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Tel: +94(0) 11 3132827

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Table of Contents	Page No
01. Mother's Warmth and Positive Relationship with Others: A Relational Analysis <i>Mr. Farhan Kamrani</i>	1
02. Women Workers in Coffee Industry of India <i>Dr. Molly Chattopadhyay</i>	5
03. Even We are Family : Socio-Cultural Meaning of Violence against LGBT in Taiwan <i>Prof. Shu-Man Pan</i>	15
04. Relational Dynamics and Friendship Stories of Young Adults <i>Ms. Kannu Priya Kamboj</i>	27
05. CSR and Community Development a Strategy for Economic Development: A Study from Sri Lanka <i>Dr. Kumudini Heenetigala</i>	38
06. Women Empowerment and Self Help Group <i>Prof. Dubey Shailja</i>	52
07. Analysis of Familial Interactions and Residential Environments of Living-Near Families : Focusing on the Myunmok-dong Area in Jungrang-gu, Seoul <i>Prof. Jungmin Choi</i>	60
08. Social Perspective of Rural Youth in Reference to Education and Profession <i>Dr. Sushma Pendharkar</i>	71
09. Push Factors to Choose Indonesia for A Vacation : Differences Between Backpackers and Mass Tourists <i>Dr. Roozbeh Babolian Hendijani</i>	80
10. The Study of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Training Provided to Executives in Sri Lankan Cement Industry <i>Ms. Umangi Lasanthika Herat</i>	84

11. Executive-Legislative Relations and Good Governance in Nigeria : Historical and Current Reflections	100
<i>Mr. Abraham Sunday Odumu</i>	
12. Correlates of Academic Achievement in a Group of Primary School Students	110
<i>Prof. Anjali Ghosh</i>	
13. Community based Research on Malnutrition in Children of Urban Slum	117
<i>Dr. Surati Pareshkumar Bharatbhai</i>	
14. Growth of Non-Oil Sectors: A Key to Diversification and Economic Performance in Nigeria	129
<i>Mr. Joshua Sunday Riti</i>	
15. Age-Related Trends in Value of General Health, Self-Efficacy, and Life Satisfaction	143
<i>Ms. Ayani Imeshika Jayathungage and Ms. E.N.K. Prabhangi Anuradha</i>	

MOTHER'S WARMTH AND POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHERS: A RELATIONAL ANALYSIS

Kamrani, F¹ and Malik, A.A²

^{1,2} *Department of Psychology, University of Karachi, Pakistan*

Abstract

This study was an attempt to see the relationship between perceived mother's warmth (an important ingredient of maternal acceptance) and positive relationship with others. It was hypothesized that perceived mother's warmth would be positively correlated with positive relations with others. A sample of 200 students (100 male, 100 female), of ages 20-25 years were randomly sampled from educational institutions. The participants provided their consent and demographic information and filled following questionnaires; (1) Perceived Maternal Warmth Sub-scale of Adult PAQR/CONTROL: Mother (Short form) (Rohner, 2004), (2) positive relationship with others sub scale of Psychological Wellbeing Scales (Ryff, 1995). Statistical analysis indicates that perceived mother's warmth is positively correlated with positive relationship with others. Avenues for future researches are also suggested.

Keywords: Warmth, acceptance, interpersonal relationships.

INTRODUCTION

Parenting and its effects on personality have remained a topic of interest for Religion, Philosophy and Psychology since ever. For instance, the 18th century philosopher Rousseau stressed very much on parenting and did not consider any innate tendencies in child but according to him, everything in a child is learned (Delany, 2005). Freud considers parent-child relationship as the most important factor in personality development (Freud, 1900). The initial psychosexual conflicts are related to parent child relationship (for instance Trust Vs Mistrust, Autonomy Vs compliance etc.). Freud and his paradigm contributed a lot to the scientific understanding of how parenting effects on what a person becomes. The word acceptance is derived from the Latin verb acquiescere that means, to find rest in. In Psychology this word is used to express the recognition of the reality of something without changing it. Acceptance is a central concept of Abrahamic religions. One of the meanings of the word Islam is also acceptance (McDowell, Josh & Stewart, 1983).

“Acceptance” became a subject of interest for

Psychology after the advent of cognitive approach to Psychology. It brought new insight towards parenting. Some researchers explored perceptions (or cognitive representations) of childhood experiences and their emotional aspects to know how it contributed in current personality (Rohner, 2005). The word Warmth, if translated literally refers to a state of being warm in temperature (Merriam-Webster, 2013). The term is more often used for being warm in feeling. In current research the term is used in the context of feeling. The word feeling is also from the realm of Psychology of perception. It refers to the tactile sense of something. But the word is not just limited to the touch sensation but also refers to emotional reactions and states (Merriam-Webster, 2013). A study on quality of mother child relationship by Patterson, Cohn, and Kao (1989) suggests that the children who receive low level of warmth by their mothers and are rejected by their peers have more behavioural problems and are less competent than other children. Imam (2004) also report present similar findings. A study by Kim (2008) on Korean American adolescents suggest that perceived lower maternal warmth is positively related to poor psychological adjustment of adolescents.

Positive relationship with others is an aspect of wellbeing is very much related to the social life of an individual. The word positive is derived from the lexicon of mathematics this makes it, at times misleading. The word "Positive" is at times used with a connotation of essentially good or healthy attached to it but at times it is used in a neutral sense. For instance the term positive reinforcement does not apply that it would reinforce something "positive" or "healthy" in behaviour of the organism but simply it is used to denote that it is done through adding something (i.e. giving a gift to a child, a food item a pigeon etc.). But in the wellbeing context the word Positive is with the connotation of being essentially good. A positive relationship is a mutually fulfilling phenomenon. It is not only getting benefits from others but also serving and supporting them. According to Ryff and Keyes (1995), a positive relation gives an understanding of the mutual barter of happiness and it has the element of trust in it. According to him the welfare of others is also considered in a positive relationship. He also included the element of empathy and warmth. The last element discussed is of prime importance to this paper as it is attempts to investigate the perceived maternal warmth and its relations with wellbeing. For this study it was hypothesized that perceived mother's warmth will be positively correlated with positive relationship with others.

METHODOLOGY

Sampling

For this study a sample of 200, (100 male and 100 females) between ages 20-25 (Mean age=19.81, SD=1.863) was randomly selected from educational institutions of Karachi-Pakistan. For this purpose 2 reputable educational institutions i.e. University of Karachi and Iqra University (Gulshan-e-Iqbal and North Nazimabad campuses) were approached. The entire sample was taken from student population. The students who participated in this research were enrolled in BBA (30.5%), BS (62.5%) and Masters Programs (7%). Almost 100% of the participants described their marital status as single (except only one case). The sample belonged to middle and upper middle socio economic strata and were unemployed (fulltime students).

Procedure

University of Karachi and Iqra University were selected for data collection. These reputed universities were contacted for concept. The universities were visited and some departments were randomly selected. List of students were obtained for random sampling. The selected students were contacted and testing sessions were conducted for the selected students in classroom setting. Verbal and written consent was taken from students. Students were tested in classroom setting. The subjects were given the questionnaires and asked to answer the statements according to relevant scales. It was made sure that all the participants go through the same procedure of testing.

Measures

1. Demographic data sheet.

That will include items for getting information about participant's gender, age, date of birth, birth order, educational level, occupation, socio economic status, residential area and marital status. A special column will record if the parents of the respondent are alive or not.

2. Positive relationship with others sub scale of Psychological Wellbeing Scales (Ryff, 1995).

The complete scale has 6 dimensions: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, self-acceptance. Individuals respond to various statements and indicate on a 6-point Likert scale how true each statement is of them. For current research the positive relationship with others sub scale was used. Author report temporal stability and strong reliability and validity of the scale (Ryff, 1995).

3. Perceived Maternal Warmth Sub-scale from Adult PAQR/CONTROL: Mother (Short form) (Rohner, 2004).

The scale is based on the recollection of the perception of parenting of age 7-12 years. Various domains of mother's acceptance/rejection and control are tapped. The scale has 29 items and has a subscale of mother's warmth (physical, verbal and symbolic). Current research will only utilize the items maternal warmth subscale (8 items). Studies suggest strong

theoretical background and reliability and validity for this scale.

Data Analysis

Correlations were calculated for the given constructs (i.e. to test the hypothesis) through the Pearson product moment correlation. Descriptive statistics (i.e. measure of central tendencies, percentages etc) were also calculated. For these calculations statistical package for social sciences SPSS (12.0) was used.

Ethical Considerations

Participants were approached through proper channel i.e. concerned department were approached and after their consent students were approached. Students were asked for consent for the participation in this research. Those who agreed to participate marked their agreement through their signature in the consent form. Participants were made aware that they can leave the test at any point if they feel discomfort. They were assured that their name or identifying information will not appear in any part of research and will be used only for the research.

RESULTS

Table 1: Correlation between Perceived Mother's Warmth and Positive Relationship with Others

N=200

	Perceived Mother's Warmth	Sig.
Positive Relationship with Others	.167*	.031

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 5 indicates that the Pearson Product Moment Correlation of Perceived Mother's Warmth and Positive Relationship with Others, for the given sample is .167. The value is significant at 0.01 level i.e. there is a significant correlation between these two variables.

DISCUSSION

In accordance with the assumption of this study, there was a positive relationship found between perceived mother's warmth and positive relationships with others ($r= 0.167, p<0.05$). In consonance with this

finding, Rettner (2010) notes that the children who experienced more warmth in their childhood had better relationship with their partners in later life.

Freudian psychoanalysis laid much emphasis on the role of childhood experiences on the development of personality. Erickson (1968) outlined the conflicts of each psycho-sexual development (he also attempted to include a social facade to it). According to him the first stage of development (i.e. oral stage) is marked by the conflict of trust versus mistrust.

This stage lasts from the age of 0 to approx. 18 months. Erikson (1963) theorizes that trust versus mistrust stage is the most significant era in the life of a person. At this age the infant is completely dependent on his parents. The quality of care that s/he gets plays vital role in determining of the personality. At this age the child learns should s/he or should s/he not trust the people around? When the baby needs, does the parent attend to his/her needs? When the child is frightened, will someone comfort him/her? If the needs are properly dealt, the child will learn to trust the people. Otherwise s/he will develop mistrust for the people around him/her. The child who is able to develop trust for others will become more secure and will feel safe. The parents who are not consistent and emotionally deprive their children or reject them inculcate mistrust in their children. The child who is unable to trust others will ultimately have poor and unsatisfactory social relationships. The results of current study are in consonance with these theoretical assertions made by Erickson.

Theorists like Lidz (1949) consider cold by the mother's behaviour towards child as a cause of schizophrenia. And schizophrenia is also characterized by social isolation. Schizophrenics are unable to form deep social relationships and are not willing to trust others. Although Lidz's (1949) conceptualization of "Schizophrenogenic mother" is not accepted by the scientific circles that seek a biomedical understanding of schizophrenia, but If this conceptualizations are valid than it can be said that parenting has so much lasting effects on children that they remain with the person for life long.

Interpreting the results of hypothesis under discussion, with reference to John Bowlby's (1951) attachment theory's assumption that a child must develop a relationship with at least one caregiver in order to be normally in terms of social and emotional

grounds. Current results are in line with this assumption as perceived mother's warmth (that is a predictor of parent child bonding) is found a predictor of positive relationship with others. Combining the current results with the study Harry Harlow that investigated the early relationship between infant and parents suggests that the bonding that is formed early between parent and child is important for emotional behavior. It suggests that that isolation from mother's love makes child dysfunctional, sexually inapt and overly aggressive (Suomi & Leroy, 1982).

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WOMEN WORKERS IN COFFEE INDUSTRY OF INDIA

Chattopadhyay, M

Sociological Research Unit, Indian Statistical Institute, Kolkata, India

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe gender distribution of coffee workers in the coffee curing and manufacturing sector of India in terms of employment size, enterprise type, social security benefits and wage. Unit level data was collected from Employment-Unemployment Survey (2011-12) conducted by National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO). Following National Industrial Classification, 2008 (code 10792, coffee curing and manufacturing of coffee) based on usual principal status, it is found that 34% of the total workers are women. Taking into account National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector definition of formal sector consisting of all unincorporated private enterprises owned by individuals or households with less than 10 workers, only 50% of male workers belong to formal sector while no female worker belongs to formal sector. Surprisingly, only 31 one per cent of male workers and no female worker are entitled to social security benefits. The appalling condition of female workers is evident from female to male wage ratio, it is 0.43. In conclusion, it can be said that overwhelming number of female workers who are mainly casual worker are deprived of all sorts of social security benefits.

Keywords: Coffee, women, informal sector, social security.

INTRODUCTION

Within the urban labour market, gender discrimination tends to take the form of occupational segregation, with women concentrated in poorly-paid, unskilled jobs, and of disparity in earnings, with women earning less than men (Anker, 1997; Birdsall and Sabot, 1991). Studies on female employment have demonstrated the existence of wage discrimination against women (Bourquia, 2002; Joeke, 1985). Labour market discrimination against women is legitimized by stereotypes and social discourse surrounding female work. Employers reflect social attitudes about women's work, for example, when they argue that "women are only working to buy lipstick" (Joeke, 1985). In other words, a woman's work is not considered to be an important source of revenue for the family. However, the rate of female employment in coffee curing sector of India stands in stark contrast to labour market trends; overall female worker population ratio is 24% by usual statusⁱ (NSS, 2011-12) whereas it is 34% in coffee curing sector of India.

The plantation sector, a key sector under India's

inclusive growth regimen is perhaps the most labour intensive enterprise in rural India in comparison with general agriculture. The Indian coffee industry is the fifth largest in the world followed after Brazil, Vietnam, Indonesia and Colombia. Coffee production in India is dominated in Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu forming the traditional coffee growing regions of South India, followed by the new areas developed in the non-traditional areas like Andhra Pradesh and Orissa as well. Coffee production in India has grown rapidly from 18,893 tonnes in 1950-51 to 3, 15,500 tonnes in 2011-12 and grown by 13 percent during the last six decades. According to the latest statistics published by the Coffee Board of India, the area of coffee harvested in India is 409690 hectares, with yield estimates of 852 Kg per hectare forming a total production estimate of 3,14,000 tonnes. According to the statistics provided by the Coffee Board of India 2011-12, the estimated average daily number of employment in plantations is 606702 (Reddy, 2013).

The present study looks at gender statistics in the coffee curing sector and the way in which these determine gender discrimination in the labour market. In other words, it explores how gender relationships are experienced and perceived at work. It hopes to

demonstrate how gender hierarchies, which have been firmly established by society, are extended and maintained in the factory.

NEED OF THE STUDY

At the international level, a series of United Nations intergovernmental resolutions provide a mandate for the development of policies on the advancement of women and gender equality, as well as for the statistics required for the development of these policies. These include the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in 1979 and the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995. Gender equality is also a fundamental component of the Millennium Declaration (UN, 2000), adopted by all Member States of the United Nations in 2000. The eighth Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provide a framework for measuring progress towards fulfilling the commitments of the Millennium Declaration. Goal 3 explicitly calls for gender equality and the empowerment of women, with the associated indicators relating to education, employment and decision-making. The availability and accessibility of gender sensitive data are instrumental to the development and implementation of policies that can facilitate the achievement of national and international objectives. The importance of using statistical evidence to develop appropriate policies is recognized in one of the strategic objectives of the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women. The objective H.3 is: “*generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation*” (United Nations, 1995a).

There are many issues and topics on which gender statistics are relevant and needed. A number of gender equality issues relate to the field of work and employment. These are: a) size, structure and characteristics of the labour force, b) gender pay gap and b) unorganised employment (UN, 2010).

Size, Structure and Characteristics of the Labour Force

The labour force is the most commonly used measure of the “*economically active population*”. According

to the relevant resolution from the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ILO, 1983) it is “*all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services, as defined by the United Nations systems of national accounts and balances, during a specified time period*”. Promoting gender equality in employment is widely recognized as an essential component of economic and social development and a key mechanism to combat poverty. It is also an important factor contributing to the economic empowerment of women in their families and communities, and in society at large. Women’s participation in employment increases their contribution to household resources and their control over the allocation of those resources. This leads to greater economic independence and self-determination, which are both important for women’s empowerment. For these reasons, employment was identified as one of the key instruments for achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Gender equality is not only a matter of equal access to the labour market, but of equal opportunities to access jobs in the broadest range of industries, occupations, and professional levels, with adequate and comparable remuneration and decent working conditions.

The Gender Pay Gap

The *gender pay gap* is a powerful measure providing an overall picture of gender inequality in total pay for employment. It is calculated as the difference between average earnings of men and women as a percentage of average earnings of men. The gender pay gap combines two key aspects in one measurement: gender segregation and discrimination. The first relates to differences in individual characteristics (such as level of education and work experience), and may be determined by personal choices or gender roles. The second relates to factors such as the “glass ceiling” effect which prevents women from reaching the highest-level jobs, or direct discrimination in which a woman with the same job performance as her male colleagues is paid less. Calculating the pay gap for specific groups of workers based on characteristics such as age, sector, industry, occupation, level of educational attainment, and years of seniority in employment, can lead to a clearer understanding of the reasons for gender pay

gaps, and distinguish between the various factors underlying differences in pay. It will also help to identify specific groups of occupations or sectors where the gender gaps may be wider.

Unorganised Employment

Unorganised or informalⁱⁱ sector employment is a primary source of livelihood for many people, particularly women. Informal employment and the related concept of employment in the informal sector are relatively new topics in labour force statistics that aim to capture different aspects of the informalisation of employment (Hussmans, 2003). In 1993, the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) adopted an international statistical definition of *employment in the informal sector* to refer to all jobs in informal sector enterprises; that is, in small and/or unregistered, private unincorporated enterprises with no complete sets of accounts engaged in non-agricultural activities that produce at least some goods or services for sale or barter. Those working in informal jobs include unregistered employees who do not have explicit, written contracts and, as a result, are not subject to labour legislation, but are not limited to these. They also include workers who do not benefit from social protection, paid annual leave, sick leave or pension schemes even though they may have regular contracts. Indeed, informal employment is generally a larger source of employment for women than formal employment (ILO, 2002a). Average earnings from these types of informal employment are low and not sufficient in the absence of other sources of income to raise households out of poverty (Chen et al., 2005).

National Commission on Enterprises of Unorganised Sector (2007) defines 'organised' and 'unorganised' on the basis of various factors including enterprise type, number of workers and social benefits. All enterprises under the domain of the Government/public sector, public/private ltd. company; co-operatives, trusts, etc. are organised. The enterprise type is unorganised if it is proprietary (male and female); entails a partnership with members from the same household or members from different households; and employer's households (that is, private households employing maid-servants, watchmen, cooks, etc.) coupled with the number of workers, which should be 10 or more. If the enterprise type is not known (missing or other than

mentioned above) and employs 10 or more workers, it is considered as organised. When both the organised type and number of workers are not known, then if the enterprise provides social benefits to its workers, it is organised. The residual sectors are considered as unorganised.

For our purpose, we have describe unorganized sector workers as those workers who are not entitled in any type of social security benefits irrespective of the workers location in organized or unorganized sector. First, by enterprise type, organized and unorganized sector employment is differentiated. Then, receipt of any kind of social security benefit by sector is delineated. Those, who received any form of benefit is demarcated as formal sector worker; rest are unorganized sector worker.

Why Gender Equality Is Important

Promoting gender equality in employment is widely recognized as an essential component of economic and social development and a key mechanism to combat poverty. It is also an important factor contributing to the economic empowerment of women in their families and communities, and in society at large. Women's participation in employment increases their contribution to household resources and their control over the allocation of those resources. This leads to greater economic independence and self-determination, which are both important for women's empowerment.

Gender inequalities persist in a wide range of aspects relating to work. Socio-cultural attitudes, lack of co-responsibility in households and of options to control the timing and spacing of births, as well as employment policies perpetuate inequality in the labour market. Promoting gender equality in employment implies that women and men should have equal access to the labour market, including equal opportunities to access jobs in the broadest range of industries and occupations; to attain any of the various professional levels; to receive adequate and comparable remuneration for the work performed; and to have equal access to decent working conditions (including occupational health and safety), social protection, basic rights, contractual tenure and voice at work. In addition, male and female workers also have different needs and constraints. For example, maternity protection is relevant only for women, while parental leave affects

both male and female workers and their households (ILO 2009).

Why to Study Gender Relations in Coffee Industry?

Review of literatures – both national and international suggests that while there has been several studies on varied aspects of labour market of the North East tea industry [George (1986); UPASI (2003); Hayami and Damodaran (2004)], none of the studies examined different forms of production, interrelationships between different forms and women's roles in different forms. Condition of women workers, role of women workers in trade union, patriarchal attitudes by management towards women workers in plantation industry are studied [Bhowmik (1982, 1994); Govt. of India 2009; Jain, 1998; Koshy & Tiwary, 2011; Rajasenan (2010); Rege (1946)]. The study by Tessy Kurien (2000) deals on working conditions, consumption pattern and the gap between Plantation Labour Act, 1951 and its implementation among four plantation sectors of Kerala e.g. tea, coffee, rubber, and spices. But his thesis does not examine dynamics of gender relations in different forms of production and in different strata of land holding. A special issue on "Plantations, Proletarians and Peasants in Colonial Asia" by The Journal of Peasant Studies (1992) focused on the origins and recruitment of plantation labour, the labour process into which the plantation workforce was deployed, and the labour regimes governing this. What are missing are forms of production and dynamics of gender relations.

When one considers the status of research on labour market issues in plantations other than tea, namely rubber, coffee and spices in India, it is disconcerting to note that the existing studies have hardly recognised the need to account for these diverse issues in other plantation crops namely rubber, coffee and cardamom (Sumitha, 2012).

Though there have been various studies and individual or committee based investigations to understand and report about the plantation crisis induced by the trade reforms, most of them approached the problem from the framework of conventional supply and demand analysis (market instruments), prices and trade (Joy, 2004). Hardly few empirical studies are available that try to understand the labour dynamics and the gender impacts of the

crisis and the trade reforms in a holistic manner and offer valuable suggestions and policy guidelines from a sustainable plantation development perspective (Viswanathan and Shah, 2012).

Internationally also, only two studies are found (Adagal, Kurian & Jayawardena, 2013) that examined plantation patriarchy justifying and normalising subordinate status of women workers in both tea and coffee plantation. Overfield and Fleming (1999) laments that, judging from a review of the research planning documents of plantation industry gender relations in coffee industry have seldom been considered in setting research priorities and formulating their research programs.

In a nutshell, review of literature on plantation industry shows that to what extent gender plays a role in differential access of men and women to various employments has not been studied. These studies underpin an industrial model of competitiveness, based on low-wage female labour which is mainly descriptive; does little to reveal the dynamics of socio-cultural factors that affect the division of labour between men and women, both inside and outside the factory that directly or indirectly determine gender differentiated treatment in the workplace.

For example, there has been no study of the actual differential deployment of female labour time in the different production sectors of plantation industry. Further, there has been no study of the social relations of gender hierarchy in the different sectors of coffee industry.

It is of substantial analytical interest to the sociologist to observe and analyze women's status in coffee curing sector and subsequent entitlements, thereby ascertaining gender differences in labour relations.

METHODOLOGY

This study is based on official statistics collected by National Sample Survey Organization Employment-unemployment Survey (2011-12). Unit level data was collected using National Industrial Classification (NIC) five digit industry codes (NIC 2008) on coffee curing and manufacturing sector (code no. 10792)ⁱⁱⁱ. Gender disaggregated data on size of employment, enterprise type, daily wage, social security benefits and size of informal sector was tabulated using usual principal status^{iv} employment. Daily wage data was

calculated as total earnings from wage employment in the preceding week divided by the number of days associated with wage employment by using current weekly status^v.

workers (nearly 1%) is present in urban area^{vi}.

Inequalities in employment size

In the coffee curing sector males constitute 66% of workforce against 34% of females (Table-1). Number of male worker is higher than female workers in urban area (48%) whereas a miniscule of female

Table 1: Rural-urban distribution of Male-female workers in coffee curing sector in 2011-12

Place	Male	M %	Female	F %	Rural+urban	(%)
Rural	2060	17.55	3967	33.78	6027	51.33
Urban	5633	47.97	82	0.70	5715	48.67
Rural + urban	7693	65.52	4049	34.48	11742	100.00

Source: NSSO 68th Round Employment-unemployment unit level data

Regarding status of workers, it is observed that 51% of male workers are regular salaried workers while only one percent of female workers are so (Table-2). It is quite surprising to see that 34% of female

workers are employer while no male worker is employer. Another astonishing finding is that there is no casual worker.

Table 2: Distribution of male-female workers in coffee curing sector as per activity status

Activity status	Rural		Urban		Total		Percentage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	M	F%
Self-employed	583		559		1142		9.72	
Employer		3967				3967		33.79
Unpaid family worker	583				483		4.97	
Regular salaried	894		5074	82	5968	82	50.83	0.70
Casual worker	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Similar to regular salaried worker, 51% of males and 1% of females are working in those enterprises where number of workers is more than 20 that is one of the criteria of organized sector (Table 3). Expectedly, all the female workers (34%) are in those enterprises where number of workers is less than 6.

Table 3 : Distribution of male-female workers in coffee curing sector as per number of workers

Number of workers	Rural		Urban		Total		Percentage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	M%	F%
Less than 6		3967	559		559	3967	4.76	33.78
>6<10	1165				1165		9.92	
>20	894		5074	82	5968	82	50.83	0.70

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

In terms of written job contract, no female workers have written job contract while 8% of male workers do possess written job contract for more than 3 years (Table 4). By method of payment, 48% of males receive regular monthly salary as against 1% of female workers. Consistently with status of women workers, 34% of female workers receive regular weekly payment while only 18% of males receive so (Table 5).

Table 4: Distribution of male-female workers in coffee curing sector as per written contract

Contract	Rural		Urban		Total		Percentage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	M%	F%
No written contract	1165	3967	5633	82	6798	4049	57.90	34.48
More than 3 years	894				894		7.61	0
Total	2059	3967	5633	82	7692	4049	65.52	34.48

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment survey, 2011-12

Table 5: Distribution of male-female workers in coffee curing sector as per method of payment

Method of payment	Rural		Urban		Total		Percentage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	M%	F%
Regular monthly salary			5633	82	5633	82	47.97	0.70
Regular weekly payment	2059	3967			2059	3967	17.53	33.80
Total	2059	3967	5633	82	7692	4019	65.50	34.50

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-2012

Gender Wage Gap

Since there is no casual worker, wage gap for casual workers is not available (Table 6). For rural male workers daily wage is Rs. 65.86; for urban male and female workers it is Rs. 380.28 and Rs. 142.46 respectively whereas combining rural and urban daily male wage is Rs. 333.16 and for female it is Rs.142.86. For regular salaried workers, the wage gap

is 0.43 which is quite high; higher than the national average wagevii of 0.58. By enterprise type, it is found that wage ratio cannot be calculated because no female worker is found in public/private Ltd. and no male worker is found in proprietary male enterprise (Table 7).

Table 6: Average wage earning (in Rs.) received by coffee curing sector workers per day by casual labours and regular/salaried employees by Sex and Type of workers

Type of worker	Rural			Urban			Rural+Urban		
	Male	Female	F/M ratio	Male	Female	F/M ratio	M	F	F/M ratio
Regular /salaried employee	65.86	0.0	0.0	380.28	142.86	0.38	333.16	142.86	0.43
Casual labourer	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: NSSO Employment-Unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Table 7: Male-female average wage by enterprise type, 2011-12

Enterprise type	Rural		Urban		Rural + Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Proprietary Male				142.86		142.86
Public/private Ltd	65.86		380.28		333.16	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Organized and unorganized sector of Coffee industry

Unorganized sector workers are those workers who are not entitled in any type of social security benefits irrespective of the workers location in organized or unorganized sector. First, by enterprise type, organized and unorganized sector employment is differentiated. Then, receipt of any kind of social security benefit by sector is delineated. Those, who received any form of benefit is demarcated as formal sector worker; rest are unorganized sector worker. Organised sector covers: a) government/public sector, b) public/private limited company, c) cooperative societies/trust/other non-profit institutions. Rest belongs to unorganized sector.

In view of the aforementioned definition, including Govt/public sector, public/private Ltd/cooperative as organized sector in the coffee curing sector, nearly 50% of the workers are in unorganized (Table 8). Of the total workers, by enterprise definition, 51% of males and no female workers are in the organized sector. In terms of social security benefits, non-receipt of any benefit is same for both male and female workers (each 35%) (Table 9). In contrast, only 30% of male workers are only entitled to benefits.

Table 8: Gender distribution of enterprise type of coffee curing sector workers, 2011-12

Enterprise type	Rural		Urban		Total	Percentage		
	Male	Female	Male	Female		Male	Female	M%
Proprietary Male	1165	3967	559	82	1724	4049	14.68	34.49
Public/private Ltd.	894		5074		5968		50.83	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2004-05 and 2011-12

Table 9: Social security benefits of coffee curing workers in 2011-12

Social security	Rural		Urban		Total		Percentage	
	Male	Female	M	F	Male	Female	M%	F%
PF+pension+ health care + maternity			2666		2666		22.70	
Gratuity+health care + maternity	894				894		7.61	
Not eligible for any	1165	3967	2967	82	4132	4049	35.20	34.59

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2004-05 and 2011-12

By enterprise type, 51% of male workers and by social security benefits 30% of male workers belong to organized sector. Then the question arises, what is the actual number of informal sector workers? For this question, social security benefits by organized / unorganised sector^{viii} employment is constructed (Table 10).

Table 10: Social security benefits as per organised & unorganised sector by enterprise type in 2011-12

Social security	Organised				Unorganised			
	Male	Female	M%	F%	Male	Female	M%	F%
PF+pension+ health care + maternity					2666		22.70	
Gratuity+health care + maternity					894		7.61	
Not eligible for any	1724	4049	14.68	34.48	2408		20.51	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Now, if by receipt of social security benefits, organised versus unorganised sector employment is categorised, then it is seen that 3560 (30%) male workers belong to organized employment that are in receipt of any social security benefits and no female worker is in organized sector employment (Table 10).

Therefore, it can be said that written job contract, number of workers, and method of payment by enterprise type do not provide consistent picture of unorganized sector of employment (Table 11, 12 and 13).

Table 11: Method of payment as per organised & unorganised sector by enterprise type in 2011-12

Social security	Organised				Unorganised			
	Male	Female	M%	F%	Male	Female	M%	F%
Regular monthly					5074		43.22	
Regular weekly	1724	4049	14.68	34.48	894		7.61	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Table 12: Number of workers as per organised & unorganised sector by enterprise type in 2011-12

No. of workers	Organised				Unorganised			
	Male	Female	M%	F%	Male	Female	M%	F%
Less than 6	559	3967	4.76	33.78				
>6<10	1165		9.92					
>20		82		0.70	5968		50.83	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

Table 13: Type of job contract as per organised & unorganised sector by enterprise type in 2011-12

Type of contract	Organised				Unorganised			
	Male	Female	M%	F%	Male	Female	M%	F%
No written contract	1724	3967	4.76	33.78	5074		43.22	
>3 years		82		0.70	894		7.61	

Source: NSSO Employment-unemployment Survey, 2011-12

CONCLUSION

Based on NSSO employment-unemployment (2011-12) unit level data, comprising 5-digit NIC code 10592, this article explores gender distribution of labour in coffee curing sector of India. Employment size, daily wage, size of unorganized employment and social security benefits are considered. It is found that though women workers comprise 34% of the workforce which is higher than the national average (women's labour comprise 28% of the workforce in India), women workers are more susceptible to discriminatory practices. Only one percent of female workers are regular salaried worker who are receiving regular monthly salary. Female by male wage gap is 0.43, which is lower than the national average of 0.74. On the other hand, following NCEUS definition of unorganized employment that entails non-receipt of any type of social security benefit, it is found that 30% of the male workers are in organized employment while no female worker is in organized employment. The findings confirm that though large numbers of male workers are in unorganized sector employment, deprived of minimum wage and social security benefits, female workers are largely based on a low-wage, unskilled female labour force. Wage inequality still remains norm in the coffee curing sector. As gender equality and empowerment of women is an important Millennium Development Goal, the policy implication is the need for government to institute gender-sensitive workplace regulatory policies and programmes to be adhered in the coffee-curing and manufacturing sector in the country. It should be the responsibility of all the relevant regulatory authorities to ensure that the designated policies as well as the attendant rules and regulations are enforced.

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ⁱ The estimates of employed (or worker) in the age group 15-64 according to the *usual status (principal status)* gives the number of persons who worked for a relatively long part of the 365 days preceding the date of survey.

ⁱⁱ Unorganised or informal sector employment is used interchangeably.

ⁱⁱⁱ As per NIC-2008, there are two codes on coffee industry; 10592 on coffee curing and manufacturing of coffee products and 01272 on coffee growers. Data on coffee growers are not analyzed because there seems to be huge discrepancy in the number of growers between NSSO (4.5 lakhs) and Coffee board (6 lakhs). The difference in the number of coffee growers amounts to 1.6 lakhs. Therefore, only coffee curing sector is taken up for study.

^{iv} A person is considered in the labour force on usual principal status (UPS) if he/she spent relatively longer time (major time criterion) on economic activity during 365 days preceding the date of survey.

^v The current weekly status of a person is the activity pursued during a reference period of seven days preceding the date of survey.

^{vi} Overall, in coffee plantation sector, female labour force participation (55%) is higher than male workers (44%) (Viswanathan and Shah, 2012).

^{vii} According to NSSO EU survey report (2011-12), average wage for manufacturing sector that includes processing of food products is Rs. 395.82. For male workers average wage is 234.65 and for female workers it is 137.18. Thereby, F/M wage ratio is 0.58.

^{viii} Government/Public sector, public/private limited company and co-operative societies/trust/other non-profit organisations belong to organised sector employment as per NSSO schedule 10, 68th EU survey, 2011-12.

EVEN WE ARE FAMILY: SOCIO-CULTURAL MEANING OF VIOLENCE AGAINST LGBT IN TAIWAN

Shu-Man, P

National Taiwan Normal University/ Graduate Institute of Social Work

Abstract

With feminist groups' advocates, in 1998 Taiwan enacted the Domestic Violence Prevention Act (DVPA). Restricted by conservative patriarchal ideologies, the DVPA however only serves to provide protection for heterosexual partners, particularly for those married couples. Those lesbians and gay men who endure intimate partner violence are excluded from the protection of the preservation order. This situation has not been changed until the amendment in 2007. Since then, the protection of the preservation order has been extended to homosexual couples. Since 2000, the United Nations have conducted global investigation of violence against women, but ignored the experience of violence against LGBT. In Taiwan enormous studies regarding violence against women on heterosexual partners have been published but little discussion on domestic violence against LGBT or homophobia. Therefore, this article, based on data from internet survey and media representation on newspaper since 1951, explores the socio-cultural meaning of violence against LGBT within the family relations and gender order context in Taiwan.

Keywords: LGBT, violence against women, homophobia, preservation order, socio-cultural metaphor.

INTRODUCTION

Due to addocation by feminist and lesbian groups, in 1998 Taiwan enacted the Domestic Violence Prevention Act (DVPA). Restricted by both conservative patriarchal ideologies and the Confucian familism, the DVPA however only provides protective order for heterosexual partners, particularly married couples. Lesbians and gay men are excluded from the protection of the DVPA. In 2007 the protective order was extended to homosexual partners, and further to non-cohabitant partners after 2015.

Intimate partner violence (IPV) has become a global issue, but in many countries it is often referred as domestic or marital violence. In Taiwan, numerous studies on domestic violence have published since the past of the DVPA. Thee22 scope of these studies has not gone beyond heterotypical marital relationship. Despite diversities in topics (i.e., types of IPV, impacts of IPV on victims, attitude toward IPV, help-seeking, service delivery, and intervention

Corresponding Author Email: shpan@ntnu.edu.tw

programs), these researches pay little attention to the same-sex IPV. There are only few studies on issues regarding the same-sex IPV but these studies are predominately qualitative and unpublished master thesis. In addition, sources of these studies are mainly from lesbians rather from gays or bisexuals (Lin, 2012; Zhuang, 2008; Tseng, Shieh & Hsiao, 2008; Wen, 2008). The lack of empirical studies on the same-sex IPV in Taiwan could prevent us from understanding the phenomenon of IPV against lesbians and gay men.

In Western countries, numerous studies on the same-sex IPV have been published since the first article published in 1978 (Diamond & Wilsnack, 1978). These studies predominately focus on IPV against lesbians but pay little attention to gays and bi-sexual (Bruke & Follingstad, 1999). Results of these studies show a similarity of IPV-prevalence between heterosexual and homosexual partners (Brown & Groscup, 2009; Distefano, 2009; Senn, 2010). Limited by the unknown population of homosexuality, these studies can only draw data from non-random sampling. Due to the atmosphere of homophobia,

these studies can only collect information predominately by self-administered questionnaire or telephone survey (Bernhard, 2000; Fortunata & Kohn, 2003; Owen & Burke, 2004; Tjaden, Thoennes, & Allison, 1999). For these two major restrictions, it is difficult to predict the prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men.

For instance, a study in the United States using telephone survey with 16,000 males and females shows that the prevalence of IPV against homosexuals is higher than heterosexuals. One-year prevalence for gays is 4.1-10% and 2.6-4.1% for lesbians. Near a quarter of lesbian interviewees report experiences of physical violence in life-time (Brand & Kidd, 1986). Based on a mail survey with 1000 respondents (500 male, 500 female) in Virginia, Owen & Burke (2004) find that 34 of 66 respondents have experiences on IPV. Lie & Gentlewarriery (1991) conducts a survey with 1099 lesbians in Michigan reporting 52% of the respondents who have experiences on psychological, sexual, or physical violence in life-time by their partner. With 90 lesbian couple interviews, Coleman (1998) demonstrates that 46% of the subject have experiences on partner abuse. Fortunata & Kohn (2003) report 33% of IPV-prevalence based on a survey of 161 lesbians and bisexuals with 62% response rate. Bernhard's study (2000) based on 215 convenient samples shows that the prevalence of physical violence against lesbians (51%) violence is higher than heterosexual women (33%), while there is no difference in sexual violence. In summary, the prevalence of all types of IPV against the same-sex is about 25-33%, 17-52% for lesbians (Peterman & Dixon, 2003; Ristock, 2003).

Studies of IPV against the same-sex are predominately centered on lesbians rather than gays or bisexuals. Why do most researchers concentrate on lesbian IPV? One reason for explanation is that theories on IPV are mainly from feminist perspectives which emphasize power asymmetry between sexes. Under the patriarchal society which emphasizes female inferiority and male superiority, women often become the victim of IPV because violence is regarded as a strategy by male to control female. However, the notion of power asymmetry can only explain the IPV against heterosexual partner rather than the same-sex IPV. It is not appropriate for

explaining the same-sex IPV (Shu-Man Pan, 2007; Dobash & Dobash, 1998; Renzetti, 1992; Rohrbaugh, 2006). Calhoun Card (1994), a lesbian feminist theorist, ever questions the appropriateness of power asymmetries for explaining the same-sex IPV. For Card, there is significant difference in sexual identity between lesbians and heterosexual women. Lesbian identity usually develops in terms of social role, not by heterosexual partner relationship. Yet heterosexual women identity develops in terms of the dichotomy of masculinity/femininity (Levitt, Gerrish, & Hiestand, 2003).

Pan, Yang & Lin (2012) also challenge the appropriateness of power asymmetry for explaining the same-sex IPV. This study could be the only one published in Taiwan addressing issue of IPV against lesbians. Based on in-depth interviews with 16 lesbian victims, this study explores the experience and type of IPV against lesbians. This study also addresses the extent to which the phenomenon of IPV against lesbians can be interpreted by feminist viewpoint of power asymmetries between sexes. Pan et al., (2012) do not reject feminist assumption of power asymmetries on the same-sex IPV, but they suggest an inclusion of cultural factors and look into how these cultural factors such as the Confucian familism and gender order become intermediation.

When we address issue regarding IPV, we have to look into how Confucianism shape the dynamic of everyday relation in Taiwan. Familism and gender order are often cited for defining the Confucian society. The concept of familism usually refers to the family based on father-to-son axis and the face of the family, while the logic of gender-order impose male-superiority and female-inferiority dichotomy (Koebel & Murray, 1999; Zhang, 2009). According to the dogma of three-abide and four-virtue, a good woman should follow the rule by her father, her husband, and her son as she is unmarried, married, or in her widowhood life stage (Chen & Yo, 2001). Therefore, a never married woman will bring shame to the family. Influenced by the Confucian ideology, a lesbian in Taiwan society could face with dual pressure from homophobic society and patriarchal family. Under these tremendous pressure and lack of support resource, lesbians could face dual violence from their family and partner.

This article, based on internet survey and content analysis of newspaper, investigates the prevalence and type of IPV against lesbians and gay men, their help-seeking, and the restriction of the DVPA for both lesbian and gay victims in Taiwan. This article also elaborates the socio-cultural implications of family violence against lesbians and gay men.

METHODS

Two data collection strategies were applied for the purpose of this study, including internet survey and content analysis. The following describes these two strategies and data collection procedures.

Internet Survey

Firstly, we apply an internet survey to collect information directly from LGBT for understanding the prevalence and severity of IPV against lesbians and gay men. Due to confidentiality, between Dec. 7, 2011 and Feb. 29, 2012, a self-administered questionnaire was posted to the website and facebook of Taiwan Tongzhi Hotline Association, which is the first and largest LGBT group. Totally, 217 respondents finished their questionnaire.

Definition of IPV

In this study, we define the term “intimate partner violence” as relation between respondents and perpetrators as well as type of violent behavior. According to the purpose of this study, the relation is operationally defined by respondent’s partner/ ex-partner, biological families, and others. Type of violent behavior is operationally defined by emotional, verbal, physical, and sexual violence against respondents.

Questionnaire

The self-administered questionnaire for this study includes three parts: Socio-demographic information, IPV, and violence from families and others. The section of socio-demographic includes variables of biological sex, sexual preference, age, education, partner relation, and occupation. The variable of occupation is defined by work or not-work. If “work”, then further asked in full-employed or part-time employed. Both sections of IPV and violence from families and others are defined by prevalence

(one-year and life-time), incidence, relation between respondent and the perpetrator, type of violent behavior in recent incidence, reasons for that incidence, and help-seeking.

Respondents

Of 217 participants, 128 respondents (59.0%) are biological females, 83 biological male (38.2%), and 6 without both sex identities (2.8%). One hundred and sixty respondents (75.5%) identified themselves as lesbians or gay men, 46 bi-sexual (21.7%), and 6 transgender (2.8%). The range of age was from 13 to 55 years old. Average age for the respondents was 26.5. One hundred and twenty-six respondents (58.1%) were aged between 21 and 30 years old, 45 (20.7%) aged 31-40, 41 (18.9%) aged above 41, and 5 (2.3%) aged under 20. Near half of the respondents (107, 49.3%) were students. Ninety respondents (41.4%) were full-employed, while only twenty respondents (9.2%) were unemployed or housekeeper.

Content Analysis

Source

This study also applies content analysis to explore how media represent the image of lesbians and gay men on the issue of IPV-incidence and violence from families and others due to respondent’s sexual identities. Keywords related to homosexual in Chinese such as homosexual, tongzhi, LGBT, lesbians, and queer were firstly utilized to extract data from the newspaper library. Between 1951 and 2013 there were 14,188 articles related to the issue of homosexuals. After that, keyword “IPV” was used to extract data, and finally there were 86 articles related to IPV or family violence against lesbians and gay men.

Content analysis

Total samples for the content analysis of this study are 86 articles. Each article is a unit of content analysis. According to the purpose of this study, researchers developed an analytical frame work for this analysis that include variables such as relation between victim and perpetrator, type of violent behavior in the incidence, reasons for explaining that incidence, and the image of perpetrator or victim. For content analysis, we not only look at statistical

analysis on relation, type of violence behavior, and reason, but also focus on qualitative content of media coverage of the incidence of IPV against lesbians and gay men.

RESULTS

Intimate Partner Violence

One-year and life-time prevalence

Of the 217 respondents, near ninety percent reported without experiences on IPV over the past 12 months, while 16 (7.4%) respondents reported experiences on

IPV. However, the percentage of life-time prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men has increased up to 16.6% which implies that 36 respondents reported to have experience on IPV in life-time period. Among these 16 respondents abused by their partner, 5 (31.3%) reported 1 or 2 times per month over the past year, followed by once a week (3 respondents), everyday (2 respondents), and only happen once (1 respondent). While twelve (75%) of the 16 respondents reported to have experiences of psychological and emotional violence by their partner over the past year, four (25%) reported to have physical violence by their partner (Table 1).

Table 1: Prevalence of IPV and types of violent behavior

	frequency(%)
One-year prevalence	
yes	16(7.4%)
no	201(92.6%)
Life-time prevalence	
yes	36(16.6%)
no	181(83.4%)
Incidence in one year	
Once a year	1(6.2%)
1-2 times a year	2(12.5%)
3-4 times a year	3(18.8%)
1-2 times a month	5(31.3%)
1-2 times a week	3(18.8%)
1-2 times a day	1(6.2%)
Several times a day	1(6.2%)
Types of violence	
Psychological	12(75%)
Physical	4(25%)

In this study, we further apply Chi-square analysis to examine differences between lesbians and gay men in one-year IPV prevalence. The result of this study has shown statistical significance (χ^2 (df = 1) = 7.223, P-value <0.05) between lesbians and gay men. Of eighty-three gay respondents, only one (1.2%) reported having experience on IPV. Fourteen of one hundred and twenty-eight (10.9%) lesbian respondents reported having experiences on IPV. The victim of gay respondents suffered from psychological violence, but types of IPV against lesbian respondents are diverse. Eight (57.1%) of 15 lesbian respondents had experiences on psychological

and emotional violence, 3(21.4%) on verbal violence, and 3 (21.4%) on physical violence (Table 2).

Table 2: Prevalence and types of IPV between lesbians and gay men

	frequency(%)	χ^2
One-year prevalence		
Gay men	1(1.2%)	$\chi^2(df=1)=7.223^*$ P-value=0.006 < 0.05
Lesbians	14(10.9%)	
Life-time prevalence		
Gay men	10(12.0%)	$\chi^2(df=3)=3.166^*$ P-value=0.104 < 0.05
Lesbians	25(19.5%)	
Types of violence (gay men)		
Psychological	1(100%)	
Types of violence (lesbians)		
Psychological	8 (57.2%)	
Verbal	3 (21.4%)	
Physical	3 (21.4%)	

Types of IPV

Of the 16 respondents endured violence by their partner, twelve (75%) had experiences of psychological violence, followed by physical violence (four, 25.0%), but no any respondent reported sexual violence or economic control by their partner. Eleven (68.8%) of sixteen respondents were abused by their partner, while five (31.2%) were abused by their former partner. Main reasons for the

incidence of IPV were “partner’s personality and psychological factors” (25 respondents, 47.2%), followed by "interpersonal factors"(18 respondents, 34.0%) and" material factors "(10 respondents, 18.9%). “Personality or psychological factors" refers to the partner’s personality, controlling, jealousy, and suspicion, while "interpersonal factors" refers to the interaction of the partner and his biological families, come-out of the closet, affair, and sexual relation. "Material factors" includes economic hardship and unemployed (Table 3).

Table 3: Reasons of the recent IPV-incidence

	Frequency(%)
Material factors	10(18.9%)
Economic hardship	6(60.0%)
Unemployed	4(40.0%)
Interpersonal factors	18(34.0%)
Relation with bio. fam.	4(22.2%)
Other friends	4(22.2%)
Affairs	4(22.2%)
Come-out	3(16.7%)
Others	2(11.2%)
Sexual relation	1(5.5%)
Personality factors	25(47.1%)
Personality traits	10(40.0%)
Controlling	7(28.0%)
Jealous	5(20.0%)
Psychosis	3(12.0%)

Help-seeking

Of 16 respondents having experiences on IPV over past one-year, eleven (68.8%) did not ask help, while five (31.2%) do ask help. Reasons for not to ask for help include "useless" (seven, 31.8%), "do not know who should ask" (five, 22.7%), "losing face" (four, 18.2%), and "afraid exposure" (two, 9.1%). Those five ask helps in total 13 times. Near half (seven, 53.8%) of these 13 times helps comes from informal support system, while slightly less than half (six, 46.2%) come from formal support system such as Domestic Violence Prevention Centers (DVPC), LGBT groups, women's groups, and school teachers. There were only two reported to the court for protective order.

For 36(16.6%)respondents having experiences on IPV over the life-time, every respondent ever asked for help and in totally 51 times for helps. Of 51 times for helps, 44(86.3%)gain helps from informal support systems, and seven (13.7%)from formal support systems such as DVPC and women's groups.In summary, the result of this study has shown that one-year prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men is 7.4%, and the prevalence of life-time has increased up to 16.6% .

Violence from Families and Others

Prevalence

Of 217 respondents, eight-five (39.2%) reported to have experience of violence by their families or others due to their sexual identity. Nearly four of ten (32, 37.6%) occurred once, while six (53, 62.4%) occurred many times (Table 4). For these 85 respondents, about sixty-five percent had experiences of psychological violence (73 times, 64.0%), followed by physical violence(35 times, 30.7%), but few(6 times, 5.3%)for economic control. Violence against these 85 respondents mainly came from others(41, 48.1%)such as school mates, neighbors, or strangers followed by parents and grandparents(21, 24.8%), siblings(8, 9.4%), partner's parents and grandparents(7, 8.3%), partner's ex-partner(6, 7.1%), son and daughter (1, 1.2%), and partner's siblings(1, 1.2%)(Table 5).

Types of violent behavior

Chi-square analysis has been applied to examine differences between lesbians and gay men in one-year prevalence of violence from families and others due to their sexual identity. The result has shown difference ($\chi^2 = 11.529$, $P < .05$) between lesbians and gay men. Gay respondents (53%) were more likely than lesbians (20.7%) to have experience of violence. Violence against gay men mostly came from schoolmates and verbal violence in public places. Violence against lesbian respondents mainly come from their family and experience of verbal harassment, intimidation, and threatened in public places. The results of this study also showed a statistical significance between lesbians and gay men in verbal harassment ($\chi^2 = 12.360$, $P < .05$), psychological violence ($\chi^2 = 12.391$, $P < .05$), physical violence ($\chi^2 = 10.195$, $P < .05$), and economic control ($\chi^2 = 12.847$, $P < .05$) (Table 5).

Table 4: Prevalence of violence from families or others

	Frequency(%)
Violence	
Yes	85(39.2%)
No	132(60.8%)
Incidence (12 months)	
Once	32(37.6%)
1-2 times a year	15(17.6%)
3-4 times a year	10(11.8%)
1-2 times a year	8(9.4%)
1 time a year	14(16.5%)
1-2 times a day	5(5.9%)
Several times a day	1(1.2%)
Type of violence	
Psychological	73(64.0%)
Physical	35(30.7%)
Economic control	6(5.3%)

Table 5: Cross-table for violence against lesbians and gay men

	Frequency(%)	χ^2
Violence		
Gay men	44(53.0%)	$\chi^2(df=1)=11.529^*$
Lesbians	38(29.7%)	P-value=0.001 < 0.05
Types of violence (Gays)		
Verbal	35(79.5%)	$\chi^2(df=2)=12.360^*$
Psychological	15(34.1%)	$\chi^2(df=2)=12.391^*$
Physical	3 (6.8%)	$\chi^2(df=2)=10.195^*$
Economic control	1(2.3%)	$\chi^2(df=2)=12.847^*$
Types of violence (lesb.)		
Verbal	29(71.1%)	
Psychological	19 (50.0%)	
Physical	5 (13.2%)	
Economic control	5(13.2%)	

Help-seeking

Of 85 respondents who had experiences of violence from families and others, 16 (18.9%) asked help, but 69 (81.1%) not ask help. Total is 34 times to gain assistance. About 70% (24 respondents, 70.6%) seek help from informal support system such as friends, classmates, families, sons or daughters, or co-workers. There were only 10 respondents(29.4%) seeking helps from formal support systems including teachers, women's groups, NGO, DVPC, police, or

hotline. Reasons for reluctant to seek help are "useless" (42 respondents, 31.3%), "do not know who can help" (28 respondents, 20.9%), "unfriendly society" (21 respondents, 15.7%), "fear of exposure" (20 respondents, 14.9%), "losing face" (10 respondents, 7.5%), and "others" (8 respondents, 6.0%).

Overall, the results of this study have shown that homophobia is prevalent in Taiwan society. About forty percent (85 respondents) reported to have

experiences on violence from families and others due to their sexual identities. One third of these respondents endured physical abuse, while two-thirds had experience of psychological violence.

Images of Lesbian and Gay Men

Totally, eighty-six articles were analyzed for the purpose of this study. Of these 86 articles, thirty-nine articles (45.3%) reported on gay men, 38 articles (44.2%) on lesbians and 9 articles (10.5%) on bisexuals. In types of IPV against lesbians and gay men, thirty-one articles (35.9%) reported on physical violence, followed by suicide (26, 30.2%) and multiple violence (16, 18.7%). The most significant reason for the incidence of IPV against lesbians and gay men was “break-up” (25, 29.3%), followed by economic hardship (16, 18.6%) and jealous (15, 17.4%).

According to Taiwanese newspaper, the incidence of IPV against lesbians and gay men often attributed to having an “abnormal relation”. Especially, incidence related to lesbians was more likely than gay men to be described as “abnormal”. This image of “abnormal” changed a little bit since 1951. However, possibly influenced by LGBT movement in Taiwan, there is no any article on the incidence of IPV against lesbians and gay men using the term of “abnormal” since 2000. Under the media representation, lesbians are often described as possessive, incomplete personality, and addiction of sex. The image of abnormal represented by Taiwanese newspaper as follows,

“...Actress who engaged in Taiwanese opera was disfigured yesterday. Last year this actress met her partner in the theater. Then they developed an abnormal relationship ...”(1966, 08,04).

After living together, they gradually developed a homosexual relationship. However, recently OO refused to continue their abnormal relationship, but her partner would not allow her to separate... (1988.11.21)

OO and her partner have developed an abnormal relation. Because OO was too possessive, her partner asked for separation... (1992.02.01)

Of eight-six articles, forty-eight (55.8%) reports on perpetrator as victim’s partner, followed by ex-

partner (15, 17.4%), others (9, 10.5%), partner’s friend (5, 5.8%), and partner’s families (2, 2.3%). There is a significant difference ($\chi^2 = 16.637$, $P < .05$) between lesbians and gay men on the reason of interpersonal relation for explaining IPV-incidence. Two reasons including “break-up” and “affair” are often to be cited for explaining IPV-incidence (see Table 6). Table 7 shows a significant difference between lesbians and gay men in the relation of perpetrator and victim ($\chi^2 = 16.637$, $P < .05$). Generally, Lesbians are more likely than gay men to have experiences of violence from partner’s families and friends, but gay men are more likely than lesbians to face violence from others (i.e., strangers or schoolmates).

Scholars (Wang, Bih & Brennan, 2009) point out that for lesbians and gay men the most difficult part for come-out is from their family. Due to internalized homophobia, a lesbian or gay man could face tremendous pressure from their family. It is not uncommon that violence becomes a strategy by family to force a lesbian or gay family member to change their sexual identity.

Table 6 : Reason of IPV on interpersonal between lesbians and gay men

	Lesbians		Gay men		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
No mention	12	31.5%	19	48.7%	$\chi^2 = 16.637$.011*
Come out	2	5.3%	0	0.0%	
Affair	4	10.5%	1	2.6%	
Sexual relation	0	0.0%	3	7.7%	
Break-up	16	42.1%	8	20.5%	
Families	2	5.3%	0	0.0%	
Sex division	0	0%	0	0%	
More than one reason	0	0%	0	0%	
Others	2	5.3%	8	20.5%	

* p<.05;** p<.01;*** p<.001

Table 7: Relation of perpetrators and victims between lesbians and gay men

	Lesbians		Gay men		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
No mention	0	0.0%	7	17.9%	$\chi^2 = 16.637$.009**
Partner	21	55.2%	21	53.9%	
Ex-partner	7	18.4%	5	12.8%	
Partner's families	2	5.3%	0	0.0%	
Partner's friends	5	13.2%	0	0.0%	
Others	3	7.9%	6	15.4%	

* p<.05;** p<.01;*** p<.001

The lady told police that she had a happy family with two daughters. The eldest daughter now is 30 years old. Unfortunately, ten years ago, her eldest daughter in high school was close to a female classmate. Her daughter's classmate often came to their home and stay overnight with her eldest daughter. One day her husband discovered that her eldest daughter and her classmate in the living room engaged unusual behavior. Then they recognized that her eldest daughter and her classmate had abnormal relation. In order to change this situation, her husband closed his business and moved to the United States. Ten years later, they thought that everything was over. So they decided to go back to Taiwan ... (1991.03.14)

Both of them are college students at the same department. One of them has a twin sister. So, three girls live

in a three- beds room. The elder sister suspected that her twin sister and roommate have a close relationship. This morning when the elder sister wake up and saw her sister and the roommate sleep together, so she scolded them "you two should not sleep together." Since her sound is too loud and disturbs other roommates. Both of them feel sad. Without a word they leave the apartment, check into a motel, and burn charcoal for suicide (2010. 12.01).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

According to this study, one-year prevalence of IPV for lesbians and gay men is 7.4%. The number of life-time prevalence increases up to 16.6%. Both one-year and life-time IPV prevalence for lesbians (10.9% &

19.5%) are higher than gay men (1.2%, 12.0%), which implies that lesbians are more likely than gay men to suffer from IPV. Lesbians and gay men often face psychological violence i.e., threats and verbal, but only few has experiences of physical violence. For lesbian respondents, violence mostly comes from their live-in partner. After the incidence of IPV, they tend not to ask for helps. Even asking for help, they seek help from informal system. Main reason for the IPV incidence is interpersonal factor such as perpetrator's personality, power control, economic hardship, and jealousy. Respondents seldom attribute the incidence of IPV to the failure of society.

In Western studies, one-year prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men is about 2.6-10%. The number of prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men in Taiwan, based on the result of this study, is 7.4%. However, there is a contradiction between lesbians and gay men. One-year prevalence of IPV for lesbians in Taiwan is higher than Western countries, but one-year prevalence for gay men in Taiwan is lower than Western countries. The study also shows that the life-time prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men (16.6%) in Taiwan is lower than Western countries, i.e., 25-33% by Peterman & Dixon's study (2003) and 17-52% by Ristock's study (2003). Generally, lesbians in Taiwan are more likely to suffer from IPV than gay men and Western countries.

Although this study has demonstrated a lower life-time prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men than Western studies, the data collection strategy applied for this study, that is, an internet survey has to be considered for the contribution of this lower prevalence. This study also shows that those respondents who are young and still in college with high-education could have more access to internet, while those old generation may not frequently use computer. Therefore, age could be a factor for underestimating the prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men in this study.

Until now, there is no any study on the prevalence of IPV against lesbians and gay men in Taiwan. It is difficult for us to understand the situation of IPV against lesbians and gay men in Taiwan, so we only can make a comparison to previous studies of domestic violence. According to this study, the life-

time IPV prevalence for lesbians and gay men is in the middle position, compared to results from studies on domestic violence (10-18%) (Wang & Chen, 2003).

The type of IPV between homosexual and heterosexual partners is different. Pan & Yu's study (2012), based on the DVPA data set constituted with reporting case of Domestic violence between 2008 and 2010, finds that physical and psychological violence are equally distributed. The results of this study demonstrate that the majority of the respondent (65%) have experience of psychological violence, while only one-third face with physical violence. This study also supported the result of a study by Pan, Yang & Lin's study (2012), based on in-depth interviews with 16 lesbians, that lesbians often face psychological violence by their partners. If physical violence happens, it is usually not severity. This study also supports the results of a study by Chong, Mak & Kwong (2013) in Hong Kong that most IPV victims of lesbians and gay men endure psychological violence and verbal violence. However, this study shows a slight difference from Western studies on type of violence against lesbian. For the Western studies, lesbians are more likely to have experiences of physical violence (Tjaden, Thoennes, & Allison, 1999) or both physical and sexual violence (Senn, 2010), whereas this study finds that about one-fifth of the lesbian respondent endure physical violence. This difference reflects some socio-cultural meaning of gender. It needs to be addressed in the future.

Another issue needed to be concerned is that the result of this study shows a high prevalence of family violence against lesbians and gay men. Almost two of five (39.2%) respondents have experienced violence from families and others due to their sexual identity. This number is about two and half times of IPV against lesbians and gay men. The fact deserves more attention that thirty-five (30.7%) of the 85 respondents have experiences of physical violence from families and others. Most victims gain helps from colleagues. Reasons for not to ask for help from formal resource are: Uselessness, internalized homophobia, and worry about exposure of their homosexual identity.

Finally, the previous studies have demonstrated that both drinking problem and personality are two

reasons contributing to IPV against lesbians and gay men. And, Coleman (1998) further indicates that economic hardship is the main reason for contributing IPV against gay men. However, the result of this study does not support these arguments. The reason of interpersonal relationship is more highlighted by the respondents of this study.

Limited by two reasons, the result of this study cannot be generalized to the whole population of lesbians and gay men. Firstly, source of this study is not drawn from random sampling strategy. Secondly, respondents of this study from internet could be younger than whole population of lesbians and gay men. Limited by these two reasons, the IPV prevalence against lesbians and gay men, especially on life-time prevalence, could be under-estimated.

This study reveals a fact that homophobia is prevalent in Taiwan. Homophobia could become an excuse of violence against lesbians and gay men. Therefore, changing the atmosphere of homophobia is needed via educating the general public. Moreover, under the heterosexual hegemony, the first-line practitioners in the DVPA center in Taiwan are largely insensitive to gender/sexual differences, and services are often delivered in terms of heterosexual ideologies. This will in turn seeking help from formal system. Therefore, training program for discourage the first line practitioners should focus on the notion and practice of anti-sexism and sexual diversity.

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RELATIONAL DYNAMICS AND FRIENDSHIP STORIES OF YOUNG ADULTS (PART – II)

Kamboj, K.P¹ and Maheshwari, S²

Indraprastha College for Women, Delhi University

Abstract

This paper summarizes findings of a 2-step study assessing the friendship experiences among the undergraduate students between 18-22 years of age. Additionally, the study looked at the correlation of relational assessment outcomes with the subscales of Passionate Friendship Survey scores. Through triangulation approach data of a sample of 40 participants (21 females and 19 males) was collected, out of which 21 were interviews were analyzed and the self-report questionnaires were also used. It identified 7 major themes in the same- and cross- sex friendship experiences of the young adults: exclusivity, emotionality, intimacy, problems, benefits, jealousy and family influence. The quantitative analysis reveals that there are significant differences in committed and single participants on affection/preoccupation in friendships. The same-sex friendships are significantly passionate as compared to cross-sex friendships. There is a significant linear correlation between relational outcomes and PF Survey subscales, also showing significant difference between same- and cross- sex friendships on relational esteem.

Keywords: Passionate friendships, same-sex friendships, cross-sex friendships, relational depression, relational preoccupation, relational esteem.

INTRODUCTION

“The glory of friendship is not the outstretched hand, nor the kindly smile nor the joy of companionship; it is the spiritual inspiration that comes to one when he discovers that someone else believes in him and is willing to trust him.” – Ralph Waldo Emerson

Friendship is a form of interpersonal relationship generally considered to be closer than associations. As Anais Nin (retrieved 2012) has said, “Each friend represents a world in us, a world possibly not born until they arrive, and it is only by this meeting that a new world is born.” Though some natural loners are happy without them; most of us depend generally on the company of true friends.

The search through the past literature has been a slight confirmation of the intuitive observations about the nature of friendships among adolescents and young adults. However, most of the studies have focused on the gender differences and quality of

friendships. It is felt that there existed tremendous difference across gender on the quality, expectations, satisfaction and expression of friendships. It is reflected that what we need is the understanding of both same- and cross- sex friendship experiences across gender in emerging adulthood.

Present Study

The present study is a two-phase study with the preliminary goal of quantitative analysis of friendship quality and its nature in the light of relational assessment of the University students. The other goal was to obtain a narrative account of the students about their friendship experiences, to add meaning to the quantitative analysis. In order to know the friendship experiences in depth, narratives were used as a source to answer the following questions, while the phase – 1 was mere screening for the in-depth interviewing through consent of the participants:

1. What are the individual functions and importance of passionate friendships as subjectively experienced by both males and females?

Corresponding author email: kannupriya004@gmail.com

2. Will different qualitative themes emerge between male and female reports of their passionate friendship experience?
3. Will difference be seen in both cross-sex and same-sex friendships among males and females?
4. Is there a romantic undertone or sexual attraction in cross-sex friendships?
5. What is the influence of family on the friendship experiences?

The present undertaking is an attempt to explore the feelings that these individuals seek in their different friendship experiences.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

For the present study, a sample of 40 participants within 18-22 years of age was chosen. The sample includes 21 (52.5%) females, and 19 (47.5%) males. In the sample of 40 participants, categorised into the groups, namely 21 (52.5%) were living alone, and 19 (47.5%) were living with the family, also, 27 (67.5%) participants were single, whereas 13 (32.5%) participants were committed in a heterosexual relationship. These factors of categorisation were chosen to separate the changes that occur in narratives.

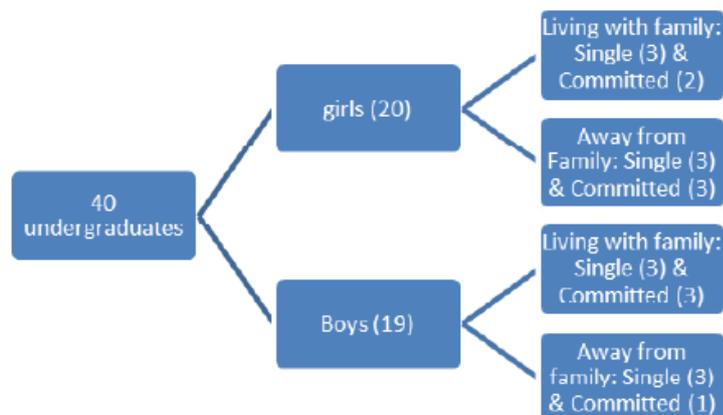


Figure 1: Sample description

Besides the differences in their living status, and relationship status, these differ not individuals shared a common experience of both same-sex and cross-sex friendships presently.

Method of Enquiry

The method of data collection was based on mixing of quantitative and qualitative measures, which is generally known as 'triangulation' (Webb et al, 1966). Thus, phase 1 of the study involved filling of the questionnaires by the participants, which was followed by Phase 2 which was interview method based on the consent given by the participants.

Phase 1 included a set of questionnaires namely Passionate Friendship Survey (Glover, 2009) and Relational Assessment Questionnaire (Snell & Finney, 1993) and a demographic table with the letter of consent.

Passionate Friendship Survey (Glover, 2009) is a 28-item self-report questionnaire that assesses the nature of friendships. It is divided into three parts initial four questions are demographic open-ended questions, rest all questions are 4-point Likert type with last eight questions giving a choice based on the frequency. Through the principal axis factor analysis three different subs ales of the questionnaire were introduced: attachment/secure base reflect the individual's perception of the friend as supportive, available and consistent, as well as the level of satisfaction with the friendship. The six-item factor labelled as affection/preoccupation captures a range of affection all behaviours (eg Handholding, cuddling, eye gazing), as well as preoccupation or fascination with the friend. The four-item factor of intensity/exclusivity captures the level of importance and intensity experienced in the friendship. However, jealousy has been identified as an important construct within passionate friendships, and despite the exclusion from the parallel analysis, these were retained because of the theoretical relevance. Glover calculated Cronbach's alpha for attachment/secure base, affection/preoccupation, intensity/exclusivity, jealousy and total scores as .90, .85, .77, .75, and .90 respectively.

Relational Assessment Questionnaire (Snell & Finney, 1993) is a 30-item self-report questionnaire that assesses different areas of relationship

functioning. The items are answered on 5-point Likert scale (A=not at all characteristic of me, E=very characteristic of me). Three different components of relational functioning are assessed: relational esteem, relational depression, and relational preoccupation. Relational esteem is defined as the tendency to positively evaluate one's capacity to relate to intimately to another person. Relational depression is the tendency to feel depressed about the status of one's intimate relationships. Finally relational preoccupation is the tendency to be highly obsessed with thoughts about intimate relationships. Assessment of convergent and discrimination validity of RAQ suggests that the three relational indices were related in predictable ways to relationship involvement and attraction. Snell & Finney observed Cronbach's alpha for relational esteem, depression and preoccupation of .81, .88 and .85 respectively, with 8-week test-retest reliabilities of .71, .73 and .70 respectively. Cronbach's alpha for the three sub scales were .85, .89 and .89 respectively.

The use of quantitative research has been done for its capacity to provide meaningful analysis of a large data and its analysis that the research question demands. To a qualitative researcher, it is imperative to locate the subjectivities to explore the distinctiveness of individual cases.

For the present study, narrative analysis was used as the qualitative method to look at the nature of same-sex and cross-sex friendships among males and females studying in the University of Delhi. Technically, "narratives" become the root metaphor for psychology to replace the mechanistic and organic metaphors which shaped so much theory and discipline over the past century (Sarbin, 1986). Human activities and experiences are filled with 'meaning' and that stories, rather than logical arguments or lawful formulations, are the vehicle by which that meaning is communicated. Life stories are the best way to deal with the need to belong and love, as described in the Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (1943). The need for belonging can overcome the physiological and security needs, depending on the strength of the peer pressure. A recent study by Glover (2009) has also used a mixed approach to study the nature of friendships among young adult women, where she used semi-structured interviews to assess the friendship experiences.

Individuals while narrating their life stories feel the linkages between self, culture and their relationships with others. Thus, analysis of the narratives is a means for untwining these experiential linkages and comprehending the ‘why the movement’ to the ‘where’. Narrative ways of working with people are based on the idea that people’s lives and relationships are shaped by the stories which individuals and communities of people develop in order to give meaning to their experiences. The idea is that these “narratives” of meaning not just reflect or represent our lives, they actually shape and make up our lives. In reality, the quantitative approaches are not mutually exclusive and can be used in combination. Qualitative analysis, as suggested by Smith (1975), deals with the forms and antecedent-consequent patterns of form, while quantitative analysis with duration and frequency of form.

Research Settings

After the consent of the participant for interview, a location which was comfortably convenient for both the participant as well as the researcher was preferred. In most cases, it was either the institutional areas or outdoor spaces. It was ensured that there are least distractions, so that participant feels comfortable in talking about himself/herself.

Procedure

Participants were recruited using snowball technique of sampling from the colleges of Delhi-NCR. Verbal announcements regarding the study and instructions for the participants were given in large size groups in various colleges. Interested students were given the hard copies of the information form and the survey to be filled on the spot. After completing the form, they were asked to indicate if they would be interested in receiving summary of results, or being contacted for the follow-up interview. Names, and contact information were kept in separate files, not connected with the responses.

Semi-structured interviews lasting from 30 minutes to 1 hour were conducted with interested students. Upon arrival, participants were given informed consent which was explained by the researcher. Interviews recorded were transcribed and coded according to the consistent themes emerging during the interview.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The results have been presented in two major ways:

- **Analysis of Group comparisons:** This section includes the differences between groups based on types of friendships, gender, living status, and relationship status with respect to the variables: attachment/ secure base, affection/preoccupation, intensity/exclusivity, jealousy, total score and relational assessment outcomes.
- **Analysis of Inter-correlations:** This section presents the inter-correlation between the variables of Relational Assessment Outcomes, attachment/secure base, affection/preoccupation, intensity/exclusivity, jealousy and total score.

The narrative analysis of all the interviews showed following themes majorly in their cross- and same-sex friendships:

Perceived Uniqueness of the Friend

It was found that most of the participants focused on the personality factors of their friends, especially for the initial friendship formation. When asked about his friendship with his female friend, Preet¹ (single male living alone) says, “She’s like a totally different person, a completely out of this world kind of personality. It’s not that she’s physically so attractive, but yes it’s her nature, there is something different in her – totally out of this world I would say.” This shows the importance of the nature and behaviour of a person in the formation of friendships. Tanuja, living with her family, says “hum judge nahi kart eek dusre ko, to vo sabse bada factor hai humari friendship ka.” (We don’t judge each other, which is the best part of our friendship). A similar pattern of such responses showing how non-judgmental and understanding nature as well as overall personality factors play an important role in friendship formation. In fact, various social psychology theories like matching hypothesis by Erving Goffman (1981) suggests that people are more likely to form long term relationships with those who equally matched in social attributes, as they are. Another view by Byrne (1971) also known as ‘the law of attraction’, suggests

that attraction towards a person is positively related to the proportion of attitudes similarly associated with that person. Considering the same-sex friendship experiences of the participants, the findings suggests the similar patterns of responses as far as friend selection and friendship maintenance is concerned, although the intensity and attachment is higher than cross-sex friendships (refer table 1).

Table 1: Dependent samples t-test comparing same-sex and cross-sex friendships on the PF Survey Scales, Jealousy items and total score (n=40; $\alpha=0.05$)

Survey Scales	t-score	Df	P
Attachment/Secure Base	2.443*	39	.019
Affection/preoccupation	1.057	39	.297
Intensity/exclusivity	1.664*	39	.104
Jealousy	-2.679	39	.011
Total Score	1.019*	39	.314

*significance at .05 level

Understanding nature, non-judgmental attitude, and security in relationship are some factors which are predominant in the same-sex friendships as well. Mukul tells about how exclusive and different his friendship with his male friend is, whereas Aakash gave a perfect example of how personality of a friend matters more for initiation of a relationship.

From Friend to Lover

It has been observed in the sample population that committed girls and boys tend to report their current closest friend as their intimate partners as well. This shows how the boundaries of close friendships and intimate relationships may be overlapping. Anvi (committed, living with family) tells about her friendship, "Isse mein committed hun. Aur bhi mere guy friends hain, par mein unke itne close nahi hun." She later adds, "Humne ghar shift kia tha to Raghav bhi vahin rehte the. Baatein bhi start ho gayi kyunki vo bhi vahin pass mein hi rehte the." Romantic inclination can be seen either mutually or one-sided among cross-sex friends, Just as Emma states, "I know what I want and I'm not romantically into him. But he is. I do have other male friendships also. Sometimes he tends to get little jealous about that. But it's nothing you can do about it." Guerrero & Chavez (2005) when talking about the cross-sex friendship maintenance revealed that individuals with mutual romance generally reported the most

maintenance behaviour, whereas those uncertain about the status were less likely to report using some type of relational maintenance.

Another participant shared, "The problem only is what kind of relationship we are in, are we friends? Are we more than friends? Are we girlfriend or boyfriend? Or whatever it is." This confused state about their relationship status, after being in a close cross-sex friendship can be associated with the age of the respondents, as during these years when as an individual is going through the shift from identity formation to relationship building, the confusion is bound to happen.

Emotional Attachment

Though the analysis of the self-report questionnaires it was found that attachment/secure base was significantly lower in cross-sex friends as compared to same-sex friends (refer table 1). The interviews of the participants showed that the emotional attachment was more in terms of sharing secrets, talking about their feelings, the content of conversation, the emotional or moral support and, changes in each other's personality as a result of attachment. Emotional attachment is not only about sharing feelings, but also being able to trust the other person so much that you feel comfortable in talking about any and everything you feel like, that's how Shreya tells about her friendship with Tuhin, "It's more of an understanding relation that we share. We understand each other, and we are close... as close as in he tells me things which he doesn't tell anybody else. He confides in me." This shows the feeling of being heard in a friendship relationship is more important than anything else. Self-disclosure in a friendship strengthens the emotional bonds between two people. Similar findings have been noticed in a study done by Ross (2002) focuses very well on the levels of self-disclosure girls and boys have in their friendships, and how higher self-disclosure leads to more emotional attachment and better adjustment.

Although it has been seen that the boys are not generally that emotionally expressive, still as Mukul (single, living with the family) tells, "Issa kuch strong itna nahi hai. But I know a girl jiske saath meri itni friendship hai vo yehi hai." For boys it's more important for the friend to be emotional support, a back-up, rather than the emotional secret keeper.

Girls frequently get together to “just talk” and their exchanges contain more self-disclosure (sharing of innermost thoughts and feelings) and mutually supportive statements (Brendgen et al, 2001). Aakash (single, living alone) told, “I was little lonely till she came in my life. I used to think that there’s no requirement of girls to be friends with; boys-boys can be friends and stay better.” Another aspect of emotional attachment is the amount of attention that the friends receive and reciprocate. Emma says, “I get a lot of attention, and also a lot of attention from this friend. I don’t think I reciprocate as much as he does and puts in a lot in the friendship, and if I think the attention stops coming. I’ll start to miss it.”

In the same-sex friendships, although the emotional attachment also concerns the similar expectations, still the difference lies in the ability to associate more to them, only because of the gender. There is greater sense of belonging and affiliation, as Emma while talking about the suggestive nature of her friend says, “She encourages me to think more responsibly, and to see things before I do something, you know... sometimes I think if I do something, what would she say, she’s not judgmental as I said, she’s not.” A lot of other narratives also reveal that two girls can be best secret keepers for each other, and support emotionally whenever required by being a listener. Thus, there exists a dependability on the friend, because of the trust, just as Amvi told, “Aur aap isse hi kisi par bhi depend nahi ho sakte, jise jante ho usi par depend ho sakte ho kyunki mujhe lagta hai ki uski bahut importance hai meri life mein.” Whereas, among boys, there’s not overly expressive emotionality, as the focus of their conversations revolves mostly around their activities, and academics. About emotional sharing among boys, Vipul says, “In chemistry language I should say that we’ve a covalent bond.” It was also noticed that participants felt more comfortable sharing their intimate things with their same-sex friends over cross-sex friends, just because they can understand that better, but it actually leads to greater emotional attachment. Nardi & Sherrod (1994) have also said that same-sex friendships are more confiding, more intimate and more emotionally expressive.

Physical Intimacy

This has been found that physical intimacy is not important at all for the friendship maintenance. Moreover, the committed participants have been found more physically intimate in cross-sex friendships. One major reason behind this finding can be the fact that most of them have their boyfriends/girlfriends as their closest friends, any other cross-sex friendships apart from that have been overshadowed. Additionally, through the descriptive analysis of the self-report questionnaires (refer table below), it has been found that committed participants are significantly higher on the levels of affection/preoccupation in cross-sex friendship. Vipul tells, “Intimacy level is up to normally hugs and kisses, like cuddling and all.” There are some cases where the current closest friend is not the romantic partner, although in the past there has been found a romantic inclination, but there is not much physical intimacy involved. Among singles it is limited to handshakes, and hugs.

Table 2:Independent samples t-test comparing single and committed participants on the cross-sex scores of the passionate friendships survey subscales, jealousy items and total score (n=40)

Relationship status	Single mean (SD)	Committed mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/secure base	18.44(3.055)	19.46 (1.808)	-1.106
Affection/preoccupation	10.74 (3.665)	14.77 (4.711)	-2.965*
Intensity/exclusivity	11.00 (3.113)	11.46 (2.145)	-0.481
Jealousy	3.96 (1.870)	5.08 (2.060)	-1.708
Total score	58.56 (9.553)	67.00 (7.059)	-2.829

A study done by Monsour (1992) reveals that five of the seven most frequently mentioned definitions of intimacy were specified by both cross- and same-sex friends: self-disclosures, emotional expressiveness, unconditional support, physical contact and trust. One of the remaining two meanings of intimacy i.e. sexual contact was mentioned by cross-sex but not same-sex friends. The findings of this study are similar, but it’s not significantly different on the basis of gender. Among the same-sex friendships, the idea of being physically intimate with the same-sex friends was

like a surprising event altogether, especially for men. Through the statistical analysis of the self-report questionnaires (refer table 3), the evidences show that females are generally higher on the affection/preoccupation among same-sex friendships as compared to males, but there is no significance of the results for larger generalization. Similarly, it has also revealed that affection/preoccupation is higher among committed participants (refer table 4) and those living alone (refer table 5) for the same sex friendships, but generalizations are not possibly applicable.

Table 3: Independent sample t-test comparing females and males on same-sex scores of passionate friendship survey subscales, jealousy items and total score (n=40)

Sex	Females mean (SD)	Males mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/secure base	20.33 (3.006)	19.58 (2.775)	.822
Affection/preoccupation	13.86 (5.808)	11.84 (3.548)	1.307
Intensity/exclusivity	12.24 (2.300)	11.47 (1.837)	1.153
Jealousy	3.67 (1.713)	3.26 (1.522)	.784
Total score	64.67 (11.200)	61.32 (6.799)	1.129

Table 4: Independent samples t-test comparing singles and committed participants of same-sex passionate friendships

Relationship status	Single mean (SD)	Committed mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/secure base	20.04 (3.082)	19.85 (2.544)	.193
Affection/preoccupation	12.30 (5.150)	14.15 (4.298)	-1.124
Intensity/exclusivity	11.93 (2.269)	11.77 (1.787)	.218
Jealousy	3.41 (1.600)	3.62 (1.710)	-.377
Total score	62.41 (9.997)	64.46 (8.252)	-.642

Table 5: Independent samples t-test comparing participants based on their living conditions

Living status	Living alone mean (SD)	Living with family mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/secure base	19.76 (3.113)	20.21 (2.679)	-.486
Affection/preoccupation	13.48 (5.409)	12.26 (4.357)	.776
Intensity/exclusivity	11.81 (2.136)	11.95 (2.121)	-.205
Jealousy	3.48 (1.504)	3.47 (1.775)	.005
Total score	62.67 (9.467)	63.53 (9.582)	-.285

Similarity

Interpersonal similarity and attraction are multidimensional constructs (Lydon, Jamieson & Zanna) in which people are attracted to others who are similar to them in demographics, physical appearance, attitudes, interpersonal style, social and cultural background, personality, interests and activities preferences, and communication and social skills. As Tanuja says, "I don't give advice, I just listen to him, and football is like a major connecting factor. Because he and I like the same club, we are interested in football." Same-sex friendships have also shown evidence of greater dependence on the liking and similar interests and attitudes for the formation of friendship and greater self-disclosure.

Long-distance friendships

In a study by Igarashi et al (2005) it was revealed that females tended to expand their MTPM (Mobile Phone Text Message) social networks than males. This focused on the self-expression in long-distance friendship, where it is shown that females are more inclined to expressing themselves through words more than the physical self, whereas men believe in the face-to-face communication. This could also be seen among the participants' verbal reports, as Preet says, "As I said, she's abroad, so there's no such closeness. It's just that we meet through video chats and all." Whereas Anna (single, living with parents) says, "...we still are in constant touch with each other, through Facebook & Skype and all. On Skype through video conferencing we see each other a lot, but we've not met each other for a long time." Thus

physical proximity for males becomes important when expression of intimacy is concerned.

Problems

The participants report that problems in friendships arise mainly due to ego conflicts, temperamental clashes, or long distances. Emma tells about her problem she faced with her male friend, when there were conflicting opinions of both of them, “See, I’ve told him that romantically he can’t hope for it, because I’m not ready for a relationship. And even if I was I don’t think we would be compatible, but maybe I don’t think I can date him, because I’m not in love with him. So when I explain him, he doesn’t really get it.” Tanuja tells about how the temperamental differences create a problem with her male friend, as she says, “Major disagreements have been like the usual gal-guy thing, you know, that you should share your problems more and he’s like nahi I don’t want to share my problems.” Especially at this age, the problem in understanding the nature and intensity of the intimacy may also create a problem. Also, for those who are staying with their families, another reason of conflicts can be family restrictions, Mukul tells, “...problems are only because of her parents, because they don’t allow us to meet at times. Because there are somethings you can’t talk on phone...”

Friends tend to be more caring and possessive towards each other, but at times they don’t realize how their caring can become over-possessiveness for the other, which creates problems in the friendship maintenance. Four different reasons specified by O’Meera (1989) for the problems in cross-sex friendships include: (1) determining the type of emotional bond experienced in the relationship, (2) confronting the issue of sexuality, (3) dealing with the issue of relationship equality within a cultural context of gender inequality, and (4) the challenge of public relationships, were also visible in the life stories of the participants in this study. Problems like over-possessiveness, temperamental difficulties, ego clashes are also quite common among same-sex friendships.

Jealousy

There have been different reasons for jealousy for both committed and single participants, but males in general have reported similarity in the feeling of jealousy when the friend interacted with some other male. “Yes, I get bit jealous when she tried to share her views with other or sit a side with other ones, naturally I think!!” says Baahir. While Vipul also reports something similar, “Matlab agar ye bolti hai ki mein uss ladke ke saath ja rahi hun, to fir hui hai jealousy mujhe.” At times, jealousy feeling also comes in when the friend is better in something which they don’t possess, like Adarsh talks about being jealous of her artistic skills, and says, “I was always jealous of her artistic skills because she’s a good artist.” Through the statistical analysis of the self-report of the participants it has been revealed that male participants, especially those living alone, and are committed feel more jealous of their friends, though the difference are not significantly different (refer 6, 2 & 7).

Table 6: Independent samples t-test comparing participants living with parents or alone on the cross sex scores of the passionate friendships survey subscales, jealousy and total scores (n=40)

Living Status	Living alone Mean (SD)	Living with family Mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/ Secure Base	18.48 (2.839)	19.11 (2.644)	-.723
Affection/ Preoccupation	12.19 (4.226)	11.89 (4.713)	.209
Intensity/ Exclusivity	10.76 (3.129)	11.58 (2.434)	-.915
Jealousy	4.43 (1.886)	4.21 (2.123)	.344
Total Score	59.76 (9.622)	63.00 (9.545)	-1.067

Table 7: Independent samples t-test comparing t-test males and females on the cross-sex scores of the passionate friendships survey subscales, jealousy and total scores (n=40)

Sex	Females Mean (SD)	Males Mean (SD)	t-score
Attachment/secure base	19.00 (2.510)	18.53 (3.007)	.543
Affection/preoccupation	11.62 (4.500)	12.53 (4.376)	-.645
Intensity/Exclusivity	11.24 (3.270)	11.05 (2.297)	.205
Jealousy	4.19 (1.887)	4.47 (2.118)	-.447
Total Score	60.48 (10.968)	62.21 (10.968)	-.565

With same-sex friends, the reasons of jealousy have been majorly their excellence, and achievement, and their relationship indulgence. Most of the participants told how awkward and jealous they felt when they saw their closest friends doing much better than them on academics or any other field. For instance, Arnav said, “Jealousy tab aata hai jab marks zada aate hain aapne hi dost ke (laughing). Or when he dates with someone whom I’ve crush on. And he has the same reasons for jealousy.” Through the statistical analysis (refer 3, 4 & 5), it’s shown that jealousy is higher among females, committed, and participants living alone, but generalization is not significantly appropriate.

Benefits

Werking (1997a) suggests that cross-sex friendships offer comfort during difficult times, as an outlet for the expression of fears, feelings, and fantasies, companionship, acceptance and greater self-knowledge. Similar findings have emerged among the participants of this study, where Emma tells about her friend being the source of expression of feelings, “It gives me someone to talk to, it gives me who’s there for me. He’s there for me, no matter what.” This kind of experiences also influences self-esteem and relational esteem of an individual. Through table 8, it is revealed that passionate cross-sex friendship have higher relational esteem as compared to non-passionate cross-sex friendships.

Table 8: Independent samples t-test comparing passionate and non-passionate friendships on relational outcomes (n=40)

	Passionate Mean (SD)	Non-passionate Mean (SD)	t-score
<i>Same-sex friendships:</i>			
Relational esteem	23.89 (5.290)	19.67 (4.589)	2.591
Relational depression	17.47 (8.092)	19.94 (8.447)	-.909
Relational preoccupation	36.84 (7.676)	31.83 (7.733)	1.977
<i>Cross-sex friendships:</i>			
Relational esteem	23.70 (3.813)	19.60 (6.557)	2.417
Relational depression	17.25 (6.382)	20.55 (9.950)	-1.249
Relational preoccupation	35.00 (7.726)	33.45 (8.023)	.622

Emotional support is another major advantage participants have talked about. Tanuja tells about her friend as someone to rely upon. Emotional support and dependability not only brings a sense of belongingness and affiliation, but also a sense of security. Evidences show that same-sex friends have proved a great emotional support, academic help and have given a sense of security.

Family Influences

For those who are living in hostel or away from the family, their family influence is not significant at all, since their families are not involved or aware of their social interactions. In fact, for the cross-sex friendships, staying away from the family has increased the scope of proximity with their friends. Baahir also tells us about his feelings towards his friend-cum-lover’s parental influence on his relationship with her, and says, “A family constraints on her (to be on time back home) and keep fetching her like watch dogs!! Really I get feels like that! Her father really totally Hitler with owl eyes.” Various studies have also revealed that women were subjected to more constraints and lesser opportunities for the formation of cross-sex friendships than men (Booth & Hess, 1974).

As far as same-sex friendships are concerned, there’s not much family interference seen on the development or maintenance of friendships.

Additionally, families have been very supportive of their friendships with the same gender. For those who are staying in hostel/paying guest accommodation away from family, their family is not much involved in their close friend circle because of the distance. In fact, they consider themselves fortunate to be living away from home and making such strong friendships. The participants staying alone also report that once they are with family, it becomes difficult for them to communicate with their friends freely.

Relational assessment and friendship experiences

Independent samples t-test was conducted on the raw scores of the participants on the self-report questionnaires. Through table 8, the results have been

found that there exists a significant difference between passionate and non-passionate same-sex and cross-sex friendships on relational esteem. Although relational depression is higher among non-passionate same- and cross-sex friendships and relational preoccupation is higher among passionate same- and cross-sex friendships, yet the results can't be significantly generalized. Relational esteem is represented by various themes discussed above, like emotional attachment, from friends to lover, and benefits of the same- and cross-sex friendships. Through this it is revealed that more the passionate friendship, higher will be the relational esteem.

Table 9: Correlations for same-and cross-sex friends reports on the passionate friendship surveys, and relational outcomes (n=40)

Psychological outcomes		Attachment/ secure base	Affection/ preoccupation	Intensity/ exclusivity	Jealousy	Total score
Same-sex friendships	Relational esteem	.290	.402*	.288	.127	.472**
	Relational depression	-.003	-.078	-.051	-.141	-.091
	Relational preoccupation	.001	.459**	.202	.204	.361*
Cross-sex friendships	Relational esteem	.272	.211	.218	.124	.319*
	Relational depression	-.206	-.207	-.092	-.247	-.321*
	Relational preoccupation	.011	.145	.081	-.048	.027

*p<0.05 level; **p<0.01 level

Through the correlation matrix of relational outcomes and PF Survey subscales, in table 9, it was found that there is a significant positive linear correlation between relational esteem and total score of the PF score ($r=.319$; $p=.045$) and a significant negative linear correlation between relational depression and total PF score ($r=-.321$; $p=.043$) of the cross-sex friendships. Whereas, it was found that there is a significant positive linear correlation between relational esteem and attachment/ secure base ($r=.402$; $p=.010$), relational esteem and total score ($r=.472$; $p=.002$), relational preoccupation and attachment/secure base ($r=.456$; $p=.003$) and relational preoccupation and total score ($r=.361$; $p=.022$) of same-sex friendships.

CONCLUSION

This study was a completely new journey to the minds of participants. From beginning till the end, there were several challenges. The major difficulty faced by the researcher was to have consent from the committed participants for the personal interviews. It was noticed that even in the present broad-minded society, majority of university students hesitated to openly confess about their relationships, and most of the males told about their least bothered attitude for the importance of friendships, and how they never even thought about all these issues. Through the knowledge of the stories of various students, a need to investigate more into the personalities and the friendship experiences was desired for future research

purposes. Explorations into their experiences of friendships opened a whole new aspect of researching in the areas of personalities and maladjustments in friendships or any other relationships in general.

With the initial contact with the participants, their curiosity to know the reasons behind the researcher's interests and also a joy of sharing their unforgettable moments was quite evident. Also, most of them expressed their confusions, anxieties and worries regarding their friendships, and found that through the process of interview their ideas about the relationships they share with their friends had somewhat clear ideas.

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¹ Names of all the participants were changed in order to maintain confidentiality of their identities.

CSR AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT A STRATEGY FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY FROM SRI LANKA

Heenetigala, K

Victoria University, Australia

Abstract

This paper investigated corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices related to community development (CD) conducted by the corporate sector in Sri Lanka. Community development can have a significant impact on the economic development of developing countries. CSR practices related to community development in Sri Lanka was investigated from secondary data in websites, integrated reports and sustainability reports from a sample of 30 companies in the top 50 Companies in the Sri Lanka's LMD 100 for the year 2013. The selected companies also ranked among the most respected companies in Sri Lanka. Community development practices of the top 10 companies were investigated in-depth. Results reported that 90% of the companies reported their CSR activities and they were moving towards integrated reporting. Majority of the CSR related CD practices were conducted to improve the quality of lives of people living in rural areas and they were mainly to provide better education, health facilities and livelihood development. In-depth analysis of this study is limited to top 10 companies in the LMD 100 which are ranked among the most respected companies. This study implies that education is a top most priority among CSR practices in Sri Lanka because it improves the living standards and also contribute to economic development. However, CSR related to community development is an under researched area. This is a useful study for corporate sector and contributes to the development of strategies related to CSR.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, community development, stakeholder holder theory, Sri Lanka.

INTRODUCTION

Community development can have a strong impact on economic development. Advancement of developing countries depends on economic development. Rural communities form a large part of societies in countries in the emerging markets, and are considered poor. Much of economic development in rural communities in both emerging market countries and developing countries is hampered as a result of internal conflict, ethnic wars and floods. As a result, communities in rural areas are unable to reach quality of life due to lower access to education, medical, social assistance as well as under developed infrastructure (Akresh, Lucchetti, & Thirumurthy, 2012; Dupas & Robinson, 2012; Van Niekerk, 2012). Even though this is the responsibility of the governments of the countries, lack of resources has left this gap to be covered by the private sector

organisations (Kolk & Lenfant, 2010; Valente & Crane, 2010). Development of the rural communities as the corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiative has brought the attention of the private sector (Heenetigala, 2011).

Background

Community Development (CD) is an important aspect of corporate social responsibility (CSR) of developing countries. If developing countries are to advance in economic development and enable social change through economic empowerment and reduce inequality, improvement in health and welfare of the those socially excluded population is critical (Werner, 2009). As stated above, governments play an important role in CD in developing countries (Valente & Crane, 2010). However, profits from businesses do not go to the poor directly through the taxes as government revenue for the development of

public services and infrastructure (Werner, 2009). Leaving the development of communities to NGO's or other development agencies has little impact on the development (Werner, 2009). Public companies must consider paying more attention to their CSR strategies that has an impact on social status of socially excluded populations (Muthuri, Moon, & Idemudia, 2012; Werner, 2009). CD as a CSR component has a strong impact on the economy. It creates more jobs, better educated and healthy rural population who previously did not have access to health, education and training facilities. Accordingly, Muthuri *et al.* (2012) refers to work of Hamann, Woolman., and Sprague (2008) and Idemudia (2007) which states companies in developing countries provide range of social initiatives for the local communities such as health care, education, economic welfare, infrastructure development, communication and environmental protection.

A corporation depends on a number of stakeholders such as consumers, employees, suppliers and the communities who are impacted by the activities of business. Environmental, social and governance (ESG) reporting has come into the mainstream debate by organisations such as International Corporate Governance Network, Global Reporting Initiative. The extent of their engagement is disclosed in the form of voluntary or mandatory disclosures to a wide range of stakeholders who may be impacted by the activities of the firm. Environmental disclosures are related to their impact on the natural environment, environment protection and use of resources, whereas, social disclosures are related to the company's interaction with the community, employees and society (Jenkins & Yakovleva, 2006).

Therefore, a community is an important stakeholder of a company operating in developing country. As a result, development of rural communities has a strong impact on economic development. Aim of this study is to investigate CSR related community development practices conducted by the corporate sector in Sri Lanka. .

CSR in the Context of Sri Lanka

This study is conducted in the context of Sri Lanka, which is a developing country that has come out of 30 years of civil war. During this period large percentage

of the budget was allocated to war expenses which deprived the economic development. According to the World Bank (2014) around 80% of the population in Sri Lanka lives in rural areas and 90% are considered poor (World Bank, 2010). Even though raising the standard of living is the responsibility of the governments in developing countries, they do not have the capacity to reach the poor due to the income deficit in their budget. As a result, World Bank, NGO's and voluntary organisations are providing support for community development.

In 2013, revision to the 2008 code of best practice on corporate governance was issued. Principle G of the code refers to sustainability reporting. Principle G1.4 states "society governance encompasses support for and building a relationship with the community and striving for sustainable development including responsible public policy participation, fair competition and responsible community involvement" (SECSL & ICASL., 2013).

However, in Sri Lanka, basic compliance and enforcement of laws is weak. Therefore, CSR as a corporate strategy that goes beyond legal compliance can have significant positive effects on the poor and minimize negative externalities (Werner, 2009).

CSR and Community Development in the Sri Lanka

Voluntary and Non-Government Organisation Involvement

In Sri Lanka, voluntary organisations play an important role to provide the basic human needs such as day care centres, nursery schools, health clinics, homes for destitute children and homes for the elderly; they also provide vocational training, non-formal education and sports and recreation programs. They operate rural development projects and community self-help programs providing social overhead capital such as roads, water tanks, irrigation canals, sanitation facilities and wells (Perera, 2001).

Many community development projects are being carried out by Non-Government Organisations (NGO). Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement is the largest people's organization in Sri Lanka. It has reached the poor rural communities through rural community development programs throughout the

island. They are currently involved in resettlement, reconstruction and reconciliation activities in the war affected North and East of Sri Lanka. Among the many community development programs they carry out are community capacity building, education, health, empowerment of women, entrepreneur development (Sarvodaya, 2014). Among other projects were Gemi Diriya project which enabled poor to improve their livelihood and quality of life through their various programs for skills development and employment (World Bank, 2010), Sevalanka, provides micro-finance to community organisations and rural entrepreneurs (Sevalanka Foundation) and Community Development Centre work to improve the livelihood of rural population through conservation of indigenous tuber varieties using seed banks managed by women-led self-help groups (UNDP, 2012).

Government organisations such as Economic Development Ministry has launched a special program and have trained over 1825 people under their community Development and Livelihood improvement project (Ministry of Economic Development).

Corporate sector involvement in Community development

Sri Lanka has a long history of corporate philanthropy. Charitable activities performed by the business communities to support various needs of the society are not a new concept in Sri Lanka (Ariyabandu & Hulangamuwa, 2002). Even though the responsibility for developing the disadvantaged sector of the community lies with the government, this role has been taken over by private institutions in Sri Lanka, due to weak and corrupt government structures and the diversion of public funds to fight the ethnic war (Heenetigala, 2011).

Private sector initiatives on corporate social responsibility help economic development to some extent. The impact CSR has on economic development has resulted in Sri Lanka's corporate sector organisations to include CSR in their strategy. Many companies are engaged in CSR activities related to community development, due to the fact that CSR related activities provide competitive advantage and corporate reputation leading to better performing share prices (Husted & Allen, 2007).

Firms surveyed by International Alert (2005) stated that "concentrating on improving living conditions of the local community would facilitate expansion of company activities". Ariyabandu and Hulangamuwa (2002) categorize the main forms of CSR activities observed in Sri Lanka as philanthropic and charitable activities, environmental conservation, public awareness and corporate sponsorships (Ariyabandu & Hulangamuwa, 2002). The majority of organisations in Sri Lanka are engaged in CSR activities relating to education, health, unemployment, entrepreneur development, employee welfare and provision of infrastructure facilities. There are others who concentrate on environmental issues such as reducing the pollution associated with poverty, reduction of greenhouse gas emissions and cleaning beaches. In Sri Lanka, the activities that relate to rebuilding the communities are supporting educational needs, health and environmental issues, housing, providing entrepreneurship programmed and vocational training to youths to reduce unemployment. Improvement of local living conditions by providing water and sanitation are also included (Heenetigala, 2011).

Furthermore, the survey conducted by International Alert (2005) states that most respondents from the business community felt that they have a strong role to play in meeting society's needs. According to the survey, the reasons for engaging in CSR activities in Sri Lanka were reported as image building, long-term benefits to current investment and a transparent relationship with society in dealing with controversial products. Large local companies practice CSR in an organized basis. In 2007, 75% of the top fifty listed companies in Sri Lanka disclosed their CSR initiatives in their annual reports (Heenetigala, 2011). Fernando (2007) states that according to a survey conducted by International Alert in 2004, 73.2% companies had a CSR policy, and 17% of those, had a formal written policy with 84.1% of the companies engaged in CSR because they genuinely contributed to the betterment of society. Transnational corporations operating in Sri Lanka are guided by the policies of the parent company. However, they carry out their CSR policies to suit the local context. According to a study conducted by International Alert (2005) in Sri Lanka, respondents mentioned social responsibility extended

beyond shareholders to those affected by the operation of the company. Some thought CSR contributed to the well-being of society, whereas others stated that it was a benefit to the business itself.

Today, corporate sector in Sri Lanka and around the world is engaged in corporate social responsibility activities as a part of their corporate strategy, because CSR is considered “an important tool to maximize the positive development impact of corporations and community development activity in the developing world” (Werner, 2009). Private sector participation in sustainable community development enhances their social status and competitive edge which is important to their existence (Moon, 2007).

LITERATURE REVIEW OF CSR RELATED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In order to understand the CSR related to community development practices by private sector companies, a literature review of community development practices is fundamental to this study.

Among the various stakeholders in a community, which have complementing roles, corporate sector play an important role in the development of the communities they may impact strongly. However, adverse impact of business activities are increasingly becoming evident on the lives of community members and their future generation (Adewuyi & Olowookere, 2010). Therefore, corporate sector can impact the communities through their corporate social responsibility strategies that are geared towards sustainable community development, which enhance their social status and competitive edge (Moon, 2007). Sustainable community development is defined as “development which meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs” (Bruntland, 1987). A community that is developed on a sustainable basis impacts social, economic and environmental wellbeing, as such it will be economically productive, socially just and environmentally sound (Swisher, Rezola, & Sterms, 2006). Accordingly, CSR activities of firms, particularly those that have a negative impact as a result of their production and consumption on the environment has negative effects on both human and

non-human agents (Adewuyi & Olowookere, 2010; Iyawe, Ebomoyi, Chiwuzie, & Alakija, 2000).

Two different approaches to community development was reported by Ite (2007). Community assistance approach to development emphasis on corporate philanthropy, which is the basic level of CSR, essentially about giving things such as water, sanitation, health care and roads etc. Ite (2007) further stated that a study conducted by shell reports that this approach focused on what communities lacked or the perception of poverty within the communities by Shell. This resulted in a dependency culture by the communities and the communities saw the development infrastructure not as charity but as rent for use of their environment and resources. This top down approach was considered an ineffective approach for poverty alleviation. Accordingly, Ite (2007) states Community Development approach is a significant departure from Community Assistance approach, which emphasis on empowerment of communities in the development process and reduce the dependency for their socio-economic development. Community Development approach rather identifies the social capital within the communities such as traditional knowledge, skills and adopt strategies to bring about the necessary change.

Community Development and CSR

CSR has been referred to as “how companies mitigate any negative impacts, while at the same time maximizing the positive influences that their businesses has on society, the environment and the financial well-being within their communities of influence” (Fisher, Greenen, Jurcevic, McClintock, & Davis, 2009).

According to Kapelus (2002) CSR programs can have two functions. From the perspective of business ethics, CSR can help corporations to fulfill their obligations to stakeholder groups and from the perspective of business strategy, CSR programs is viewed as a method of minimizing costs. CSR programs may be undertaken for either of the following two forms of motivation, either because they have a strong moral commitment or because they have a pragmatic interest in doing so. If a firm is morally motivated, they will employ CSR as a tool of moral discernment and will live up to their

obligations to stakeholders even if it has an impact on the shareholder value. If the firms are guided by profit motivation, CSR will be considered a business tool rather than an approach to moral responsibility. Those firms will be interested in the appearance of socially responsible than actually being socially responsible (Kapelus, 2002).

According to Ojala (1994), social responsibility involves two major participants which are business and society, who are the stakeholders. Social responsibilities encompass three major responsibilities. They are legal, moral and ethical, and philanthropic action that has a positive impact on the welfare of business and society. However, the term social responsibility is ambiguous as communities use different constraints at different times and different places. Therefore, CSR related community development studied in this research is in the context of developing countries in South East-Asia which is Sri Lanka.

The definition for CSR developed by the WBCSD was based on the CSR dialogue with eight countries from developed and developing countries. Developed countries base their definition on corporate strategy and future generation, whereas developing countries emphasize CSR is related to community which has an impact on the economic development. As a result the following definition was developed at the CSR dialogue in the Netherlands in 1998:

“Corporate social responsibility is the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large.” (WBCSD, 1998).

In order to understand the role CSR plays in community development, it is important to define community. According to Ismail (2009) a community is “a group of people sharing a common purpose, who are interdependent for the fulfillment of certain needs, who live in close proximity and interact on a regular basis”. However, in the current society, identifying a community is a complex and contested task, due to the shared traits such as geographical territory, religion, culture, history, kinship etc. as well as people may have multiple and overlapping identities

which can change overtime. As a result, definition of a community is a construct (Kapelus, 2002).

Ajayi (1995) considers community development is a process by which human being can become more competent to live with and gain some control over local conditions and the changing world. Therefore, community development is a process by which the efforts of the people themselves are linked with those of the government to improve the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the community, thus enabling them to contribute more fully to national progress (Obibuaku, 1983). Accordingly, Ismail (2009) refers to Community development as the “initiatives undertaken by community with partnership with external organisations or corporations to empower individuals and groups of people by providing these groups with the skills they need to effect change in their own communities”.

The key purpose of CSR in community is to “work with communities experiencing disadvantages, to enable them to collectively identify the needs and rights, clarify objectives and take action to meet these within a democratic framework which respect the needs and rights of others” (Ismail, 2009).

Community development related CSR has implications for the communities. According to a report by Perrin (2009) the third most important driver of employee engagement is CSR and in US the second most important driver of employee engagement is the organization status in the community, which shows that organisations status in the community has an impact on the company’s reputation for CSR, which reputation is the among the top 10 drivers.

Chambers, Chapple, Moon, and Sullivan (2003) states that, according to literature Asian businesses are different to the western businesses, because they restless on the concept of private property and individualism, which might lead to be more responsive to community factors than share prices. In the West, civil societies stimulates CSR through their expectation for businesses responsibility.

As a result of globalization investment in developing countries has brought much attention to corporations responsibility to the local communities in which they

operate. Few studies have been conducted in relation to mining companies operating in developing countries (Ite, 2007; Kapelus, 2002). These studies show that corporations are recognizing their responsibilities towards local communities in relation to their rights, values and customs and are incorporating them in their decision-making. Mining operations can adversely affect the local communities as a result of degrading environment, diminishing livelihood prospects as well as displacing them from their homes (Kapelus, 2002). However, introducing community development programs can benefit the local communities to reduce the negative impact of mining operations to some extent. In the case of Ok Tedi Mine in Papua New Guinea, mining contributed to about 20% of the export income, provided employment for thousands of people, investment of \$ 300 million in infrastructure such as roads, power, water, communications, schools and medical facilities, education and training for over 1500 people, infant mortality rate declined from 33% to 3%, improved health increased the life span from 30 to 50 years. It also expanded the educational opportunities for children, established school building and provided small business assistance. Therefore, closing the mine for its negative externalities was not a solution as it was important to economic and social welfare resulting in community development for Papua New Guinea (Australian Graduate School of Management).

In exploring the issue of CSR, World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) discussed the importance of company involvement and investment in the local community. This also highlights a company's responsibility towards skills training and ensuring that proper health and safety systems were in place to protect the community was considered important (Holme & Watts, 2000).

Theoretical Perspective

Based on the impact that the community development has on organisations, this study considers the importance of corporate social responsibility activities related to community development. Therefore, theoretical perspective of this research is based on the stakeholder theory. According to the view of stakeholder theory "corporation is a social entity and effects the welfare of many people" who

are considered to have a stake in the organisation (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). They can be instrumental in the success of the corporation and have a moral and a legal right (Donaldson & Preston, 1995), therefore, the claims of the stakeholders should be considered in their decision-making, because it enhances efficiency (Turnbull, 1994). Accordingly, those companies that are proactive establish necessary governance structures and integrate stakeholders concerns in their decision-making process (De Wit, Wade, & Schouten, 2006). These firms go beyond their financial responsibility and consider the impact of environmental and social aspects of their operations on the society (Spitzeck, 2009).

Stakeholder theory perspective redefines the purpose of business and its method of responding to non-economic factors. Under this perspective there are number of stakeholders and community is also an important stakeholder which makes significant firm specific investment. Therefore, proponents of stakeholder theory argue that it is appropriate to sacrifice excess profits in the public interest (Rahim, 2011).

In considering CSR related to CD activities, community is a major stakeholder who can substantially affect or be affected by the activities of others (Jensen, 2001). According to Clarkson (1995) there are two categories of stakeholders, primary and secondary stakeholders. Primary stakeholders are those that are essential to survival of the firm, whereas the secondary stakeholders are those that influence or are being influenced by the firm. Therefore, according to Adewuyi and Olowookere (2010) community is a stakeholder in both categories.

Stakeholder model introduced by (Heenetigala, 2011) states that directors' accountability extends to all stakeholders who are directly or indirectly affected by the actions of the firm. Key feature of the model in the study is that CSR of the firms that operate in Sri Lanka should focus on developing the communities in which they operate. As stated above, 80% of the population that lives in rural areas are considered poor. They lack basic infrastructure and facilities to improve their living standards.

Therefore, firms and communities can benefit through the development of these communities. The firms are able to gain new markets, increase financial performance and obtain higher market value for the shares, and communities can benefit from economic development.

Therefore, the stakeholder versus shareholder model (Heenetigala, 2011) suggests that CSR initiatives focused on lower income communities can improve the living standards resulting in increased performance of companies in the long term. As a result, the corporate strategy of board needs to incorporate CSR strategies directed at the rural disadvantage communities to create jobs and improve income for socio-economic development.

METHODOLOGY

As discussed in the literature, corporate sector involvement in community development practices as a CSR strategy can have a strong impact on improving the living standards and performance in the long term. To investigate the CSR practices related to community development in Sri Lanka, this study explored a sample of 30 companies from top 50 Companies in the Sri Lanka's LMD 100 for the year 2013. The companies selected were at the top rank based on their annual turnover. The companies also ranked among the most respected companies in Sri Lanka. The ranking of the most respected companies were based on the opinions expressed by respondents through a survey conducted by Nielsen to find out why they perceived them as being the 'most respected' by their peers in the commercial capital.

The study was conducted from secondary data in websites of companies. Websites of the 30 companies were examined for CSR reporting, whether they had a sustainability report, integrated report or if they reported their CSR in their website as well as their community development practices related to CSR. The top 10 companies were examined in-depth to understand the CSR related community development practices. Information related to CD practices was reported under the themes of education, health, employment, community/livelihood development, disaster relief and corporate philanthropy. This is a qualitative study using content analysis to analyse the CSR information reported in websites as well as

sustainability reports and integrated reports. Content analysis is a "set of procedures for collecting and organizing information in a standardized format that allows analysts to make inferences about the characteristics and meaning of written and other recorded material" (United States General Accounting Office, 1989). This methodology also helps to summarize the material by listing or counting the issues or statements, which has been addressed in the next section.

ANALYSIS

Investigation of websites of companies in the sample revealed that 87% of the companies reported CSR activities through their websites, integrated reports and sustainability reports. CSR practices were reported in their websites by 40% of the companies, 66.67% had an integrated report, 10% had a separate sustainability report and 3.3% reported on the website as well as in the integrated report or sustainability report. This shows that the current trend is moving toward integrated reporting. Over 73% of companies reported that they conducted CSR related to community development. CD practices of companies in the sample revealed CSR related community development practices varied from education, health, sanitation, clean water, infrastructure, entrepreneurial development, disaster management and employment..

Education, health and community and livelihood development activities were among the top community development practices conducted by the companies in Sri Lanka. As reported earlier, Sri Lanka is a developing country and 80% of the people live in rural areas and 90% of them are considered poor. However, according to UNICEF (2013) Sri Lanka reports a literacy rate of 91%, which is considered high for a developing country. As reported by Matten and Crane (2005) education is a major activity conducted by Toyota to be considered a good corporate citizen. Therefore, CSR related to community development in Sri Lanka is also geared towards education which is also the reason for high literacy rate.

Eight out of ten companies investigated reported on CSR initiatives in education. Education is considered important even among the poor people living in rural areas in Sri Lanka. Analysis shows that English

education and IT is considered the top most priority among the companies. IT skills and English literacy is considered important for employability in the private sector as well as the public sector. Among other initiatives to promote education are infrastructure facilities for schools such as building class rooms, IT labs, sporting facilities, toilets, water filtration system and library facilities. Study conducted by Anthonisz (2008) reported companies in Sri Lanka provided scholarships, educational infrastructure and English language training for rural students.

Many companies also provided scholarships for outstanding under privilege university students and for those studying for Ordinary level and Advanced level exams. Impact of education uplift the socio-economic prospects in life, with trickle down effects to the entire society (Expolanka, 2013). According to the study conducted by Jamali (2008) CSR in a developing country context, education and learning programs were reported in their community investment related to CSR.

Nine of the ten companies that were examined in the sample carried out community/livelihood development projects. These CSR projects varied in their context. Different types of livelihood projects were carried out by the companies. They included cashew farming, milk collection, promoting home growing and gardening, provide support for farmers to increase productivity. Use of local supplies and local services, provide support for farmers to increase productivity, training farmers on best practices in crop and animal agriculture. Some companies provided empowerment programs for women and employment of women as well as micro-finance for villagers and entrepreneurship programs. Among others were, building water tanks, providing electricity, donation of houses and sporting activities.

Five out of ten companies reported on the health initiatives by companies. Among the health programs, they conducted were, HIV and AIDs awareness, eye testing, dental clinics, immunization for children campaigns, hospital refurbishment and free health clinics for people in rural areas.

Community development efforts by the companies are geared towards supporting the rural communities to improve and maintain their capabilities and to sustain their socio-economic progress and quality of life of the people living in the poor rural communities.

To a lesser degree companies were carrying out supporting art and fostering aesthetic talent among children in village schools. They were also providing relief for internally displaced people from North and East. These include food, clothing, water and sanitation. They also provided flood relief programs for effected flood victims and also created blood donor SMS and flood disaster SMS service.

It can be seen from this research that the key areas of CSR related community development are economic empowerment, human capital development, healthy living and provision of basic services by the companies in Sri Lanka. The following table shows the CD activities related to CSR that has been carried out by the private sector in Sri Lanka.

Table 1:

CSR Related Activities Conducted by Companies in Sri Lanka

Themes	Type of activity
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English Language education • Scholarship programs • Soft skills to enhance employability of local graduates • IT training • IT facilities and infrastructure - Laboratories • Educational facilities • Infrastructure for schools- Buildings, library, Toilets, canteens, renovation of classrooms, water filtration units, furniture • Donation of books to students • Providing opportunities for rural children to demonstrate their talents in art, speech, essay writing, singing and drama through competitions • Financial assistance for uniforms and books
Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HIV and AIDs campaign • Vision projects • Donation of medical equipment to rural hospitals • Refurbishment of rural hospitals • Healthcare centres • Free consultation and medicine • Health Camps (general health, diabetes, cancer, AIDs, dengue, oral hygiene, checkup for children and free prescription medicine) • Dengue eradication programs • Blood donation campaigns • Eye testing camps and donation of spectacles • Dental clinics • Immunisation programs
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employing locally senior management and team members for their operations in the local areas senior management.
Community/ Livelihood Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programs for empowerment of women • Employment for women • Building of rainwater harvesting tanks • Providing drinking water • Sanitation facilities • Mobile water treatment plant • Renovate water tank • Water solutions to various schools around the island • Water, sanitation and other health related services • Hot water showers and water dispensers to ayurvedic hospital • Livelihood development and capacity building programs • Microfinance self-employment projects • Milk collection projects • Entrepreneur training programs • Promoting home growing/gardening • Donating seeds and fertilizer and agri equipment • Help increase productivity of farmers • Training farmers on best practices in crops and animal agriculture • Providing credit for farmers • Providing infrastructure and transport for farmers • Integrate business to community supply chain

Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support micro and sole industry producing recycled paper products with low cost raw material • Provide a ready market for the products • Provide electricity • Donation of tricycles for small scale vendors • Donation of houses for poor • Sourcing of vegetables, fruits, fish and meat within the community. • Use of local suppliers for vehicles for safari • Providing hearing aids for less fortunate children • Housing for plantation workers • Commitment to improve sports activities such as volley ball, football and cricket • Providing refreshments for pilgrims • SMS service for blood donor service
Arts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programs to raise the awareness on the need to protect the environment and biodiversity, eco-friendly practices and the importance of co-existing in harmony with the environment for school children and other interested groups • Paper conservation projects – waste paper collection, shredding and recycling: Aim is to save trees and reduce waste paper ending in landfills • Reduce using polythene bags in supermarkets and replace with reusable bags • Collection of plastic bottles for recycling • Providing solar power for selected number of villages: sustainable energy initiatives
Disaster Relief	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support the annual fair to display and sale of art by artists around the island • Launched the first digital art gallery for Sri Lankan artists to show case their work at Sri Lankan art gallery • Support Sunera Foundation, a program aimed at fostering aesthetic talents of school children in national schools and also recognizing and rewarding for their skills
Corporate Philanthropy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flood relief initiatives ** • Initiatives to assist internally displaced people 2009-2010 • Tsunami Relief * * • SMS service for flood disaster • Provide drinking water, sanitation facilities, food and clothing for internally displaced • Mobile water treatment plant • Holding medical camps • Blood donations campaigns • Donations of medical items to Habarana Hospital • Donation of school supplies such as school bags, bottles • Donation of bed sheets to Kandy blood bank and dept of Uology in Kandy • Visit to cancer hospital children's section with gifts, sweets, entertainment and medication • Lending a hand to elders, time with children in orphanages, donation to Kandy Kidney protection society, help differently able persons, donation of bicycles to school children in Halmillawa, support education of rural schools through contribution of stationery • Identify young sports talent and support them

DISCUSSION

Sustainability reports and websites mainly disclose what companies do and how much they spend on their CD rather than the processes they use to facilitate CD, outcomes achieved, challenges faced or contradictions in practice (Kemp, 2010). This study shows that majority of the companies in the sample had some form of CSR reporting whether they

reported on their websites, separate sustainability report or integrated report.

CSR related to community development is a common practice among developing countries and in Asia. Among the CD practices education is a priority for the Asian countries, which was also considered

important in a study conducted in Malaysia (Ismail, Alias, & Rasdi, 2015). In Sri Lanka, education is a high priority of the government. Education is provided free and compulsory and as a result, Sri Lanka has a high literacy rate as reported above. However, there is regional disparity in the quality of education, especially English language, educational infrastructure and teaching equipment in rural areas. Therefore, companies in Sri Lanka are providing a facilitative role to improve the quality of education to reduce the regional disparity as well as reduce unemployment (Anthonisz, 2008). As stated by Ismail (2009) this study also shows that education and community livelihood activities are a means to provide skills to make use of the local resources.

About half the companies investigated in this study reports that they provide various health initiatives for disadvantaged rural communities. Even though the government provides free health care in the public hospitals in Sri Lanka, the quality of health care and facilities are limited to people in rural communities. Research shows that support for health care for disadvantaged and underserved communities is an important CSR activity related to community development (Eweje, 2006). Many studies have discussed the health and environmental impact on the operation of firms (Adewuyi & Olowookere, 2010; Kemp, 2010; Whellams, 2007). Health effects reported includes lung and respiratory, heart, skin, liver and kidney diseases and various forms of cancers, which require firms to ensure their CSR activities include health and safety and environmental management (Adewuyi & Olowookere, 2010). Provision of health facilities by the private sector for the rural communities can have a strong impact on the health and wellbeing of the people in the communities they operate, resulting in stronger economic development. Therefore, health related activities are also considered important by the corporate sector in Sri Lanka.

Various community development initiatives were conducted by the companies in the sample. Majority of the activities were related to livelihood development activities. They also took initiatives that would empower women. According to a report by IMF, Women make up a little over half the world's population. However their contribution to measured economic activity, growth, and well-being is far

below its potential (Elborgh-Woytek et al., 2013). Therefore, greater inclusion of women in the work force is important for economic development. Depriving them of participation has negative effects for the social and economic development with serious macroeconomic consequences. It can be seen that the community development activities carried out by the companies are mainly geared towards economic development, which is an important initiative by the local companies.

Raising awareness about the importance of environment to the communities is an important community development initiative, which was also reported in this study. They reported on increasing the awareness of environment among young children and interested groups as well as sustainability initiatives under community development initiatives.

Among other community development initiatives to promote Arts was done by only one company and disaster relief programs under their CD was mainly related to flood initiatives. Chambers et.al (2003) argues that CSR is a function of economic wealth. Those businesses that are able to generate surplus funds are able to carry out CSR activities directly through donations and sponsorships or indirectly through deployment of the resources for activities not related to making profits. In this study, corporate philanthropy was mainly related to medical related activities, which are not related to increasing the value of the company, which is a community support activity and has a trickle-down effect on the economic development. This shows that majority of CD activities conducted by the corporate sector related to CSR is geared towards increasing economic development of the country, which also has an impact on value creation in the long run.

This study took the stakeholder theory approach and support the argument by Nasi, Nasi, Phillips, and Zyglidopoulos (1997) that community is a powerful stakeholder, as a result the *"environment in which the firm operate may affect the ability of the firm to create a particular level of trust with the key stakeholder groups"* (Wicks & Berman, 2004). Community is a major stakeholder especially in developing countries such as Sri Lanka. Rural community is a major part of the community in Sri Lanka is considered poor due to lack of facilities such

as infrastructure, education, healthcare and training to improve their level of income. Therefore, corporations' responsibility to consider these stakeholders in their business strategy is important as it can have a significant impact on the rural communities, increase in the demand for their products and services and on the corporate performance.

Therefore the companies that operate in Sri Lanka must listen to the needs of the communities they operate, because rural communities make a large part of Sri Lanka's population and their ability to participate in the democratic political process is also influenced by not only their level of literacy but also their level of general education and their economic empowerment.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study showed that the companies in Sri Lanka are moving towards integrated reporting and majority of the companies conducted CSR related to community development. Community development practices related to education, health and livelihood development activities were among the most important CSR practices that were conducted by the corporate sector. Therefore, companies that provide community related CSR in developing countries are considered good corporate citizens. In this context good corporate citizen not only must meet the legal, ethical and economic responsibilities placed on them, they must aim to create a high standard of living and quality of life in the communities they operate. It is only through this, that companies can create value for shareholders. Inclusion of CD in the business strategies can have a strong impact on the performance of private sector companies. This study also shows that education is a high priority in Sri Lanka. As a result CSR strategies of corporate sector concentrate on education as well as providing infrastructure for educational institutes in the rural areas. Companies that provide education, health facilities, employment and training and support community/livelihood development projects will be able to increase the share of the market for their products from the communities they develop as well have a positive impact on economic development of the country. In Sri Lanka, rural communities face many challenges due to lack of well-developed

infrastructure that negatively affect the quality of lives of people which needs to be addressed by the governments. However, this study shows that the corporate sector is impacting the economic development to some extent through their CSR programs especially the community development component.

It can be concluded that corporate social responsibility policies such as education, health and community livelihood activities are adopted by companies not only because they are socially desirable, they also have a strong impact on the business. Therefore, in the context of Sri Lanka, companies need to identify the social demands of the communities and address those in their CSR strategies for development of the rural communities.

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WOMEN EMPOWERMENT AND SELF HELP GROUP

Dubey, S

Department of sociology and Social work, Institute for Excellence in Higher Education, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh

Abstract

Women empowerment is a very important discussion of the present world. Empowerment is the huge word in which rights and powers are present naturally, it is a system which depends on some special internal creative and educational, social, economic and political conditions. Women empowerment is empowering the women to take their own decisions for their personal dependent. Empowerment is a process which opens the door of development of women, new strategies prepares and it has to develop their talent in government and non-government level, to make them empowered and rightful and for that different employment programme and schemes introduced. For empowering the women the government of India and state authorities alike have been increasingly realised the importance of devoting attention to the economic betterment and development of rural women in India. Key instruments for supporting women's empowerment are SHG whereby 10-20 rural women from some villages come together to contribute weekly and monthly dues as savings and provide groups loans to their members. In the countries of third world and India now a days SHG is a option of rapid development and sustainable development. SHG is a medium of continuous and sustainable development a country. In rural economy SHG program is boon of women empowerment because of this, condition of women is changed revolutionary in social, economic and political perspective. In present research we try to express that what are the changes comes in front of us through self help group in Madhya Pradesh (India) and for data collection primary sources will be used.

Keywords: Empowerment, self-help group (SHG), sustainable development, rural economy, Primary source.

INTRODUCTION

India is a vast south Asian country. It is 7th largest country by area. 2nd most populous country and the most populous democracy in the world. Bonded by the Indian Ocean on the south, the Arabian Sea on the south west and the Bay of Bengal on the south east.

Historically, women have been regarded as constituting a weaker section. They have often been treated as "second grade citizens". They have been pictured and presented as "home makes" that are good in household chores. This image of women has been changing everywhere. Extension of the voting right to women in Britain and America in the beginning of the 20th century brought about the series of change in the status of women especially in the western world. Many of their disabilities and inequalities came to an end in due course.

The quest for equality was pursued consistently by the western women.

On the contrary, women of Asia and Africa were not able to secure equal status and opportunities even after 1950s. Women continued to suffer from one or the other kind of disability. Their exploitation was also continued. They were given unequal treatment on the basis of sex. This development was termed as "gender discrimination". The United Nations also through its various meeting and pronouncements was giving call to its member-nations to remove as early as possible, the ugly practice of 'gender discrimination'

***"Where the women are honored,
there the very gods are pleased: but
where they are not honored, no
scared rite ever could yield rewards"
In India women are treated as
Goddess, Laxmi is a goddess of***

Corresponding Author Email: shailjadubey70@yahoo.in

wealth, Saraswati is goddess of knowledge and Durga is goddess of power.

Women in India during the ancient age had an honorable status. The medieval period proved to be higher disappointing for the Indian women.

The status of Indian women has radically changed since independence. The improvement in the status of Indian women especially after independence can be analyzed in the light of the major changes that have taken place in areas such as legislations education economic and employment sector, political participation and awareness of their right on the part of women.

The Concept of “Empowerment of women”

The term ‘empowerment of women’ has become popular especially after 1980s. It refers to the process of strengthening the hands of women who have been suffering from various disabilities, inequalities and gender discrimination.

- “Empowerment of women” refers to the process of providing power to woman to become free from the control of others, that is, to assume power to control her own life and to determine her own conditions.
- The term “empowerment of women” could also be understood as the process of providing equal rights, opportunities, responsibilities and power position to women so that they are able to play a role on par with men in society.

A big nation like India which consists of 58.5 corers women. We cannot ignore the role of women in the national development. It is in this demographic context also the process of empowerment of women has assumed importance.

Women cannot be empowered in magical manner. It is not automatic or a spontaneous process but requires deliberate and consistent efforts. It is through the combined and co-ordinate efforts of the government people and the women. The task can be fulfilled; women cannot be effectively empowerment by statutory provisions on government efforts alone.

Women use empowerment through women emancipation, movement, education, communication, media, political party general awakening and self help group.

Self – Help Groups

In the Indian context, self-help groups represent on the forms of micro-finance enterprise. It is now almost universally acknowledged that self-help groups are the most effective and successful means of making the economically weaker sections of the rural society to become free from poverty and to move in the direction of self reliance with utmost self-confidence. The successful experiments with SHGs in Bangladesh and Kenya have given wide publicity to them throughout the globe. It is for this reason, the state and the Central Government programs.

- Self-Help Group is a small local group consisting of 12-to-20 self-conscious and self-motivated members who have mutual trust among themselves decide to work together by making self-efforts for the fulfillment of their socio-economic needs on a co-operative basis.
- A self-help group comprises of a group of micro entrepreneurs having homogeneous social and economic backgrounds coming together voluntarily to save small sums of money regularly, and mutually agreeing to contribute to a common fund and to meet their emergency needs on the basis of mutual help.

Objectives of SHG’s

The main objective of SHG’s is to achieve economic development in the circle of rural poor. It s aims, however can be started on the following words.

1. Promoting economic progress of members by enabling the members to engage in income generating activates.
2. Encouraging the members to engage in economically productive activities that would fetch income and increase production.
3. Giving encouragement to members to avoid extravagance and develop the habit of saving.

4. Helping the members to become relieved of poverty.
5. To give motivation and encouragement to the members to establish small enterprises.
6. Enhancing the general knowledge and business approach of the members.

Effects of SHG's

Social

- Improvement in the status of women in and out of the family
- Increase in sources of information and knowledge
- Increase in social and political movement of women
- Getting platform for fighting with social evils
- Development in education, health and entertainment levels in the family

Economic

- Increase in savings
- Easy availability of loans
- Escape from money-lenders
- Change in financial condition of the family
- Profit from government schemes
- New employment opportunities

Psychological

- Will power/increase in strength of mind
- Development of self dependency
- Development of concept of we
- Increase in awareness and positive vision
- Development of decision making ability

Political

- Participation in local government
- Awareness towards their voting rights
- Active participation in politics.
- Increase in leadership quality.

Why women form SHG

First, it is generally seen that women are good at savings and financial management, make better use of money and are also good at the repayment schedule. Along with this, SHG run by women are free from disputes and have a good co-operation base. It is also seen that women use the maximum amount of their savings on their family i.e. health, good nutrition, education etc.

One more and big reason of making SHG by women is that, on one hand the SHG's have proved to be very important for social empowerment and on the other women face many kinds of injustice and inequalities. They are unable to get rid of these injustice and inequalities, because they interact with these problems separately. Women get a chance to come together and find solutions to their problems through SHG's. Therefore it is necessary to make women SHG's.

METHODOLOGY AND STUDY AREA

India is a secular country. Unity in diversity is the main characteristic feature of the country. People from different religions live here. There are 29 states and 7 union territories in India. Each state has its own language, custom and tradition.

M.P. is one of the states. As it is situated on the centre of the country, so it is known as the heart of India. M.P. has 50 districts. Chhatarpur is one of them. This district has 1215 villages. That's why it is known as the district of villages. There are 6 Tehsils in this district. Literacy rate is much lower because of village background. The villages and people here are very conservative and traditionalist.

My study area is rural. Child marriages, Parda system and illiteracy, health and nutrition, gender discrimination are the major problems of this area. The condition of women here is very poor, but there is a lot of change seen in the condition of women in this area through the SHG. Therefore I choose this subject for my study.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To find out if the women associated with SHG's are economically empowered.

- To find out if the women in SHG's are being trained in Social, Political and Educational aspects of life.

The sample of the study included members of various SHGs. The study is carried out with both qualitative and quantitative approach. The sample size is 100 respondents met and gathering and data was collected through interview schedule. I have study entitled “**Women Empowerment and self help group**” was undertaken with the specific objective of annulling for examining the role of Self Help Groups in improving the empowerment of women.

Primary and secondary data were collected for the study. Primary data were obtained through the use of structured schedule. The detailed information relating to secondary data was obtained from research papers. Journals and various organizations like Banks, Village Gram Sabha of respective village in the study area.

Self Help Group was selected randomly from some area of Chatarpur. The women's were selected randomly according to the self Help Group from which they belong. Microfinance is the only model reaching the poor to uplift them by providing easy loan to build their business and other practices of self sufficiency, where regular financial services couldn't reach.

HYPOTHESIS

- Self Help Group (SHGs) leads to economic empowerment of women.
- Economic empowerment of beneficiaries leads to social empowerment in the form of better nutrition, health and general awareness.
- Self Help Groups helps in promoting leadership qualities among the beneficiaries.
- Self Help Group which is a part and parcel of rural life is a good means of empowerment.

TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF DATA COLLECTION

Data will be collected from both primary and secondary sources. An interview guide was prepared for getting information from preyed. Observation is the perfect method to investigate the actual situation.

This part of the paper deals with the analysis and interpretation of the primary data that has been collected through survey conducted among the members of selected SHG. A sample of to SHG consisting of 100 members has been taken for the present study and the data has been analyzed with respect to general profile of SHG.

Table 1 Reason for Formatting the SHG

S. No.	Reason	No. Of Respondent	Percentage
1	To improve Social status	30	30%
2	To improve economic status	40	40%
3	To obtain financial support	20	20%
4	To promote saving habit	10	10%
Total		100	100%

In this data it is clear indicated that the every respondent have their own different views for forming the group. The 40%respondent answers that the reason for forming the self help group is to improve the economic status. And the 30% response that they from self help group to improve social status and the other 20% respondents response that they form self help group to obtain financial support and the other rest 10% respondent response that they form self help group to promote saving habit.

These data shows that apply or use any method all wants economic progress. For economic empowerment they made SHG groups

Table 2 Members in Each SHG

S.No.	No. Of Members	No. Of SHG	Percentage
1	10-15	9	30%
2	15-20	21	70%
Total		30	100%

The table shows that the no. of members of the self help group 30% respondent's answers that the members of self help group are 10-15 in their group. And the other 70% respondent leader's answers that the self help group is consist of 15-20 members in their self help group.

Table 3 Qualification of the SHG Member

S.No.	Qualification	Respondents	Percentage
1	Illiterate	0	-
2	1 st -5 th	10	10%
3	6 th -10 th	20	20%
4	10 st -12 th	50	50%
5	Graduate	20	20%
Total		100	100%

From the above the respondent answer about the qualification of the member of their self help group 30% of the respondent of the self help group answer that they have the members who have qualified under 5th - 8th class. Other 50% answer that they have the members who are qualified under 8th - 12th class. And the other rest 20% answers that they members of self help group are qualified above 12th class. In their self help group they have a mixture of different personalities which have their different qualification.

After joining the SHG their interest education is increase, they are thinking to move forward and they want to give their children higher education. They think education is the main resource of development.

Table 4 SHG Increases a Woman's Awareness and Knowledge

S.No.	Increases a woman's awareness	Respondents	Percentage
1	SHG approach and procedure	20	20%
2	Banking transaction	10	10%
3	Health and sanitation	10	10%
4	All of the above	60	60%
Total		100	100%

This table indicates that the 60% respondents answer that the awareness in women gets increases that they are aware of self help group approaches and procedures, banking transactions, health and sanitation. And the other 20% response that woman's of self help group are aware of the self help group approaches and procedures. And the other 10% answer that other women of self help group are aware of the banking transaction and the rest 10% women's are aware of the health and sanitation.

Table 5 Decisions are taken in SHG

S.No.	Decisions are taken in SHG	Respondents	Percentage
1	Taken by all members	10	10%
2	Taken by few dominant members	10	10%
3	Taken by leader	30	30%
4	Taken by leader and ratified by members	50	50%
Total		100	100%

This table clearly indicated that how decisions are taken in self help group. It was very interesting to know because every self help group have their own perception and their views. 50% respondent answer that the decision in self help group is taken by the leaders and they are ratified by members. And the 10% answer that decisions in self help group are taken by the all members of the group, 10% answer that the decisions are taken by few dominate members of the group. And the other rest 30% respondent answer that the decision are taken by the leaders only.

Table 6 Interaction with Outsider

Interaction with Outsiders	PRE-SHG		POST-SHG	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
None	46	46	07	07
Once	28	28	15	15
2-3 Time	20	20	22	22
More than 5 time	06	06	56	56
Total	100	100	100	100

Presents the changes that occurred in the frequency of interaction with outsiders during pre and post SHG period. Members generally, got lesser opportunity to interact with bankers, Government officials, NGOs and others in the Pre-SHG period. It can be seen that in the Pre-SHG period the members were not interacting with officials whereas after associating with SHGs, This interaction helped them to articulate their problems and improved their self-confidence.

Table 7 Self Confidence among Group Members

Features	PRE-SHG		POST-SHG	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Member Revealed Confidence	18	18	36	36
Status in Family	29	29	19	19
More Respectful	23	23	12	12
Help in Family Finance	18	18	23	23
Help Others	12	12	10	10
	100	100	100	100

The group formation brought out the hidden talent and leadership qualities among the members. This proportion of members showing positive responses to the questions about self-confidence. It can be seen that there has been an increase of 36 per cent in SHG members with respect to confidence building factors. Therefore, it can be concluded that after joining the SHG the members have improved their status in

family, become helpful in family finance and sometimes helped others too.

Table 7 Status of Access to Amenities

Particulars	PRE-SHG		POST-SHG	
	Number	%	Number	%
Water Supply Facilities	22	22	35	35
School for children	30	30	41	41
Sanitation Facilities	35	35	53	53
Market Facilities	30	30	46	46
Medical Facilities	40	40	56	56
Adequate Transport Facilities	20	20	49	49

Since SHG programme has economic as well social implications, it is necessary to evaluate the various dimensions of the programme. Lack of infrastructure facilities, access to amenities like health, sanitation, education, market, water supply, affect the economic and overall development of the members.

It can be seen that there has been an increase in SHG members in terms of their status of access to amenities factors. Therefore, it can be concluded that after joining the SHG the members have improved in getting access to amenities like medical, sanitation, education, market, water supply, transport etc.

Table 9 Change in the saving pattern of SHG members

Particular	PRE-SHG		POST-SHG	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Post office	0	0	31	31
Bank	0	0	30	30
In SHG	0	0	26	26
Loan to relatives	09	09	02	02
Cash in hand	91	91	11	11
Total	100	100	100	100

Changes that occurred in the saving pattern of the members during pre and post SHG period. It is found that there has been almost 90 per cent and 10 per cent increase in SHG members, who are now saving there

money in Bank & Post Offices and SHG, while there has been a decrease of 91per cent and 09per cent members, who were earlier having cash in hand and provided loans to relatives. It can be concluded that SHG is having a good impact on members, in their ability to save their hard earned money.

Table 9 Change in the Saving Amount

Particulars	PRE-SHG		POST-SHG	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Rs. 0-500	39	39	02	02
Rs. 500-1000	32	32	03	03
Rs.1000-1500	21	21	07	07
Rs. 1600-2000	08	08	10	10
More than Rs. 2000	0	0	78	78
Total	100	100	100	100

The cumulative saving pattern of the SHG members during pre and post SHG period per month. It is found that there has been 78 per cent increase in SHG members who are currently saving more than Rs. 2000 per month, who were earlier saving nothing in the pre SHG period, It can be concluded that SHG is having a good impact on the saving of the members.

Empowerment of women and “The 73 Constitution Amendment Act, 1993”

‘The 73 Constitution Amendment Act 1993’ was under taken mainly to give constitutional status to the “Panchayati Raj system” and to introduce it in India on a uniform basis. Another purpose behind the Act was to assure the empowerment of women.

The Farmers of the 73rd Constitution Amended Act believed that “social and economic status of women could not be improved much without political power. The females in the village need to be given some political power. They should have their share in the decisions made about the development of their village. The new Panchayati Raj is a part of the effort to empower women at least at the village level”

One-Third Reservation of seat for women

The 73rd Constitution Amendment Act has made an effort to give some special powers to women in all the three tiers of Panachayati Raj. As per the Act, 1/3

of the seats are reserved for women in addition to the reservation for SCs and STs. It was indeed, a very bold step towards the empowerment of women. Rural women who have been working as from labours, cleaning the utensils, washing clothes, sweeping the court-yard, fetching drinking water from a distance, cooking food serving the same to all, labouring in the fields, etc., are now able to exercise some amount of political power on per with men. They now have the role to play in matters of decision making that effect village affairs. “The provisions of Act for the women are in no way less than a revolution.”

SHG not only changes the outer form of a community or a society but also the social institutions as well as ideas of the people living in the society. In other words it also applies to change the material aspects of life as well as in the ideas, values and attitudes of the people.

CONCLUSION

The socio-economic empowerment of women is also reflected in the development program of the country. In this part of the reports, an attempt has been made to analyze the socio-economic profile of beneficiaries of SHG’s of Madhya Pradesh.

There is an emerging need to improve women status which should start with economic empowerment. Empowerment is a concept that is of equal importance to both man and women. It is the idea of sharing power, of truly giving it way. Empowerment is the process through which individual gain efficiency, defined as the degree to which an individual perceives that they control their environment. The empowerment of women involves four interrelated and mutually reinforcing components.

- Collective awareness and capacity building and skill development
- Participation and greater control
- Decision making power and
- Action to bring about gender equality

In the present study most of beneficiaries are female belonging SHG’s as compared to male. Study reveal Self-Help Groups touched upon lives of particularly poor women in rural areas. New issues have to be

addressed to effects social and economical progress of my nation. The most important one is women's empowerment through SHG. SHGs have undoubtedly begun to make a significant contribution in poverty alleviation and empowerment of poor, especially women in rural areas of my country. Women's contribution is vital and their empowerment would hasten the pace of social development. Investing in women capabilities and empowering them achieve their choices and opportunities are the definite way to contribute to the economic growth and the overall development. The empowerment of rural women leads to benefit not only to individual women and women groups, but also to the families and the community as a whole. Women empowerment is the major goal of development in India.

It is worth mentioning here that SHGs emerge as an important strategy for empowering women and alleviating poverty. This is an effective strategy for poverty alleviation, women development and social empowerment. The women SHGs have enhanced the status of women as participant, decision makers and beneficiaries on the democratic, economic, social and cultural spheres of life and sensitized the women member to take active part in socio economic progress of rural India.

- They started grain bank.
- They started keeping their girl child name on the name of holy river and goddess.
- At the time of birth of girl child they plant one tree for celebration.
- Now a day they participate in international market by exporting their goods made in small and cottage industries (handy craft items).
- Successfully they run bricks factories.

RECOMMEENDATION

- There is need to accept that women's need are not only for self-employment. The programme should be designed on the basis of needs of women at the micro level. Planning for self-employment for women needs a multi-pronged strategy.

- The customer contact program specially, for women should be organized to disseminate the information of various schemes and financial needs of women.
- There is urgent need of co-operation from public representative's involvement in each and every movement of SHGs for upliftment of women.
- There is an urgent need to provide education to all members, for imparting literacy. NGOs and SHG leaders should take initiative in this regards and for attending adult education programmes provided by government.
- It is suggested that motivational campaign may be conducted for inculcating saving habit in the minds of the members.
- SHGs faced the problem of inadequate loan amount. Loan amount is one of the basic components to start an activity Loan amount should be increased to the extent that they can take up an income generating activity.
- The administrators and bankers need to infuse confidence in the minds of the members of SHGs. Efforts should be made to avoid delay in sanctioning revolving fund and loan.

*Although the journey is very long
and full of challenges but this
journey is very will go along with.
I agree that darkness is dense but
who says not to lit the lamp.*

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ANALYSIS OF FAMILIAL INTERACTIONS AND RESIDENTIAL ENVIRONMENTS OF LIVING-NEAR FAMILIES

Jung-Min, C

College of Architecture, Konkuk University, Seoul, Korea

Abstract

“Living-near families” refers to parents and married-children’s families living in close geographical proximity. This study was conducted to analyse different types of familial interactions, the level of satisfaction, geographical spaces, and spatial characteristics of the living-near families in Seoul. Twenty-seven females who were living close to either their parents or their married-children participated in face-to-face interviews. The main findings were as follows: (1) Average travel time between parents and children was 10-15 minutes, regardless of transportation modes. The average housing and household sizes of children and parents’ families were 77 m² (3.79 persons) and 103 m² (2.62 persons), respectively, which showed that children’s families had a two times higher household density. (2) Both generations were satisfied with living near each other. In particular, children who lived close to their parents showed higher satisfaction compared to children who lived close to parents-in-laws. However, the proximity to their parents negatively affected the satisfaction with privacy. (3) Major factors that contributed to children moving further away from their parents were the education of the respondents’ children or spouse’s job-related relocation.

Keywords: Living-near Families, familiar interactions, sharing spaces, residential environment.

INTRODUCTION

Study Background

Human being faces a variety of risks by dispersing them into individual mutuality. A person, who builds our society, is being connected to other people in a random place and receive unexpected benefits. Families are still one of the main subject which

provides with the important housing functions. However, it is difficult for assuming the status of a family based on the past. Therefore, it is very important to form mutualism which shares a variety of social risks that corresponds with social change. This is very important as the low-birth and aging society are in progress.

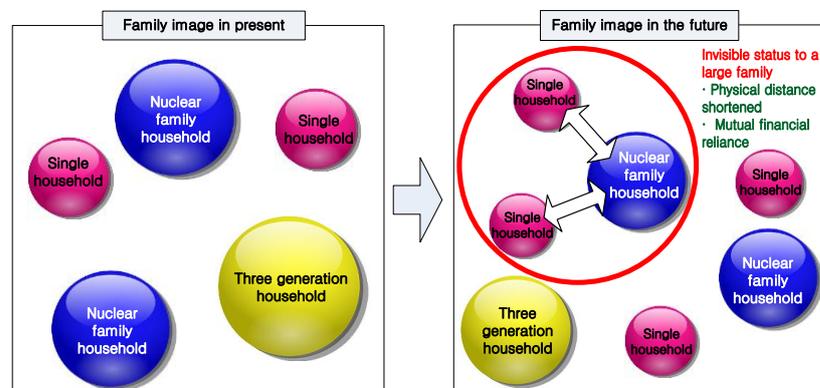


Fig 1. Invisible family concept chart (Source : Kawadu, 2008)

Corresponding author email: jmchoi@konkuk.ac.kr

Therefore this study focuses on the pattern of a divided family of married-children who are ‘living near’ with their parents and using the words ‘living-near’ to study the concept and characteristics as well as an in-depth study of ‘living-near’ interaction. The concept of ‘Living-near families’ is defined as “Parents and children, or people with familial relationship are living in a single residence but maintaining the familial interaction by living in close geographical proximity.”

Study Methodology

Study methodology were conducted with looking into the concept and the characteristics of ‘living-near’ by literature review. Locations for study were focused at the centre of Myeonmok-dong, Jungrang-gu, Seoul and include the parts of Sangbong-dong as well. These areas are one of the typical residential areas and consist of a large distribution of multi-dwelling/multiplex houses instead of apartment complexes.

THE CONCEPT OF ‘LIVING-NEAR FAMILIES’ AND LITERATURE REVIEW ASSOCIATED WITH STUDY ON ASSOCIATED SYSTEM

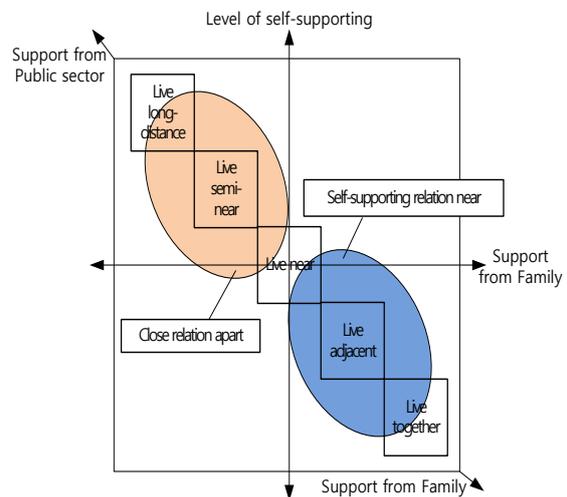
The concept of ‘living-near families’

The concept of ‘Living-near families’ refers to a living pattern of married-children’s families living in close geographical proximity with the parents (or parents moving close to married-children’s residence). ‘Living-near’ can also be defined as “Parents and children, or people with familial relationship, are living in single residence but maintaining the familial interaction by living in close geographical proximity.”

Therefore, the concept of ‘living-near’ focuses on the cooperative form of living which comes from living in close proximity to each other, not only on connecting the living form based on the housing life of single residence.

One of the main issues under discussion is the spatial distance definition, on how to determine two random separated families are either adjacent or close, depending on the separated distance. Adjacent living is not so controversial based on the fact that is adjacent; however, some scholars have different opinions on the definition of close living.

Fig 2. Various living forms according to



independency and support (source : Kamiwada, 2011)

Table 1: Life characteristics by familial and spatial living forms in network living

Spatial diagnosis	Familial and spatial living forms	Characteristics	
Short-distance network (same city or district)	Satellite family	Near-Living	Frequent face to face interactions
		Close-Living	Countermeasure to low-birth, aging society and mutual cooperation possible
Mid-distance network (different city or district)	Weekend Couple	Semi- close-living	Transport expense reduced
			2~3 hours distance by car from central area (domestic)
			Face to face interaction directed
			Development of transport infrastructure is important

Long-distance network (different megapolis)	Weekend couple, long-distance family	Far-living	3~5 hours distance by car from central area (domestic) Face to face interaction reduced Development of transport infrastructure is important
Extra long-distance network (overseas)	Extra long-distance family	Extra far-living	Family divided by residing abroad (overseas) Limited face to face interaction Development of transport infrastructure is important

The Advantage of ‘living-near families’

A family divided by space has options to choose living adjacent or closed to other family member which can reduce the social costs by physical and mental interaction within the family. This is the fundamental foundation on which this study was conducted, which was a scholastic study based on developing the social welfare system from the space planning and design which corresponds with the right function of family.

The advantages from the parent generation’s point of view are, that the need for relationships with others increase gradually, and they can gain mental support from their children which cannot be obtained through the civic support, care or finance. As a result, daily support based on three generations living together in the past are decreased. Also, parents receive constant support from the “apart, but close relationships” with their children which has been increased on demand.

Another advantages from the children generation’s point of view are the cases of married-children living close to parents have been increasing as double-income couples increased because they can be helped with their own children or with the housework from the parents. Actually, the double-income couples these days with parents of baby-boomers, have tendency to live in close proximity with the retired

parents to be compensated for the lack of public infant care systems.

ACTUAL CONDITION SURVEY AND SPACE ANALYSIS OF ‘LIVING-NEAR FAMILIES’

Introduction of Actual Condition Survey on ‘living-near families’

The main transportation of the children’s generation to the parents’ residence was by walking and the mean time was 7.3 minutes. As for the public

transportation, bus was by 10 minutes and the total average was 15 minutes, and as for taxi, the average time was 5 minutes. Hence, just looking at the time taken, the spatial distance between living-near families of the research subjects was about 10~15 minutes apart.

By current conditions of the children’s generation has these characteristics; the monthly income average was 3~ 3.5 million won (25%), residential format order from the highest to the lowest was multiplex housing (38%), multi-dwelling housing (25%), row house (17%), apartment (13%). The lease was the half of the cases (50%), personally owned was 42% and monthly rent was very low percentage.

By the parents’ generation’s cases, row houses were 38%, apartment/ multiplex housing/ multi-dwelling housing were all 17% each. The average perimeter of the houses were 103m² which is 1.34 times bigger than the average perimeter of the children’s houses, 77m². From the children generation’s point of view, they live in about 75% the size of house of their parents. Property form was mostly personally owned which was 83% but lease was only 13%.

By comparison of the average residence perimeter per person of the family, the children’s generation has 20.4m² per person but the parents have 39.3m² per person, which means that the parents have the twice bigger size of housing.

Also, the housing size of the children’s generation has a strong relationship with the current income, the parents’ generation remains in the house they purchased a long time ago or with income they saved up in the past, so they have less relationship with the current income.

Table 2: 'Living-near families' survey participants' general characteristics

Case	Occupation	Age	No. of child	Monthly Income (Ten-thousand won)	Subject	Distance (Min)	Residence format	Residential Area (Pyeong)	Property type	Type
C01	Homemaker	28	1	300~350	Wife	W : 10	Row house	79.2m ² (24)	Own	LW
C02	Professional	33	1	200~250	Husband	T : 10	Multiplex	82.5m ² (25)	Own	SH
C03	Professional	35	1	Over 500	Both	W : 15/ W : 5	Multi-dwelling	59.4m ² (18)	Lease	LW/SH
C04	Homemaker	32	2	250~300	Both	W : 1/ W : 15	Multi-dwelling	42.9m ² (13)	Lease	LH/SW
C05	Homemaker	31	2	200~250	Husband	W : 3	Multiplex	66.0m ² (20)	Own	SH
C06	Homemaker	33	3	250~300	Husband	W : 10	Multiplex	108.9m ² (33)	Own	LH
C07	Professional	30	2	300~350	Both	W : 3/ T : 15	Multi-dwelling	75.9m ² (23)	Lease	SW/SH
C08	Homemaker	32	1	450~500	Wife	W : 1	Row house	82.5m ² (25)	Lease	SW
C09	Salaryman	35	2	Over 500	Wife	W : 15	Apartment	69.3m ² (21)	Lease	LW
C10	Homemaker	30	2	250~300	Both	W : 15/ W : 5	Multiplex	56.1m ² (17)	Lease	LW/SH
C11	Homemaker	37	2	350~400	Wife	W : 5	Multiplex	59.4m ² (18)	Lease	SW
C12	Service Industry	32	1	250~300	Wife	T : 30	Multiplex	66.0m ² (20)	Own	LW
C13	Professional	36	2	400~450	Husband	T : 10	Multi-dwelling	92.4m ² (28)	Own	SH
C14	Homemaker	35	2	350~400	Wife	W : 1	Multi-dwelling	99.0m ² (30)	Own	SW
C15	Homemaker	34	2	350~400	Wife	W : 5	Multi-dwelling	82.5m ² (25)	Own	SW

C. Jung-Min / Analysis of Familial Interactions and Residential Environments of Living-Near Families

C16	Homemaker	38	3	350~400	Wife	W : 1	Apartment	96.7m ² (29)	Own	SW
C17	Homemaker	36	1	300~350	Both	W : 5/ W : 4	Row house	82.5m ² (25)	Own	SW/SH
C18	Homemaker	29	2	400~450	Husband	W : 5	Multiplex	66.0m ² (20)	Lease	SH
C19	Homemaker	30	1	300~350	Husband	W : 0.5	Row house	85.8m ² (26)	Lease	SH
C20	Homemaker	33	2	200~250	Husband	W : 8	Multiplex	89.1m ² (27)	Own	SH
C21	Salaryman	29	1	300~350	Both	W : 20/ W : 20	Multiplex	66.0m ² (20)	Lease	LW/LH
C22	Homemaker	40	2	250~300	Wife	T : 25	Apartment	82.5m ² (25)	Monthly rent	LW
C23	Homemaker	40	3	300~350	Husband	W : 15	Single	82.5m ² (25)	Lease	LH
C24	Professional	35	1	200~250	Wife	W : 3	Apartment	82.5m ² (25)	Lease	SW
P01	Homemaker	63	2	Under 100	Son	T : 30	Multi- dwelling	66.0m ² (20)	Own	L / Son
P02	Homemaker	59	3	200~250	Daughter	W : 2	Apartment	99.0m ² (30)	Own	S / Daughter
P03	Homemaker	68	2	100~150	Daughter	T : 10	Single	132.0m ² (40)	Own	L / Daughter

※ Short Distance (S), Long Distance (L), Wife's family (W), Husband's family (H), Walking(W:), Transportation(T:)

Satisfaction Research of ‘living-near families’

The categories with high satisfaction of the ‘living-near’ research were ‘convenient transportation for the return trip’ and ‘close family relationships.’ Satisfaction levels of ‘Stability and relief’, ‘financial

savings and benefit’ were 3.79~3.88, which close to ‘Satisfied (4.0)’, and these were slightly lower than the two categories above. About 80% of the respondents answered that they wished to keep living in close proximity with their family members.

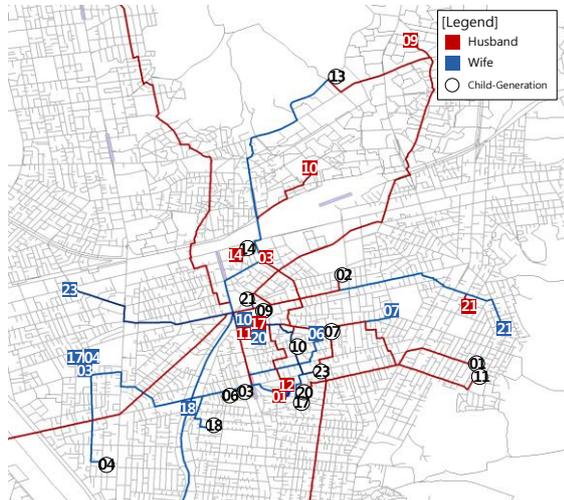


Fig 3. Spatial Distribution of the Interviewees

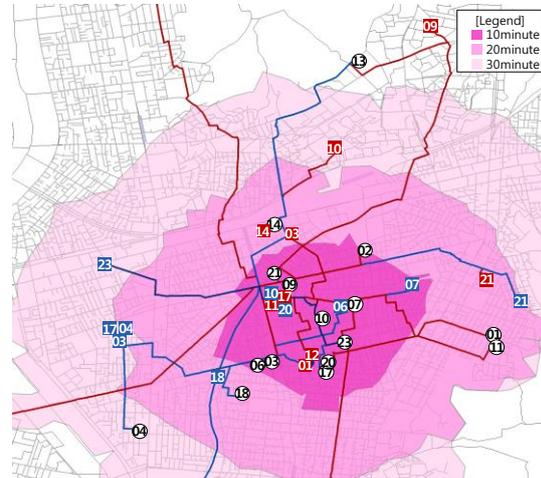


Fig 4. ‘Living near families’ Road-Network according to Time Taken

ANALYSIS OF IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW

Classification of ‘Living-near’ according to the family relationship and spatial distance.

As shown in <Figure 5>, 24 children’s generations were categorized into 4 categories, by crossing the horizontal line which stands for short and long distance and the vertical line which stands for the family relationship whether or not it is on the wife’s or husband’s family side. Here, the standard of spatial distance was based on time taken, 7.3 minutes for walking was the mean time taken and transport was 15 minutes, to separate short and long distance.

Characteristic study of ‘living-near families’ by categories

In all the categories, the help with child care was not very comprehensive and temporary when it needed, and it has tendency to ask for help at the wife’s family rather than the husband’s. Overall, the expectation for child care through ‘living-near’ has very high expectation.

Children in short distance from either parents can ask for help easily more than long distanced children, which means that the effect of spatial distance is big on the routine housework exchange.

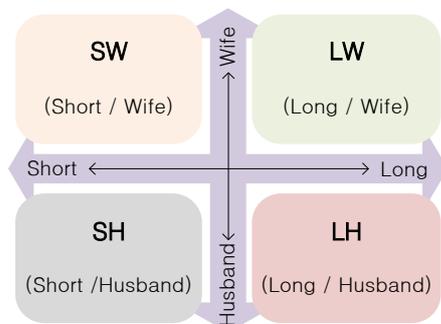


Fig 5. Category Classification

The average satisfaction level of people who are ‘living-near’ with the parents in a short distance, was 3.6 out of 5.0 point scale, whereas the average satisfaction level of people ‘living-near’ the parents from a long distance was 3.8 and higher than those in shorter distance. This is because when the spatial distance is short, it is easy getting helped with housework for the children; however, it also can be psychologically pressured from all the intervention.

‘Living-near’ with the wife’s parents’ satisfaction level was 4.2, whereas with the husband’s parents was 3.3. ‘Living-near’ with the wife’s side has much higher numbers than the husband’s. This is because it is easy to ask a help from the wife’s family than the husband’s.

In case of ‘help with food’, a lot of wives interviewed were receiving food and side-dishes from the parents, even though they were homemakers. Most of them were getting these dishes from the wife’s parents because wife’s parents want to help with their daughter’s marital independence, whereas the husband’s parents wanted to help their son directly in lieu of depending on their daughter-in-law.

Items not used frequently were leased from the parents and in some cases children would use empty spaces in the parents’ homes as storage. Children seemed to feel more relaxed and stable around the wife’s family because they kept a close relationship with them and even received financial help.

However, in case of the husband’s family, children often felt their privacy violated by the frequent visits and calls of their parents. This caused psychological pressure which led to negative reviews. Such pressure had bad effect on future hopes for ‘living-near’, because children generation feel appalled by the concept.

Most of the interviewees were positive towards ‘living-near’ the wife’s parents, especially the ones who ‘living near’ in a long distance answered that they wanted to remain in the ‘living-near’ relationship as long as possible.

Use of Living Space during visiting terms

When children visit their parents, the purpose of the visit is normally to ask their regards with their grandchildren or to leave the grandchildren in care of emergency. Other reasons would include visiting to have a meal with the parents.

Corresponding with this pattern, the parents’ living spaces are thoroughly exploited, which means that the children can use the kitchen, living room and even the bedroom freely. The grandchildren’s toys sometimes are left around the living room even after they are done with them, and even separate spaces for play

and education of the grandchildren are found. When the children generation’s life pattern is being developed dominantly at the parents’ house, the tendency to share with families are found.

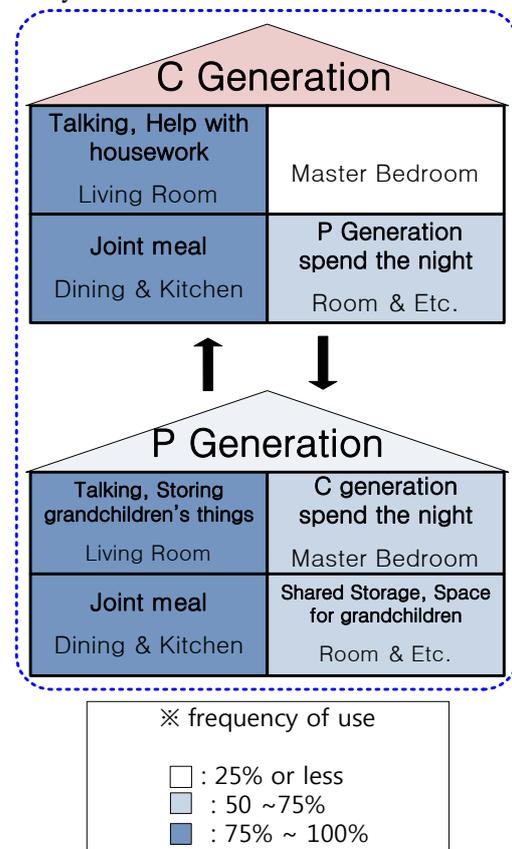


Fig 6. ‘Living-near families’ space usage

Hence, the need for the lack of space of the children’s generation and the shared space of the parents’ generation become a form of shared space. For example, extra space of the parents’ house , i.e. balcony, can be shared as a storage space for their children, or the married children’s shared room can be re-used as a grandchild’s nurture space.

On the other hand, when the parents visit the children, the reasons for the visit include to help with the housework or child care, to give fresh made side dishes, or to visit their grandchildren.

Hence, children’s living space, which responds to these visits, are restricted only to the living room or the grandchildren’s bedroom because the master bedroom is avoided by the parents to respect the children’s privacy, unlike the parents’ living space. But sometimes they use the kitchen to cook meals for the children and when they sleep over at the

children's house, they usually use the grandchildren's room.

In term of the frequency of the visiting terms of both sides of the parents, there are a lot more cases of children visit the parents. So the 'living-near', based on the living space utilization, indicated the parent generation's residence has a bigger range and higher frequency of use than the children's residence. This means that parents' house need flexible space plan for the concept of 'living-near families'.

Study of establishment requirements, interaction reality and demolition factors of 'living-near' through in-depth interviews

The factor of 'living-near' is centred on children's and the parents' mutual, emotional and financial effects which are the positive effects on the 'living-near' concept. When these effects are supported by the family situation of both families, housing and living environment, the concept of 'living-near' can

be established in. General desire for housing environment to fulfil 'close-living' does not seem to be affected by location.

The dismantled factors of 'living-near' can be divided into the external and internal factors. The external factors were that when their children (grandchildren) are on the higher secondary schools such as middle/high schools, they wanted to move to areas where education environment well maintained. This kind of opinion also found in the parent generation's answers, saying that they wanted to move to a country house or a vacation home to live their own lives when the grandchildren grown up and no longer need their help.

As the internal factors, with various emotional conflicts, such as conflict between wife and mother-in-law or burden for child care in old age, can cause one of the families to move when they can no longer 'living near' the other.

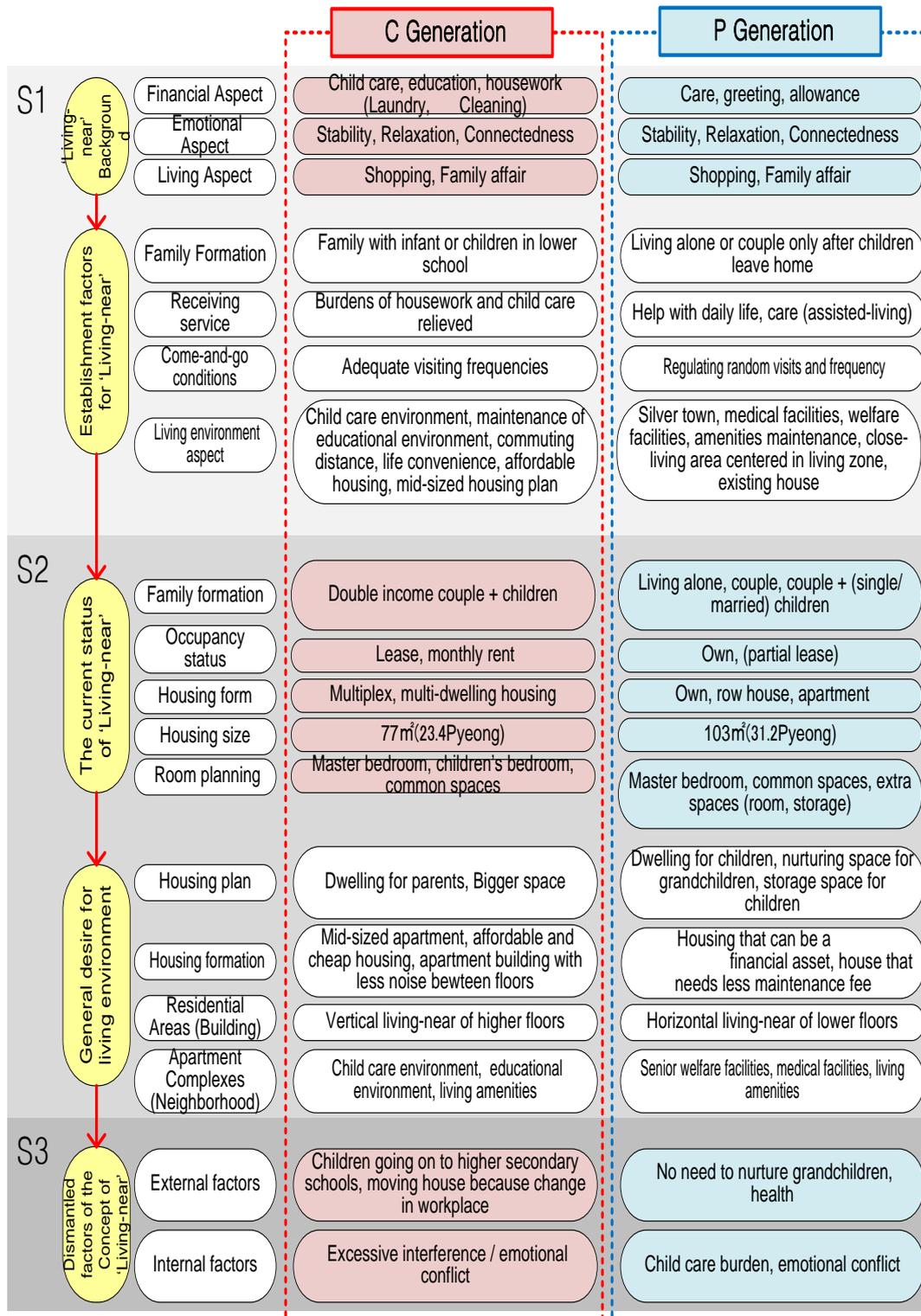


Fig 7. Process of Formation, Current state and Dismantle in Time Sequence

CONCLUSION

This study, introduced the concept of 'living-near' as the parents and married-children live in close proximity, targeted the 27 households (24 children households, 3 parent households) which were actually practicing the concept of 'living-near'. Out of these 27 households, the study focused on the 24 children households to study the actual conditions. The main results of this study are as follows.

Firstly, Seoul's 'living-near' distance was 10 minutes by walking and including public transportation, and the most people lived in 10~15 minutes of each other. As for the living areas, the children generation's average house size was 77m² and the parent's average house size was 103m². Children were living in 75% the size of the parents' residences and the average number of residents residing were 3.79 persons for the children and 2.62 persons for the parents. This means that the living area per person is bigger for the children as they used almost half the living area of the parents.

Secondly, the concept of 'living-near's total satisfaction levels of the study subjects by the in-depth interviews were generally high, especially psychological stability and relief was higher with the wife's family than the husband's. However, the privacy satisfaction levels were higher when they lived further away from the husband's parents. If the children were living-near with both sides of the parents, maintaining a balanced interaction between the wife's and husband's family became a burden.

Thirdly, the various reasons for not maintaining 'living-near' in the future resulted as follows; in case of children are living-near the wife's family they were mostly affected by external factors such as children's (grandchildren) education or the husband's change of workplace. On the other hand, in case of living near the husband's family, the reasons were mostly affected by internal factors connected to the family relationship such as conflicts between wife and mother- or sister-in-law or intervention in housework. As for visiting terms, children's

generation visiting their parents' house showed a much higher frequency than the parents visiting their children, and when the children's lives dominantly at the parent's living space, the concept of space sharing was found. Hence, the lack of living space of the children's generation and the shared space of the parent generation meet up partly and become a form of share. For example, extra space of the parents' house like a balcony can be shared as a storage space for the children, or the married children's room can be re-used as a grandchild's nurture space.

Limitations of this study resulted that there was no big difference in the space planning or living environment of four blocks in Junrang-gu of the study subject. Therefore a study comparing the interaction condition by 'living-near' categories and living environments of an area with disparate space plan and living environment characteristics with the original study analysis area would be recommended in the future areas of research.

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SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE OF RURAL YOUTH IN REFERENCE TO EDUCATION AND PROFESSION

Pendharkar, S

Govt. College Bargi, Rani Durgavati Vishwavidyalaya, Jabalpur (M.P.), India

Abstract

In the contemporary era of social transformation, education and profession are the two sectors which have been most affected. These two factors have given birth to a classified system through which stratified system has renewed. The social perspectives relating with education and profession points out every social structure. In the rural social era regarding education and profession especially among the rural youth the tendency of migration has evolved. Education and profession have proliferated migration as a medium for the rural urban continuity. **Objective:** 1. To study the developed perspective among the rural youth for education and profession. 2. To measure the path of knowledge in the age of globalisation alongwith its opportunities for development in the rural areas. 3. To evaluate the process of migration with respect to education and profession. **Methodology:** In the Objective based sampling method five rural areas were chosen under which 100 students possessing higher education qualification were taken and applied to correlation method of statistics. **Result:** This has been noticed that in the rural residential youth the development of modern thoughts and understanding do not occur and thus in their method of profession there is prominence of traditional methods. The graduate level studies have been considered as the symbol of societal status. **Utility:** To cultivate and practice skills and development in the rural areas concerning with education and profession. To promote business in the rural context and to establish conditions/situations for its modernization so that rural sector based development can prosper globally along with conserving the heritage of traditional social structure and system.

Keywords: Skill, migration, multiple profession, stratified system.

INTRODUCTION

In the contemporary era of social transformation, education and profession are the two sectors which have been affected the most. From global perspective, education and profession have gone through insignificant changes. The changing nature of profession and business has led to the necessity of training and competency in the field of education. Multiple options in profession and business are resulting into multiple options in the field of education. These interrelated factors have changed the opinion about social structure and system. These two factors have created new stratified social system in the society. Difference in social structures are based on their social perspective about education and profession. Rural and Urban social structure are stratified by the social perspective of educational and professional status. Interdependency of the rural and

urban society is the cause of “Rural Urban continuum”. Migration is the process of maintaining equilibrium and continuity between rural and urban society. Education and profession are the pillars of rural urban continuum which is made from the new social perspective. Migration with respect to education and profession takes place in Youth, especially rural youth.

India, the second largest subcontinent in Asia, has always been an agriculture based economy, where the auxiliary and cottage industries associated with the traditional profession of agriculture have become prevalent. Industrialization has given new shape to the society. Large scale production and emerging consumer market has resulted into new areas of profession and employment that are continuously evolving and developing into numerous multioptional forms. Educational qualifications and competencies

related to profession and business have given birth to new trends in training.

In the present study rural urban continuity effect has been seen in context with perspective of the youth on education and profession. The changing economy has increased the importance of education, especially higher education and has generated new economic possibilities and necessity to achieve higher qualifications. The perspectives of multi-optional profession in the youth of rural area are based on the opportunities provided to them.

Youth is considered as possessing mature logical acumen, youth deals with patience in any work and carries a different life style and at the same time remains courageous and enthusiastic to change the perception according to the needs of society. Youth carries social and cultural value system. Youth hold a social and cultural self-respect, traditional and social values are quite evident in the behaviour of thinking process and in the psychological system of youth who decides the condition and directions of social drive that are changing the parameters of development in today's world. Thus, the development relativity contents are hold by youth's perspectives. In psychology young age is defined as fully adulthood that is early adulthood. This age group spans from early 18 years upto 40 years of age. Early adulthood and young age carries following characteristics:

1. Youth is the age of getting re-assured with life.
2. Youth is an age of problem
3. Age of emotional stress.
4. Stage of social isolation.
5. Stage of promises.
6. Stage of change in values.
7. Stage of co-ordination with new environment around them.
8. Stage of change in interest and creativities.
9. Youth is the stage of difficult optional works.
10. Youth is the stage of social mobility.
11. Youth is the stage of adjustment of gender role.
12. Youth is the stage of productivity.

In the Indian context, the stage of youth plays an important role. In the structural qualities of India, the

positive and optimistic role of youth on the basis of population statistics plays an important role.

Global census scenario has estimated India up to the year 2020 as the world's largest youth populated country, in which the average age will be 27 years. According to the census report of 2011 India contains 231.9 million youth of age group (15-24) which is the highest of total population. In between 2001 to 2011 decadal Growth is +22.1% and the sex ratio is 908-882. In this manner (15-24) year's age group defines the education conditions of gender gap.

Source: census report 2011: The graph shows that the trend of literacy rate has been rapidly gone up word side and duration of year 2011 gender gap difference is only 2%, this shows that the equality between boys and girls education. In this respect.

What remains as crucial element is the development of skills among youth population to take up decent vocation?

In India, Madhya Pradesh The department of State Higher Education is providing facilities like scholarship to the SC, ST and OBC students, free distribution of stationeries and copies and books to study, Another plan, 'GaonkiBeti' helps the girl students financially for conveyance to the college, talented poor students get monthly monetary help. Apart from this, students get help through career counselling and are guided to prepare their skills, like CV Resume, formation of email id and training other activities, like debate training, interview preparation, development of quality leadership, information regarding certificates and diploma courses, fair competition, examination preparation and works to be related with rural economical development.

It is possible to spend on education and increase the investment on market and decrease the poverty of the country. Edwin van Gameren, Silvia Vrbina Hinojosa have researched on education and employment perspective for Maxica rural youth, the research work is: Does investment in education lead to an increase of wealth and to a reduction of poverty of households in rural areas? The youth face the necessity to migrate to the urban areas to get better opportunities both for education and for well paid jobs. Beyond doubt, if a larger number of opportunities had existed to follow education in the countryside, more of the educated

young people and adults would refrain from migration and those that had migrated to study would return to the rural areas. Prakash M singhan, Dilipjadhaw and N.P.Singh from IIM, Ahemadabad had studied on the topic of, ‘‘Rural Youth Education, Occupation and Social Outlook.’’ The findings of this study are: It would be common for the rural youth to see the government officials jobs because they thought it would provide them a good opportunity to contribute to the agriculture development. Other study by Dr. Bhimeshwar Reddy and Madhura Swaminathan prof. of Economic analysis unit from Indian statistical institute in Banglore, their topic of study is intergenerational occupational mobility in rural India and findings is the intergenerational occupational mobility in all ten villages particularly among big farmers and manual workers farmers.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The changed global economy has increased the importance of college education. Economic probabilities have raised the need of opportunities as much as possible. How the youth, especially rural youth, in today’s scenario can get job according to the opportunities as much as possible? How the youth, especially rural youth, in today’s scenario can get the job according to the opportunities of the present economic system after acquainting higher education? How can we judge college degree education to get success in competitive jobs as well as how to reduce the increasing migration due to education and profession? etc. all such crucial questions are formed with reference to youth because appropriate solution develops condition for right counselling with the fast pace changing global economy to understand the thinking of youth with respect to education and profession. Following are the important points to be considered in this respect:

- To study the developed perspective with respect to education and profession in rural youth.
- To know the level of knowledge, about possibilities of development in the global society.
- To know the opinions of migration with respect to education and profession.

METHODOLOGY

In the present study the methodology is on the basis of sampling method, four villages which were 30-60 km away from Jabalpur district headquarter of M.P.(India) were selected in which Bargi village was centered. Bargi is known for a very big dam on river Narmada and is also famous for tourism. There are two higher secondary schools and one government Arts college is also located here. Agriculture is the main occupation along with the banking, medical and other financial services facilities. It is connected to the national highway and thus good convenience facilities are available. After the selection of area the respondent were selected. They were 100 in number, out of them 50 were migrant and remaining 50 were non migrant out of total 100 selected youth to understand the societal scenario of education and profession. For both the groups interview scheduled was designed. For the Statistical analysis of the data collected, the corelation method was adopted to enterpret it.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The youth selected for study were categorized into the age group of 15-27 year’s in which migratory age group is of average age of 21.44 and non-migrated average is 22.8.

Education has often been very much so seen as a fundamentally optimistic human endeavour characterised by aspiration for progress and betterment. The respondents were asked to give need and reason of gaining higher education on preferencial order. The answer of respondents are given in table no.1st

The answering respondents form 48% migrants and 50% non-migrant group gave 1stpreference to do job in urban area. The respondents gave fourth rank to get higher education to promote their professional occupation in equal 36% (migrant and non-migrant). In reply to question for getting social status the response was 36% migrants have prefred 3rd rank and 24% non-migrant preferred 2nd value for getting educated for upgrading the living standard. 24 % migrants gave 2ndprefrance and 26% non-migrant gave 3rdprefrance. 34% migrated youth and 46% non-migrants youth opined 5th preference to marriage for attaining higher education.

On this basis we can conclude, that there is positive co-relation (.53) between migrated and non-migrated respondents on the issue of getting higher education. The objective of getting higher education in rural youth is to do job in urban area. Both (migrant and non-migrant) preferred govt. job as source of their livelihood they have not shown interest in Banking, LIC and Private Company.

2nd table shows that 62% migrant respondents and 58% non-migrant have replied that they have knowledge of increasing job opportunities in various profession 38% migrant respondents and 42% non-migrant youth do not know about increasing job opportunities. The conclusion of this is that the rural youth have less knowledge regarding employment. Thus, they have less impact of urban atmosphere on them.

Rural youth have admitted that they must have essential knowledge of training for competitive examination but 70% youth of rural area do not get such training because such facilities are not available in their area. Every respondent has admitted the necessity of computer training/ knowledge for employment but lack of such facilities in rural area non-migrant youth are deprived of such training. Thus, non availability of education and training prevent youth to get job.

Rural Youth is unaware of the contemporary urban job structure, finds difficult to express and plan his education. Youth occupational choices were determined by his present educational status, his ideals, and his /her family considerations that depend on the extent of his family would be willing to allow him to move away from the family. The choice of a career of full time occupation reflects the tendency of the youth to take in to account the future prospects in a particular vocation. Youth face the necessity to migrate to the urban areas to get better opportunities both for education and for well paid Jobs. It is important for Youth to find opportunities in the rural areas that matches with their capacities and abilities. It is elementary that the Young people receive a good basic of education in the rural areas. So, that they have access to a higher standard living with an income according to their educational level. We find that higher educated people in rural areas have more difficulties to find a job at their desired level.

3rd table shows attitude of non-migrants youth who are taking education in rural college from them information was taken for not pursuing education in urban areas. In this respect 30% reflected their fear in studying in urban area, secondly 32% showed financial problem, thirdly 32% said that lack of permission from parents and 30% youth showed fear of conveyance.

4th table shows positive and negative attitude of rural youth about urban atmosphere. 26% migrant and 44% non-migrant youth have considered urban atmosphere better for their professional growth. 74% migrant and 56% non-migrant youth have shown urban atmosphere has negative effect. In spite of better infrastructure in urban areas 78% migrant and 64% non-migrant youth have shown their interest in living in rural area. The reason behind it is, rural area requires educated people so that social / community development can go in right direction. As well as the fear of scattering or losing family structure and system, availability of inherent property etc. this leads to positive attitude of youth towards rural development.

Migrant youth 78% have accepted that lack in sufficient facilities of higher education in rural area is the cause of migration if all proper facilities are made available in rural areas 100% have shown that they will not migrate to urban areas because it save time, labour and monetary loss.

In the present scenario, information technology and communication through computer and mobile are considered to be beneficial tool for achieving and acquiring such information. Mobile phone provides information at every place and every moment, although uses of such gadget indicate their developed mentality. Whether knowledge of computer is important from the point of view of knowledge or from the professional purposes? This important question indicates the preference of professional attitude in youth.

Every young man or women wants to achieve knowledge of computer for getting job 42% of migrated youth gave first priority to use internet for getting information about job (service), while 28% migrated youth gave second preference of to college education only. In the same way, 30% youth gave

third priority to public contact. The same way in non-migrated youth 22% gave importance to internet and 68% to college education like wise 10% youth gave 3rd position to public contact. The youth who accept that he has to travel the urban area/city daily on them urban area influence appears prominently through the use of new mediums and sources of knowledge similarly through important programme of television the youth getting education has more knowledge regarding sports and other entertainment and with respect to other entertaining programmes their interest is more on knowledge increasing telecasted programmes as they have less interest in development programmes.

Findings

The result of analytical facts indicates that more facilities are required in the field of education/profession. We also require more such youth who have gained education, to give their contribution in the economical development of their area. Better educational/professional facility should be developed in their area, so that per capita income of rural area increases and community development takes place simultaneously. At present rural scenario represents experience perspective of youth for education and profession. Youth of rural area have the desire of higher living standard good social status which creates global thinking about education amongst them.

- There is positive correlation (.52) between migrant and non-migrant respondents on the issue of getting higher education.
- There is need of higher educated persons in rural community. This indicates the usefulness of higher education in rural society.
- Rural youth wants social, economical and cultural up gradation of rural community. So that they can serve in rural area.
- There is need of higher education in rural community. Lack of higher education facilities will increase migrating tendency in rural youth.

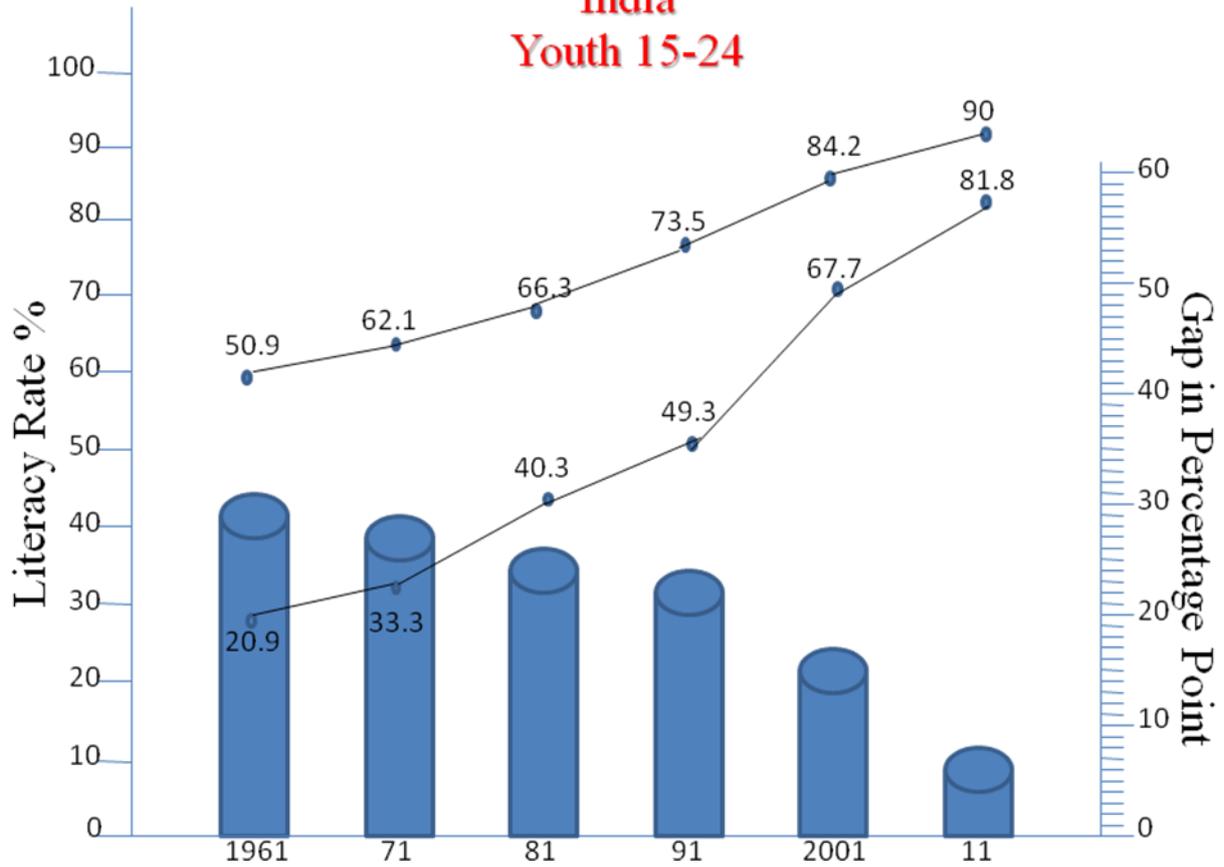
- There is attraction of govt. Jobs in rural youth because of job security.
- Rural youth wants good education to achieve higher income to have good standard of living.
- The higher educated rural youth faceses more difficulties in finding job of their desired level.
- Rural youth have apathy towards their traditional occupation.
- Rural educated youth is desirous of higher living standard and good social status. This creates global thinking.

If education and profession goes on growing in the same way in urban areas it may cause imbalance in the society from rural to urban area. Large scale migration of youth will go on in the same manner. The infrastructure of the rural area will be poor and the development would stop as well. Today there is needed to develop Indian villages as global village. It would only be possible when the local bodies, administration and politicians start thinking and take steps in this direction.

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Trends in literacy Rate by Sex and Gender Gap – India Youth 15-24



Source: Census Report 2011

No. of Youth in age group

C.I	f	
	Migreted	Non-Migreted
17-19	11	08
19-21	13	14
21-23	10	08
23-25	11	12
25-27	05	08
Total-	50	50

Average:- Migrated-21.44, Non-migared-22.8

Table 1: Cause of Get higher education in Urban

Reason / Sequence	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Doing job in the city	48%/50%	16%/18%	14%/16%	18%/4%	4%/12%	100
Upgrade of their traditional profession	4%/4%	16%/34%	14%/16%	36%/36%	30%/6%	100
To get social eminence	20%/22%	20%/24%	36%/22%	12%/16%	12%/16%	100
Upgrade of living standard	20%/18%	24%/12%	20%/26%	16%/24%	20%/20%	100
Getting For marriage	8%/2%	24%/12%	16%/20%	18%/20%	34%/46%	100

Indicator = Migrate/ Non-Migrate
Correlation s-53

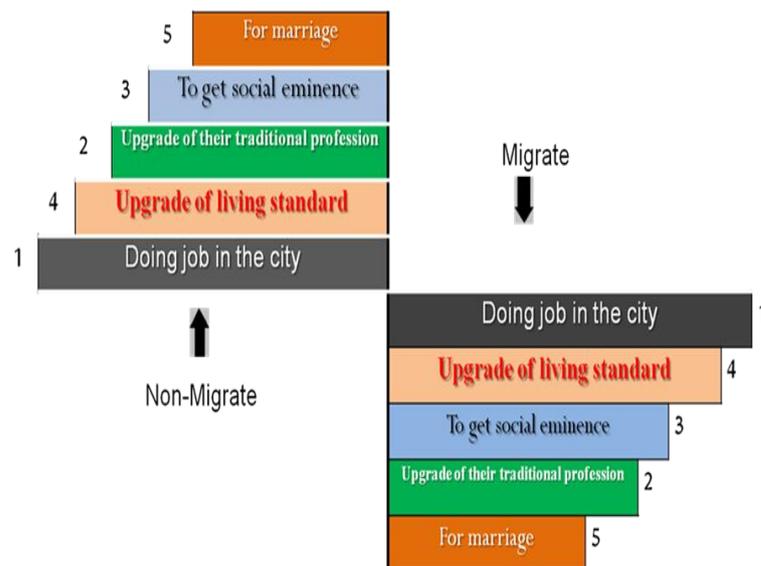


Table 2: Information of knowing Job opportunity

	Yes	No	
Migrated	31 (62%)	19 (38%)	50
Non-Migrated	29 (58%)	21 (42%)	50

Table 3: Reasons of Non-migration

Reasons/Order	1	2	3	4	Total
Lack of permission of parents	20%	20%	32%	28%	100%
Fear of urban atmosphere	30%	28%	28%	14%	100%
Financial problems	24%	32%	16%	28%	100%
Fear of convinces	26%	20%	24%	30%	100%

Table 4: Attitude about urban atmosphere

	Positive	Negative
Migrated	26%	74%
Non Migrated	44%	56%

Table 5: Purpose of Use of Mobile Phone

	Communication	Knowledge	Internet
Migrated	90%	5%	5%
Non Migrated	92%	4%	4%

Table 6: For getting Information of Job

	Migrant			Non-Migrant		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Public Contact	-	-	30%	-	-	10%
Internet	42%	-	-	22%	-	-
From collage	-	28%	-	-	68%	-

PUSH FACTORS TO CHOOSE INDONESIA FOR A VACATION: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BACKPACKERS AND MASS TOURISTS

Hendijani, R.B

Binus Business School, Bina Nusantara University

Abstract

The tourism industry provides a growing source of revenue to the economies of the many countries which invest in it. Therefore, it is important for tourism marketers and stakeholders of destinations to have a better understanding of the behavior of tourists and their motivations for choosing a destination. This study explores the factors which motivate international tourists to choose Indonesia for their vacation. Analyzing travel markets by push factors signifies a relatively new but potentially powerful means of providing a more in-depth understanding of tourists' behavior. Generally there are two types of tourists - backpackers and mass tourists. These two groups of travelers can be distinguished from several aspects. There is little academic knowledge in the tourism industry in Indonesia and specifically less effort to compare these two groups in terms of their motivations. A self-administrated questionnaire consisting of three sections was distributed randomly to 370 international tourists in Jakarta International Airport (Soekarno-Hatta) and some popular tourism areas around Jakarta. Data collection was conducted from October to December 2014. Related analysis such as multivariate analysis (factor analysis and multiple linear regression) and descriptive analysis were used to answer the objectives of this research. The findings show the similarities and differences between these two groups of travelers which should be considered by tourism marketers and stakeholders of Indonesia for the development of marketing strategies.

Keywords: Backpackers, mass tourists, push factors, differences, Indonesia.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry provides a growing source of revenue to the economies of the many countries which invest in it. Therefore, it is important for tourism marketers and stakeholders of destinations to have a better understanding of the behavior of tourists and their motivations for choosing a destination. One of the important aspects of the tourism industry which has not received sufficient attention is the mode of travel of tourists. Generally there are two types of tourists - backpackers and mass tourists. Based on the definition of Cohen (1979), backpackers are defined as independent travelers who are trying to escape the tourist "bubble". This group of travellers is more concerned with authenticity, representing something qualitatively compared with their counterparts. On the other hand, mass tourists are viewed as less adventurous and remain largely limited to their "environmental bubble" throughout their trip.

These two groups of travellers can be distinguished from several aspects such as their age, type of accommodation they choose, length of trip, participation in activities, and their expenditure during a trip to name a few. Hence, it is apparent that backpackers are noticeably different from mass tourists. The willingness of tourists to try new experiences while on a trip suggests that they are typically motivated by a desire to experience the real life of local people (MacCannell, 1973). Previous studies have proposed different activities that tourists will participate in (Babolian Hendijani, Sambasivan, Siew Imm, & Huey Chern, 2013; Brown, 2014). In other words, travellers are looking for new experiences that highlight the destination culture. Despite research focusing on activities in the destination, still there is a lack of knowledge about the push factors driving people to travel to a destination.

Indonesia is a vast archipelago, consists of more than 17,000 islands and located on the equator. According to the Ministry of Tourism in Indonesia (2015), this country consists of more than 200 ethnic groups speaking 300 different languages. This variety in culture and natural beauty around the country has strong potential to attract tourists. The number of tourists increased from 7 million in 2010 (Euro monitor, 2012) to 9.4 million in 2014. After a successful year for tourism flows inbound in 2010, the Indonesian government has set itself more ambitious targets for upcoming years with the aim of maintaining the momentum gained from its promotion of Indonesia as a global tourist destination. The number of leisure arrivals increased at a faster rate than the number of business arrivals in Indonesia during 2011.

A considerable amount of research is still required to more effectively understand tourists' motivation to choose Indonesia and the differences in this arena between backpackers and mass tourists. Therefore, this research was conducted to provide an integrated approach to understanding the reasons why tourists with different modes of travelling chose Indonesia. The objectives of this research were twofold: 1) to identify the reasons tourists with different modes of travelling choose Indonesia as their vacation destination and 2) to know the overall satisfaction experience of backpackers and mass tourists.

METHODOLOGY

To understand the reasons behind choosing Indonesia for their vacation, a self-administrated questionnaire consisting of three sections was distributed to tourists at the departure hall of Jakarta International Airport (Soekarno-Hatta) and some popular tourist areas around Jakarta. The first part of the questionnaire measured the reasons of choosing Indonesia for vacation with 12 attributes using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree). The attributes in this section were borrowed from previous studies (Kim, Goh, & Yuan, 2010; Kivela & Crotts, 2009). The second section with three questions measured the overall satisfaction of tourists. This was adopted from previous studies (Yu & Goulden, 2006; Jalis et al., 2009, Sirgy et al., 2011). The last section collected socio-demographic

information of the tourists and their frequency of travel to Indonesia.

Data collection was conducted from October to December 2014. After removing incomplete responses, 343 (92.80%) valid questionnaires were used for subsequent analysis. Related analysis such as multivariate analysis (factor analysis and multiple linear regression) and descriptive analysis were used to answer the objectives of this research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 343 (92.80% response rate) responses were used in the analysis. Table 1 depicts the profile of respondents. The number of backpackers (n=254) was higher than mass tourists (n=89). The majority of respondents (61.8%) were first-time visitors to Indonesia. The results of marital status stated the number of single travelers was higher (64.1%) than married.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 13 motivation attributes to determine the underlying factors. The findings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Communality, factor loading and reliability of motivation items

Item	Communality	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Increase knowledge	.773	.872		
Novel experience	.750	.832		
Local culture	.621	.705		
Similar interest	.679	.654		
Different people	.597	.652		
Adventurous	.647	.631		
Getaway	.741		.852	
Fun	.702		.810	
Nature	.607		.688	
Rest/relax	.689		.683	
Family	.646			.790
Try local foods	.607			.674
Reliability		.863	.808	.463

The result of Bartlett's test of sphericity was 1902.154 ($p=.000$), suggesting that it is appropriate to conduct factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .830, which indicates the factor model is acceptable. Kaiser's varimax rotation revealed three factors (variance explained=67%) were extracted from the 12 items. The first factor was named as 'new experience' and with six items demonstrated the most variance (41.58%) and had a coefficient reliability of .863. Tourists stated that having new experiences motivated them to choose Indonesia for their vacation. This finding is supported by previous studies (Jalis et al., 2009; Kivela & Crotts, 2009; Babolian Hendijani et al., 2013). The second factor was 'to get away from routine'. This factor accounted for 14.82% of the variance in the data. With a reliability of .808, this factor had four items. Escaping a regular routine to rest and relax in a new environment was proven in previous research (Cusak, 2000; Ryu & Han, 2010). Factor 3 with two items was named 'family gathering' which explained 10.75% of the total variance with a reliability level of .463. Since the reliability of this factor was low, the items of this factor were calculated separately in the consequent analysis.

The Effect of Motivation on Satisfaction of Backpackers and Mass Tourists

Findings shows there is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between overall satisfaction between backpackers and mass tourists. Results identified that these two groups of tourists were highly satisfied with their trip to Indonesia. The level of satisfaction among backpackers was slightly higher (mean=5.78) compared with their counterparts (mean=5.75). The results reveal that there are differences of motivation to choose Indonesia among travellers who came with different mode of travelling. This could help marketers and stakeholders by providing the basis for developing ideas for advertising strategies for these two types of travelers.

Multiple linear regressions were performed to estimate the coefficients of the linear equation involving the four motivation items that best predict the satisfaction of tourists. The regression model of backpackers (Table 2) was significant ($F=22.668$, $p=.000$). For backpackers 'new experience' ($\beta=.410$, $p=.000$) and 'getaway from routine' ($\beta=.154$, $p=.016$)

were significant factors which affected the satisfaction of tourists. Motivation factors among back packers explained 26.8% ($R^2=.268$) of total variance in the tourists' satisfaction. This is in contrast with findings from previous studies by Larsen, Ogaard and Brun (2011). This study proves that to have a rest and relax can be an important factor for backpackers to choose a destination.

Table 2: Regression model of motivation on satisfaction among backpackers and mass tourists

Motivation items		Backpackers			
Mass tourists					
		β	ρ	β	ρ
β	ρ				
New experience		.410	.000	.379	.012
Getaway from routine		.154	.016	.045	.718
Family/friends		-.049	.387	-.029	.806
Try local foods		.054	.391	.061	.670

The regression analysis also showed that 'new experience' was the only significant aspect positively contributing to the satisfaction of mass tourists ($\beta=.379$, $p=.12$). Motivation factors explained approximately 19.2% ($R^2=.192$) of total variance in tourists' satisfaction. Findings of this study also proved that looking for a new experience is one of the important motivation factors for tourists with different mode of travelling to choose a destination (Lee & Crompton, 1992).

This study has made different contributions to the current knowledge on this topic. First, it shows different motivation factors which affect the satisfaction of tourists with different modes of travelling. A previous study also revealed that the satisfaction of tourists is an important factor for the success of a destination (Jang & Matilla, 2005). Thus, it is important to know which motivation attributes drive tourists to choose Indonesia and make their trip more memorable and satisfying. Research has also found that tourist satisfaction should be a basic parameter to use to evaluate the performance of a tourism destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). If tourism marketers are able to know which components of a product or service can affect the satisfaction of tourists, they may be able to change the tourist experience by developing appropriate marketing strategies to maximize their satisfaction level.

Therefore, marketers should be more innovative when they want to promote this destination and highlight unique experiences provided by Indonesia. Thus, tourism marketers should use their knowledge of determinants that affect outcome variables to develop products and services which will satisfy tourists' desires.

CONCLUSION

The main aim of this research was to identify the reason behind choosing Indonesia as a vacation destination. Findings from this research provide support for the existing social definition of different reasons to choose a destination among tourists based on their mode of travelling. Previous studies also revealed that backpackers and mass tourists have some similar and dissimilar behavior in choosing destinations. Each of these two segments of travellers contains a significant share of the vacation market. Moreover, significant differences happened among some of the measured variables in terms of motivation to choose a destination. Findings of this research will help the Ministry of Tourism of Indonesia, tourism organizers, stakeholders, and NGOs to have a better understanding about different tourists markets and conduct effective marketing strategies and advertising for these two sectors of the target market.

The current study is not without limitations. First, tourists were surveyed in Jakarta International Airport. It will be more comprehensive if researchers can collect data from other areas of country which will attract more international tourists such as Bali island. This study only focused on the motivation factors of tourists to choose Indonesia. Therefore, future studies should examine the activities participated by tourists during their stay in Indonesia to have a better understanding of tourists' behavior. It is suggested future studies examine the cultural background of tourists, as this information will prove useful determining whether there are linkages between cultural background of tourists and their motivation to choose a specific destination.

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THE STUDY OF FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING PROVIDED TO EXECUTIVES IN SRI LANKAN CEMENT INDUSTRY

Herat, U.L

Wayamba University of Sri Lanka

Abstract

Organization needs to identify the effectiveness of the trainings provided to their employees as it is an essential element to increase efficiency of job performance and keep business running, as competition is getting more intense. Sri Lankan Cement industry is a highly competitive industry in such an industry the training provided to the executives is highly essential as executives play a major role with the new challenges facing the industry. To measure the effectiveness of training provided to executives, it is important to know the factors influencing on it, which will be also useful in designing future training programs. HR managers in the industry are quite comfortable with the evaluation mechanism they have with regard to training provided to blue collar workers, but they were unaware of the factors that influence training effectiveness of executives, this study is expected to provide some insights in that area and fill an important knowledge gap. Research was conducted through a field survey by a structured questionnaire rising demographics, three facts such as Type of Training, Training Environment and Work Environment to measure Training Effectiveness of executives in Sri Lankan cement industry. A survey was carried out covering a sample of 105 executives of Cement industry in Sri Lanka. The study generated a 99% percent response rate. The study revealed that there is a significant correlation between Training Effectiveness of executives and selected variables. Recommendations have been made to enhance the effectiveness of training provided to executives as well as for future directions on this scope.

Keywords: Training effectiveness, types of training, training environment, work environment.

INTRODUCTION

The success of any organization mainly depends on the contribution each employee makes towards organizational processes. Thus an organization has the greatest chance of being successful when its employees are properly directed towards achieving corporate goals and they themselves motivate to perform the duties which are assigned to them.

The executives play a major role in overall management and leadership style in an organization. Therefore, it is imperative that executive level staff to be equipped with strong knowledge and skills in a wide variety of areas. However, to utilize their optimum competencies for the betterment of

organization its climate has to provide an effective training to perform their jobs in an efficient and effective manner.

For an organization to become successful they need to have a competitive advantage. That competitive advantage can be achieved only through the people. Human resources are the most valuable assets, which any organization possesses. The effective management and development of these resources is the key to gaining competitive advantage. Therefore organizations need to have a competent workforce in order to achieve its success. To continually have a competent work force in the organization; employees must be given systematic trainings to improve their competencies and performance.

Corresponding Author Email: ulherat@yahoo.com

Training is required at any stage of human life. It starts since childhood. Similarly, training programs

are necessary in any organization for improving the quality of work of the employees at all levels, particularly in world of fast changing technology, changing values and environment.

The industry that the researcher undertakes to study a problem which has already become an essential commodity which contributes for global development

Sri Lankan Cement industry consisted with 5 main companies. To retain and to increase company's market share the companies need to provide the quality product and services to their customers. Hence their human resource plays a major role in company activities.

Among them the executive level staff members are the decision makers and all corporate goals and objectives are implemented under their direct supervision. Thus, their values, behaviours and attitudes towards the organizational goals and objectives are more crucial to maintain a high productive environment in the organization. Their skills on their jobs have a direct impact on their output which is the service, they provide to local and foreign customers.

The companies are always looking to get maximum out of these human resources therefore to do that they need well skilled and talented executive staff. In order to achieve this company should give proper training to their employees.

Therefore trainings provided to employees are very important in any organization, the organizations need to be ensured that the training provided to employees must be effective. Effectiveness is measured by how many training participants successfully apply their learning on the job (penetration); how long training participants continue to apply the learning on the job (sustainability); and how quickly the organization will realize the benefits for the entire target audience (speed).

Larson (1997) believes that measuring and ensuring the effectiveness of training is one of the most difficult HRM issues. He argues that effective training is usually believed to require a thorough analysis of training needs. He goes on to argue that in any organization there are a number of factors which

make such an analysis difficult. In addition to pragmatic barriers like lack of time, resources and commitment "needs diagnosis" suffers from the sheer complexity of the operation.

Training effectiveness literature describes many factors that influence the effectiveness of training provided to employees. This research has been carried out as a framework to study how particular factors influence the effectiveness of training programs provided to executives in cement industry in Sri Lanka.

Overall Cement Industry

Cement is an essential ingredient to the construction industry which is growing at a phenomenal pace due to the post-conflict growth of the economy. The demand for a cement has been increasing at a high rate recently due to new infrastructure projects initiated by the government and private sector, reconstruction and rehabilitation projects launched in the conflict-affected areas in the northern and eastern provinces,

The cement industry and trade estimate the cement market amounts to 4.2 million MT per annum. It is also estimated that the market is growing at the rate of 10% per annum.

Key Players

According to the trade sources, the five largest bulk cement/clinker importers (Holcim, Tokyo-Cement, Ultra-Tech, Lafarge and Singha) which process cement bag packing operations and distribution network in the country represent more than 90% of the market. The rest of the market requirements are being met by the importers of cement bags.

All the five big players in the market have their own bulk cement terminals either at Colombo port, Galle port or Trincomale port. One manufacturer has an integrated cement manufacturing unit in Sri Lanka. The factory operated by the Ceylon cement Corporation in Kankasanthurai which was closed due to the armed conflict is yet to be reopened.

Sri Lanka imports its cement requirement both in bulk and bag forms mainly from Pakistan and India. Sri Lanka also imports cement from Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand. Under the Indi Sri Lanka

Free Trade Agreement (ISFTA) and Parkistan-Sri Lanka Free Trade Agreement (PSFTA) Sri Lanka offers Zero Duty Tariff Concession for import.

Due to the time constrain the researcher selected three cement companies from the industry which are Holcim(Lanka) Ltd, Lafarge and Ultra Tech, and following include a brief introduction about those companies

Problem Statement

Human resources managers in the cement industry in Sri-Lanka are quite comfortable with the evaluation mechanism they have with regard to training of low level employees and other blue collar workers where the results can be measured in terms of efficiency, productivity. However, they are not quite sure whether the money they spend on training of non-directors, that is, executives and managers are paying off or not. This area has always been a grey area for HR and training managers in the industry as the results are not tangible, and training systems are not sophisticated enough to measure the effectiveness of training provided to managerial employees in terms of their behavioural changes and organizational outcomes.

It is evident through the interviews with Managers and HR managers followed by with a pilot study done with three cement manufacturing organizations, the training provided to executives has not been effective in terms of improving their performance. It was observed that HR managers were unaware whether the training provided to executives is effective in terms of improving their job performance or not. None of the companies participating in the pilot study had either a formal mechanism or measures of assessing effectiveness of the training that they are providing to their executive staff. Mangers are not satisfied with the job performance of their executives and they admitted that they are spending a considerable amount of money and time on training in order to improve the competencies of their executive staff. Therefore, the researcher was very much keen in study the factors which are influencing the Training Effectiveness of executives in Sri Lankan cement industry

Hence, the problem statement of this research study is;

What are the factors that influence the effectiveness of training provided to executive level employees of cement industry in Sri Lanka?

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the researcher in this study is to assess the factors influencing the effectiveness of training provided to executive level staff of the cement industry in Sri Lanka.

The other specific objectives of this research study are;

1. To establish the direction of the relationship of those identified factors with training effectiveness.
2. To determine the areas that can be improve to increase the effectiveness of training provided to executives.
3. To give suggestions to improve to increase the effectiveness of training provided to executives.

Significance of the Study

Any organization needs to identify the effectiveness of the trainings given. They provide trainings to their employees to improve their performance in order to gain a competitive workforce. After a certain period of time, they must find out whether the trainings were effective or not. That's would be a greater support to management and development of the training and development function of the organization.

No doubt higher the effectiveness of training programs will lead to organizational success and from the employees' point of view their career advancement in this competitive industry.

HR managers today are pressurized from all directions to achieve measurable results. They should be able to account for every cent they spend, be it on training and development or HR administration. HR managers have not been able to measure the effectiveness of training provided to executive and managerial employees.

And the role and responsibilities of executives have increased with the new challenges facing the industry. In this context, HR managers have to facilitate the development of these front-end employees, and measure the effectiveness of such development

efforts. Hence, it is important for the cement industry to know the factors influencing effectiveness of training provided to front-end employees, and it will also be an important input in designing future training programs to suit the new challenges facing the industry. As managers of the industry are unaware of the factors that influence training effectiveness, this study is expected to provide some insights in that area, and fill an important knowledge gap.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition of Training and development

Training is the systematic development of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job. (Michael Armstrong, 1992)

Factors influencing the Training Effectiveness

It is now important to understand what has led the employee to feel satisfied or dissatisfied in their training program offered by their companies, therefore the causes or sources of training resources will be discussed by each term towards training effectiveness.

Types of Training

The type of employee training which is best suited to a particular organisation depends on a number of factors. Some of these factors are the skills that are called for in the job that have been filled, the qualification of the employees and the types of problems faced by the organisation. According to Kempton, the approaches that can be used in implementing training fall broadly into; on- the job and off-the job techniques, notwithstanding that some of the training techniques cut across (Kempton 1995).

On-the job training techniques

On- the job training is one of the approaches to training. It has been defined as,

‘training that is planned and structured that takes place mainly at the normal work station of the trainee-although some instruction may be provided in a special training area on site-and where a manager, supervisor, trainer or peer colleague spends significant time with the trainee to teach a set of skills that have been specified in advance. It also includes a

period of instruction where there may be little or no useful output in terms of productivity’ (Holden 2001:332).

Some of the on-the job training techniques include job enrichment, job rotation, special project, secondment, coaching, mentoring and planned experience. The effectiveness of the on- the job training depends mainly upon immediate supervisors and qualified trainers.

On- the job training has also been argued to be the most useful but equally the most abused and most unsuccessful method of training (Kenny and Reid 1986). In this study, I have used on-the job training as a proxy for more specific training. While people do learn best by doing, that doing needs careful planning and control in order to get full learning value out of it.

Off-the job training

Off-the job training includes group discussion, individual tutorials, lectures, reading, training courses and workshops (Kempton 1995).

According to Kempton (1995), this kind of training offers an opportunity to impart knowledge and skills that can be learnt or practiced in a safe environment.

He further states that if training is conducted in an organised and systematic way it should be able to develop new attitudes and experiences that contribute to the success of the organisation, improve employee morale which would lead to better performance and greater productivity and create a psychological climate which orients the activities of each employee towards achieving the goals of the organisation.

Training Environment

Training environment that includes: training facilities, site layout, sound lighting, hardware environment, classroom climate, student involvement of the soft environment. Therefore only the training of managers and trainers work together to create a better learning atmosphere and environment. According to (Martin, 2010; Ford, and Weissvein, 1997), Training environment have an effect on training effectiveness on human resource practices among employees.

Work Environment

Work environment includes such factors as managerial support, peer encouragement, adequate resources and opportunities to apply learned skills, technical support, and consequences for using training on-the-job. Research has shown that removing barriers to application in the work environment is so important that training opportunities should be turned down by employees if proper follow-up support is not available. Employees have been trained after training program, they should relate to their current job performance and also the behavior of the job. Managers can show support for training in a variety of ways ranging from simply allowing employees to attend the training to participating in the training itself as an instructor. Supervisors signal whether the training is to be used and how quickly changes are expected. A supervisor who does not view the training as useful or relevant can easily undermine application in a variety of direct and covert ways. A supportive organizational climate is also communicated by how the work is designed and skill application rewarded. The most important variable for the purpose of this study is "Training effectiveness" which have an effect on both of organizational needs and individual needs in the company.

Trainee's Personal Characteristics

A variety of trainees' personal characteristics have been studied in relation to transfer of learning during the training program. The related personal characteristics that figure out with the age, gender, marital status, and etc.

In the study, these variables as control variables to be more, rather than the independent variables to be studied. The results of these studies is that for the training guide, training, which should be fully taken into account the individual's personality characteristics and psychological interaction between the demographic variables of the training process. This interaction makes the training process more complex. Elizabeth (2002) in the study found, young, highly educated women are more vulnerable than other women training means training to produce a virtuous cycle of career development effect. Trained adult women tend to retire later, suggesting that a more knowledgeable and more wealth to more career

women in skills, the ability to stay longer in the professional community. Gender and learning style and cognitive style will interact and affect the training methods on the role of training effectiveness. Study also found that gender training methods may also directly regulate the relationship between performance and training.

METHODOLOGY

Sampling Method

Researcher used stratified random sampling and systematic sampling as a combination of sampling technique to select the sample.

Population

The Population identified by the researcher consists of executives level employees in cement industry in Sri Lanka.

However due to the population size and time constrain three major cement companies in Sri Lanka was selected as a sample.

- Holcim(Lanka) Ltd
- Lafarge
- Ultratech Cement

Sample

Concerning the sample selection process, sample is consisted with the executive level employees in Sri Lankan cement industry.

In order to select sample, out of cement companies in Sri Lankan cement industry three were selected to represent the cement industry. Researcher used simple random sampling and systematic sampling as a combination of sampling technique to select the sample.

The sample unit of this research would be executive level employees who are currently working. 105 executive level employees were selected 35 from each company by using simple random sampling method. The sample was taken as representative of entire population.

Data collection

As far as method of data collection concerns, primary data are collected through simple structured questionnaire (Appendix 2). In case of designing questionnaire, to collect respondent of executives to measure Training effectiveness, SERVQUAL type questionnaire relevant to the cement industry was used. At the same time, self-administered questions were used to identify the respondents' personal information.

Data Analysis

To summarize and analysis of primary data researcher used MS Excel and composite score for each variable by each respondent was transferred to

the SPSS (Statistical Product & Service Solution) statistical analysis software (version 20.0) and MINITAB to get the Descriptive statistics and analysis of Regression and Correlation between the independent variables and dependent variable.

Survey Design

The study was done on field survey method by using a structured questionnaire to collect the primary data on effectiveness of training programs.

The Questionnaire utilizes a Likert-type scale with five response alternatives ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (weighted 1) to “Strongly Agree” (weighted 5) for each of the statements.

Conceptual Model of the Study

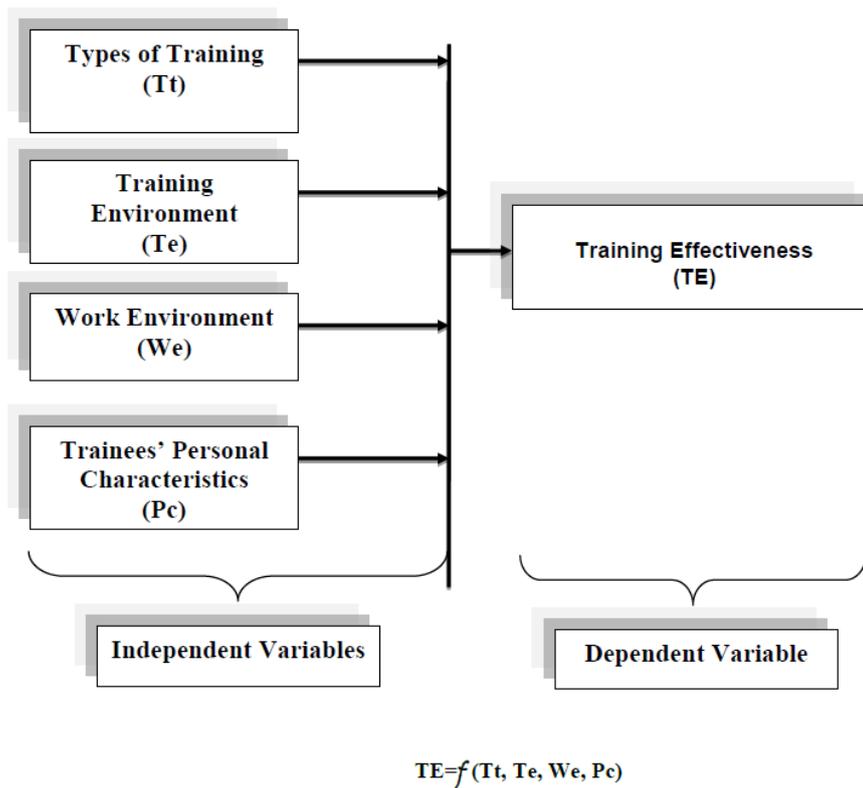


Figure 1 Conceptual Model

Hypothesis Formulation

Following are the statements of hypotheses the researcher wants to test with the help of empirical findings.

Alternative / relevant Hypothesis (H1)

- Types of training will affect training effectiveness.

- Training environment will affect training effectiveness.
- Work environment will affect training effectiveness.
- Trainees’ personal characteristics (age, gender, marital status, education level and length of working in current job) will affect training effectiveness.
- There is no influence on training effectiveness by Training environment
- There is no influence on training effectiveness by Work environment
- There is no influence on training effectiveness by Trainees’ personal characteristics.

Operationalization of Variables

A Null Hypothesis is developed to ascertain the validity of the research study on Factors influencing the effectiveness of training provided to executives.

The variables, indicators and measures relevant to Training effectiveness of executive level employees are operationalized for the purpose of the study as given in the Table below.

Null Hypothesis (H0)

- There is no influence on training effectiveness by Types of training

Table 1: Operationalization of Variables

Concept	Variables	Indicators	Measure
Training Effectiveness	(1) Types of Training	On the job training	* 5 point Likert Scale
		Off the job Training	* Importance Rating Scale
		Mentoring and Coaching	
		Role-playing	
		Job rotation	
	(2) Training Environment	Training facilities	* 5 point Likert Scale
		Site layout	* Importance Rating Scale
		Sound lighting,	
		Hardware environment	
		Classroom climate	
		Executive’s involvement of the soft environment.	
	(3) Work Environment	Managerial Support	* 5 point Likert Scale
		Peer Encouragement	* Importance Rating Scale
		Adequate Resources	
		Opportunities to Apply Learned Skills	
		Technical Support	
		Consequences For Using Training On-The-Job	
	(4) Trainees Personal Characteristics	Age	* Importance Rating Scale
		Gender	
		Marital Status	
		Work Experience	

DATA ANALYSIS

Finding 1- Analysis of demographic characteristics with Training Effectiveness predicted that;

The gender disparity is not revealed as the major variance of the effectiveness of training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry being a male or a female employee. The study of surveying data revealed that 69 (69%) percent are male executives whilst 31 (31%) percent are female executives.

14 Executives are in the age group of under 30 years which is 13 percent (13%). 25 executives are in the age group of 31-35 years. It represents 24 percent (24%) in the whole sample. 38 executives are in the age group of 36 to 40 years which represent 36 percent (36%). Under the Age group of 41 to 45 years include 19 executives as 18 percent (18%). Last age group is age 46 above which include 09 executives as 9 percent (9%). This reflect that more executives are in age categories of 36 to 40 and 31 to 35 which indicate there are more young executives where they are motivated to attend to those training programmes rather than the executives in the age group of 46 above .

The marital status of the executives do not have significant effect on Training Effectiveness and, study revealed that 58 percent executives are married and whilst 42 percent are singles.

In order to find the differences between respondents based on their length of work experience and training impact, it is observed that there are a significant differences among the respondents' regarding the training effectiveness levels based on their work experience. According to my data collection 46 percent (46%) have 05-09 year experience in the organization which include 48 executives. Which indicates that most of the executives in the industry have more experience in company but Results showed the less experienced participants have higher training effectiveness because they believe that they need to gain knowledge from these training programmes but the executives who are having 15-20 years' experience believed that they know everything and it is not necessary for them to participate those training programmes.

Next demographic character is Educational level of executives. 38 executives in the sample are having a basic degree. It represents 36 percent (36%). 21 Executives represent Diploma/Certificate course education level as percentage its 20 (20%). While 24 executives have Advanced level educational qualification and it represent as a 23 percent (23%). 12 percent (12%) of executive have Professional Qualification. It represents 13 executive level employees. Last Educational Level is post graduate diploma. It includes 10 Executives and its 9 present (9%) as a percentage. Therefore it is observed that there are no differences among the respondents' educational level regarding the training effectiveness levels

The following table shows the results of descriptive analysis.

Table 2: results of descriptive analysis

Variable	Mean	ST.Deaviation
Methods Of Training	4.0196	0.6161
Training Environment	4.6078	0.4931
Work Environment	4.0784	0.5947

When considering the Table 4.1 the researcher has identified that in a descriptive analyses mean value of Type of training provided to executives is 4.0196 and it can deviate 0.6161 from mean value. Mean value of Training Environment was 4.6078. This means value can be deviate 0.4931 from the mean value. Mean value of Work Environment was 4.0784 and it can be deviate from the mean by 0.5947.

Finding 2 -In the process of field survey, the researcher used questions (from question number 01 to 34 to measure importance level of 20 attributes which related to the effectiveness of raining provided to executives

Table 3:-Summary of Regression & Correction by order of strength

Variable	Correlation Coefficient	SE	P Value
Type of Training	0.1054	0.1354	0.014
Training Environment	0.1989	0.1626	0.021
Work environment	0.0689	0.1406	0.023

Source: Field survey

According to the above table, there are positive linear correlations between the 3 factors and Training Effectiveness. It means that when the above factors are increased then the Effectiveness of the training will be increased too. If the factors influencing Training effectiveness decreased the effectiveness of the training will be decreased.

Further, the Standard Error of the Estimate (SEE) as shown in above table also predicts the strength of the relationship. Lesser numbers of SEE have the strong relationship with dependent variable; Training Effectiveness.

Finding 3 - Hypotheses testing rejected the null hypotheses while accepting the alternative (relevant) hypotheses.

Accordingly in this industry;

Type of Training has a significant relationship on the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry.

Training Environment has a strong relationship on the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry

Work Environment has a significant relationship on the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry. This is the second highest influential factor

Trainee's Personal Characteristics has a normal relationship on the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry.

Taking into consideration the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives and the above facts as a whole, it proves the researchers objectives of conducting this study.

CONCLUSION

In the above context, the researcher has to arrive at the conclusion that the selected 04 variables of (1) Type of Training, (2) Training Environment, (3) Work Environment, and (4) Trainee's Personal characteristics, have a significant correlation of the effectiveness of training provided to the executives in Sri Lankan cement industry, and demographics exist as the foundation for general satisfaction of training provided to executives. If the executives are satisfied with the trainings which have been provided to them then training can strengthen workplace skills and lead to greater long-term job security, Training Effectiveness helps the organization in many ways, means having well-trained workers is key to maintaining competitive performance and distinguishing a company from its rivals. Thus, the management should focus on these variances and try to maintain minor variances to enable the cement company to have more effectiveness of training provided to executives.

The researcher makes some recommendations to reinforce the satisfaction level of executives in cement industry.

Recommendation 1 -

Improve working environment of the executives

As it shows in this study the working environment has a significant influence on the effectiveness of training provided to executives. The executives who are having a better working environment are fully satisfied with their jobs so they are always trying to perform their jobs successfully, where the training effectiveness of those executives are at higher level rather than the executives who are having poor working environment.

This study suggests that a learning culture and supervisor support available in the organization, and self-efficacy of employees are significant factors that determine the effectiveness of the training provided to employees.

Recommendation 2 -

Training Method Approach

All methods of training should satisfy the following criteria

They should provide for active participation by participants. Lack of participation by trainees may limit learning to only listening the trainer and not getting the benefit of sharing experience.

The training method should also provide participant constant feedback on their performance.

The method should be able to facilitate transfer of training content to real life situations. The methodology should be such as to provide employees linkages between what is done in training session out what its relevance to actual on the job behaviours. This is an important consideration without which learning would remain theoretical

Recommendation 3 -

Training should be targeted to less experienced young executives

As the surveyed data shows the most of the executives comes under the age category of 36 to 40 and 31 to 35 years and when consider about the work experience there are 46% of executives who are having 05-09 year experience. Therefore to increase the effectiveness of training provided to executives the companies should consider more about the less experienced executives who are coming under these age groups, because the executives who are having less experience about the company are more motivated towards the training programs offered by the company than a person who have more experience. They always try to gained more knowledge since they are less experienced therefore training provided to those type of executives are more effective than the others

Recommendation 4 -

Application of Modern and sustainable training resources

One major reason for less Training Effectiveness of executives is that the use of traditional methodologies in providing training, So to avoid this gap the

companies can apply modern and sustainable training resources and effective instructional materials for the executives training delivery is recommended and outdated methodologies to be avoided. So by using attractive and practical learning situations the effectiveness of training provided to executives can be increased.

Recommendation 5 -

Resource personnel and training delivery

Make sure the trainers hired are professional educators and personnel who are having good knowledge about the industry are invited to conduct the training programmes for the executives in cement industry. Generally speaking managers or functional specialists are preferred trainers because they are the people with specialist job knowledge not the training staff. Therefore if the companies industry used the well skilled trainers then it will lead to increase the effectiveness of training provided to executives.

Recommendation 6-

Develop rewards and recognition system

Introducing a reward and a recognition system that reward the initiatives led by employee. A reward and recognition system is essential to motivate the employees and retain them in the training activities. The rewards and recognition systems may include considering initiatives as criteria for promotion, reward involvement in the period of training programmes with duty leave, offer financial rewards for development of quality learning resources. This would help to encourage the executives for accepting additional workload entrusted to them by learning activities.

RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In this study, the researcher arriving at a conclusion developed a conceptual model that these factors have great influence on the Effectiveness of training provided to executives. If the companies can improve these factors they can increase their Training effectiveness.

Through the entire process of the study, it was also identified that there are several variables that could be influenced to Training effectiveness of executives and

even to the demographic characteristics. Due to the limited sample size (i.e. sample was taken only from three cement companies) and limited variables which were taken to study, covering of every possibility and perspectives Training effectiveness level was a mere imagination. Therefore, there can be some significant factors which would be covered under this research.

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Questionnaire on The study of Factors influencing the Effectiveness of Training provided to executives in Sri Lankan cement industry.

I am U.L.Herat an undergraduate in the final year of the B.Sc. (Special) Degree programme of the Department of Business Management of the Wayamba University of Sri Lanka. It would be much appreciated if you could extend your kind co-operation to respond to this questionnaire as; it is a partial requirement for me to conduct a research study for my degree program.

I hereby declare that the confidentiality of the information provided by you will be firmly protected and I promise that information will be used only for the purpose of studies and research.

Please tick (✓) in the relevant cage

Personal information

Gender : Male Female
Marital status : Single Married

Your Designation :

Age group

- | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|
| 1) Under 30 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2) 31-35 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3) 36 to 40 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4) 41 to 45 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5) 46 above | <input type="checkbox"/> |

How many years do you have work experience with the company?

Less than 4 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
05-09 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10-14 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
15-19 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
20 years above	<input type="checkbox"/>

Educational Qualifications

Up to Advanced Level	
Diploma/Certificate Level	
Basic Degree	
Post Graduate Degree/Diploma	
Professional Membership	

Are you actively involved in learning during training process?

Yes No

Please tick (√) the relevant cage under each number which gives the following meanings.

1 = Strongly Disagree
4=Agree

2 = Disagree
5= Strongly Agree

3=Moderate

About my training programmes, this is how I feel about

Overall

- I am satisfied with the training program which provided by my company

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Type of Training

- Most of the trainings related to my job profile are conducted as on the job training.

<input type="checkbox"/>				
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There is a job rotation programme to give us diverse job assignments during

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

the first years of employment

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

I like the Training methods provided by the organization to train the executives

There is a performance appraisal system that ties financial rewards to technical competence

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Management use new technology for training the employees

<input type="checkbox"/>				
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Training environment

Training staff provide sound and clear Training based on each Executive

--	--	--	--	--

All the relevant physical equipments are provided when I'm trained

--	--	--	--	--

(Pen, Papers, computers and etc)

The workplace of the training is physically well organized

--	--	--	--	--

I can understand the facts delivered by the trainer

--	--	--	--	--

Trainer quickly understand the level of audience

--	--	--	--	--

I am actively involved in learning during training process

--	--	--	--	--

Modern instructional resources and multimedia help to

--	--	--	--	--

get the training effectively and efficiently

--	--	--	--	--

All related areas are covering through the training

Work Environment

My manager shows me how to improve my performance

--	--	--	--	--

My manager lets me know how well I am performing

--	--	--	--	--

My manager utilizes a variety of methods to assist me with my Development

--	--	--	--	--

My manager has the skills to coach me effectively in my development

--	--	--	--	--

My manager views developing staff as an important aspect of his/her job

--	--	--	--	--

Increasing my skills through training at my organization has helped me to

--	--	--	--	--

perform my job better

I can get a good support from my colleagues to implement what I have newly

--	--	--	--	--

gained from the training

The training course help me to work independently and produce results

--	--	--	--	--

Employee promotion policy is handled fairly in my organization

--	--	--	--	--

Training Provide confidence to meet the challenge

Any further comments/suggestions regarding the effectiveness of the training

--	--	--	--	--

provided to you.

.....
.....

.....
Date

.....
Signature

Cement Distributing Companies in Sri Lanka

- Ultratech Cement Lanka
- Tokyo Cement (Lanka) PLC
- Holcim Lanka Ltd
- Singha Cement Pvt Ltd
- Lanka Cement Plc
- Lafarge Mahaweli Cement (Pvt.) Ltd

EXECUTIVE – LEGISLATIVE RELATIONS AND GOOD GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA: HISTORICAL AND CURRENT REFLECTIONS

Odumu, A.S

Liberal Studies Department, Federal Polytechnic, Kaura Namoda, Zamfara State, Nigeria

Abstract

The provision of good governance has today become a major index of measuring the success or otherwise of governments globally. This is particularly true of Africa and other developing countries experiencing myriads of challenges that tend to make the provision of good governance a mirage. This paper, using the theory of separation of power focuses on examining the relationship between the executive and legislature and the extent to which this relationship has promoted or hampered the provision of good governance in Nigeria. The paper relied on the use of secondary data in its attempt to look at historical and current realities. The paper identified the struggle for supremacy, long history of military rule, selfish tendencies as some of the factors that pre – occupied both arms thereby making them unable to effectively deliver in the area of provision of good governance. The paper recommends among others the strengthening of the justice system, building of national rather than parochial interests in elected official to mention a few as measures that will ensure that all actors in the governance process act responsibly.

Keywords: Good governance, legislature, executive, executive – legislature relations, separation of powers, fourth republic.

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary governments, especially those formed on democratic principles, power belongs to the people who in turn elect those who are to make laws on their behalf since no society can have peace and order without some form of laws to guide their affairs. The laws so made are in turn implemented by the authorized group or groups for the good governance of the society (Appadorai, 2004).

The importance of the arms of government charged with the responsibilities stated above, that is the legislature and executive cannot be over – emphasized as the activities of these two organs go a long way in affecting the lives of the people on a continuous basis. The nature of relations existing between these two organs in any polity is crucial to the provision of good governance.

In Nigeria, right from the pre – independence era, the legislature and executive arms of government have

existed in one form or the other and the relationship between both arms have been determined by the prevalent system or form of government and depending on the era being studied. More currently, Nigeria adopted the presidential system of government with separations of powers between both organs and within this separation, each arm is to relate with the other according to constitutional provisions in order for the citizens to enjoy the fruits of good governance (FGN, 1999).

Against this backdrop, this paper seeks to examine the relationship between the executive and legislature in Nigeria historically and currently with a view to determining whether the dividend of this relationship has promoted or hampered good governance.

Understanding the Concepts

The paper provides conceptual clarifications for the following major concepts: Legislature, Executive and Good governance.

Corresponding author email: tellabraham@yahoo.com

The Legislature

Legislatures are usually elected bodies which have the major responsibility of making laws for the whole country. Although, practically everywhere, the universal duty of the legislature is law making, yet they do more than write rules (Anifowose, 1999). In addition to law making, (Anifowose, 1999) adds that the constitution allows the legislature the power of control over public funds, power to approve or withhold approval for the expenditure of such funds, power of investigation, power of scrutinizing and confirming major appointments of the executive, power to approve treaties and pacts made with foreign countries, power to prepare its own budget, recruit its own staff and discipline them and also power of impeachment.

In the same vein, while Wheare (1963) explains that parliaments, Congresses and other similar assemblies are commonly called 'Legislatures' to justify their law making role, he equally pointed out that that could mislead as a large part of the time of these bodies is not devoted to law making. He further pointed out that one of their most important functions is to criticize the executive and that in some countries, they make or unmake governments. In terms of institutional framework, a legislature creates a complex interaction between individual members, political parties, committees, rules of legislative procedure and informal norms.

In Nigeria, the legislature is officially known as the National Assembly and it is bi – cameral, made up of the House of Senate being the Upper House and House of Representatives being the Lower House. The Senate is made up of 109 members while the House of Representatives is made up of 360 members. The members of Senate are elected on the basis of equality of states while the members of the House of Representatives are elected on the basis of population all for a four – year term (FGN, 1999).

The Executive

The Executive is that part of the government that has its authority for the daily administration of the state (Wikipedia, 2015). Also, Ojiako (1981) adds that the executive (especially in the presidential system) consists of the executive president as chief executive directly elected by the entire country constituting a

single constituency and his ministers who are charged with the duty of formulation and implementation of policies.

In other words, the president, like the legislature derives his powers from the people. He is not only the Head of State and government but also the Commander – in – Chief of the Armed Forces. The executive from the foregoing is constitutionally charged with the task of general administration which includes the appointment of Ministers, appointment of foreign envoys, administration of budget, and declaration of war all subject to the approval of the legislature. These are in addition to the provision of good governance, one that will positively touch and improve every aspect of life of the people.

Executive – Legislature Relations

Executive – Legislative Relations connotes the nature of relationship that is supposed to constitutionally exist between the two arms or that exists in practice between both arms. This nature of relationship or interaction vary from country to country yet a pattern of interaction can be isolated and examined from one era to another depending on which country is being examined (King, 1976).

This relationship according to Lijphart (1999) is inherently a power relationship and more correctly put, a power struggle. Pennings (1999) identified three modes of relationship between the Executive and Legislature and these are: The Executive dominates the Legislature, the Legislature dominates the Executive and the Executive and Legislature are balanced. Oyediran (1980) also identifies three types or Executive – Legislature Relations as: where the Legislature is a rubber – stamp assembly, where there is hostile relationship between both arms and where there is cooperative relationship. In summation, therefore, the relationship between both organs could be conflictual, harmonious or domineering in favour of one organ depending on the circumstances.

Good Governance

To have a firm grasp of good governance, it is pertinent to first understand what governance means. Conceptually, governance can be seen as the process by which authority is conferred on rulers, by which they make rules and by which those rules are enforced and modified (World Bank, 2014). To this

extent, therefore, the term 'governance' can be used in several contexts as in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance. Viewed from another angle, Kokiri (2010) views governance in its widest sense as how any organization including a nation is run and this, he adds includes all the processes, systems and controls that are used to safeguard and grow assets.

With the above background of governance, the World Bank views good governance as entailing sound public sector management, accountability (holding public officers responsible for their actions), transparency and prevention of corruption and a legal framework for development where justice, respect for human rights and liberties are given a pride of place (Renukumar, 2010). In another rein, the United Kingdom's Department for International Development's (DFID) conceptualization of good governance focuses on legitimacy, accountability, effective policy making, implementation, service delivery and respect for law and human rights (Renukumar, 2010).

Furthermore, a number of multi-lateral organizations such as the United Nation's Development Programme (UNDP) have generally identified eight (8) major components of good governance which include:

1. Accountability

This entails answerability, sanction, redress and system improvement.

2. Transparency

This entails free flow of information as well as accessibility of information to those affected by decisions taken in the governance process. It also entails prevention of corruption.

3. Responsiveness

This cover citizens orientation, citizen friendliness, timely delivery of service and redress of citizens grievances.

4. Effectiveness and efficiency

This has to do with optimum use of resources, competency and performance of civil servants and result orientation.

5. Rule of law

This encapsulates fair legal framework, impartial enforcement machinery and independent judiciary.

6. Participation

This deals with opportunity for citizens to participate in decision making, implementation and monitoring of government activities and freedom of expression and association as well as organized civil society.

7. Equity and inclusiveness

The central idea here is that all groups particularly the most vulnerable, have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing.

8. Consensus orientation

This covers mediation of different interests in society to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the whole community and how this can be achieved (Renukumar, 2014).

From the discuss so far, we can safely posit that these components, characteristics or elements of good governance could serve as reliable yardsticks for measuring the extent to which we can say there is good governance or the lack of it in a particular polity and also the absence of these elements can be termed as bad governance or mis-governance (Simonis, 2004).

It is important therefore, to say from the above that good governance is associated with efficient administration in a democratic framework and also equivalent purposive and development oriented administration which is committed to improvement in quality of life of the people. In addition, it implies high level of organizational effectiveness, capacity of the centre of power of political administrative system to cope with the emerging challenges of the society as well as the adoption of new rules of governance to establish greater efficiency, legitimacy and credibility of the system. Good governance is therefore, by and large a function of installation of positive virtues of administration and elimination of vices of disfunctionalities (Srivastava, 2009).

Theoretical Framework

The ideas of the founding fathers of the constitution of the United State of America have much offer in this direction. This is more so since the current constitution of Nigeria is framed after the United States – type presidential system of government. These founding fathers reasoned that the distribution of power between the Federal and State governments in their conviction prevent excessive centralization, but then, they were faced with the problem of how best to avoid autocracy within the national government itself . To this end, they turned to the principle enunciated by the French Philosopher, Baron de Montesquieu, who felt that if the three processes: Law making, Law implementation and Law adjudication were each the responsibility of separate groups of people, then a concentration of power could be avoided (Mclean and Mcmillan, 2003).

The aim of this separation of powers and the accompanying checks and balances in the arena of executive –legislative relationship is to avoid tyranny on the one hand and promote democratic governance on the other. James Madison in the Federation papers (Number 47) while writing on the doctrine of separation of power maintained that the doctrine was a formidable tool to guide the arms of government in their relations and thus make them more responsible to the people, and by implication ensure and promote good governance (Mclean and McMillan, 2003).

The principle as further high lightened by Levin and Cornwell (1968) contain four basic elements: the first element has to do with separation of branches and in sum, no person may serve in more than one of three branches at the same time. The second element is that the power, duties and responsibilities of the three branches are delineated in a written constitution. The third principle relates to partial agency or the principle of checks and balances earlier noted as being complimentary to the doctrine of separation of powers. This gives each branch enough power over the other to be able to check them when they appear to be going beyond the limits of their own jurisdiction. This is also designed to enable the three branches to protect themselves from each other's encroachment. No one branch could therefore hope to act completely independently. The fourth element is

that of Judicial review lodged in the Supreme Court. Under it, the courts not only interpret the law, but in effect, make laws through its right to review laws made by the legislature.

It is therefore, on the basis of operation of this doctrine that the Nigerian second republic constitution of 1979 was drawn as opposed to parliamentary system with fusion of powers in the First Republic. This arrangement which formed presidentialism against parliamentarianism was also adopted in the Nigerian Fourth Republic constitution of 1999. This has been upheld till date (FGN, 1999).

The Connection between Executive – Legislative Relations and Provision of Good Governance

According to Moti (2015), the ultimate aim of governments worldwide is to achieve sustainable improvement in the quality of life of its citizens and that consequent upon this, nation states, no matter their size or development status strive to achieve some level of good governance. It follows therefore that the executive and legislative arms of government and especially the manner of relationship between them go a long way to determine whether this objective of good governance will be achieved or not. This is in view of the fact that though the legislature makes the laws, but it is common to find that the legislature is not authorized to complete the process without the assent of the executive. On the other hand, though the executive is constitutionally charged with the task of general administration, but the major actions of the executive in this regard are subject to the approval of the legislature (Ojiako, 1981).

The legislature's scrutinizing and checking role necessarily implies conflict and friction between it and the executive, since every disagreement between them on policy or other executive proposals create friction. To further buttress this, Nwabueze (1985) argued that since the legislature and executive are by reason of being independent of each other's control bound to disagree from time to time, frictions from such disagreement or conflicts of opinions may degenerate into stalemates especially when one of the arms decides to become confrontational.

In summation, therefore, the tension often times experienced between the legislative and executive arms may be healthy as this prevents the

accumulation of too much power in one branch of government and checks the potential for abuse of power. However, instances where such tensions run into a stalemate could be frustrating since each side will seem more intent on making its claims, on posturing on issues, than in well articulated legislations that will engender good governance.

Executive – Legislative Relations and the Provision of Good Governance: The Nigerian Experience

Pre- Colonial and Colonial Era

Nigeria has passed through several eras from the pre – colonial era, though the colonial and post colonial era. During the pre – colonial era, the area now known as Nigeria in West Africa was made up of kingdoms, empires and chiefdoms with different types of political organizations and institutions of government, and government was organized basically at the level of tribes and ethnic groups. The elders or alternatively the chief constituted the embodiment of the collective will of the community. They were both legislators and executors, role differentiation being, by and large low. In this era, the exercise of authority in most of the communities was conceived of very much in personal terms (Dudley, 1973).

The colonial era ran formally from about 1861 – 1960 when Nigeria gained its independence from Britain. According to Dudley (1973), colonialism in the nature of its rule being authoritarian and paternalistic, concentrated the powers of the two arms of government in one hand. He added that the governor was the chief executive as well as the chief legislator. What it meant was that though there was an executive council and a legislature council which were meant to play the roles executive and legislature respectively, but the executive council was only an advisory body to the governor and it operated under a system of government that was neither representative of nor responsible to Nigerians. Equally, though there was a legislature, it had the governor as head and was faced with serious limitations which included the governor's power to initiate all legislations, his official majority and his double vote where necessary, his veto to mention a few (Tamuno, 1972).

In summing the colonial era, in theory, the existence of the executive and legislative councils limited the autocratic power of the governor, but in practice, he

maintained a firm grip on the formulation and execution of administrative policy. The ordinary people played no part in the executive council and relatively little in the legislative council. Furthermore, the exigencies of the colonial situation did not allow for any formal relations between the executive and legislative arms of government. Equally, the executive and legislative arms of government were removed from the people. The legislature which was subordinated to the executive council was apt to be a willing collaborator of the executive rather than its critic. Balewa (Nigeria's first Prime Minister) in a speech on 19th August, 1950 pointed out that under the practice of the British colonial masters, the views of the people were never sought, their welfare seldom regarded and their helplessness shockingly abused (Yahaya, 1980).

The Post-Colonial Era

In the post colonial era, the First Republic which lasted from 1960 – 1966 before it was truncated by the military was operated under a parliamentary system of government where the relationship between the executive and legislature was fused. With this fused relationship, the responsibility for ensuring that accountability does take place is constitutionally the responsibility of the legislature which represents the public. Within the period 1960 – 1966, Baker and Balogun (1975) observed that parliamentary debates and motions were ineffective in checking the executive. He explained that at independence, the successor authorities of the colonial structure, the new political class which inherited the mantle of leadership from the colonialists, could hardly regard the legislative institution any different from the way it was earlier regarded under colonial rule and so the relationship between the two arms could not translate to providing good governance for the people.

It is instructive to note that between the First and Fourth Republics, there were vast periods of military rule totaling to more than half of the years of Nigeria as an independent nation. Adamolekun (1986) while shedding light on the nature of military rule explained that legislative and executive powers were vested in the military leaders in a fused fashion and that with the fusion of the legislative and executive powers, the legislature was usually suspended. With the above therefore, the type of relationship that should normally exist between the executive and legislature

did not operate under military rule which in sum lasted for almost thirty years.

Military rule can therefore be likened with some justification to colonial rule especially in terms of its dictatorial tendencies. All military regimes in Nigeria have been historically intolerant of autonomous source of authority and hence the concentration of legislative and executive powers in virtually the same persons. What military rule offered therefore was a dislocation of the democratic process and a denial of the opportunity to learn for both arms.

In the Second and Fourth Republics (1979 – 1983 and 1999 – date respectively), Nigeria adopted the United States type presidential system of government favouring separation of powers. Regarding the Second Republic (1979 – 1983), Tijjani and Williams (1981) observed that the fact that the president's party did not have a majority in the legislature after the 1979 election was an indication of possible uneasy relations between the executive and legislature. The relationship between both arms since Nigeria opted for presidential form of government in 1979 has been characterized by acrimony, mutual suspicion and distrust, political rivalry, intimidation, unnecessary bickering, struggle for supremacy, and sometimes, blackmail (Awotokun, 1988; Ikoronye, 2005). This, according to Awotokun (1998) is however not unexpected owing to the level of competition and opposition from the two arms such that each would be anxious to guard and assert its autonomy.

During this period (1979 – 1983), the legislature though tried to exert its authority, was not independent of the executive arm (Nwabueze, 1985). This was consequent upon the dominance of the party in power, especially the President and Governors who by their position and influence, were in a position to use the power of patronage to subdue members of the legislature. This action took the form of award of contracts, appointment to Boards and direct bribing by cash, land allocation, distributorship of scarce commodities, provision of social amenities like roads, hospitals, pipe borne water, electricity in the members constituencies (Awotokun, 1988). It instructive to note that the seeds of corruption were usually nurtured at the highest level in this case. Other major areas of rivalry between the executive and legislature within this period include unwarranted

delay in the confirmation of the president's ministerial nominees (Odumu, 2010), refusal of the legislature to approve any pay for the presidential Liaison Officers, arguing that those offices were not included in the constitution (Awotokun, 1998), legislators welfare, electoral bill of 1981 which proposed to introduce electronic voting system in the country (Awotokun, 1988). From the foregoing, it is evident that a lot of the time of these two organs in the Second Republic was spent trying to settle scores, assert their supremacy against each other or fight for personal gains. The resultant effect was that very little time was spent on debating and legislating on issues and policies that could have promoted good governance.

With reference to the Fourth Republic (1999 – date), Aiyede (2005), averred that the management of executive – legislative relations has been a major disturbing issue in the presidential system of Nigeria's Fourth Republic. He explained that the country has witnessed conflicts between the legislators and the executive at all levels of government. He added further that despite some determined provisions of the constitution aimed at rectifying some of the challenges identified in the earlier Republics, the Fourth Republic has also followed the confrontational and conflictual power relations and that managing executive – legislative relations has been the single most problematic issue since the new dispensation known as the Fourth Republic. The first democratic dispensation of the Fourth Republic was according to Aiyede (2005) characterized by gridlocks over major public policy decisions and struggles in a climate of partisanship because of face-off between the legislature and executive.

Major areas of conflict and disagreement between the executive and legislature from 1999 – 2003 include legislators furniture allowance, Niger – delta Development commission (NDDC) Bill, Electoral Act, Appropriation Bills to mention a few (Odumu, 2010). These according to Odumu (2010) kept throwing the executive and legislature into bouts of conflict for most part of the life of that administration. He explained that as a way of hitting back at the executive, the legislature embarked on a probe of selected federal bodies and on several occasions threatened to impeach the president and

even giving the president and an ultimatum to resign within two weeks, while the president used the weapon of asking the legislators to publicly declare their pay, giving Nigerians the hint that the legislators earned more than what was statutorily allocated to them. In fact the issue of legislator's salaries and allowances have been shrouded in mystery to this very moment. It is believed that they allocate to themselves humongous allowances making them the highest paid law makers in the world. Equally, the then Central Bank Governor, Lamido Sanusi Lamido made the same assertion and added that 25% of Nigeria's budget was being consumed by the National Assembly (Iredia, 2015). This is a strong pointer to the allegation of corruption often leveled against members of both arms of government. Even though the president's party, the People's Democratic Party (PDP) had a majority in both chambers of the legislature, this could not stabilize the relationship between both arms for most part of 1999 – 2007

The change in administration in 2007 opened a new way to new executive – legislative relations in Nigeria's Fourth Republic. President Yar'adua's different style of leadership contrasted with Obasanjo's assertive personal control of many aspects of government (Lewis, 2011). However, a major crisis between the executive and legislature under the Yar'adua administration did not come about as a result of any disagreement on policy but rather, it emanated from the deliberate refusal or inability of President Yar'adua to transmit a written declaration to the legislature to inform it that he was proceeding on health vacation, and this according to Alabi and Fabagba (2009) revealed the continuous acrimonious relationship between the executive and legislature. The fallout of that saga which created a power vacuum for over 100 days, resulted in the introduction of the doctrine of necessary and the eventual assumption of office by the then vice president, Goodluck Jonathan as acting President and his eventual swearing in as President at the death of President Yar'adua.

The Goodluck Jonathan's administration both in acting and substantive capacity also had its own share of executive and legislative interplay of conflicts. One of the conflicts was the legal battle on the validity of the amendment of the 1999 constitution by the legislature without the signature of the President (Okorie, 2010). The disagreement between both arms

was on whether constitutional amendment required presidential assent in order to become operational (Okorie, 2010). The legislature held that having passed through public hearings and passed by more than more than the two-thirds of the State Houses of Assembly made up of the representatives of the people, the assent of President Goodluck Jonathan was not needed.

It is instructive to note however, that according to section 9 of the 1999 constitution which is the constitution of the Fourth Republic, amendment of the constitution is within the jurisdiction of the legislature which must be supported by two-thirds majority of the members of the States House of Assembly in the federation. In the same vein, Section 8 of the same constitution stipulates that a bill of the National Assembly (Legislature) shall not become law until it is assented to by the President. According to Section 58 (5), it is only when the President exercises his veto power and refuses to assent that he shall after 30 days send the bill back to the National Assembly who may use its overriding power and pass the bill into law by the support of two-third of the whole members and will no longer require the assent of the President (FGN, 1999).

Other areas of rivalry under the Goodluck Jonathan administration included the removal of fuel subsidy on Jan 1, 2012 leading to an increase in the pump price of petrol from N65 to N141 which was followed by a nation-wide strike and an eventual motion by the legislature that the President rescinds the decision (Agande, Umoru and Shaibu, 2012). The President, however, in a swift reaction described the legislators resolution as merely advisory and this did not go down well with the members of the legislature. Shortly thereafter, there were threats of impeachment over poor implementation of some resolutions of the legislature. It is pertinent to note that a resolution is the decision of the legislature expressing its condemnation of certain unpleasant actions of a body on particular issues of state, national or international concern (Okorie, 2010), and such resolutions though persuasive, do not require the agreement of the President as it does not have the force of law but only an expression of the sentiments of the legislature (Aiyede, 2005).

The persistent cat and mouse relationship between the Lower House of the legislature and the executive continued unabated even though several top figures of the administration underplayed it (Umoru, 2013). Both chambers of the National Assembly were dominated by the people's Democratic Party (PDP), the government party, and so as stated earlier, one would have expected that advantage to have been used to stabilize the relationship, but that was not the case, and as averred by (Aiyede, 2015), the cancer of prebendal politics and culture of settlement, mediocrity and opportunism continued to dictate the political behavior of the public officers involved. The height of this was the defection from the PDP by a number of law makers in both chambers including the then Speaker of the House of Representative, Aminu Tambuwal to the then new opposition party, the All People's Congress (APC) prior to the 2015 general elections and the consequent efforts by the Presidency to oust the speaker (Ezigbo, Bello and Akinsuyi, 2014).

The turn of events did not get any better in the run up to the elections especially with the political alignments and re-alignments in the heat of the 2015 electioneering process. The 2015 general elections having come and gone with the tide completely changed in favour of the All Peoples Congress (APC) clinching the Presidency and also having a majority in both chambers of the legislature, Nigerians look forward to a better executive-legislative relations that will promote good governance (Ekot, 2015), even as both chambers have been engrossed since May, 29 in trying to sort out the election and appointment of principal officers with the executive treading with caution and staying rather aloof.

A General Synopsis

As a result of the predominantly acrimonious relationship between the executive and the legislature for most of the period examined, both arms of government were unable to devote quality time to the provision of good governance to the citizens. On the one hand, there were instances as noted from the discuss so far that the legislature became too docile to check the executive, and at other times became too confrontational while on the part of the executive, there had been the tendency to monopolize the whole process through manipulations (Awotokun, 1998). Also, the Nigeria legislature which is supposed to

facilitate accountability through the protecting and controlling of public treasury have focused on material and financial benefits it could amass using its office and power (Alabi and Fasagba, 2009). This has made the legislature equally corrupt as it often finds it convenient to connive with the executive to perpetrate corrupt practices. Closely related to the factors mentioned above is the personal ambition and parochial interests and agenda of both members of the executive and legislature and so, the self serving and pathological conception of politics in Nigeria is such that control of political power is seen as a means of perpetuating selfish interests. (Muhammad, 2008).

With the prevalence of these factors, therefore, good governance as identified earlier has continued to appear as a mirage. The elements or characteristics of good governance which include accountability, transparency, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, rule of law, participation, equality and inclusiveness as well as consensus orientation have in principle remained the mantra of each seeker of public office whether into the executive or legislative arm but have not in practice been given the drive needed to actualize them.

CONCLUSION

The historical and current realities of the executive and legislative relations in Nigeria and how it has affected the provision of good governance have been examined in the course of this paper. The nature of executive-legislative relations have taken on different dimensions from the colonial era to date. The long period of military rule spanning more than half of the total years of Nigeria's independence also came to the fore as it retarded the development of both arms more especially the legislature which was always suspended. Corruption, it was also revealed was a major factor that hindered both arms from agreeing on major policy issues that could have made the people to reap the dividends of good governance.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are recommendations with a view to promoting a better relationship between the executive and legislature towards making such relationship capable of providing good governance for the citizenry.

- Meaningful consultation and dialogue should always be employed by both arms as continuous acrimony can only serve as a disincentive to good governance.
- National rather than parochial interests should be the motivating factor for elected officials and both arms should be able to see each other as partners rather than rivals in the task of providing good governance.
- There should be an effective mechanism for enforcing strong ethical standards especially accountability in governance, transparency, rule of law, equality to mention a few.
- Citizens and civil society groups need to rise up in concerted effort and demand accountability and transparency especially in public governance.
- The justice system should be strengthened so that people found to have been involved in corrupt practices will be made to face the wrath of the law irrespective of their political and social status.
- Both arms should aim at good governance as this is the most potent guarantee against military incursion into politics and this will also restore the confidence of the people in the system.

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CORRELATES OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN A GROUP OF PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Ghosh, A

Psychology Research Unit, Indian Statistical Institute, India

Abstract

The present study attempts to explore the effect of, self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, locus of control and teachers' perception about students' motivation on their academic achievement for mathematics. Data from a group of 116 class IV students (52 boys and 64 girls) reading in three different primary schools located near northern part of Kolkata, India were collected. Children's Academic Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (Gottfried; 1986), Self-efficacy and achievement measure for mathematics (Ghosh; 2004) and Locus of Control scale (Clifford & Cleary; 1972) were administered on all the students in their classrooms. Apart from this class teachers were also asked to rate each student on four traits to know about their motivation for studies on a five -point scale and school performance record on mathematics were also collected. Significant gender differences were observed with respect to achievement in mathematics and teacher's rating. Boys scored significantly higher than girls in different mathematics tasks whereas teachers perceived girl students to be more attentive, curious and interested for studies. Results of regression analyses indicated that students' performance in mathematics can be efficiently predicted by one's intrinsic motivation for studies, teacher's perception, self-efficacy belief and gender. Internal locus of control was also found to have positive relationship with students' mathematics achievement. Thus, the findings of the study suggest that students' enjoyment for learning, belief about own capabilities and teachers' perception regarding students' interest and persistence in studies can enhance one's academic performance. The study has important implication that teachers' support for students' interests, and relationships through a variety of instructional practices can enhance their self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation which can ultimately lead to success in school functioning.

Keywords: Self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, locus of control, academic achievement.

INTRODUCTION

A topic of great interest to psychologists and educators is the question – what motivates a child to learn. Motivation is a multifaceted concept. Some individuals are motivated from within while some are not. Until the 1960s, educators interested in enhancing student motivation primarily used extrinsic reinforcements to control behavior. But such behavior modification programs make desired effects which are contingent upon performing specified behaviors (for e.g. attentive to studies in the classroom, disciplined, doing homework etc.). At the same time, these techniques have been less effective in producing persistence and generalization of desired behaviors. This approach of extrinsic reinforcing often enhances classroom motivation but ignores the mediating cognitive processes, such as the person's

expectations, knowledge and beliefs that are essential for understanding when such changes will persist or generalize.

The development of cognitive competencies requires sustained involvement in activities. Such pursuits provide mastery experiences needed to build intrinsic interest and a sense of cognitive efficacy when they are lacking. Changing aspirations, time perspectives and social order in the life span of an individual determine how one will structure, regulate and evaluate their lives. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) analyzes developmental changes in perceived self-efficacy in terms of evolution of human agency across the life span of an individual. Self-efficacy is concerned with judgment about how well one can organize and implement courses of action in situations that may contain novel, unpredictable or stressful elements. According to Bandura (1997) self-

Corresponding author email: gh.anjali@gmail.com

efficacy refers to an individual's belief about how he or she will be successful at a given task or within a given construct. He further (1997) stated that confidence in future success is based largely on past performance.

Academic Achievement and Its Correlates

Self-efficacy functions as a motivational facilitator for both learning and performance. Motivation, self-regulation, attribution, goal-setting, choice of strategies for attaining goals, feedback etc. are some of the major determinants of self-efficacy. Past researches have indicated that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic performance and achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk, 1985), and males tend to be more confident than females in subjects like mathematics, science and technology (Pajares and Miller, 1994). Pintrich and Schunk (2002) stated that self-efficacy is a crucial variable for learning and performance of social cognition, motor skills, strategies and behaviors. From the perspective of social learning theory, self-efficacy expectations are proposed to be an important factor influencing attitude toward mathematics and mathematics performance as well as mathematics related educational and career choices (Bandura, 1977, 1982; Hackett & Betz, 1981). Randhawa (1993) found that the effects of mathematics attitude on mathematics achievement were mediated by self-efficacy. Chemers, Hu, & Garcia (2001) in their work on mathematical problem solving have shown that children with higher self-efficacy strived for longer periods and used more effective problem solving strategies than students with lower self-efficacy. Ghosh (2004) also observed that self-efficacy judgments of primary school students about their capabilities to solve mathematical problems have an important effect on subsequent achievement.

Motivation is of great importance to students' academic performance and for overall adaptation to the demands of the school environment. Academic intrinsic motivation involves enjoyment of school learning characterized by a mastery orientation, curiosity, and intrinsic interest for the subject and performance for challenging, difficult and novel tasks. Research evidences reveal that academic intrinsic motivation is a significant factor for children's higher academic achievement and more favorable perceptions of their academic competence

(Gottfried, 1985, 1990; Harter, 1981, 1992; Watkins & Hattie, 1990). Harter and Cornell (1984) found that perceived control is an important correlate of academic motivation. Findings of their study revealed that the intrinsically motivated child would perceive himself / herself to be in control of his / her successes and failures.

Locus of control is a concept which refers to a person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in one's life, either in general or in a specific area such as academics or health. It can be either internal which means that the person himself or herself controls his own life, or it may be external which means that the person believes that fate or luck, or some higher power controls the decisions of his/her life. Persons with a generalized expectancy, that is those who can control reinforcements (internally oriented), have shown higher academic achievement than those who perceive reinforcements as dependent on chance, fate or powerful others i.e., who are externally oriented (Makri-Botsari, 1999; Nowicki & Strickland, 1973). Specific classroom procedures produce greater internality in children, and thus improve academic achievement. Students with high intrinsic motivation, a task orientation and high self-efficacy are found to be relatively active readers and high achievers (Guthrie, Cox, Knowles, Buehl, Mazzoni & Fasculo, 2000). Anderson, Hattie & Hamilton (2005) observed that moderate levels of locus of control and self-efficacy appear to be more adaptive for motivation and achievement than either extremely high or low levels.

Teacher's perception regarding student's motivation for learning is an important indicator to know about students' persistence, interest, curiosity etc. for learning. Teachers know their students better than others. In order to know about this, class teachers are asked to rate each student on several traits namely, curiosity, persistence, attention and interest in mathematics. It was envisaged that this will give an indication of students' motivation for learning.

In view of the above research studies it appears that intrinsic interest, efficacy beliefs, outcome expectancies, motivation etc. operate to give fruitful results i.e. to perform effectively in a given situation. The present study, therefore, wants to investigate:

- The pattern of academic achievement in mathematics of primary school students reading in class IV in different schools of Kolkata, India.
- To find out the pattern of relationship of achievement in mathematics with different indicators like intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, locus of control and teacher's perception regarding students' motivation for studies.
- To find out the predictors of mathematics achievement.

METHOD

Participants:

Participants of this study were primary school students studying in three different schools located near northern part of Kolkata, India. These three schools were selected randomly from the north zone of Primary schools. After taking permission from the Headmaster/ Headmistress of the schools, the students were approached and tested in their respective classes. There were 116 students present on the day of testing. There were 52 boys and 64 girls reading in class IV i.e. at the terminal stage of primary schooling. The mean age of the students was 9.09 years ($SD = .75$). All the students were from lower middle socio-economic class.

Measures:

Measures used in the study were as follows:

Self-efficacy measure: Children's perception of self-efficacy belief for solving mathematical problems on subtraction, division and simplification were measured by using two problems in each of the three areas respectively (Ghosh, 2004). One by one the problems were shown to each student for 10 seconds to know about their self-efficacy beliefs and then efficacy judgment for each problem was taken with the help of a four-point Likert - type scale - ranging from 1 to 4 with verbal descriptors as 1 = not sure, 2 = may be, 3 = pretty sure and 4 = real sure. The children were shown the problems in such a way that they could judge their capabilities to solve the problems. However, they were asked to solve the problems at a later time.

Achievement test for mathematics: Achievement test for mathematical problems in the areas of subtraction, division and simplification specially prepared for an earlier study (Ghosh, 2004) was used here. Two problems for each dimension were prepared based on the school syllabus but not from the text-books taught in the schools. These six problems - two each from subtraction, division and simplification were given to the students for solving. There was no time limit but they were instructed to solve the problems as quickly as they can. The maximum possible score was 6 and the minimum was 0.

Intrinsic motivation: Academic intrinsic motivation was measured through Children's Academic Intrinsic Motivation Inventory developed by Gottfried (1985). This is a self-report inventory comprising questions for different subject areas and also for general orientation for school learning. In the present study only the general orientation part of the scale was used, which contains 18 items. It measures children's enjoyment for learning and the learning for challenging, difficult and novel tasks on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. High score corresponds to high intrinsic motivation and low score to low intrinsic motivation.

Teacher's perception regarding student's motivation: It is important to know about students' persistence, interest, curiosity etc. in learning from teacher's perspective. In order to know this class teachers were asked to rate each student on four traits namely, curiosity, persistence, attention and interest in mathematics on a five-point scale. The composite score for this ranged from 4 (minimum) to 20 (maximum).

Locus of Control: A child's tendency to internalize or externalize was measured by a locus of control scale developed by Clifford and Cleary (1972). There are 15 items in the scale with Yes / No response format. Children were asked to state whether they were responsible for how well they did in school, or believe that the cause of their success or failure was outside their control. "Internalizers" perform better academically than those who are "externalizers". A high score indicates "internalization" and low score "externalization".

School Performance for mathematics: Students' performance in mathematics in the last annual examination of the school was also taken as an indicator of achievement in mathematics. Therefore, marks were collected from the schools for each student. All the marks were converted into 100 to make uniformity among the marks obtained from different schools.

Besides these measures, some biographical information like age, gender, socio-economic status etc. were also collected. Initially rapport was established with the students and then the data were collected in the classroom of the respective schools.

RESULTS

Pattern of Achievement in Mathematics and its Correlates by Gender:

Pattern of responses on mathematical tasks and its different correlates were calculated separately for boy and girl students and are shown by computing means and SDs. T-tests were also calculated to find out if there are any significant differences between boys and girls. The results are presented in Table-1

Table 1: Means, SD and t-value for different variables

	Boys n=52		Girls n=64		t-value (df: 114)
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
Achievement-Math (AM)	4.23	1.50	3.44	1.34	2.97**
Self-efficacy (SE)	16.67	1.77	16.72	1.81	.15
Intrinsic motivation (IM)	64.04	7.20	61.27	8.64	1.88
Locus of control (LOC)	10.25	1.20	10.41	2.25	.49
Teacher rating (TR)	14.60	3.40	16.36	3.27	2.84**
School Performance (SP)	45.96	26.50	51.25	20.11	1.88

** p < .01

Significant gender differences were observed with respect to achievement in mathematics and teacher's perception regarding student's motivation for learning. Boys scored higher in mathematics achievement whereas teachers rate girl students as having higher persistence, curiosity, interest and attention for learning. The effect size was found to be .55 for achievement in mathematics and thus indicating moderate difference between boys and girls student, and with respect to teacher rating it was found to be .53 which also shows that girl students are more motivated for studies than boys. But no significant gender difference was observed with respect to school performance in mathematics though the girl students scored somewhat higher than the boys.

Relationship of Achievement in Mathematics with Different Correlates:

It is assumed that student's achievement in mathematics will be related with different psychological attributes or indicators. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated among the variables used in the study for boys, girls and the total group respectively and the results are presented in Table – 2.

Table 2: Correlation Coefficients of Achievement in mathematics and School performance with Different Variables (Boys & Girls)

Variables	Total Group n=116		Boys n= 52		Girls n= 64	
	AM	SP	AM	SP	AM	SP
SE	.24**	.41**	.10	.48**	.40**	.35**
IM	.35**	.37**	.28*	.32*	.37**	.50**
LC	.16	.28**	.33*	.18	.04	.38**
TR	.27**	.50**	.23	.40**	.48**	.59**

*p <.05 ** p< .01

The results reveal that achievement in mathematics is significantly related with one's intrinsic motivation, teacher's perception about students' motivation and with self-efficacy beliefs, though the relationship with self-efficacy belief in case of boys is somewhat mild. Internal locus of control was also found to be significantly related with academic achievement in case of boys but not for girls. School performance in mathematics is also strongly related with one's self-efficacy belief, intrinsic motivation, teacher's rating and locus of control.

motivation can predict one's achievement in mathematics (both for specially constructed test and school marks). Stepwise regression analyses were conducted by taking intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, locus of control, teacher's rating and gender as predictors and achievement in mathematics as criterion variable. Tables 3&4 show the results of regression analyses.

Predictors of Mathematics Achievement:

Next, we wanted to know whether these attributes namely, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, locus of control and teacher's perception about student's

Table 3: Significant Predictors of Achievement in Mathematics (specially constructed test)

Steps	Significant Predictors	Std. Beta	R ² change	F-change	p-value
Step-I	Intrinsic Motivation	0.353	0.125	16.267	0.000
Step-II	Intrinsic Motivation Gender	0.316 -0.216	0.045	6.187	0.014
Step-III	Intrinsic Motivation Gender Teacher Rating	0.249 -0.305	0.080	11.945	0.001
Step-IV	Intrinsic Motivation Gender Teacher Rating Self-Efficacy	0.193 -0.323 0.321 0.214	0.043	6.750	0.011

Table 4: *Significant Predictors of School Performance in Mathematics*

Steps	Significant Predictors	Std. Beta	R ² change	F-change	p-value
Step-I	Teacher Rating	0.497	0.247	37.38	0.000
Step-II	Teacher Rating	0.510	0.183	36.23	0.000
	Self-Efficacy	0.428			
Step-III	Teacher Rating	0.473	0.038	8.04	0.005
	Self-Efficacy	0.379			
	Intrinsic Motivation	0.204			

Results presented in the above tables indicate that intrinsic motivation is the most significant predictor for specially constructed test for mathematics achievement. Gender is also another important indicator of achievement, along with teacher's rating and self-efficacy belief. Stepwise regression analysis for school performance in mathematics reveals that teacher's perception regarding students' motivation is the most significant predictor followed by self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. This shows that the teachers are well acquainted with the students' motivation for studies. It also indicates that self - confident and intrinsically motivated students perform better in mathematics examination.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study reveal that boy and girl students significantly differ with respect to academic achievement in mathematics. Boys scored significantly higher than the girls thus suggesting that boys have more academic competence for mathematics.. This may be due to the fact that the boys grasp the rules of mathematics better than the girls. Previous researches have also indicated that males tend to be more confident than females in academic areas related to mathematics, science and technology (Pajares & Miller, 1994). On the other hand, teachers perceived that the girl students are much more motivated, interested and persistent in studies than the boys. This may have happened as because the boys in this younger age are diverted to other areas specially in playing games.

The correlation patterns obtained in this study reveal strong to moderate positive correlations of academic competence with academic intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, teacher's perception for students' motivation and internal locus of control. The pattern of these correlations is consistent with the earlier findings (Gottfried, 1990; Harter, 1981, 1992; Harter &

Cornell, 1984; Watkins & Hattie, 1990) which found that perceived scholastic competence was related strongly to academic intrinsic motive, teacher's perception, self-efficacy and internal locus of control. Intrinsic motivation, teacher's perception, self-efficacy and gender of the student were observed to be important determinants of academic achievement.

Thus, we can interpret the findings in a way that children who enjoy learning challenging tasks, show task persistence, and strive to learn more, have higher academic performance in mathematics. Moreover, these students' self perceptions about their capabilities to solve mathematical problems are reflected in their subsequent achievement (Ghosh, 2004). The study also revealed that academic achievement is positively related with internal locus of control. This is because the internals attribute success to one's ability and effort whereas externals believe in luck or fate for any outcome. This finding is in accordance with the earlier findings of Makri-Botsari (1999) and Nowicki and Strickland (1973).

It can be concluded from the findings of the study that intrinsic motivation for mastery orientation, curiosity, preference for challenging and novel tasks can be correlates of academic competence particularly for mathematics. In addition, one's belief about own capabilities and effort can also predict one's academic achievement. The findings also indicated the important role of a teacher in judging the motivation of students.

The study has significant implication for school functioning. Students' orientation and motivation toward academic achievement and confidence in their own capabilities can be enhanced through proper guidance and counseling. Parents and teachers can play important role in this respect. Parental warmth, supportiveness, and encouragement are important for developing confidence, internal locus of control and

intrinsic interest for studies. Teachers can promote intrinsic motivation and foster mastery orientations. Thus, through effective instructional practices student's beliefs about their capabilities and expectations for success in schools can be enhanced which may lead to fruitful learning.

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COMMUNITY BASED RESEARCH ON MALNUTRITION IN CHILDREN OF URBAN SLUM

Bharatbhai, S.P

113, Mahavirdham Vibhag -2, Near Madhavbaug School, New Kosad road, Amroli, Surat (Gujarat) India.

Abstract

The WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition seeks to contribute to the transformation of this cycle of poverty, malnutrition and disease into a virtuous one of wealth, growth and health. Anganwadi center in urban slum area which is attached to Surat based Anganwadi Training center was selected for study. 91 children (0-6 years) of urban slum registered in an anganwadi Centre in Udhna. Cross sectional study was conducted. Out of 91 children, 41(45%) children were normal. 32% were moderately underweight and 23% children were severely under weight. Malnutrition as well as severe malnutrition is high among children who most irregularly participating at AWC activities. In this study indices used are Wt/Age to detect underweight children, Wt/Ht and MUAC to detect wasting. Comparative analysis of these indices indicates that under weight children are more that wasted children. 75% of SAM children are in SUW. The SMC health dept. with its unique infrastructure, AWC network and initiatives like Urban IMNCI, with quality screening for malnutrition and supportive supervision can reduce malnutrition rate as well as rate of SAM responsible for child mortality.

Keywords: Anganwadi, nutritional assessment, anthropometric indices

INTRODUCTION

The WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition seeks to contribute to the transformation of this cycle of poverty, malnutrition and disease into a virtuous one of wealth, growth and health.

Malnutrition usually refers to a number of diseases, each with a specific cause related to one or more nutrients, for example protein, iodine, vitamin A or iron. In the present context malnutrition is synonymous with protein-energy malnutrition, which signifies an imbalance between the supply of protein and energy and the body's demand for them to ensure optimal growth and function. This imbalance includes both inadequate and excessive energy intake; the former leading to malnutrition in the form of wasting, stunting and underweight, and the latter resulting in overweight and obesity.

OBJECTIVES

- To assess magnitude of Malnutrition in Urban Slum.
- To study magnitude of malnutrition in different age groups and among boys and girls of urban slums
- To compare different anthropometric indices

METHOD

Study area

Anganwadi center in urban slum area which is attached to Surat based Anganwadi Training center was selected for study.

Sample Size

91 children (0-6 years) of urban slum registered in an anganwadi centre in Udhna.

Corresponding Author Email: E-mail: drsurati@gmail.com

Inclusion criteria

- All children present at Anganwadi.
- Children of the families registered by AWW.

Exclusion criteria:

- People not giving consent for the study.
- All closed houses.

Study design

Cross sectional study

Expected outcome

Magnitude of childhood malnutrition assessed.

I want to learn about malnutrition assessment and different tools to assess the same in community based study.

ANALYSIS

Profile of children studied

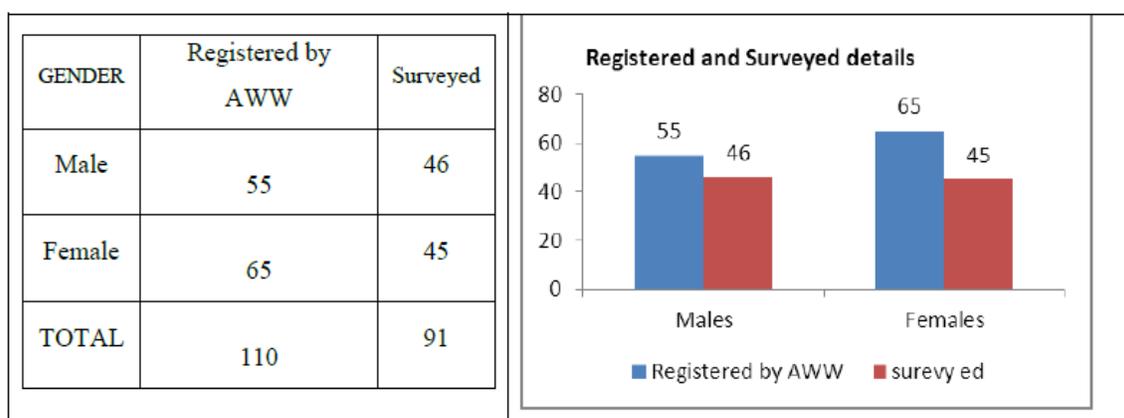


Figure 1: Registered and surveyed MALE / FEMALE children

In aanganwadi center the total no. of children registered were 110 out of which 55 were male and 65 were female. Total number of children covered under survey is 91 including 46 male and 45 female.

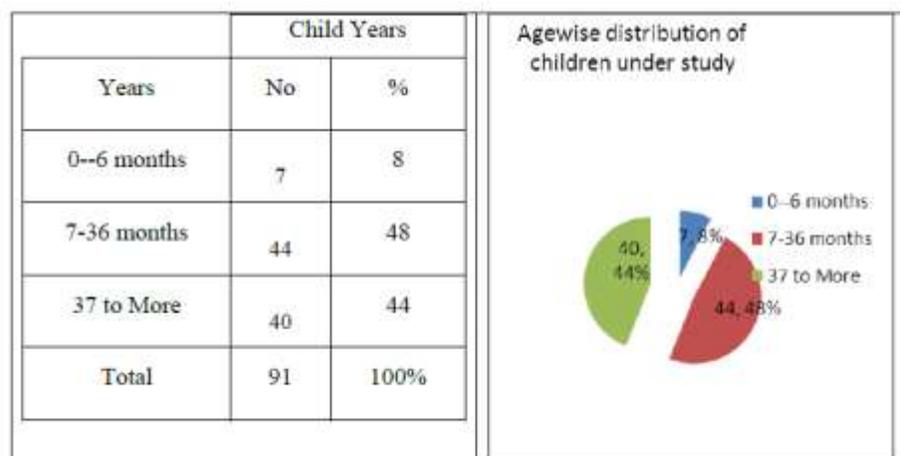


Figure 2: Distribution of children under study as per age

As per age wise distribution of children 7 (8%) were in < 6 months age group, 44 (48%) in 7 to 36 months age group and 40 (44%) were in 3-6 yrs age group. Majority of children were in age of 7 to 36 months age group.

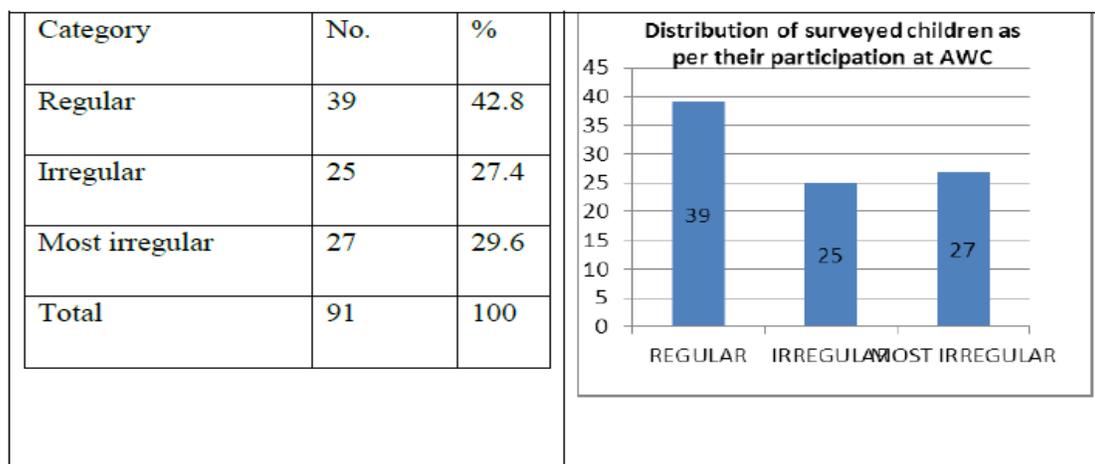


Figure 3: Distribution of surveyed children as per their participation at AWC

As per regularity of participation of children in ICDS activity they were grouped into three categories: regular, irregular, and most irregular. This was based on the feedback given by AWW.

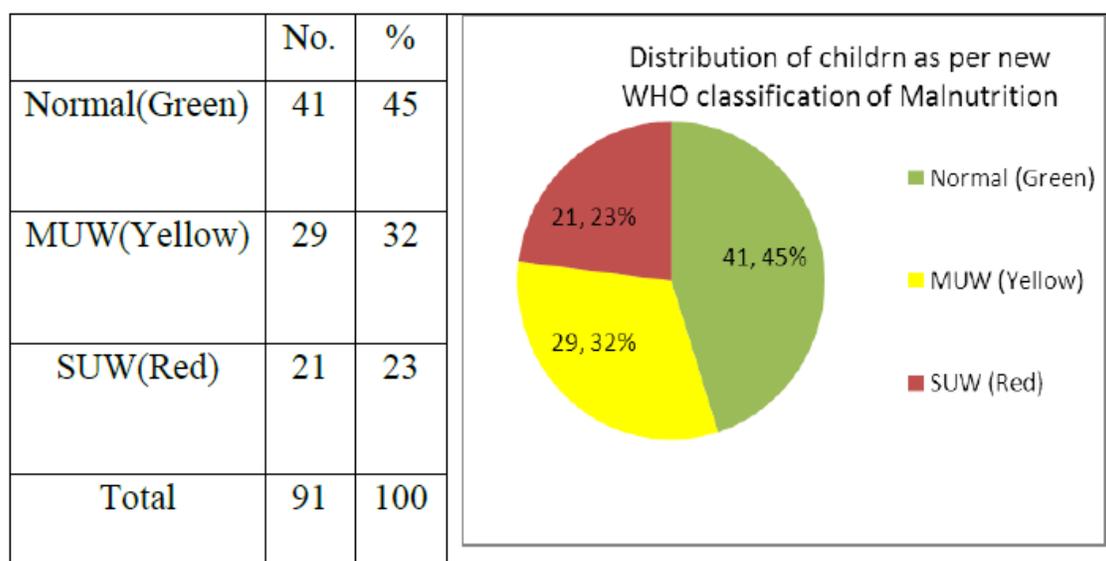


Figure 4: Distribution of children as per new WHO classification of Malnutrition

Children participating regularly were 39(42.8%), irregular were 25(27.4) and, most irregular 27 (29.6%).

Malnutrition

Distribution of children as per Wt/Age (New WHO classification)

Out of 91 children screened as per weight/ age new WHO classification 41(45%) were normal, 29 (32%) were MUW (Moderately underweight), and 21 (23%)

were SUW (Severely Underweight). Thus overall malnutrition prevalence rate (Underweight children rate) among children under study was 55%.

As per NFHS 3 childhood malnutrition rate in children of Gujarat state is 43% and the same for urban poor is 60%. Present study malnutrition rate among children of urban poor area is almost same.

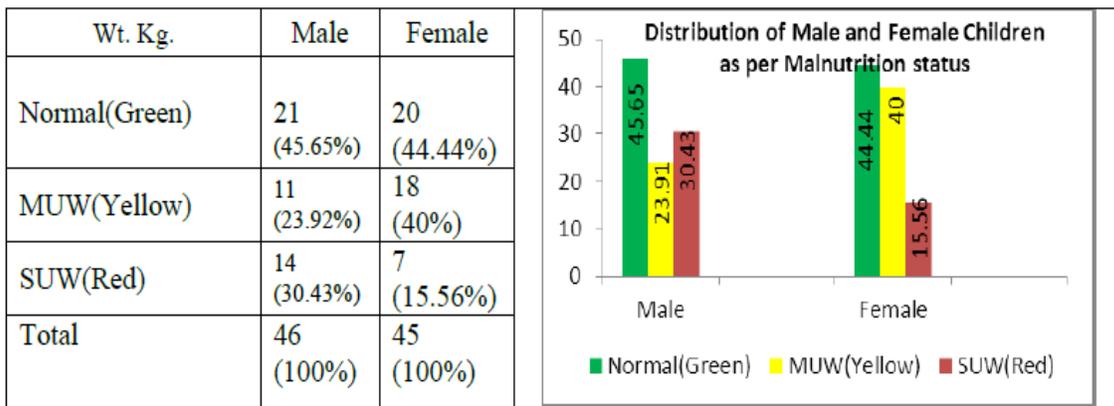


Figure 5: Distribution of Male and Female Children as per Malnutrition status (Wt/Age)

Out of 91 children studied, 45.65 % boys were normal and 44.44% girls were normal. 54.4% boys were under weight and 55.6% girls were underweight.

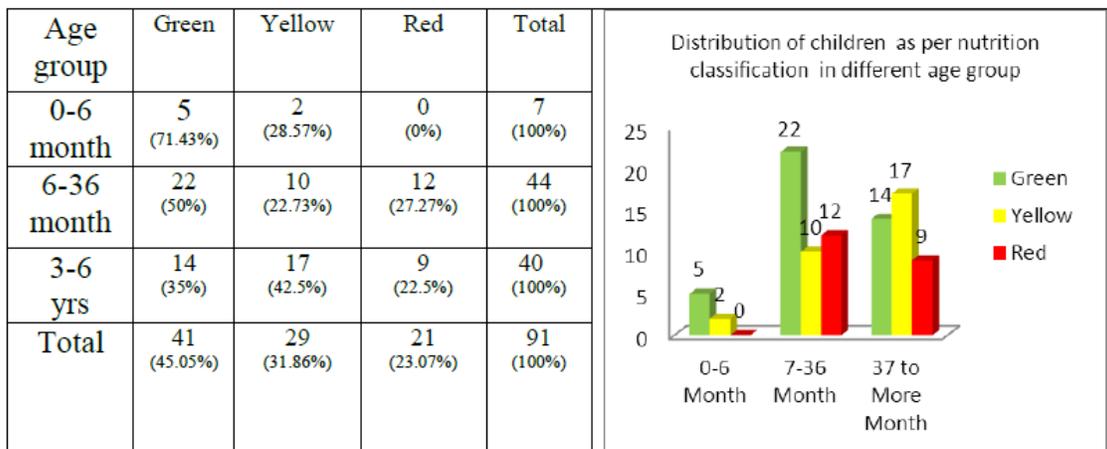


Figure 6: Underweight children (Malnutrition) as per age group (WT. /Age)

In 0-6 months age group 5(71.43%) children were normal , 2 (28.57%) children were moderately underweight (MUW) and none of the child was severely underweight (SUW).

In 6 to 36 months age group 22 (50%) children were normal, 10 (22.73%) were MUW and 12(27.27%) were SUW.

In 3 to 6 year age group 14(35%) children were normal,17 (42.5%)were MUWht and 9(22.5%) children were SUW .

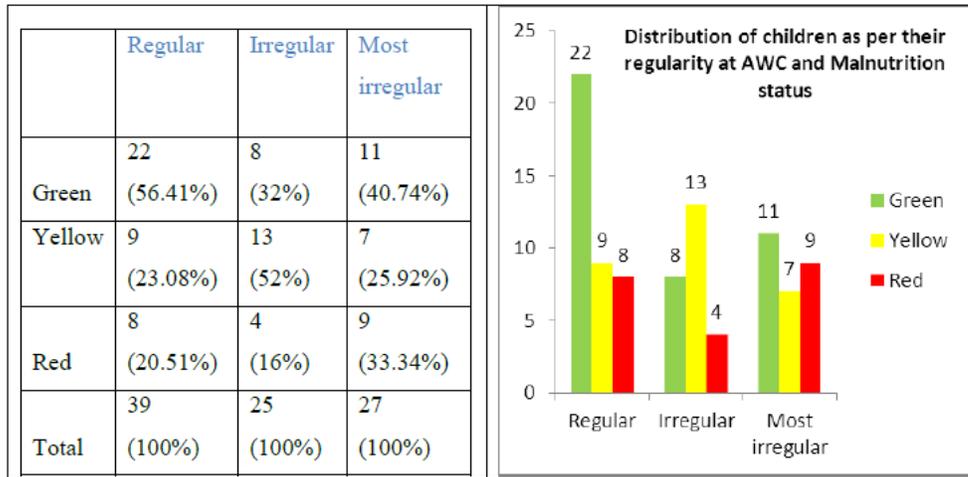


Figure 7: Distribution of children as per their regularity at AWC and Malnutrition status

Normal children among children regularly attending AWC were 22(56.41%) and among irregular were 8(32%) and most irregular were 11(40.74%).

Rate of Underweight children (malnutrition) among children regularly attending AWC was 43.6% and among irregular was 68% and most irregular was

59.3%. SUW children among regularly attending AWC were 8(20.51%) and among most irregular was 9(33.34%). Rate of Underweight and severely underweight children were lowest among children regularly attending AWC.

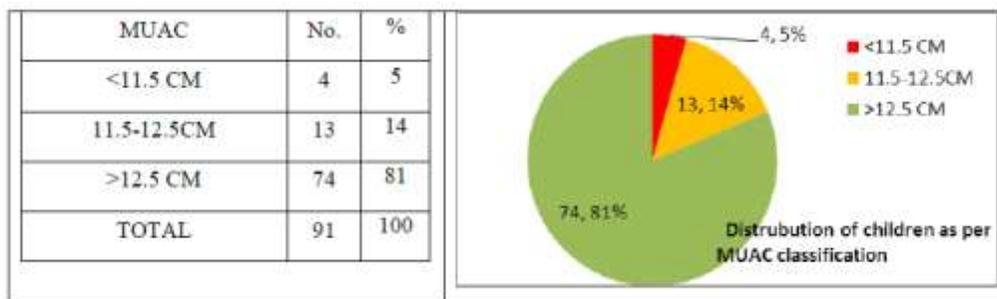


Figure 8: Distribution of children as per MUAC classification

Mid Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC) is an age independent index used for assessment of malnutrition specially wasting. For community based assessment of SAM among children MUAC is recommended. MUAC is used to screen severely acute malnutrition (SAM) <11.5cm and moderate acute malnutrition 11.5-12.5cm. (MAM)

All children were screened for MUAC. As per MUAC 81% (74) were normal and 19% were wasted. Among children with wasting majority 14% (13) had moderate wasting (MAM) and 5% (4) had severe wasting (SAM)

Bilateral pitting edema:

No child was suffering from bilateral pitting edema on legs.

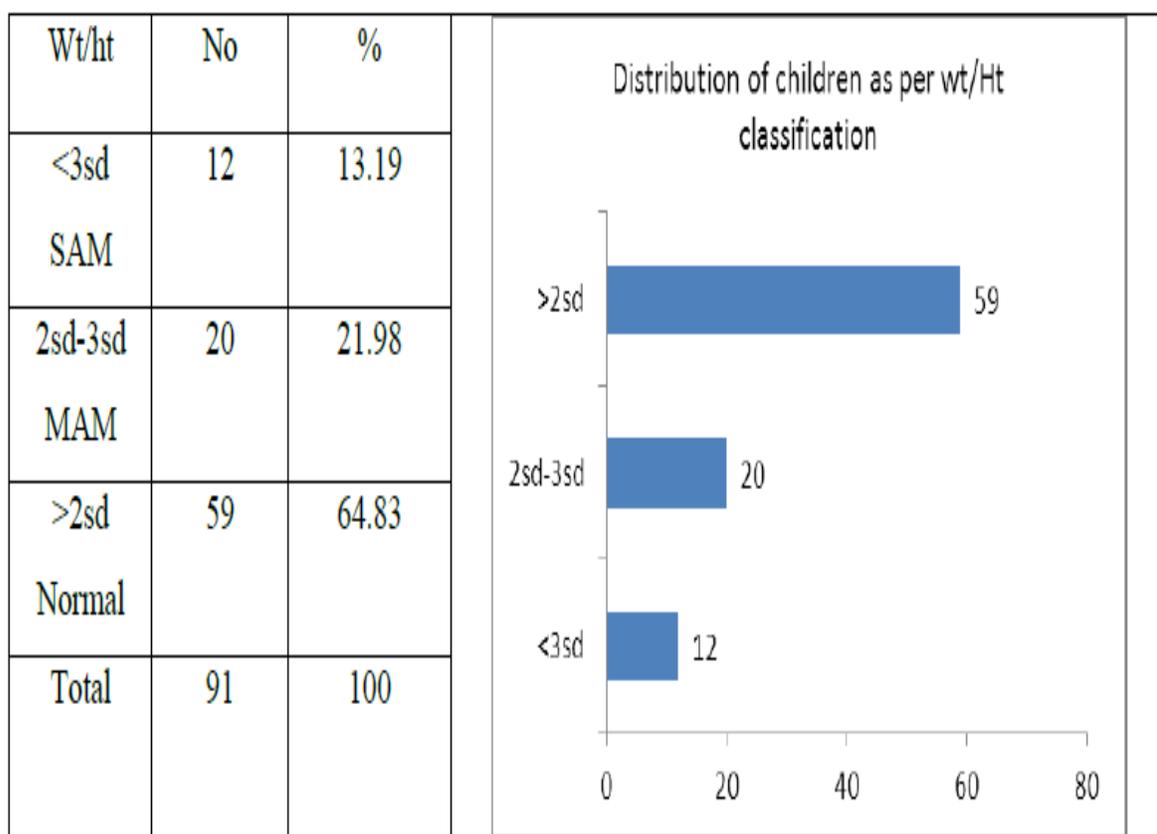


Figure 9: Distribution of children as per Wt/Ht

For screening of children with wasting Wt/Ht is considered as Gold standard. Wt/Ht value of child as per age is compared with WHO reference standard and Children under <3Sd are classified under SAM (Severe acute malnutrition, 3 Sd to 2Sd classified under MAM (Moderate acute malnutrition) and those in >2SD are classified under normal group.

When children under study were screened for wasting as per Wt/Ht standards 64.8% (59) were normal, 21.9% (20) were MAM and 13.2% (12) were SAM.

Morbidity

Table 1: Diarrhoea

	Total	Yes	%
Male	46	6	13
Female	45	7	15
TOTAL	91	13	14.3

History of diarrhoea in last fifteen days was present in 13 (14.3%) children Prevalence rate of diarrhea was 13.% in boys and 15.% in girls .

Table 2: Fever

	Yes	%	Total
Males	7	15.2	46
Females	3	6.6	45
TOTAL	10	9.1	91

History of fever in last fifteen days was present in 10(9.1%) children. prevalence rate of fever was 15.2% in boys and 6.6% in girls

Measles

There was no child with H/O measles in Last two months

Comparison of indices in use for Malnutrition screening

Table 3: Wt/Age (Under weight) and Wt/Ht (Wasting)

Wt/Ht	Wt/Age			
	Green	Yellow	Red	Total
<3SD	1	2	9	12
2Sd-3SD	8	9	3	20
>2SD	32	18	9	59
Total	41	29	21	91

There were 21 children in SUW (red classification) and 12 children in SAM (<3Sd). Amongst 12 SAM children 9 are common SUW as well as SAM. This indicates that 75% of total SAM children are in SUW group.

Table 4

MUAC	Wt/Age			
	Green	Yellow	Red	Total
SAM (<11.5cm)	0	1	3	4
MAM (11.5-12.5cm)	4	4	5	13
Normal (>12.5cm)	37	24	13	74
Total	41	29	21	91

Detection of SAM children and their management is a step towards reduction of child mortality due to malnutrition. This study reveals that if underweight screening which is a routine under ICDS as well as MAMTA divas screening, which is easiest of all other anthropometric measurements, if properly done can detect 75% of SAM children.

MUAC and Wt/Age – under weight

There were 21 children in SUW (red classification) and 4 children in SAM (<11.5Cm MUAC). Amongst 4 SAM children 3 are common SUW as well as SAM. This indicates that 75% of total SAM children as per MUAC are in SUW group.

MUAC is recommended for screening of acute malnutrition under field conditions by paramedics. This study reveals that if underweight screening which is a routine under ICDS as well as MAMTA divas screening, which is easiest of all other anthropometric measurements, if properly done can detect 75% of SAM children, otherwise would have detected by MUAC.

Table 5: Wt/Ht and MUAC

MUAC	Wt/Ht			Total
	SAM	MAM	Normal	
	<3sd	2-3Sd	>2SD	
SAM			1	
<11.5cm	3	0		4
MAM		6		13
11.5-12.5cm	2		5	
Normal	7			
>12.5cm		14	53	74
Total	12	20	59	91

There were 12 children in SAM as per Wt/Ht and 4 children in SAM as per MUAC. Amongst 12

SAM children detected by Wt/Ht, 3 are common as per MUAC also. 2

Children detected as SAM as per Wt/Ht falls in to MAM as per MUAC, while 7 children detected as SAM as per Wt/Ht falls in to normal group as per MUAC.

This indicates that if Wt/Ht is considered a Gold standard for SAM detection only one fourth of them are selected by MUAC. Comparison of all three indices Wt/Age, Wt/Ht and MUAC favors simple and in routine practice Wt/age screening which detects 75% of SAM children detected by Wt/Ht as well as MUAC.

RESULT

Out of 91 children, 41(45%) children were normal. 32% were moderately underweight and 23% children were severely under weight. No child was suffering from bilateral pitting edema.14.3% children had history of diarrhea in last 15 days, 9.1% children had history of fever in last 15 days and there

was no child with the history of Measles in last two months.

Malnutrition as well as severe malnutrition is high among children who most irregularly participating at AWC activities. Measurement of Weight, height and Mid upper arm circumference was done for anthropometric measurement to assess malnutrition in children. Anthropometric measurements are converted in to indices to assess different types of malnutrition.

In this study indices used are Wt/Age to detect underweight children, Wt/Ht and MUAC to detect wasting. Amongst these three indices MUAC is age independent. Comparative analysis of these indices indicates that under weight children are more that wasted children. 75% of SAM children are in SUW.

RECOMMENDATION

The SMC health dept. with its unique infrastructure, AWC network and initiatives like Urban IMNCI, with quality screening for malnutrition and supportive supervision can reduce malnutrition rate as well as rate of SAM responsible for child mortality.

Proper micro-planning and special efforts to improve rate of children regularly participating in AWC activity shall also result in reduction of malnutrition.

In Surat city AWWs are trained in IMNCI but it was observed during survey at AWC that it is not practiced universally. Proper sustained implementation of IMNCI can further support efforts of reduction of malnutrition rate as well as mortality of children.

ICDS activity should be supervised regularly to reduce the rate of malnutrition and severe acute malnutrition. Inter personal communication should be done between aanganwadi workers to mother.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I extend my sincere gratitude to Professor Dr. Dileep Mavalankar, Director Indian Institute of Public Health, Gandhinagar (IIPH-G), who has been my mentor for the research program & has been instrumental in helping me shape this study in a desirable way. Great thanking to him for giving me the opportunity to do this internship I thank him for all the trust and faith he posed in me and I only hope that I have been able to live up to his expectations.

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I must appreciate the sincere efforts done by my parents and my friend, who acted as a friend, philosopher and guide throughout my study, whose dream came true. I feel great pleasure to accept life time debt to all those known and unknown persons

and my well-wisher for their extensive health irrespective of the quantity and quality during my study period and made this project fruitful and a great success.

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Climate Change and Children's Health—A Call for Research on What Works to Protect Children Zhiwei Xu,¹ Perry E. Sheffield,² Wenbiao Hu,³ Hong Su,⁴ Weiwei Yu,¹ Xinqi and Shilu Tong^{1,*}

G, Ouannes M, Shepherd S. *Source Médecins Sans Frontières, Paris, France.*

Mid-Upper Arm Circumference Based Nutrition Programming: Evidence for a New Approach in Regions with High Burden of Acute Malnutrition Sylvie Goossens,¹ Yodit Bekele,¹ Oliver Yun,² Géza Harczy,¹ Marie Ouannes,¹ and Susan Shepherd^{2,*}

Mid-upper arm circumference based nutrition programming: evidence for a new approach in regions with high burden of acute malnutrition. Goossens S, Bekele Y, Yun O, Harczy

Nutritional status of children: validity of mid-upper arm circumference for screening under nutrition. Kumar R, Aggarwal AK, Iyengar SD. Department of Community Medicine, Postgraduate Institute of Medical Education and Research, Chandigarh.

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APPENDIX

Annexure During research

- Register for survey

NUTRITIONAL PROFILE OF CHILDREN UNDER URBAN ICDS PROGRAM {SURAT}														
AWC NO 158 RATAN CHOWK -2, UDHNA YARD , SURAT URBAN -3														
s r n o .	N a m e	Birthday	Age in month	M / F	ht	Measurment						Swelling oedema	H/O in Last two months	
						W T	w t / a g e	w t / h t	h t / a g e	Who chart green/ yellow/ red	M U A C		y e s / n o	measles

- Tool during survey :

Tool during survey :

- Mid upper arm circumference tape:
- Weight scale and height tape:

FOOTNOTES

¹ Each fo
ask authors

² As of 20
footnotes in

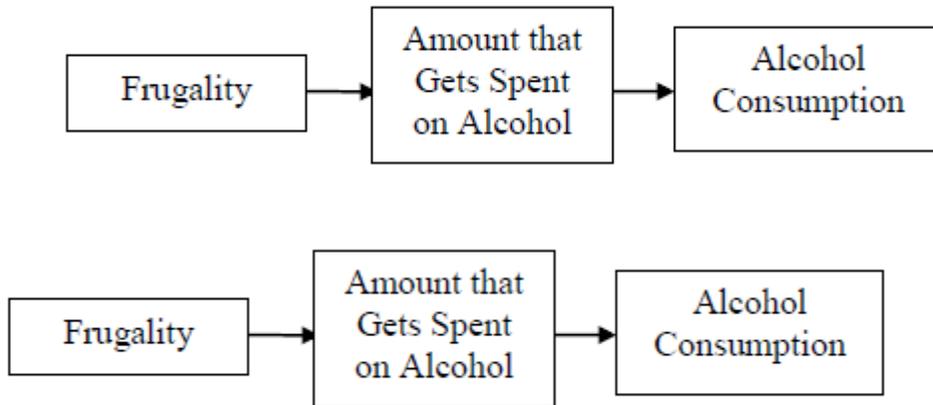


Figure 1. This simple path model, adapted from results in a *Journal of Consumer Behaviour* paper, is an example of a figure.

GROWTH OF NON-OIL SECTORS: A KEY TO DIVERSIFICATION AND ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE IN NIGERIA

Riti, J.S¹, Gubak, H.D² and Dankumo, A.M³

¹ *Department of Economics, University of Jos, Nigeria,* ² *Department of Political Science, University of Jos, Nigeria,* ³ *Department of Economics and Development Studies, Federal University, Kashere, Gombe State, Nigeria*

Abstract

Informed by the monolithic economy since 1980's which has been persistently threatened by the instability in crude oil prices in the international market, government has come to terms with the growing need for economic diversification. This paper examined the growth of Non-oil sectors to act as a key to diversification and performance of the economy. To achieve this objective, we employ the tool of Auto-regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model to estimate both the short run and the long run parameters. The data for the analysis were sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) statistical bulletin and World Development Indicators CD Rom. The unit root test confirmed that the variables have a combination of I(0) and I(1) which justifies the reason for adopting ARDL. The results confirmed the existence of cointegration among the variables. The granger causality results show that agricultural component, manufacturing component and telecommunication component are statistically significant to Granger-caused economic growth at 5 percent significance level. The long run parameters indicate that agriculture and telecommunication components are positively contributing to GDP, manufacturing components turns out negative though significant. This is an indication of un-explorative nature and the neglect of the sector. The Error Correction Mechanism which shows the speed of adjustment from short to long run is negative, statistically significant and hovers around 36.9%. In order to attain the path of growth of the economy, we recommend that the government should realise effective macro-economic policies along with momentous improvements in the structure and functioning systems of governance for stabilising economic growth along with the diversification of the economy and economic reforms towards the development of the non oil sectors.

Keywords: Growth, non-oil sector, diversification, economic performance.

INTRODUCTION

The non-oil sector of the Nigerian economy can generally be described as those groups of economic activities which are outside the petroleum and gas industry or not directly linked to them. These include: telecommunication services; financial sector (banking and insurance) services; tourism service (hotels, restaurants, parks, carnivals, movies; wholesale and retail trade; Health services; export trade; agricultural activities; mineral activities; power (conventional and renewable); Manufacturing; environmental services (cleaning, waste collection and recycling); R&D activities; ICT, etc. (Adulagba, 2011 & Onwualu,

2012). Each of these activities consists of various businesses which engage a large chunk of the population. For instance, Tourism consists of hotels and restaurants, resorts/recreation parks, cultural activities, carnivals, movie industry, arts and crafts, comedy, etc. When viewed from this background, the general assumption that the non-oil sector refers to agricultural and mineral activities is misplaced and makes the assessment of the sector narrow (Onwualu, 2012; Dauda, Asinbo, Akinbode, Saka & Salihu, 2009).

Informed by the monolithic economy since 1980's which has been persistently threatened by the instability in crude oil prices in the international market, government has come to terms with the

growing need for economic diversification. This economic transformation has become necessary to address the challenges of rising unemployment and social crisis by expanding the horizon of employment generating activities especially in the non-oil sector where the potentials remain great and largely unexploited. Government has, at various periods, put in place various policies which have impacted positively on the sector and contributed to the current growth status.

It must, however, be averred that, without the mobilization of long-term savings to support the consolidation of future growth and development, there cannot be any sustainable economic development. Accordingly, to achieve inclusive growth, macro-economic stability and sustainable development of the Nigerian economy, we must begin to de-emphasize the habit of consumption and ostentatious living as a nation (i.e. consuming what we do not produce) and imbibe the culture of savings and wealth creation, based on increased productivity/output, value addition, economic diversification and self-sustenance. We cannot achieve sustainable development as long as the economy depends on just one product. The sole dependence of the economy on crude oil export as the main source of revenue and foreign exchange earner puts the country in a risky position that makes it vulnerable to oil price volatilities. Consequently, there is the urgent need to move away from the present monolithic economy, diversify the country's economic base, within and away from crude oil, and explore other sources of revenue (Onwalu, 2009, 2012).

It is pertinent to note that, while crude oil constitutes only 20 per cent of the country's Gross Domestic Product, it accounts for over 80 per cent of government revenue and 90 per cent of its foreign exchange earnings. What this implies is that, once the global oil market sneezes, the Nigerian economy catches cold! The rapidly changing dynamics and volatility of the oil market has, therefore, underscored the need for rebuilding national fiscal savings. This has become imperative, more so, in view of the recent report that Nigeria may be exposed to potential oil price shock due to the combination of new supplies coming on stream from non-members of the organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, as

well as lower imports from the United States (our largest market). The concomitant effect will be a squeeze on revenues from oil exports. In fact, in the last one month, there has been over 24 per cent decline in the price of oil in the international market. Nigeria is one of the many countries which have long been a mono cultural economy, depending on the exportation of crude oil as its main source of foreign exchange earnings. Unfortunately, many of its citizens still live in poverty in spite of the huge resources from oil (Asuntogun, 1997 & Onuba, 2012).

The need for the diversification of the Nigerian economy from over-dependence on oil to cannot be over emphasized, especially going by the unstable and fluctuating global oil prices in order to minimize the country's vulnerability to macro-economic risks, such as production fall, fall in demand and price, and also a run out of reserves (Olorunfemi & Raheemm, 2008). Although efforts are currently being made by the Nigerian government towards diversifying its economy through other sectors.

Eighty five percent of Nigeria's revenue is derived from oil (Ameh, 2009). Nigeria was a major exporter of cocoa, palm oil, rubber and groundnuts up to the 1960s; but by the year 2000, the economy had become excessively dependent on oil forcing the decline in the agricultural sector. To buttress the dependency of Nigeria on oil, Usman Shamsudeen in (Ameh, 2009) reported that of the N3, 915.56 billion total revenue derived in June 2008, N3, 133.00 billion was derived from oil. In spite of the abundant oil, Nigeria is very poor and this has been attributed to corruption, government mismanagement and failure to diversify the economy [African Review, 2004; Spenceley, 2008]. (Raj, 2002) argued that Nigeria offers largely untapped potentials for other sectors which need to be aggressively pursued. The importance of non-oil sectors to economic growth, national development and poverty reduction cannot be over emphasized (Raj, 2002), and has the potential of providing livelihood strategies for the poor (Tunde, 2012).

For rapid development in the Nigerian context, there is the need to move from the mono-cultural economy in order to put development as explained above at all tiers of government and to be able to measure up with

other nations. In addition to the benefits earlier discussed, Nigeria stands to have better infrastructure and likely reduction in poverty from non-oil sectors development.

A review of the Federal Government revenue profile in the last half-decade showed that oil earnings accounted for over 80.0 per cent of the foreign exchange earnings, while the non-oil sector, despite its improved performance, contributed less than 20.0 per cent (CBN, 2008), thus revealing the extent of the vulnerability of the economy to swings in the price of oil in the international market. The renewed emphasis on the production of alternatives to fossil-fuel energy, such as solar, wind and bio-energy in the advanced economies, would reduce oil demand and further weaken Nigerian earnings. Thus, in the absence of concerted efforts to shore-up and widen the revenue base, there will be reduction in crude oil revenue and excess crude oil receipts savings in the coming years.

The performance of the non-oil export sector in the past three decades leaves little or nothing to be desired, in spite of the efforts to promote non-oil exports in Nigeria. The share of non-oil export in the country's total export earnings has remained very low and it was 1% in 2008 (CBN, 2013). The policy concern over the years has therefore been to expand non-oil export in a bid to diversify the nation's export base (Adedipe, 2004). The diversification of the Nigerian economy is necessary for important reasons. First, the volatility of the international oil market with the attendant volatility of government revenue gives credence to any argument for diversification of exports. Secondly, the fact that crude oil is an exhaustible asset makes it unreliable for sustainable development of the Nigerian economy (Utomi, 2004).

The continued unimpressive performance of the non-oil sector and the vulnerability of the external sector thus dictate the urgent need for a reappraisal of the thrust and contents of the development policies and commitments to their implementation. Indeed, the

need for a change in the policy focus and a shift in the industrialization strategy is imperative, if Nigerian economy is to be returned to the path of sustainable growth and external viability. This raises the question of the role of the non-oil export has in the economic growth of the country and what factors are responsible for the performance/or otherwise of the non-oil sector. This calls for new thoughts and initiatives, which is the essence of this paper. This paper is divided into five sections: Following the introduction in section I is the literature review in section II. Section III takes a look at the potentials, growth and performance of the non-oil sector under different policy regimes. Section IV is the methodology and data analysis. Section V concludes the paper with suggested policy recommendations.

Theoretical Issues

Potentials of the Non-oil Sector

The potentials of the sector are great as shown by the Table 1. For instance, Nigeria has established itself as the largest telecom market in Africa, the tourism industry had an expansive capacity in terms of revenue and employment generation valued in excess of N1tn and it is currently generating about N150bn yearly, with 300,000 workers in its employ (Alabi, 2011). Direct employment in the non-oil export companies alone is estimated at about 200,000 while indirect employment in the agriculture sector which gains from the market linkages provided by the exporting companies is estimated at over ten million(Udoh, 2012).

Table 1: The Potentials of Non-Oil Sectors in Nigeria

S/N	ECONOMIC GROUP	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES
1	Agriculture	Cultivating, harvesting, handling, processing, storage, distribution of various crops(cocoa, oil palm, sesame seeds, groundnut, maize), rearing, processing and distribution of livestock, fishery and domesticated animals.
2	Manufacturing	Various activities in the ten sectors of MAN: Production, packaging, distribution lines, marketing, export line, etc.
3	Environmental Services	Cleaning of offices and homes, urban waste collection and recycling, street cleaning, energy generation from waste, etc.
4	Building and Construction	Metal works, supplies of building materials, block and roofing works, plumbing and electrical, finishing (tiling, paintings, decorations, gardening, etc)
5	Health Activities	Hospitals, Pharmacies, pharmaceutical industries, drug supplies, accessory services(equipment maintenance, equipment supplies, etc)
6	Mineral Activities	Exploration, mining , processing , marketing, mineral testing, transportation, etc
7	Power	Power generation and distribution, meter reading, production and supply of electrical accessories, installations, maintenance, renewable energy investments(solar, wind and hydro) etc
8	Telecommunication Services	Telecommunication engineering services, installations, telephone wholesale and retail services, marketing services, etc
9	Financial Sector	Banking, insurance, installation maintenance , marketing services, transportation, etc
10	ICT	Business centres, corporate communication, defence and security communication, installations and maintenance, satellite services, internet services etc.
11	Wholesale and Retail	Warehouses, major distributors, supermarkets, corner shops, kiosks, open market shops, various forms of retail (mobile trading, internet trading etc)
12	R&D Activities	Contract R&D, market driven R&D, R&D management (commercialization of R&D results, linkage management, fund sourcing consultancy etc.

Source: Adopted from Onwualu (2012).Growth and Development of the Nigerian Non-Oil Sector: Key to Successful Economic Diversification. Presentation at the 51 AGM/Conference of NACCIMA, Sagamu, Remu, Ogun State. www.panafricancapitalplc.com

The Performance of Nigerian Non - Oil Sector under Different Policy Regimes

The Nigerian Government has displayed determination over the years to grow the non-oil sector of the economy by putting in place supportive policies and incentives. These policies have been targeted at encouraging the diversification of the economy. These policies can be categorized into three, namely: Protectionism policy, Trade liberalisation policy and Export promotion policy. To evaluate the growth pattern of the non-oil sector, it is necessary to look at how the non-oil sector has performed under these policy regimes.

Protectionism Policy Era

In the early 1960s and late 1970s, agricultural production was encouraged by the removal of agricultural export and sales taxes and by the increased tariffs on agricultural imports. Agricultural inputs, particularly fertilizers, were subsidized. By 1982, all exports, except cotton and all food crops, were positively protected (Oyejide, A. 1986).

The Pre – SAP era featured an era of import substitution industrialisation. The policies under the era was aimed at expanding the industrialisation-base, enhancement of cash crop exports, encouraging farmers to expand their farms and increase the

production of cash crops with guaranteed external markets by the marketing boards, adjustment in the demands for foreign exchange, introduction of trade barriers (regulation of import licensing and import tariffs) to control imports. The ultimate was to protect domestic industries that were set up to produce import substitutes.

The customs tariff structure was deliberately discriminatory, biased in favour of capital goods and raw materials. Items considered as luxury goods were either put on import prohibition list or had very high import tariffs placed on them. Protectionism ended in 1974 with the removal of restrictions on import. By the Third National Development Plan (1981 – 1985) trade policies were relaxed due to falling oil revenue and decline in foreign exchange.

Trade Liberalisation Policy Era

Trade policies since 1986 have been aimed at liberalization of the economy as well as achievement of greater openness and greater integration with the world economy. The policies thus ranged from abolition of marketing boards, to introduction of the second tier foreign exchange market (SFEM), various export expansion incentive schemes, establishment of the Nigeria Export- Import Bank etc. Thus, in July, 1986, the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was introduced to tackle the problem of imbalances in the economy and thereby pave the way for stable growth and development. The Export Incentive and Miscellaneous Provisions Decree of 1986 were promulgated to encourage exports. As a result of the various policy supports, significant growth was experienced in the agricultural, telecommunication and business sectors (Analogbei, 2000).

Export Promotion Policy Era

The restoration of democracy from 1999 witnessed a rapid transformation of the non-oil sector, following intensified policy support to SMEs to enhance the export of their products.

In all considerations, current government policies are aimed at facilitating the diversification of the economy. One of the incentive policies in this regard has been the Export Expansion Grant (EEG) Scheme, which operates under the legal context provided under the Export (Incentives and Miscellaneous

Provisions) Act 1986. The export grant is given to exporters to cushion the impact of infrastructural disadvantages faced by Nigerian exporters and make our exports competitive in the international market. No incentive has been as effective as the EEG in encouraging exports in the non-oil sector (Adeloye, 2012). The Nigerian Export Promotion Council (NEPC) is responsible for the administration of the policy.

Realizing the importance of the policy in promoting non-oil exports, government subjected the EEG policy to reform in 2006 with technical assistance from international consultants, Price Water House Coopers. The scheme was streamlined to make it more effective by categorizing export products according to their degree of value addition and processing and rewarding those companies which generate higher export growth and new investment in export capacity building (Adeloye, 2012)

Consequent upon these reforms, informed industry position put it that the growth in non-oil exports from \$1billion in 2006 to \$2.3billion in 2010. Following the EEG policy emphasis on value addition, exporting companies embarked on forward integration and made heavy investment in plant and machinery to add value to indigenous commodities. There have been a clear shift towards export of processed and value added products (Adeloye, 2012).

Cocoa Export : Decades ago, Nigeria was known to be an exporter of raw cocoa, but now, Nigeria exports cocoa products, such as cocoa cake, cocoa liquor, cocoa butter and cocoa powder (Adeloye, 2012).

Leather Export: The country banned the export of wet blue (leather in semi-finished stage) almost a decade ago, which led to huge investment in tanneries to export finished leather and recently, articles of leather (Adeloye, 2012).

Cashew Export: From an exporter of raw cashew, Nigeria now exports processed cashew.

Sesame Seed Export: Nigerian de-hulled sesame seeds are now being exported to Japan.

Seafood Export: The industrial trawling industry invested in highly capital intensive trawlers for on-

board processing of wild shrimps and cold chain to embark on export of highly perishable products.

Innovative Exports: One of the most innovative stories has been the export of re-cycled polyester fiber produced in the most environmentally sustainable manner as a result of which Nigeria has become the largest exporter of polyester staple fiber in Africa, destined for European market. The recycling fiber plant in Lagos, according to the NEPC, provides direct and indirect employment to 2,000 Nigerians (Adeloye, 2012).

Exports under African Growth & Opportunity Act (AGOA)

It is interesting to observe how persistent efforts of Nigerian exporting companies have led to the acceptance of their products in some of the highly quality conscious customers and markets. Consider a few examples. Ten years after AGOA (African Growth & Opportunity Act) was passed by USA to allow duty free access to products from sub-Saharan Africa, Nigerian exports seem to have achieved a breakthrough. Today, Nigerian products such as cocoa beans and butter, dried-split ginger, leather, woven sacks and technically specified rubber (TSR) are being exported to the US. Hibiscus flowers are also being exported to USA.

Reform of the Textile Sector: As a result of the Bank of Industry's intervention in the textile industry, the remaining textile mills have embarked on re-tooling of their equipment. Accordingly, some companies, apart from accessing funds for machinery refurbishment and upgrading, have been going for industrial or technical skills upgrade to have some competitive edge. Nigerian textile products, such as cotton textiles comprising wax prints, cotton yarn and fabrics are exported to West and Central Africa and EU (Adeloye, 2012).

Cluster development: A very positive fall out of the non-oil export expansion has been the emergence of export processing clusters. Challawa industrial estate in Kano has emerged as a major export cluster with modern tanneries situated in this zone (Yusuf, 2012).

Annual exports from this industrial zone which also has an integrated textile mills are estimated at over

\$700 million. Likewise, cocoa processing clusters have emerged in south Western part of the country, rubber processing in Sapele in Delta State and large scale shrimp processing in Lagos. The private companies located in these clusters have invested in plant and machinery and infrastructure, almost substituting the role of the government, to meet international quality standards and provide employment to hundreds of thousands directly and indirectly (Yusuf, 2012).

Boosting foreign exchange earnings: Boosting export earnings become even more pertinent today in view of weakening exchange rate of Naira and shrinking foreign exchange reserves. According to an NEPC official who is familiar with the past export trends, "a positive feature of the EEG scheme has been the tendency on the part of exporters to operate through official channels which compliments CBN efforts to discourage the unofficial forex market in Niger (Yusuf, 2012)

These developments have impacted positively on economic indices in recent times. According to the 2012 Economic Outlook Report by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the non-oil sector grew at 9.07% in Q4 2011 higher than the 8.93% recorded in Q4 2010, (Table 2).

The report also stated that the non-oil sector continued to be a major driver of the Nigerian economy in the fourth quarter of 2011. When compared with the corresponding quarter in 2010, the sector recorded 9.07 percent growth in real terms as indicated in figure 1. This growth was largely driven by improved activities in the telecommunications, Building & construction, Hotel & Restaurant, Business services and other sectors. The performance of the major industries in the non-oil sector in the fourth quarter of 2011 is further analyzed to give a better understanding of their contributions to the Nigerian economy (NBS, 2011).

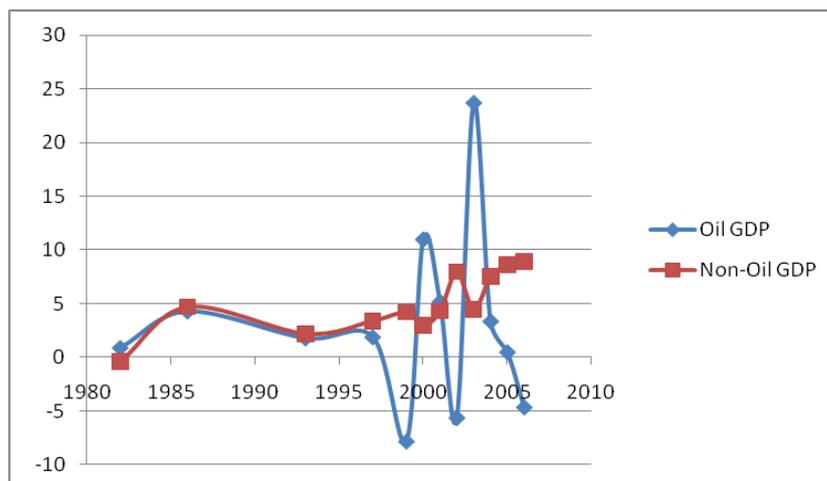


Figure 1.0: Oil and Non-Oil real GDP growth Rate at 2010 constant price

Figure 1.0 shows the trend of oil and non-oil real GDP growth rate. While oil real GDP growth rate has been fluctuating during the period, non-oil real GDP growth rate has been stable. The fluctuation in oil GDP growth is as a result of the dwindling oil prices in the international market.

Table 2.: Contribution to GDP (Selected Sectors) 4th Quarter 2012

S/N	Sector	Contribution to GDP
1	Agriculture	39.49
2	Manufacturing	7.07
3	Telecom/Postal Service	5.6
4	Building and Construction	1.99
5	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas	13.54
6	Real Estate	1.64
7	Solid Minerals	0.34
8	Finance and Insurance	2.92
9	Wholesale and Retail	19.87
10	Business and Other Services	0.81
11	Others	6.22

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2012

Non-oil export earnings by Nigerian exporters rose by 29.7 per cent, to US\$666.5 million from the level in the preceding quarter. The development was attributed largely to the rise in the prices of all the commodities traded at the international commodities market (CBN, 2010).

According to Table 3, the following trends were observed:

Real GDP growth rate : averaged 2.9% in 1993/99, doubled to 6.1% in 2000/2006, 2003/2005 growth rate exceeded the prescribed 6.5% under the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The growth was driven by the non-oil sector, except for 2000 and 2003, during the period, oil GDP growth was lower than aggregate GDP growth.

Non-oil GDP growth, on the other hand, was much higher than aggregate GDP growth, especially for 2002, and 2004/2006.

Table 3: Aggregate and Sectoral Real GDP Growth Rate 1982-2012

Year	Total GDP	Oil GDP	Non-Oil GDP	Agric	Manufacturing	Tel Comm.	Edu	Buss. Other Service
1982/85	-0.4	0.9	-0.4	4.7	-2.0	7.4	2.3	9.5
86/92	4.5	4.3	4.7	5.0	4.0	1.5	2.3	2.6
93/96	2.1	1.8	2.2	3.3	2.4	3.6	1.8	3.7
97/98	2.9	1.9	3.4	4.1	-1.8	5.5	1.7	4.3
1999	2.8	-7.81	4.2	5.3	3.4.	5.2	1.7	19.9
2000	5.4	10.99	3.0	3.0	3.4	6.1	1.6	8.0
2001	4.6	5.2	4.3	3.9	14.48	29.9	1.6	10.0
2002	4.63	-5.61	7.96	4.2	10.09.	13.3	1.6	15.1
2003	9.57	23.70	4.44	6.64	5.66	85.1	7.9	13.1
2004	6.58	3.37	7.50	6.50	10.00	85.0	7.0	26.5
2005	6.51	0.50	8.59	7.06	9.61	85.4	NA	19.8
2006	5.63	-4.63	8.93	7.14	9.51	31.88	NA	7.67
2007	5.98	NA	NA	6.27	8.89	34.67	10.77	10.69
2008	6.96	NA	NA	5.88	7.85	34.73	10.00	9.89
2009	7.98	NA	NA	5.82	7.56	34.83	8.71	9.76
2010	7.42	NA	NA	5.64	7.50	34.96	9.89	10.03
2011	6.58	NA	NA	3.97	7.55	32.09	9.65	10.1923
2012	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: NBS (2010). The Nigerian Statistical Fact Sheets on Economic and Social Development, Abuja (November and CBN (2010) Statistical Bulletin.

According to Table 3, the sectoral growth profile shows two outstanding sectors Telecommunications and Educational Services.

Challenges and Constraints

Onwualu (2009), identifies key impediments to the growth of the non-oil sector as follows :

- Weak Infrastructure – a national challenge
- Supply side constraints – due to low level of technology. This constraint is particularly prominent in the agricultural sector
- Low level of human capital development - general
- Weak Institutional framework - general
- Poor Access to finance – general

METHODOLOGY

Based on the literature reviewed and the theoretical framework, this section is preoccupied with the methodology of the research by formulation of

models to capture the relationship between GDP and non-oil export in Nigeria. The use of Auto Regression Distributed Lag (ARDL) bound testing approach to co integration will be adopted to estimate the parameters and to test the validity of the pollution haven hypothesis. The Co integration and Error Correction framework have proved to be successful tools because it captures the long-run equilibrium relationship as well as short-run variations and dynamics. Data relied upon in this research are purely secondary obtained from the central bank of Nigeria (CBN), National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), World data bank (World Development Indicators). In line with the theoretical framework, the model for the research is:

$$GDPT = \beta_0 + \beta_1AGR_t + \beta_2MAN_t + \beta_3TEL + \epsilon_i \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where GDPT – Real Gross Domestic Product at

AGR_t - Agricultural component of Non Oil

MAN_t - Manufacturing component of Non Oil

TELT - Solid Telecommunication component of Non Oil

ϵ_i - Error term

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ – Constants, expected to be greater than zero

Bound Testing Approach

The use of the bounds technique is based on three validations. First, Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001) advocated the use of the ARDL model for the estimation of level relationships because the model suggests that once the order of the ARDL has been recognised, the relationship can be estimated by OLS. Second, the bounds test allows a mixture of I(1) and I(0) variables as regressors, that is, the order of integration of appropriate variables may not necessarily be the same. Therefore, the ARDL technique has the advantage of not requiring a specific identification of the order of the underlying data. Third, this technique is suitable for small or finite sample size (Pesaran, Shin and Smith, 2001).

Following Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001), we assemble the vector autoregression (VAR) of order p , denoted VAR (p), for the following growth function:

$$Z_t = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i z_{t-i} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

where z^t is the vector of both x^t and y^t , where y^t is the dependent variable defined as economic growth

(GDPT), x_t is the vector matrix which represents a set of explanatory variables i.e., Agriculture component of non-oil (AGRt), Manufacturing component of non-oil (MANt) and telecommunication component of non-oil (TELT) and t is a time or trend variable. According to Pesaran

Shin and Smith (2001), y_t must be I(1) variable, but the regressor x_t can be either I(0) or I(1). We further developed a vector error correction model (VECM) as follows:

$$\Delta z_t = \mu + \alpha t + \lambda z_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \gamma_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \gamma_i \Delta x_{t-i} + \epsilon_t \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

where Δ is the first-difference operator. The long-run multiplier matrix λ as:

$$\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{YY} & \lambda_{YX} \\ \lambda_{XY} & \lambda_{XX} \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagonal elements of the matrix are unrestricted, so the selected series can be either I(0) or I(1). If $\lambda_{YY} = 0$, then Y is I(1). In contrast, if $\lambda_{YY} < 0$, then Y is I(0).

The VECM procedures described above are imperative in the testing of at most one cointegrating vector between dependent variable y_t and a set of regressors x_t . To derive model, we followed the postulations made by Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001) in Case III, that is, unrestricted intercepts and no trends. After imposing the restrictions $\lambda_{YY} = 0, \mu \neq 0$ and $\alpha = 0$, the GIIE hypothesis function can be stated as the following unrestricted error correction model (UECM):

$$\Delta(GDP)_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1(GDP)_{t-1} + \beta_2(AGR)_{t-1} + \beta_3(MAN)_{t-1} + \beta_4(TELT)_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta(GDP)_{t-i} +$$

Where Δ is the first-difference operator and u_t is a white-noise disturbance term.

Where Δ is the first-difference operator and u_t is a white-noise disturbance term.

Equation (4) also can be viewed as an ARDL of order (p, q, r). Equation (4) indicates that economic growth tends to be influenced and explained by its past values. The structural lags are established by using minimum Akaike’s information criteria (AIC). From the estimation of UECMs, the long-run elasticities are the coefficient of one lagged explanatory variable (multiplied by a negative sign) divided by the coefficient of one lagged dependent variable (Bardsen, 1989). The short-run effects are captured by the coefficients of the first-differenced variables in equation (4).

After regression of Equation (4), the Wald test (*F*-statistic) was computed to differentiate the long-run relationship between the concerned variables. The Wald test can be carry out by imposing restrictions on the estimated long-run coefficients of economic growth, agricultural component, manufacturing component and telecommunication component. The null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:

$$H_0 = \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = 0 \quad (\text{no long-run relationship})$$

Against the alternative hypothesis

$$H_0 \neq \beta_1 \neq \beta_2 \neq \beta_3 \neq \beta_4 \neq 0 \quad (\text{a long-run relationship exists})$$

The computed *F*-statistic value will be evaluated with the critical values tabulated in Table CI (iii) of Pesaran, Shin and Smith. (2001). According to these authors, the lower bound critical values assumed that the explanatory variables x_t are integrated of order zero, or I(0), while the upper bound critical values assumed that x_t are integrated of order one, or I(1). Therefore, if the computed *F*-statistic is smaller than the lower bound value, then the null hypothesis is not rejected and we conclude that there is no long-run relationship between economic growth and its determinants. Conversely, if the computed *F*-statistic is greater than the upper bound value, then economic growth and its determinants share a long-run level relationship. On the other hand, if the computed *F*-statistic falls between the lower and upper bound values, then the results are inconclusive.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The standard Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test was exercised to check the order of integration of these variables. The results obtained are reported in Table 1. Based on the ADF test statistic, it was initiated that out of four variables, 2 have unit root i.e., AGRt and MANt, while GDPt and TELt are I(0) variable. Noticeably, the mixture of both I(0) and I(1) variables would not be possible under the Johansen procedure. This gives a good justification for using the bounds test approach, or ARDL model,

which was proposed by Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001).

Table 1: Unit Root Estimation

Level	1st Difference			
	Variables	Constant	Constant and Trend	Constant and Trend
TELt	-2.9526(0)	-3.4991(0)	-8.6878*(1)	-8.6057*(1)
MANt	-5.0049*(0)	-4.9394*(0)	9.5337*(0)	-9.4099*(0)
AGRt	-2.3299(0)	-3.0208(0)	3.0680*(1)	3.3842**(1)
GDPt	-3.8371*(0)	-4.4103*(0)	7.4048*(0)	-7.3656*(0)

Note: The null hypothesis is that the series is non-stationary, or contains a unit root. The rejection of the null hypothesis is based on MacKinnon (1996) critical values. The lag length are selected based on SIC criteria, this ranges from lag zero to lag two. *, ** and *** indicate the rejection of the null hypothesis of non-stationary at 1%, 5% and 10% significant level, respectively.

The estimation of Equation (4) using the ARDL model is reported in Table 2. Using Hendry’s general-to-specific method, the goodness of fit of the specification, that is, *R*-squared and adjusted *R*-squared, is 0.634 and 0.557 respectively. The robustness of the model has been definite by several diagnostic tests such as Breusch- Godfrey serial correlation LM test, ARCH test, Jacque-Bera normality test and Ramsey RESET specification test. All the tests disclosed that the model has the aspiration of econometric properties, it has a correct functional form and the model’s residuals are serially uncorrelated, normally distributed and homoskedastic. Therefore, the outcomes reported are serially uncorrelated, normally distributed and homoskedastic. Hence, the results reported are valid for reliable interpretation.

Table 2: Estimated Model Based on Equation (4)

Dependent Variable: Log (GDP)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	P-value
LOG(AGRt(-1))	1.59123*	0.257471	7.60905	0.0000
LOG(MANt(-1))	-1.056637*	0.12642	-8.35805	0.0000
LOG(TELt(-1))	0.025288	0.03899	0.64854	0.5170
C	10.90411*	2.154773	4.551836	0.0000
DLOG(GDPt(-1))	0.132289	0.273917	0.480000	0.6290
DLOG(AGRt)	0.513341*	0.083216	6.1700	0.0000
DLOG(AGRt(-1))	0.008599	0.215992	0.04000	0.9680
DLOG(MANt)	0.451925	0.043941	1.03000	0.3130
DLOG(MANt(-1))	-0.203976**	0.088077	-2.3200	0.0210
DLOG(TELt)	0.0723181**	0.026395	2.7400	0.0110
DLOG(TELt(-1))	0.1032908**	0.041519	2.4900	0.0130
ECM(-1)	-0.3561213*	0.1323115	-2.6900	0.0070

Model criteria / Goodness of Fit:

R-square = 0.636; Adjusted R-square = 0.557; Wald F-statistic = 8.05 [0.0000]*

Diagnostic Checking:

JB = 0.1097 [0.9466]; LM-1 = 1.154 [0.3117]; LM-2 = 0.450 [0.503]; LM-3 = 0.491 [0.691]; ARCH (1) = 0.1567 [0.8558]; ARCH-2 = 0.0503 [0.9511]; ARCH-3 = 0.1122 [0.9455]; White Heteroskedasticity = 1.2271 [0.1710]; Ramsey RESET = 1.3794 [0.1800]

*, ** and *** indicate significance at 0.01, 0.05 and 0.10 level respectively. Probability values are quoted in square brackets. MA and ARCH denote LM-type Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM and ARCH test, respectively, to test for the presence of serial correlation and ARCH effect. JB and RESET stand for Jarque-Bera Normality Test and Ramsey Regression Specification Error Test, respectively.

In Table 3 the results of the bounds co-integration test demonstrate that the null hypothesis of against its alternative is easily rejected at the 1% significance level. The computed F-statistic of 8.052 is greater than the lower critical bound value of 3.74, thus indicating the existence of a steady-state long-run relationship among GDPt, AGRt, MANt and TELt.

Table 3: Bounds Test for Co integration Analysis

Critical value	Lower Bound Value	Upper Bound Value
1%	4.29	5.61
5%	3.69	4.89
10%	2.72	3.77

Note: Computed F-statistic: 8.052 (Significant at both 0.01 and 0.05 marginal values).Critical Values are cited from Pesaran, Shin and Smith (2001), Table CI (iii), Case 111: Unrestricted intercept and no trend.

The estimated coefficients of the long-run relationship between GDPt, AGRt, MANt and TELt are expected to be significant, that is:

$$\log(GDP)_t = -10.9041 + 1.9591 * \log(AGR)_t - 1.0566 * \log(MAN)_t + 0.0253 \log(TEL)_t, \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Equation (4) and Table 4 indicates that both agricultural component and telecommunication components have a positive impact on economic growth. Manufacturing component however has a negative impact on growth due to the neglect of the sector over the years. If there is one percent increase in agricultural and telecommunication components, economic growth increases by 1.959 percent and 0.025 percent respectively. This analysis demonstrates that, in the long-run, both components contribute to the growth of Nigerian economy, as both variables are positive and significant effect on economic growth over a period. The analysis is also

supported by the significant value of the long run OLS estimates after first difference. The estimates confirmed the significant contributions of agricultural components and telecommunication components. The coefficient of manufacturing component shows that a 1 percent increase in manufacturing component, economic growth decreases by 1.06 percent. This is owing to the non diversification of the economy which led to the negative impacts of the sector to the economy.

Short Run Dynamics and Error Correction Model

The short run dynamics among the variables are explored by employing vector error correction mechanism (VECM). Error correction model allows the introduction of previous disequilibrium as independent variables in the dynamic behavior of existing variables. Table 2 presents the short run dynamic relationship and the set of short run coefficients in the vector error correction model. VECM associates the changes in real economic growth (GDP) to the change with the other lagged variables and the disturbance term of lagged periods. The coefficient of the speed of adjustment is negative and statistically significant at 5 percent. This shows that there is 35.6 percent point adjustment taking place each year towards the long run periods. From table 2, the past year of GDP impacted positively on the current GDP, however the relationship between past GDP and the current is inelastic, therefore, an increase in the past year GDP causes current GDP to increase by 0.132 units. Considering agricultural component, the immediate past records of agricultural component had a positive impact on economic growth due to the fact that apart from oil, agriculture contributes significantly to the economy. And agriculture was the main stay of Nigerian economy prior to the discovery of oil. Therefore a large chunk of the population especially in the rural areas still depends on agriculture. Also the immediate past record of manufacturing component had a negative impact on economic growth. This shows that as manufacturing component increases economic growth also decreases. This is a pure indication of unexploration of the manufacturing sector. The past records of telecommunication component had a positive impact on GDP and significant at 5%. This is owing to the fact that the potentials of service sectors through the inflow of telecommunications in Nigeria has been explored and utilized over the years.

Table 4: Long-Run Elasticities and Short-Run Causality of Economic Growth in Nigeria: Based on Equation (4)

1. Long-Run Estimated Coefficient

Variable	Coefficient
LOGAGRt	1.5919*
LOGMANt	-1.0566*
LOGTELt	0.0253

Table 4 (II). Short-run Causality Test (Wald Test F-statistic):

ΔGR_t	ΔMAN_t	ΔTEL_t
2.9821**	3.4794**	2.8411**
(0.0472)	(0.0284)	(0.0548)

*, ** denote significant at 1% and 5% level. Figures in brackets refer to marginal significance values.

The dynamic short-run causality among the relevant variables is shown in Table 4 (II), Panel II. The causality effect can be acquired by restricting the coefficient of the variables with its lags equal to zero (using Wald test). If the null hypothesis of no causality is rejected, then we wrap up that a relevant variable Granger-caused economic growth. From this test, we initiate that the independent variables i.e. agricultural component, manufacturing component and telecommunication component are statistically significant to Granger-caused economic growth at 5 percent significance level. To sum up the findings of the short-run causality test, we conclude that causality running from agricultural component, manufacturing component and telecommunication component to economic growth respectively.

Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

This paper has estimated the contribution of non oil sectors performance on economic growth of Nigeria with the view of diversifying the economy for an all inclusive growth, using time series data from 1981-2013 by employing Bound Testing approach. The analysis demonstrates that in the long-run, both agricultural component and telecommunication component increase economic growth by almost 1.959 percent and 0.025% respectively. While in the short-run, the results indicate uni-directional causality from all the independent variables (AGRt, MANt and

TELt) to Granger-caused economic growth (GDP). It is manifest that economic growth is sensitive to changes in the independent variables.

However the result shows only small marginal contribution to GDP and even negative contribution of manufacturing component to GDP due to the over reliance on oil while neglecting the other sectors of the economy. In addition the volatility of the international oil market with the attendant volatility of government revenue gives credence to any argument for diversification of the economy couple with the fact that crude oil is an exhaustible asset makes it unreliable for sustainable development of the Nigerian economy. Therefore, the government should realise effective macro-economic policies along with momentous improvements in the structure and functioning systems of governance for stabilising economic growth along with the diversification of the economy and economic reforms towards the development of the non oil sectors. To achieve inclusive growth, macro-economic stability and sustainable development of the Nigerian economy, we must imbibe the culture of savings and wealth creation, based on increased productivity/output, value addition, economic diversification and self-sustenance. Other recommendations include the following:

1. Review and strengthen existing policies and incentives to support the growth of the non-oil sector.
2. Improve the current state of infrastructures since the operation of SMEs which constitute the bulk of the non-oil sector of the economy rely on steady supply of electricity.
3. Allocate sufficient budget to R&D since innovation and competitiveness of the sector depends on it.
4. Consider the introduction of a special stimulus package to encourage investments in the non-oil sector of the economy, with particular emphasis on the mineral and tourism sectors where huge capital requirement has continued to discourage investment

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AGE-RELATED TRENDS IN VALUE OF GENERAL HEALTH, SELF-EFFICACY, AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Dissanayake, M. P., Jayathungage, A. I., Rupasinghe, P. D., Samarasinghe, H. L.,
Ellawala, A., Gunawardene, N. N. and Vidanagamage, M.

South Asian Institute of Technology and Medicine

Abstract

Health is a vital aspect of one's life. The purpose of this study was to assess the relationships between age, value of general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction. Also, it aimed to examine the relationship between value of general health and life satisfaction and the mediating role of self-efficacy in this relationship. In this study, 164 Sri Lankans completed four self-report measures. The variables were value of general health, self-efficacy, and satisfaction with life. Findings suggested that value of general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction increased with age. Results further revealed that self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between value of general health and life satisfaction.

Keywords: Age, valuing general health, self-efficacy, life satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

Health is a vital aspect of one's life and happiness. According to the biopsychosocial model, health and illness are products of three major factors: biological, psychological, and social factors (Aspinawall & Franco Durán, 1999). Research has suggested that psychological factors (e.g. beliefs, attitudes, emotions, and thoughts) impact on unhealthy behavior patterns (Schneiderman, 2004; Aspinawall & Franco Durán, 1999). For example, certain beliefs about health may influence individuals' behavior and lifestyle. Research has found a significant relationship between health beliefs and health behaviors (Al-Eisa & Al-Sobayel, 2012). These beliefs may influence on individuals' behaviors that are aimed to prevent or detect illness (Aspinawall & Franco Durán, 1999).

When people consider their health as the most important component in their lives they may be more concerned about their health and may take special care of it. They may also pay special attention to their health and think about it more frequently. Their beliefs and perceptions of health may guide them to make important decisions about it. For example,

certain beliefs or perceptions may motivate individuals to engage in healthy behaviors and thereby increasing overall happiness or life satisfaction.

Self-efficacy has been identified as an important factor in health promotion (Wu, Tang, & Kwok, 2004; Aspinawall & Franco Durán, 1999), individuals' future health behaviors and health behavior change (Holloway & Watson, 2002). Research has also revealed a significant relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and mental health (Bavojdan, Towhidi, and Rahmati, 2011). One's belief in his or her ability to execute certain actions may encourage individuals to practice behaviors that promote health. Individuals may engage in health behaviors such as having a balanced diet, getting regular physical activity, getting the right amount of sleep, and engaging in enjoyable leisure activities which help improve health.

Life satisfaction can be defined as one's overall appraisal of various aspects of life domains such as interpersonal relationships, health, self-esteem, and career (Suh, Diener, & Oishi, 1998). It has been defined as one of three major facets of subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999;

Corresponding author email: m_dissa1974@yahoo.com

Myers & Diener, 1995). Researchers have identified health as a significant contributor to life satisfaction. Individuals' positive attitudes towards health may guide them to engage in behaviors that increase their life satisfaction.

Individuals gain more life experiences as they age and therefore, their perceptions, beliefs, values in relation to various aspects of their lives can be changed. For example, individuals may be more concerned about their health as they increasingly live with risk factors, particularly as they age. Therefore, they may tend to value their health even more and may take more definitive steps to maintain a healthy lifestyle. Additionally, research has revealed that beliefs such as self-efficacy seem to influence various aspects of elders' lives particularly (Hsien Chang, Crogan, & Wung, 2007). Further, self-efficacy appears to be a significant predictor of mental health of elders (Singh, Shukla, & Singh, 2010).

Further, people in different age groups tend to perceive their lives differently and they tend to focus on different life goals based on the way they perceive the time left in their lives (Carstensen, Fung, & Charles, 2003; Fung, Carstensen, & Lutz, 1999; Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999; Charles & Carstensen, 1999). For example, when individuals realize that time is limited, their focus shifts toward the present rather than their future. As a result, they search for more emotionally meaningful goals (e.g., deepening their existing social relations) and attempt to gain emotional satisfaction (Carstensen et al., 2003).

This study aimed to examine age-related trends in value of general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction. It further examined the relationship between value of general health and life satisfaction and also the mediating role of self-efficacy in this relationship.

METHOD

Participants

A total of 164 Sri Lankans participated in this study. Their age ranged from 18 to 80 with the mean age of 49 years. They were recruited from clinics and the out-patient department at a private hospital in Sri Lanka and they participated voluntarily in the study.

MATERIALS

General health value scale: Individuals' individuals' perceptions of general health were assessed with the general health value subscale in the Health Belief Model (HBM) (Trankle & Haw, 2009). The scale consisted of four items and they were rated using a 4-point scale. Internal consistency for this scale in previous research was $\alpha = .66$ (Trankle & Haw, 2009). In the current sample, alpha reliability was .61.

Self-efficacy scale: The 10-item Self-Efficacy Assessment Scale (Schwarzer, & Jerusalem, 1995) was used to assess self-efficacy. The items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all true* and 4 = *exactly true*). A study with German, Costa Rican, and Chinese university students has found good reliability for this scale: $\alpha = .84$ for the German version, $\alpha = .81$ for the Spanish version, and $\alpha = .91$ for the Chinese version (Schwarzer, Bäßler, Kwiatek, Schröder, 1997). Reliability in this study was $\alpha = .70$.

Satisfaction with life scale: The five item Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) was used to assess overall life satisfaction of individuals. The items were rated using a 7-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*). Reliability for this scale ranged from .85 to .92 (Kang, Shaver, Sue, Min, & Jing, 2003). Internal consistency in a study with Sri Lankan sample was $\alpha = .74$ (Dissanayake, Halberstadt, Kalat, and Kamble, 2013). In the current study, reliability was $\alpha = .65$.

RESULTS

The present study represents an examination of three aims. First, it aimed to examine the relationship between age and three important variables: value of general health, self-efficacy, and life satisfaction. Second, it examined the relationship between value of general health and life satisfaction. Third, it explored the mediating role of self-efficacy on the link between value of general health and life satisfaction.

The Relationships among Age, Value of General Health, Self-Efficacy and Life Satisfaction

Table 1 shows correlations among four variables— age, value of general health, self-efficacy, and life satisfaction. Value of general health, self-efficacy, and life satisfaction significantly correlated with age.

Value of general health did significantly associate with life satisfaction suggesting that individuals who value their general health tend to be more satisfied with life. Self-efficacy was significantly related to both general health and life satisfaction.

Table 1: Inter-correlations among age, valuing general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction

Measures	Age	Value of general health	Self-efficacy
Value of general health	.19*		
Self-efficacy	.16*	.22**	
Satisfaction with life	.24**	.27**	.44**

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

The Mediating Effect of Self-efficacy on the Link between Value of General Health and Life Satisfaction

A hierarchical regression conducted to determine whether the effect of value of general health on life satisfaction is mediated by self-efficacy, using the steps introduced by Baron and Kenny (1986). Value of general health was a significant predictor of life satisfaction. Also, value of general health was significantly related to self-efficacy (mediating variable). When both value of general health and self-efficacy were entered into the equation predicting life satisfaction, the relationship between value of general health and life satisfaction was reduced ($r = .30$). Thus, the effect of value of general health on life satisfaction was significantly mediated by self-efficacy (see Table 2).

Table 2: Hierarchical Regression Models with Mediating Effect of Self-efficacy on the Link between Value of General Health and Life Satisfaction (n=164)

Predictors	Life Satisfaction		
	B	SE	β
Step 1			
Value of general health	.45	.12	.27***
Self-efficacy			
Step 2			
Value of general health	.14	.05	.22**
Life Satisfaction			
Step 3			
Value of general health	.30	.12	.19*
Self-efficacy	.98	.18	.40***

$R^2 = .08$ for step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .23$ for step 3 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

CONCLUSION

This study focused on the age-related trends in value of general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction. Further, it examined the link between individuals' perceptions about health and satisfaction with life and the mediating role of self-efficacy on this relationship. Findings suggested that value of general health, self-efficacy and life satisfaction increase with age. Individuals tend to value their health with age. As they age, they may become more susceptible to illness. Hence, they may be more concerned about their health and may take care of their health. Also, self-efficacy, one's belief in his or her ability to accomplish a task or be successful in specific situations, seems to increase with age. Studies have revealed that self-efficacy is a significant predictor of mental health of elders and also it significant impacts on different aspects of elders' life particularly their daily activities, physical activities, self-care skills, and life quality (Singh, Shukla, & Singh, 2010; Bavojdan, Towhidi, and Rahmati, 2011). Further, results suggested that individuals seem to become more satisfied with their lives with age.

Next, individuals' perception of general health was a significant predictor of their life satisfaction. That is, individuals who value their health tend to be more satisfied with their lives. Also, self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between individuals' perceptions of general health and life satisfaction. Findings of this study suggest that individuals who value their health tend to believe that they are able to carry out recommended actions or to complete tasks that lead to enhance their health and to experience greater satisfaction with life.

In summary, the endeavors of the present study highlighted the importance of understanding psychological factors that influence well-being and satisfaction. These findings will help individuals understand psychological factors such as perceptions of general health and self-efficacy that contribute significantly to their life satisfaction. Particularly, it will help health professionals encourage individuals to pay more attention to the factors that help them achieve overall well-being.

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