to cope with landslides, but sometimes people have not implement it because of constrained costs for the construction of the infrastructure for the creation and improvement of the cliff embankment back part of the house destroyed by landslides. Most people assume that the construction of a rock dike has an obligation to the land owner / neighbor.

**Landslide Disaster Relief Efforts (Society)**

Disaster relief efforts by landslides are more likely to rescue and evacuation efforts. Mitigation efforts by the community is still lacking in the utilization of early warning because of limited funds and land constraints such as rainwater drains, dikes manufacture, and planting plants firmly rooted.

Landslide disaster relief efforts by the community is still lacking in the use of early warning means and efforts that require funds or constrained by limited land as rainwater drains, dikes manufacture, and planting plants firmly rooted.

On landslide prevention activities in the District Kaloran BPBDs not create and place signs warning of the dangers of landslides in the District Kaloran, BPBDs not supervise the implementation of regulations on spatial planning, building permits, BPBDs Temanggung has yet to make a building structure that serves to prevent and reduce the impact of landslides due BPBDs Temanggung is a newly formed entity that conducted the program is not maximized.

BPBDs Temanggung has never relocate populations residing in areas prone to landslides in the district due regard Kaloran landslide that occurred in the District Kaloran still relatively mild landslide that do not require relocation for residents who live in areas prone to landslides BPBDs Temanggung has never done business meeting basic needs (common kitchen) for victims of a landslide in the district due regard Kaloran landslide that occurred in the District Kaloran a minor landslide did not cause many casualties.

Repair and reconstruction of infrastructure damaged by landslides done BPBDs Temanggung with funds obtained from state and local budgets Waterford County. BPBDs collaboration with DKK to recover the social psychological conditions to eliminate the post-disaster trauma.

**CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the analysis of the results of research that has been done shows public perception of landslides based on aspects of cognition (knowledge) relatively less (56.76%). Public perception of landslides based on aspects of affective (feeling and evaluation) are classified as good (40.54%). Public perception of landslides from the aspects konasi (attitude) is quite good (45.95%).

Landslide disaster relief efforts by the community is still lacking in the use of early warning means and efforts that require funds or constrained by limited land as rainwater drains, dikes manufacture, and planting plants firmly rooted.

Landslide disaster relief efforts by local governments (BPBDs) is still lacking in terms of hazard warning signs, monitoring the implementation of regulations on spatial planning, building permits, relocation of residents who are in landslide-prone areas, satisfaction of basic needs and education of disaster.

Suggestions should be directed to the community to participate in disaster relief efforts landslide. For Temanggung government should hold a landslide disaster response counseling on an ongoing basis. For the government should provide a means of early warning of landslides are more sophisticated automated systems work.
REFERENCES
Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 24 Year 2007 on Disaster Management.