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Enhancement of the Designer Performance in Kitchen Interior Design

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Abstract

The success of the interior designer is measured to the extent the interior designer meets user requirements. As such, the most important factor affecting the performance of the designer, is making evaluations for identifying users correctly and completely at the preliminary preparation stage. Interviews are made with the user at the beginning of the design process with an eye to learn the preferences, lifestyle and expectations thereof. There are several documents which will help the designer to make correct determinations at this stage. The more complete data is obtained by virtue of these documents, which in general have the nature of questionnaire, the higher performance will be achieved by the designer. The objective of the study, in this context, was determined as examination of the documents which were benefited for identifying the features of the user at the preliminary preparation stage by the designer and proposals of the designer made for necessary revisions to obtain complete and accurate data by these documents. The scope of the study is limited only to kitchen design in order to obtain detailed results. Documents related to the identification of the user as to kitchen design was researched in line with the specified scope and objective at the first stage as methodology. At the next stage, all data obtained were examined in a systematic way by comparing and the deficiencies of documents were shown. At the final stage the proposals were made to eliminate the said deficiencies. It will be possible to have the projecting process proceed more accurately and increase the designer performance by using a questionnaire to be created in line with the recommendations made within the context of the study.

Keywords: Performance based design, kitchen interior design, clientquestionnaire, designer performance.

INTRODUCTION

Inevitable necessity of taking the developing and changing conditions in the field of interior design and the implementation thereof into consideration and implementing restructuring works including changes in this direction is a reality which is also addressed in the literature. One of the key concepts of the cited approach is the concept of "performance-based design" and it is inevitable to rethink the entire design process with an integrated view in this direction [1;2].

"Performance" is a measurable phenomenon. According to which criteria an objective is achieved and the level of performance in such achievement are as important as achieving an objective. The issue of how performance can be increased has been one of the main issues dealt with in recent years both by literature and in practice. Models to determine the factors

affecting a particular actor's performance in a certain process are also being developed among works related with performance [1, 2].

Carrying out the preliminary preparation stage fully and correctly is one of the major factors affecting the performance of the designer who is one of the most important actors in interior design and implementation thereof. In order to achieve this process correctly, it is extremely important for the designer to identify the factors he has to take into account most during the creative process. In this context, Arcan and Evci [3] have stated that human being is the measure of everything and indicated that combination of the single actions, which are performed by human beings-who have to be considered most within the design process-in accordance with the requirements thereof, constitute the areas of action and combination of the areas of actions constitute the areas of usage. Accordingly, they emphasize the fact that interior design is realized by regulating the areas of action and the necessary equipment components by proper circulation areas. In other words, the interior space is designed for human beings and the most basic factor for the designers is the user of that area [4].

As such, the most important factor affecting the performance of the designer which is making evaluations for identifying users has to be conducted correctly and completely at the preliminary preparation stage. This is because the success of the interior designer is measured to the extent the interior designer meets user requirements. Sufficient time has to be spared for the interviews carried out in order to determine the cited requirements [5]. Ching [6] emphasizes that users and their actions need to be taken into account with an eye to understand the function of the interior space in the best and most accurate way and to meet the requirements related thereto. Stephenson and Stephenson [7] also supports all these ideas and state that the designer may have valuable ideas at the starting point but these ideas will have no value if they are not in line with the users' budgets, personalities, lifestyles and habits [2].

For all these reasons, preferences and expectations of the user are learned by discussing therewith at the beginning of the design process. In addition, decisions are taken by discussing on the structural and economic problems. There are several documents which will help the designer to make correct determinations as to the features the user at this stage. The more complete data is obtained by virtue of these documents, which in general have the nature of questionnaire, the higher performance will be achieved by the designer.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The objective of the study, in this context, is determined as examination of the documents which are benefited for identifying the features of the user at the preliminary preparation stage by the designer and proposals for necessary revisions to obtain complete and accurate data by these documents. The scope of the study is limited only to kitchen design in order to obtain detailed results. Documents related to the identification of the user as to kitchen design was researched in line with the specified scope and objective at the first stage as methodology. At the next stage, all data obtained will be examined in a systematic way by comparing and the deficiencies of documents will be shown. At the final stage the proposals will be made to eliminate the said deficiencies.

Examination of Documents Benefited in Identifying Users Regarding Kitchen Design

Literature and practical application resources were researched to determine the documents utilized for user requirements in kitchen interior design at the first stage [3;5; 6; 7; 8; 9; 10; 11;

12; 13; 14; 15; 16; 17; 18; 19; 20; 21; 22; 13; 24; 25; 26; 27; 28; 29; 30]. A total of 83 questions in 25 different resources were reached basing on the results of these researches (Table 1).

Table 1. Questions for determining user requirements in kitchen interior design

No	Questions for User Recognition
1	In what form is the timeline (start and end date of work, exceptions)?
2	What is the budget?
3	What is the type of project (renewal of the current situation/new construction)?
4	What is the scope of the project (such as only renewal of the kitchen furniture and changing the surface coating and etc.)?
5	Is it required to replace or to completely eliminate an existing structural feature of the space?
6	When was the residence built?
7	When was the existing kitchen constructed?
8	Since when has the residence been used for living?
9	How long is it planned to live more in the residence?
10	Why is there need for a new kitchen?
11	What is the biggest problem of the existing kitchen?
12	What are the things the users are happy with the existing kitchen?
13	What are the things that the users are not happy with the existing kitchen?
14	What is the most important thing for the person who prepares the meals in the kitchen?
15	What is the request as to the relations of the kitchen with the adjacent spaces?
16	Is it requested to enlarge the kitchen?
17	What is the request as to the appearance of the kitchen and feeling it has to create?
18	What is the number of people using the residence?
19	What is the social status of the people using the residence?
20	What are the ages of the people using the residence?
21	Are there children people using the residence? How old are they?
22	What are the relations of the people using the residence with each other and what are the specific requirements?
23	What are the anthropometric measurements of the users?
24	Is there a person (s) with physical handicaps?
25	Are there pets? What kind? How many?
26	How many people prepare the meals at the same time in the kitchen?
27	How is the kitchen used? Who use the kitchen most?
28	Who is the person in particular who prepares the meals?
29	Which hand does the person preparing the meal use?
30	Does the person (s) who prepares the meals in the kitchen have specific expectations?
31	Who is the person giving decision as to the kitchen's design?
32	How much time is spent during the day in the kitchen?
33	What are the secondary activities carried out in the kitchen?
34	Will there be a washing machine in the kitchen?
35	Will there be cellar in the kitchen? What is the preferable size of it?
36	Is a relaxation corner required in the kitchen?
37	Will the child at home use the kitchen for doing his homework?
38	Is an office corner required in the kitchen?
39	Will the kitchen be open to living room?
40	Is the kitchen at the right place of the residence?
41	Is a control system for decorative purposes, protection from sun or for privacy necessary?
42	How important is it for users to see the view outside?
43	How important is natural lighting for users?
44	What are the requirements as to storage area?
45	Is there need for a special storage area for any equipments or food and beverages?
46	What are the stationary or mobile kitchen appliances? How often are they used?
47	How quiet and effectively do the existing devices work?
48	Are there any devices which need to be protected among the existing devices?
49	Are there any furniture which need to be protected among the existing furniture?
50	What kind of kitchen sink is prepared?
51	Is there need for more than one kitchen sink in the kitchen?
52	Is there need for a special fixture?
53	Is there need for more than one dishwasher?
54	Is food waste disposer required?
55	Is food waste compactor required?
56	Is a recyclable food waste system which separates the food waste required?
57	Is there a water filter system in the residence?
58	Is the ventilation system in the kitchen adequate?
59	Is radio or TV required in the kitchen?
60	What kind of accessories is required in the kitchen?
61	Where is the dining area required to be?
62	If it is requested to eat in the kitchen, is it preferred to eat on the kitchen bench or is a separate table requested?
63	How many people do usually eat together in the kitchen?
64	What types of meals are consumed (appetizers, meals which take a long time and etc.)?
65	What kinds of food are cooked?
66	How often is the food shopping made?
67	What types of material and food are bought during grocery shopping?
68	Which door of the house is used after coming from shopping?
69	What kind of fuel is used?

- 70 Which colors are preferred?
- 71 Which colors are not preferred?
- 72 Which colors are required to be in the kitchen?
- 73 Which colors are preferred by the other people who use the residence?
- 74 Which materials are preferred?
- 75 Which style (s) is preferred?
- 76 Is there special furniture, a decorative design element or a work of art that reflects the lifestyle of the user?
- 77 Is it important for users to have a sustainable design?
- 78 Is there a religious belief system which will affect the design?
- 79 Is the kitchen a socializing area for the users of the residence?
- 80 Are entertainments organized often in the residence?
- 81 Are entertainments realized with large groups in the residence?
- 82 Do friends or relatives use the kitchen?
- 83 Will the guests be entertained in the kitchen?

When the distribution of questions used to determine the user requirements as to kitchen interior design listed in Table 1 were examined by resources they were found to be as provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of questions used to determine the user requirements by resources

No	Literature and Practical Application Sources																													
	[3]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[9]	[10]	[11]	[14]	[15]	[16]	[17]	[18]	[19]	[20]	[21]	[22]	[23]	[24]	[25]	[26]	[27]	[28]	[29]	[30]					
1					X				X		X					X					X			X						
2				X	X				X	X	X	X				X		X			X			X	X	X				
3									X	X																				
4				X								X				X		X		X	X									
5				X								X																		
6									X							X			X		X					X				
7									X											X	X									
8																X					X									
9																X														
10							X										X			X	X	X		X	X					
11								X																						
12					X	X	X	X	X				X			X			X	X	X	X								
13					X	X			X				X			X			X	X	X	X								
14									X																					
15				X					X																					
16									X																					
17		X		X		X			X	X							X				X				X					
18	X		X	X					X	X					X				X	X	X			X						
19	X								X												X			X						
20	X		X		X														X	X	X									
21	X												X																	
22	X														X	X														
23	X			X											X				X					X						
24	X			X	X				X	X			X																	
25									X	X			X			X			X		X									
26					X			X	X	X									X		X	X	X	X						
27								X																						
28													X							X	X			X						
29				X					X				X		X						X									
30																					X									
31					X				X		X																			
32		X			X				X	X						X														
33		X	X		X	X			X	X			X		X	X			X		X			X	X					
34		X											X											X						
35													X											X						
36		X																												
37		X																												
38														X																
39														X																
40														X																
41																			X											
42									X																					
43									X										X											
44					X	X		X	X						X						X	X	X							
45					X	X			X				X			X			X		X	X								

46		x		x	x	x		x			x	x		x
47								x						
48													x	
49					x									
50						x				x				
51													x	
52													x	
53													x	
54													x	
55													x	
56					x	x		x						
57						x		x						
58								x						
59	x							x						
60						x								
61	x				x	x		x			x	x	x	x
62													x	
63													x	
64					x	x		x			x			
65		x											x	
66						x								
67						x		x	x					
68								x						
69					x								x	
70	x	x			x	x			x	x	x		x	x
71						x			x	x			x	x
72	x					x			x				x	
73						x								
74			x	x		x				x	x		x	x
75		x					x	x	x		x	x	x	x
76									x					
77					x					x		x	x	
78									x					
79						x								
80				x	x	x			x			x		x
81														x
82								x						
83	x							x			x			

When the data in Table 2 were evaluated, it was observed that the questions used for user identification were in different number in different documents. For example; Beamish et al. [14] used 33 questions while Alonso [10] used 10 questions and Sweet [19] used only 3 questions and they made their evaluations on the basis of these questions. In other words, it can be observed that the structures of these documents used for the same purpose are different to obtain different levels of information.

The space has to be analyzed in terms of function and comfort as a priority in order that the designer has a high performance. To this end, the most essential requirement is to design all the components of the space in accordance with the user's anthropometric dimensions. For example, maximum reaching height is completely different for a 1.52 cm tall female user and 1.85 cm tall male user. Hence, the first question required for identifying the user is "What is the anthropometric measurements of the users?" However, when the existing documents were examined, it was found that this question is discussed only in Stephenson and Stephenson (1960); Arcan and Evcı [3]; Dave Fox [24] and JRL Kitchen Design [28]. Furthermore, the answer to be given to this question can vary according to the nature of the action to be performed. However, there is no information describing the nature of the action in the existing documents.

Considering all the data obtained in this study, it was found that there were 84 questions in total in documents benefited from in order to identify the user. However, it has been

determined that even Beamish et al. [14] who had the most evaluation questions used only 33 of them. In other words, 51 different questions which would help to identify the user more was ignored in this resource.

When the 84 questions listed in Table 1 was observed, it was seen that most of them had the nature to make receiving clear and accurate answers difficult. For example, the most likely answer to be given by the user to the question of "Which colors are desired to be in the kitchen?" will be light green, dark caramel, orange, and etc. However, it has very less possibility that the light green or dark caramel envisaged by the designer and the user will be the same color. A failure to be made at this stage may result in emergence of undesired consequences in terms of user satisfaction. In other words, there is not a structure which provides common language of the designer and the user in the existing documents.

When the questions related to the identification of users in Table 1 were examined it can be observed that there are no questions regarding equipments inside the cupboards. As a matter of fact, these types of equipments are the most important components that increase the functionality of the kitchen.

It is thought that all these determined deficiencies make the identification of the user in sufficient level and accurately hard. Therefore, in the next phase of the study recommendations will be provided for the elimination of such deficiencies.

Recommendations for Elimination of Deficiencies in Documents Benefited for Identifying Users Regarding Kitchen Design

It is recommended to create questionnaire by taking into consideration all of the 84 different questions listed in Table 1 in order to obtain more accurate and sensitive data by the documents utilized in order to identify the user regarding kitchen design. Furthermore, the question of "What is the anthropometric measurements of the users?" which is one of the most important questions among these questions should be able to be answered by taking into consideration the actions to be performed within the space. In other words, the issue of "which measures should be taken for what actions" must be defined in the questionnaire.

It is recommended that the questions in the questionnaire to be created must be in nature to ensure the receipt of clear and accurate answers. As in the color example provided hereinabove when the question of "What are the colors desired to be in the kitchen?" is answered, the user must select the color from a color chart instead of telling the name and the tone of the color.

When the questionnaire is created, questions that will allow receipt of users' view to determine the equipments to be used in the cupboards in the kitchen must be provided in the questionnaire. For example, it should be asked which storage system the user would prefer among the storage systems which turn fully, three-quarter or half in corner cabinets or the storage systems which can go out fully when the lid is opened.

RESULTS

It will be possible to have the projecting process proceed more accurately and increase the designer performance by using a questionnaire to be created in line with the recommendations made within the context of the study.

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Developing a Legal, Ethical, and Socially Responsible Mindset for Business Leadership

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Abstract

One of the main responsibilities of educators is to prepare the future leaders for our communities and society so they can think of the legal, ethical, social, and environmental consequences of their decisions as managers and professionals. In other words, these future leaders must become great forecasters of the impact of their decisions, strategic choices and actions before they execute them. In order to instill ethical values in the minds of future business leaders, it is best to regularly and continuously socialize them with ethical and sustainability expectations from the outset. As such, this article proposes that educators should begin inculcating students through a mandatory “ethics” orientation at the beginning of their studies. Therefore, in this paper, the authors present an overview of an actual ethics orientation program for graduate students along with the overall benefits of it. Relevant recommendations and suggestions are provided for administrators, educators, and curriculum coordinators.

Key words: Ethics orientation, social responsibility, sustainability, business leaders, MBA Program, graduate students.

INTRODUCTION

A fundamental responsibility of a graduate school of business is to prepare the students for leadership roles in business as managers, entrepreneurs, and executives (Amman, Kerrets

Makau, Fenton, Zackariasson, Tripathi, 2012). A fundamental responsibility of a business leader today is to be cognizant of, and be able to handle, not only the legal, but also the ethical, social, and environmental responsibility ramifications of business decision-making. As such, “we can define the responsible manager as a manager who is not anymore irresponsible... (but) open to his/her surroundings, a sense of citizenship, close to his/her co-workers but able to handle economic measures: in short, s/he has a polymorphous profile, hence a complex one” (Fray and Soparnot, 2010, p. 127). Accordingly, one efficacious method to help prepare business students to fulfill these leadership responsibilities is to require the students to attend a mandatory “ethics” orientation at the beginning of their graduate studies. Although ethics would be the heart of the orientation, legal, social, and environmental responsibility aspects to business leadership would be presented and explicated too. The relationship between law, ethics, as well as social and environmental responsibility to “sustainability,” would also be addressed. The authors would suggest that such the ethics component of the orientation be called, as per the title to this article, “Developing a Legal, Ethical, and Socially Responsible Mindset for Business Leadership.” Such an “ethics” orientation would examine the values of law, ethics, social responsibility, and sustainability in a modern global business context. The focus, of course, would be on ethics. The presenters would emphasize that these values will not only be discussed in a discrete orientation, but also will arise and be addressed in several of their other courses; that is, legal, ethical, and social responsibility issues should be covered and analyzed in certain other courses too. Most importantly, the presenters should underscore that these values – law, ethics, and social responsibility – are not merely “academic” issues, but “real-world” concerns for the business leader.

Henry Mintzberg explains in his book (2004, p.10), *Managers not MBAs*, that “management is not a science. Management is more art, based on insight, vision and intuition.” The graduate students must be told that their very presence in the business school, and their status as graduate students, are very strong indicators that they will be the future business leaders. And that being a leader means that one has rights, but also responsibilities, including those obligations based on societal expectations as to the proper conduct of business. As such, ‘a responsible manager is not limited to the ‘ecologist’ connotation perceived sometimes when sustainable development is evoked, but includes ethical notions of social responsibility and corporate social and environmental responsibility, sustainable development (in its entirety), long-term performance, social responsible investments, equity, diversity, management in complexity’ (Kedge Business School, 2010, on-line edition).

The orientation outlined and explicated in this article is based on an orientation for new graduate students conducted at the authors’ school – The H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship (Huizenga School) of Nova Southeastern University in Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, United States of America. Although the orientation was not mandatory, the new students were strongly advised to attend. The orientation was so successful that the Huizenga School had made it mandatory for graduate business students to attend either physically or “virtually” by video-conference. The orientation would be video-taped too for those students who were unable to participate in either format. The orientation originally was called SWIM, which stands for Semi-annual, Workshop, Insights from Faculty, and Mingling with Peers (and to further explain the title: the University’s “nick-name” is the “Sharks”; and thus the presence of the (ever-present, and seemingly omnipresent) “fish” and “water” theme. The readers of this article naturally can create their own titles for the orientation and the ethics component thereof.

The general orientation would commence with a welcome and inspirational message from a high level administrator at the school of business, typically the dean or associate or assistant dean of graduate business studies. At the authors' school, our dean officiated the orientation as the initial welcoming speaker. The dean or his or her representative would then turn the orientation over to the ethics presenter, who typically would be a faculty member with interest, experience, knowledge, and skills in the fields of ethics, social responsibility, and sustainability, especially applied ethics. The presenter need not be an attorney as the essence of the orientation would be ethics and applied ethics; accordingly, any professor in any discipline with the requisite ethics, social responsibility, and sustainability background could be, and should be, a presenter. After the basic introductions and another brief welcome to the university and school of business, the ethics component to general orientation would commence in a substantive manner with an overview of presentation, the purposes of presentation, and introduction of case study for ethical analysis and discussion during the orientation.

Pertaining to the case study, the authors would suggest that due to the limitations of time, the case study be a "case study light" (for example, a 3-4 page compendium, summary, and synthesis of newspaper articles on a recent merger, such as Staples and Office Depot or the Kraft and Heinz merger, with a brief explication of the applicable law included for legal analysis, which would be the merger test in the Clayton Anti-trust Act of 1914 for the preceding mergers). The case study, moreover, should be one where several stakeholders are affected directly or indirectly (like the aforementioned mergers). The case study should have Discussion Question too. The Discussion Questions should encapsulate, reinforce, and effectuate analysis of the core values of the presentation. Accordingly, using the example of one of the aforementioned mergers, the Discussion Questions should be: 1) Is the merger legal based on the law? 2) Is the merger moral based on ethics (and, as will be seen, four major ethical theories should be utilized in making the moral determinations)? 3) What should a "socially responsible" merged company be doing for its stakeholders, including the local communities where it does business and society as a whole? 4) How does this merger contribute to the sustainability of the merged companies and their stakeholders and society as a whole? The case study should be one that involves a current, controversial, narrowly focused topic, involving business, of course, as well as one that has legal, ethical, and social responsibility ramifications. Moreover, as emphasized, the case study should be based on a subject matter that has consequences for many stakeholder groups, including the environment and society as a whole. A large merger, like the aforementioned examples, would be excellent for stakeholder analysis. The case study could be given to the students at the beginning of the orientation so they could refer to it during the ethics presentation. The case study could be used as the basis for a group or team work exercise, which would bring in those important areas for business leaders too. Or the case study could be used as part of a "working lunch" for discussion purposes by groups of students sitting at their lunch tables. Furthermore, at each table, after the analysis of the case, the students could select a group leader who would report to the assembled students, faculty, and administration the conclusions made by that particular group of students, thereby engendering some comparative analysis and even more discussion. Of course, it must be pointed out to the students that in their formal classes they will confront more academically traditional case studies, which would be much more factual, complex, involved, and sophisticated; yet the students must be informed that the analytical approach will be the same, that is, reasoning to conclusions from principles, theories, models, and formulas. That is, the students will reason from legal principles to legal conclusions, from ethical principles to moral conclusions, and from definitions of social responsibility and

sustainability to those conclusions. The case study work will thus enhance the students' critical thinking and problem-solving capabilities.

The authors, moreover, would suggest that the ethics component of the orientation would be for a morning session, right after the welcome by the dean, next followed by a faculty panel, and then followed by lunch; and then the rest of the day would be concerned with the more "nuts and bolts" aspects of being a graduate business student, such as citation styles, library resources and how to find and use them, technology resources, and registration and financial aid issues. The faculty panel, composed of three or four faculty members and a moderator, would consist of at least an hour long session, called "Expectations for Graduate Business Students," wherein the faculty panel members could set forth their own and the overall faculty's expectations of the students as graduate students at the school. One topic that particularly should be raised is how graduate school work differs from undergraduate work. This "expectations" element should be conducted in the morning session right after the ethics component to the orientation; and the ethics presenter, though not necessarily sitting in with the panel, should sit close by and be prepared to provide his or her thoughts and advice to the students. In this "expectations" component, the students would learn the faculty expectations of the students as graduate students compared to undergraduates. For example, time-management issues and the nature (and at times challenges) of group work should be discussed and illustrated by the faculty. Most importantly, the faculty members on the panel must emphasize that the faculty, as well as administration and staff, want the students to succeed at the school and then in their business careers; and as such the faculty members at the school are all there to help the students. So, the faculty panel must encourage the students to seek out the faculty, talk to the faculty, ask questions of the faculty; in essence, to "dig deep" and fully utilize the resources the university and school of business have to offer. Such a faculty panel will naturally be a big help to the students, but also will help the school improve its retention of the students in the program and thus maintain its enrollment.

The goal of the entire orientation, therefore, should continue to be to prepare the students for the "real-world" and to try to ensure the students' success as graduate business students and then as future business leaders. The orientation also will afford the students the opportunity to get to know better some of the faculty and administrators as well as other students for future "study buddy," teamwork, and networking purposes. The goal, therefore, is to have an interesting, challenging, valuable, useful, and fun day!

Ethics at the University and School of Business

Most likely, the first experience of the graduate student at the university and school will be the orientation. Accordingly, the orientation should commence by highlighting the university's Vision, Mission, and Values, so as to "set the stage" for the orientation and the student's academic career at the university (Cavico, Mujtaba, and McFarlane, 2010). For example, at the authors' university, the key values are: Academic Excellence, Student-Centered, Integrity, Innovation, Opportunity, Scholarship and Research, and Community and Diversity (Nova Southeastern University, Vision, Mission, and Core Values, 2015). For the purposes of the orientation, since it is an ethics focused one, the Values of Integrity, Community, and Diversity should be underscored (Nonet, 2013). Similarly, the Vision, Mission, Philosophy, and Principles of the school of business should be mentioned. For the authors' school, the Huizenga School, the emphasis is placed on ethics and integrity, diversity and respect, leadership, and learning "real-world" practical knowledge and skills in order to create value for oneself, family, business, organization, community, and society as a whole (Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship, Vision, Mission, and Principles, 2015). These values are obviously

important, interrelated, and mutually reinforcing; and thus they should be referred to during the course of the orientation. Finally since the focal point to the orientation is ethics, mention should be made of the school's Academic Honesty Policy or Ethics Code and a brief review of the policy should be conducted. However, the discussion of the ethics code should be done in a positive manner by saying that the goal is to create a culture of honesty and integrity at the school (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2009). Yet it also must be pointed out that the school's ethics code is not mere "window-dressing" (Ryan, et al., 2011), but a true policy, "policed" and enforced, and one with sanctions for violations, which policy is taken very seriously by the school. The students also should be told that their professors will review the policy with them in more detail during their first class; and, most importantly, it must be stressed to the students that if they have any doubts as to what is required regarding proper school work, the need and nature of attribution, the extent of permissible collaboration, or any matter arguably coming under the code's precepts and purview, the students always should check with their professors. Of course, it should be emphasized to the students that they must be sure that they "give credit where credit is due"; yet since they are graduate students, they also should be counseled not to over-rely on references, citations, and footnotes. Undergraduate students merely report; whereas graduate students also analyze, comment, criticize, agree or disagree (without being disagreeable) and reason logically from principles to conclusions.

The orientation thus will accentuate, illustrate, and inculcate certain fundamental elements of the core values of the university and school, particularly ethics. Yet another very practical value for the university and school stemming from such an orientation pertains to accreditation (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2009-1). Today, the accrediting bodies, such as the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), and regional accreditors, such as the Southern Association of Colleges (SACS), explicitly and specifically require that certain key standards – legal, regulatory, moral/ethical, social responsibility, and sustainability – be covered (and demonstrably so) in the graduate student's education (Cavico, Mujtaba, and McFarlane, 2010). The orientation contemplated herein certainly would help to demonstrate to the accrediting bodies that these standards are being met. Ideally, in certain other traditional core courses, the professors will build on the ethics presented in the orientation; and as such would incorporate a discrete applied ethics component to their courses, thereby "weaving" ethics (as well as social and environmental responsibility and sustainability) throughout the curriculum. That is, the ethics will not merely be solely for the orientation but will be applied in other courses too, typically in the form of case study analysis of recent controversies involving business. Consequently, experts like Peter Senge of MIT argue that "a shift of mind-a-metanoia is needed that moves management thinking away from the flawed or at least too narrowly construed models currently taught in most business school almost as gospel-towards more holistic, integrated ways of viewing the world-so that those who will lead the world will create a world worth living in" (Waddock, 2007, p. 543). Such a holistic and "weaving" approach would continue the ethical theme introduced in the orientation, which will further benefit the students, of course, but also will materially help the school demonstrate to the accrediting bodies that their accreditation standards are being fully complied with in a theoretical as well as practical manner; and that also ethics is not mere "window dressing" or only a topic for the ethics presentation to be soon forgotten or ignored; rather, ethics is truly one major theme to the school.

Sustainability

Another important value for graduate business students and future leaders and entrepreneurs to be cognizant of is "sustainability," a concept tied to the values of law, ethics, and social and environmental responsibility (Mujtaba, 2014). The most frequently cited definition of

sustainable development was published by the United Nations (Our Common Future, Chapter 2, Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 24): “Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” Sustainability, therefore, is a broad and all-encompassing concept since it can be interpreted as a MEANS (typically in the form of beneficial environmental actions, such as “green” buildings and offices, reducing green-house gasses, and otherwise reducing the firm’s “environmental footprint”) and also as an END (that is, having a sustainable organization, society, as well as a sustainable planet for future generations) (Cavico, 2014).

In fact, sustainability is so important to the authors’ school and university and to the students’ education that the Huizenga School dean hired two global expert “Scholars in Residence” on Sustainability: Drs. Isabel Rimanoczy and Guenola Nonet, who are co-authors on this article. Their goal is to help embed sustainability in the whole university experience, for example: connecting current sustainability champions and initiatives within the school of business and across campus; engaging students (i.e. supporting the creation of a Student Sustainability Group); partnering with the local community (i.e., with Broward County, Florida) on sustainability initiatives as well as the business community (i.e., Chambers of Commerce); faculty development and support as well as collaborative research. To illustrate the links of sustainability and current businesses’ strategies, several programs and courses on sustainability were developed, such as a “Sustainability Lunch Series,” where one of the presentations is the eminently practical “Position Yourself for a Job in the Green Economy” (which surely would command the attention of the job-seeking graduate business student). Sustainability, therefore, needs to be incorporated into the orientation. In the case of the Huizenga School, Dr. Nonet conducted a “Sustainability Scavenger Hunt” with the students after the morning presentations and after the lunch. The exercise also involved library resources and thus afforded the students to get familiar with the library and its resources and personnel. The goal was to incorporate sustainability as part of the ethics presentation and as an additional element of the overall presentation to reinforce sustainability, its relationship to law, ethics, and social and environmental responsibility, and for the students to have some fun “scavenging” academically in groups (as well as encouraging more “mingling” and networking).

Leadership

Leadership is an important theme at Nova Southeastern University and the Huizenga School of Business as it should be, of course, at any university, college, or school. At the graduate level, the students’ previous academic success and their present graduate level status indicate that there is a strong likelihood that they will assume leadership roles in business (as well as the public sector and professions (though the ethics presentation discussed herein, and thus this article, focuses on business context).

In order to explicate the business leader’s mindset, it is first necessary to briefly discuss who exactly a leader and what leadership is. Leadership is “the process of influencing an individual or a group of individuals while providing an environment where personal, professional, or organizational objectives can successfully be achieved” (Mujtaba, 2014, p. 92). Leadership in the modern workplace is the process by which one person exerts influence over one or more individuals in order to motivate and direct their behaviors toward the achievement of pre-determined goals and objectives. The individual or person who exerts any form of influence that guides behavior toward a predetermined objective is considered to be a “leader” (Mujtaba, 2014). Of course, some of these leaders go “above and beyond” the exertion of influence and guidance of behavior; these few individuals are also able to achieve the final outcome by

working with, and through, others in an efficient manner. As such, these few leaders are also good managers as they do the “right” things in the “right” manner.

Leadership and sustainability are interdependent concepts for long-term success and both can happen simultaneously as they are not mutually exclusive. Leaders who do not remain leaders for the long-term can be seen as merely “transactional leaders” who would just use punishment and rewards to get what they want. However, such short-term leadership is not sustainable over time since once the penalty and rewards are gone, the expected behavior will also disappear. Furthermore, people perform as the leader expects, not because they believe in the destination, objective, or outcome, but rather they comply to obtain the reward or to avoid a penalty. Consequently, people are likely to be compliant with such transactional leaders, but they will not necessarily have any commitment to the cause or goals, especially longer-term goals such as sustainability.

Transformational or sustainable leadership is thus about effectiveness or doing the “right thing”; whereas management is about efficiency or doing the right thing the right way and with the least amount of resources and in a speedy manner too. As such, these sustainable or transformational leaders would also think like managers to make sure the process of how things get done is efficient in order to be successful but also to reduce the organization’s “footprint on earth.” Accordingly, effective leaders provide a long-term vision and guide others to the right direction for the right reasons, and not necessarily to earn any rewards and benefits. These sustainable and transformational leaders focus on people in the broad sense as well as task-oriented behaviors. First, people-oriented behaviors include showing mutual concern as well as trust and respect for subordinates as well as other stakeholders. Second, task-oriented behaviors include defining and structuring work roles to ensure that everyone follows the stated rules in order to reach his or her performance capacity and meet the established standards. The sustainable and transformational leaders must adapt their behaviors to fit a broad range of individuals, stakeholders, and variables impacting their situations (Mujtaba, 2014). Effective leadership, therefore, is having the right mindset and then adapting one’s behavior to the performance needs of the person or persons as well as other stakeholders of the organization (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 2001).

Effective leaders, moreover, diagnose, adapt, and communicate based on the readiness of their followers in the workforce and other situational variables (Hersey and Campbell, 2004). Dr. Hersey defined a person’s readiness level as one’s ability and willingness to perform the task at hand and this definition considers two types of readiness: job and psychological (Mujtaba, 2014). Knowing a person’s (follower’s) readiness level and effectively adapting one’s leadership behaviors to match the readiness level are important elements in making sure the job gets done successfully. Leaders can and do change their styles depending on with whom they are working. The situational leadership concept is based on the interactive interplay among direction (task behavior) provided by the leader, the socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) provided by the leader and the readiness of the follower to do the specific task that needs performing. These sustainable or transformational leaders must learn the art of influencing others toward the right future vision. Influencing is defined as “the art of moving people to action toward a predetermined course or vision that is of value to everyone involved” (Mujtaba, 2014, p. 81). Influencing requires the development of a long-term relationship or trust with the other party. Therefore, sustainable or transformational leadership requires influencing and persuading others over whom one has no position power or any direct authority (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 2001).

In today's management climate, organizations are flatter, technology-driven, and made up of more self-directed teams (Mujtaba, 2014). In order to be effective and successful, there is the need to learn techniques that will permit goal achievement with the assistance of others through skillfully applied methods of influence. Effective influencing is about developing and maintaining positive relationships or rapport with one's colleagues and employees. Influencing is the ability to achieve goals through the willing and committed work of others. However, in order to be an effective sustainable or transformational leader, one does not need any position power per se. For example, we know that managers often influence their employees to be great performers and model associates. Employees, on the other hand, influence one another, as well as their superiors and customers through their professionalism and rational explanations. Simply stated, influence is the ability to move others to action. Influencing allows individuals to get certain results from others without destroying their relationships. Effective influencing skills allow people to get work done faster, as well as reduce conflict and stress, while demonstrating that one is a team-player and a flexible professional. All of these objectives lead to a more effective and sustainable performance by the organization.

The sustainable and transformational leader empowers others to take ethical and responsible actions when he or she feels it is necessary (Mujtaba, 2015). Through empowerment and collaboration the leader is able to tap into the employee's motivation. Effective sustainable and transformational leaders do not rely so much on position power as they depend on personal force which comes through their relationships; and as such they align the individual's goals with those of the organization. Effective, sustainable, transformational leaders and managers become influential through training; as a result, their leadership effectiveness is raised to new levels through the appropriate use of their skills. The business leader is expected to make sound business, personnel, and financial decisions. Those functions are elemental. The business leader also must be a sustainable and transformational one. As such, the business leader must think beyond the narrow confines of the short-term interest of the shareholder stakeholder group. "What on earth is happening to management? Formerly self-evident truths are being cast aside. The sacred goal of maximizing shareholder value is now the 'dumbest idea in the world.' The search for the holy grail of 'sustainable competitive advantage' is now recognized as futile. The 'essence of strategy' seen as 'coping with competitors' is obsolete. The uni-directional value chain-the very core of 20th Century management thinking-is now a problem, not a solutionA veritable revolution in management is under way" (Forbes, May 30, 2013: On-line Edition). The business leader, therefore, must be proactive; that is, he or she must be a "shaper" not a mere "reactor"; and as such anticipate problems and challenges; and then show the way to solve them; and finally solve or overcome them in an efficient, effective, and efficacious manner. Such a business leader will be truly transformational and sustainable.

Accordingly, the transformational and sustainable business leader today must have "broad shoulders," as there are many challenges for business leaders, including the expectations that society has as to the proper conduct of business. The societal expectation, simply stated, is that business will act not only legally, but also morally, and next that business will be a socially and environmentally responsible one too; and finally that business be sustainable and that the business contribute to the overall sustainability of society and the planet. As a result, the business leader must be concerned with not only the economic and legal performance of the company, but also its moral and socially and environmentally responsible performance, and ultimately its sustainability and societal sustainability. A fundamental goal of the ethics component to the orientation, therefore, must be to make the business student keenly aware of societal expectations for business and business leaders and the concomitant responsibility of business leaders to ensure that business acts legally, morally based on ethics, socially and

environmentally responsible, and contributes to overall societal sustainability. The “mindset” for the business leader, therefore, is essentially a “three value drill,” that is, asking and answering: Is it legal, is it moral, and what would a socially responsible company or organization do? The first value to address is the law.

Legality

Legality is based on the law, of course. Today, obviously, there are many laws that regulate business which the business leader must be aware. To illustrate, in the United States there exists constitutions, statutes, administrative rules and regulations, case law, and executive orders. Moreover, the U.S., like many other countries has a federal system of government, so there are national laws (called “federal law” in the U.S.) and state and local law. Furthermore, in the United States, certain statutory laws, for example Civil Rights laws and Anti-trust laws have extraterritorial effect, that is, they can apply to the U.S. employees of U.S. companies doing business overseas. There are also the “domestic” laws in the host countries where one does business; and there are international laws, treaties, and conventions (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2014). So, clearly, there is a lot of law!

Nevertheless, despite the prevalence of the law, the business leader must be aware of “moral gaps” in the law; that is, the countries, localities, and jurisdictions where there is no law, weak law, or unenforced law (perhaps due to bribery) (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2014). One example of a potential moral gap in the law can be seen in the legal doctrine of adverse possession. Pursuant to this doctrine, someone who illegally trespasses on another’s property can obtain legal record title to the property, as long as the occupation is open, notorious, visible, continuous and of adverse manner, and occurs for a specified period of time (the specific period of time depends on the jurisdiction). Rooted in English law, adverse possession has historically been justified on a number of grounds. In England, it began as a method to protect land purchasers from ancient claims on the land. During the nineteenth century, U.S. courts utilized adverse possession to encourage development of the American wilderness. And as the United States industrialized, adverse possession was thought to encourage the efficient use of land for the production for factories, infrastructure, and urban areas. In essence, adverse possession was held out as a mechanism to promote efficiency and productivity (Cherek, 2012; Lester, 2003; Sprankling, 1994; Colo. Rev. Stat. 38-41-101). To be sure, the encouragement of productivity is still the cornerstone of much of the rationale for adverse possession. It is contended that society as a whole benefits when a party makes productive use of the land. As such, if a land owner allows his or her property to remain undeveloped, society loses out on the potential benefits. Thus, adverse possession benefits the public as a whole because it moves title from the idle owner to the active operator (Cherek, 2012; Lester, 2003).

Even so, furthering the productive use of land may not be as important a goal as it used to be. In fact, many believe that contemporary society struggles with issues that arise from the very opposite underlying issue – the over-development of land and resources – and the concomitant adverse impact on sustainability. Likewise, many of the justifications concerning ambiguous property records (or dealing with long past land claims) no longer apply, as we have developed robust legal schemes replete with Statutes of Limitations (requiring lawsuits to be filed within certain periods) and systems for recording title (Cherek, 2012; Sprankling, 1994). Moreover, even if these justifications continue to apply today, a related question remains – is the harm that results ethically justified? For not only are we taking property from an owner (who by most accounts, would be considered quite innocent), and not only are we failing to provide such owner any compensation (in contrast to eminent domain, where the government at least compensates for its “taking”), but in many cases, the trespass is not a mistake; in quite a

number of jurisdictions, even a trespasser who purposefully occupies someone else's property can be granted ownership rights through adverse possession (Baude, 2013). Thus, we are, in effect, taking property from an innocent party to give to a guilty party. Accordingly, even if this doctrine is deemed to have an economic justification, the ethical justification is questionable.

Another point of law in which we may find a gap between what is legal and what is moral is the doctrine concerning Mistake of Law, which typically holds that ignorance of the law is no excuse. This legal principle, it is believed, incentivizes people to learn the law, and thus promotes law abiding behavior (Kahan, 1997; Travers, 1995). While the doctrine concerning mistake of law is probably moral in cases of obviously unethical behavior, such as murder, rape or battery, one may question the morality in more benign cases, such as a mistake as to the legally permissible business uses under a zoning ordinance, or those cases where the law is unclear, such as whether the hiring of the son or daughter of a foreign government official with the expectation of getting a contract with the foreign government is an illegal "bribe" pursuant to the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act. Another example is New York case where a federal prison guard was arrested for carrying a handgun without the appropriate license. The guard believed that he did not need a license because of a statute that exempted peace officers from this requirement. Peace officers were defined to include correction officers of state correctional facilities or penal correctional institutions. The guard mistakenly believed that "penal correctional institution" included the federal prison where he worked. Indeed, that is what he had been taught at a local criminal justice course, and that was the understanding shared by the local gun dealers who sold guns to the guards. Even the judges disagreed over the appropriate interpretation of the statute. Nevertheless, at trial, the guard was denied the defense of mistake of law, and was not allowed to provide any evidence of the reasonable basis for his mistake (People, 1987; Kahan, 1997). In the early days, prohibiting the defense of mistake of law was justified under the presumption that the law was definite and knowable. Whether it was ever truly definite and knowable is debatable; and in the current legal system, this presumption is almost certainly untrue. (Travers, 1995) Thus, in the case of the prison guard, as in the case of adverse possession, we encounter a scenario where one might argue that morality and justice for the individual are being sacrificed in favor of other societal interests.

Furthermore, there are "vague" lines the law draws, for example, the "line" between a "good will gift" to a foreign government official and an illegal bribe pursuant to the aforementioned Foreign Corrupt Practices Act. Another example of a vague line is the distinction the law makes between insider trading which clearly is illegal, and trading on inside information which may be legal. Another example would be having a monopoly, which is legal if lawfully obtained, and monopolization of trade or commerce, which is a legal wrong (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2014). The law also affords options for acting, for example, closing facilities, moving overseas or to another state and doing the concomitant "down-sizing" (such as in the case of a big merger). Yet it is not a principal purpose of the ethics presentation, let alone the overall orientation, to conduct a government regulation of business course. Nevertheless, in the ethics presentation, the law must be defined and juxtaposed with, and differentiated from, morality and ethics as well as social responsibility. However, most importantly, the graduate business students must be made cognizant of the fact that there are many moral gaps in the law, meaning that an action might be legal but nonetheless immoral based on ethics. Attorneys, of course, will be ready, willing, and able to advise business people (for their concomitant fees, naturally) on the legality of their actions. Yet, who will advise the business leader as to the morality of his or her firm's actions?

Ethics and Morality

Moral questions perforce bring one into the realm of ethics. There is, and this point must be underscored in the ethics presentation to the orientation that there is a societal expectation today that business will act not “merely” legally but also morally. The authors have used the term “value” when referring to morality and ethics (as well as legality and social responsibility). So now it is time to define that key term. “Value” from a philosophical standpoint simply means something possesses worth. However, to complicate things philosophically as well as practically, values can be deemed “intrinsic” (sometimes called “terminal”) and “instrumental” (sometimes called “extrinsic”). A value is intrinsic if it is good and possesses worth in and of itself, like happiness or aesthetics (the appreciation of beauty). No further explanation or justification need be given for such an intrinsic value. Whereas a value is deemed instrumental if possesses worth not in and of itself but because it is a tool, instrument, or means to produce something else of value (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013). An example would be being nice and polite to people, even though one is a miserable and angry person. Why is one “forcing” oneself to be nice? Because being nice will lead to the making of friends, colleagues, allies, and teammates, and contented employees – all of which will benefit the “nice” (instrumentally so) person in the long-run. However, the best example of an instrumental value is money. What can you do with money in and of itself? “It’s good for nothing,” as the lyrics to the old song goes. But money is the means to buy lots of other “neat stuff,” which then can bring happiness. So, who says that money can’t buy happiness! Accordingly, since the audience for the orientation will be business students and not philosophy students, the authors would recommend that the presenters, after making the distinction between values, concentrate on the instrumental value for the students and eventually their companies by being regarded, and legitimately so, as legal, moral, and socially responsible individuals and businesses.

The authors to this point have been using the terms morals and morality and ethics as being basically the same. However, from a philosophic standpoint they are distinct. Morality is based on ethics which is a branch of philosophy, like metaphysics (the study of ultimate reality) and logic. Morals and morality are technically the conclusion as to what is right or wrong or good or bad or moral or immoral. And how does one arrive at these moral conclusions? One reaches morality by reasoning from ethics. As such, ethics are the intellectual framework, the theories, and the principles that one uses to reason to moral decisions, morality, morals. In the ethics presentation the business students as graduate students must be told and trained to make that critical distinction between morality and ethics; and thereby the presenter will underscore that ethics at this level is not a didactic or “preachy” sermonizing but rather an exercise in reasoning from theories and principles (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013). So, the next ethics question emerges: What ethical theories and principles?

The authors would recommend that the graduate business students in the orientation be made awareness of four the main ethical theories in Western Civilization; and then be shown how to apply them to determine if business, even if acting legally, is acting morally. Now, of course, Western Civilization is not the only one, but it is the one that the authors and the vast majority of students at their school are familiar. Moreover, the four ethical theories chosen for presentation to the students are secular-based one. As such, there is no religious component to the ethics presentation. The reasons are several: first, not everyone “has religion,” and certainly not everyone has the same religion. However, everyone (presumably) has reason and thus can reason from secular ethical theories and principles to morality. Moreover, the presenters typically will have been exposed to and familiar with secular ethics. Finally, even if knowledgeable religious-based ethics presenters could be found, where would the time be to

turn the ethics presentation into a comparative religion one? Once again, the graduate business students at the orientation must be told exactly what they are getting, and not getting. They are getting secular-based Western ethics from which they will reason to morality. The ethics presentation, therefore, will not be a didactic one; the preaching and sermonizing will be saved for other spheres of the students and perhaps the presenters' lives.

Specifically, the four secular-based Western ethical theories that will be presented to the students are: Ethical Egoism, Ethical Relativism, Utilitarianism, and Kantian ethics (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013; Mujtaba, 2010). Ethical Egoism should be a very acceptable and accommodating ethical theory for the business student. Pursuant to that theory, it is moral to advance one's self-interest, to prosper, and to make money. Yet the students also must be told that the "enlightened" ethical egoists, such as Adam Smith (of Invisible Hand fame), would counsel to take a long-term perspective as to maximizing self-interest; and thus one should be willing to undergo some short-term expense and effort in order to advance oneself in the long-term. Also, even if one has a big ego and a lot of power, the ethical egoists would advise that it is best to treat people well; but not necessarily because one loves them, or for that matter even likes them, but it will usually inure to one's own benefit to treat people well and make them colleagues, allies, and part of the "team." Recall the instrumental value of being nice!

The second ethical theory is Ethical Relativism (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013). "When in Rome, do as the Romans," as the old saying goes. Pursuant to this ethical theory, an action is moral if a society believes it to be moral. Consequently, societal norms become the standard for morality. All one has to do is to ascertain the moral norms of a particular society and adopt them and conform; and consequently one will be acting morally. Of course, one will need a definition of "society" but the authors will save that question for another day and ideally for the sociologists. Also, just because a practice is deemed to be moral in a society, the business person must be aware that there may be a superseding law that makes it illegal (for example, a societal-sanctioned moral "good will gift" to a foreign government official but one the U.S government deems to be an illegal bribe under the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act).

The third ethical theory is Utilitarianism, which is a relatively modern ethical theory created by the English philosophers and social reformers, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013). The core principle to this ethical theory is: "An action is moral if it produces the greatest amount of good for the greatest number of people." Accordingly, this ethical theory is a consequentialist ethical theory; one must predict consequences; one must ascertain whether the consequences are good or bad, cause pleasure or pain, happiness or dissatisfaction; and then one must measure and weigh the consequences. If there are predominant good consequences, the action is a moral action; and if there are predominant negative consequences the action is immoral (Mujtaba, 2010). But it must be emphasized that even if an action is moral there still may be some pain, which means that the "ends can justify means"; yet everyone got "counted," everyone's pleasure and pain was registered based on this egalitarian ethical theory. Of course, the Utilitarians would say to try to find actions that minimize any pain, and hopefully eliminate all of it in a "win-win" type of scenario. As a practical bit of advice, the authors would suggest that when predicting consequences the business students make those determinations within discrete stakeholder groups as that approach would "channel," and thus make more manageable, the predictive aspect of this ethical theory; and, moreover, the students should presumably be familiar with typical business stakeholders and stakeholder analysis. For example, in the aforementioned merger examples, the consequences of the merger could be examined in the context of the following key stakeholder groups: shareholders, employees, unions, consumers/customers, suppliers

and distributors, competition (as everyone gets “counted”), local communities, government, and society as a whole, including the environment and future generations.

Finally, the fourth ethical theory is Kantian ethics, which is also a relatively modern ethical theory (Cavico and Mujtaba, 2013). Kant definitely had problems with Utilitarianism. Kant condemned that ethical theory as being immoral because it could morally justify pain, suffering, and exploitation so long as a greater good was produced. That is the problem of the “ends justifying the means.” So, Kant declared that one should disregard consequences in making moral determinations. Thus, a major problem emerges in Western ethics due to the conflict between the two modern ethical theories. The Utilitarians base morality on consequences and Kant says to disregard consequences. So, how does Kant determine morality? Morality is based on a formal test that Kant called Categorical Imperative. “Categorical” because, according to Kant, this is the supreme, absolute, and only test for morality; and “Imperative” because at times one must compel oneself to be moral, that is, to do what one’s reason tells one is the “right” thing to do, even though there may be some negative consequences to one personally (for example, “blowing the whistle” on one’s polluting company). Within the Categorical Imperative there are certain tests for morality that one must apply to the action itself: the first is the Kingdom of Ends test. This core Kantian principle holds that an action is immoral, regardless of consequences, if it is disrespectful and demeaning to anyone or if it treats anyone like an instrument or thing or mere means (even to achieve a greater good). Since a person knows that he or she is a human being and thus a worthwhile person deserving of dignity and respect, one logically should reason that other people feel the same too. In essence, for Kant, the core principle is for all people to treat all others with dignity and respect; and thus all will live in this Kingdom of Ends wherein all are treated as worthwhile ends and not as mere means. Another major part to the Categorical Imperative is the Agent-Receiver test. This principle is actually is the Golden Rule of Bible made secular by Kant. Pursuant to this ethical principle, Kant would say for one to consider the contemplated action; but then contemplate that one did not know if one would be the agent, that is, the giver of the action, or the receiver of the action; and then ask (and be honest about answering) if one would one be willing to have that action done (perhaps to oneself). So, using the Categorical Imperative and the example of the merger, if the merger produces greater good overall it would be moral under Utilitarianism, but if any stakeholder group is disrespected or demeaned by the merger, it is immoral. And, one more example, what does one do about the legal, exploitative “sweatshop” in Asia making those nice and reasonably priced garments? The “sweatshop” certainly produces a lot of good which may be “good” enough for Utilitarianism, but what would Kant say? That, in a “nutshell,” is Kantian ethics, and the corresponding moral conflict in Western ethics between the two “modern” ethical theories..

Despite the ethical challenges in determining morality, in order to determine right from wrong, at least at the graduate level, one needs ethics, and philosophic ethics of the sort that is delineated herein. In the ethics presentation to the orientation, therefore, the graduate business students must be taught a little philosophy (and “a little goes a long ways”) in the form of ethics (which ethics, of course, can be supplemented by readings and videos).The ethical challenge for the business leader today, it should be emphasized to the students, is to seek to engage in actions that advance the self-interest of the firm (Ethical Egoism), that are culturally competent (Ethical Relativism), and that achieve the greater good (Utilitarianism), especially by striving for “win-win” scenarios for all stakeholders, but actions that do not demean or disrespect any stakeholders (Kantian Ethics). Again, meeting this challenge typically will take foresight, time, effort, and money. So, why bother, particularly if one is already acting legally? That is, why be moral? The rationale for acting morally, which again

must be inculcated in the students in the ethics presentation, is the first ethical theory - Ethical Egoism. That is, it will inure to one's own long-term advancement and self-interest as well as that of one's company or organization to be regarded, and rightfully so, as not only a legal, but also a moral firm. And the role of a leader includes educating others as to their own long-term self-interest; that is, the business leader must show the way (perhaps to top management, the board of directors, and the shareholders) that acting morally will benefit the business in the long-run. However, the business leader must have those aforementioned "broad shoulders," as there is yet more responsibility, even above and beyond morality and ethics, to be thrust on the graduate business student and future business leader.

Social Responsibility

Another challenge for business leaders today that must be presented to the students during the ethics component to the orientation is that business is expected to act not only legally and morally but also in a socially and environmentally responsible manner (Nonet, 2013). The societal expectation of this responsibility is thus above and beyond the law as well as morality/ethics. Business, therefore, is expected to be a "good corporate citizen" (even though there may be no legal obligation to do so) (Cavico, 2014). One immediate problem with "social responsibility" is the definition of the term. There are a variety of definitions (Garriga and Mele, 2004; Windsor, 2006), to wit: the term can refer to business being involved in charitable organizations and philanthropic activities as well as civic and community activities; to the way the corporation treats their employees and suppliers; the impact of the business on the local or global environment; the benefit or potential harm of the corporation's products and services, the responsibility towards the sourcing of the materials, to name a few. Social and environmental responsibility is related to sustainability as a goal; that is, if we restore or preserve our natural resources and communities, we will also increase our chances of sustaining as a business. The old concept of seeing the purpose of business as only short-term profit is being increasingly replaced by a broader accounting framework, developed by John Elkington (1994), which includes three dimensions of measurement: People, Planet, Profits," also called the "Triple Bottom Line" (Economic Prosperity, Environmental Stewardship, and Social Responsibility).

Business schools have a responsibility to develop leaders with a sustainability mindset, who think and act in social and environmentally responsible ways (Mujtaba, 2015; Nonet et al., 2015). The authors suggest three main responsibility challenges for the business leader. The first one starts with the following question: How much social responsibility should one engage in? The authors would counsel that social responsibility be in the "right" contextual level, that is, considering the size, stature, and finances on the firm. One does not want to do too much so as to risk the financial sustainability of the firm; yet one does not want to do too little because in this Age of Transparency doing too little may cause harm to the corporation's reputation as well as a loss of market share. Some interesting examples of successful responsible businesses are Whole Foods, Starbucks, and Patagonia as demonstrated by the views of their happy and satisfied employees (Pelletier & Mujtaba, 2015).

The second challenge for the business leader corresponds to the following question: What type of social/environmental responsibility is recommended? The authors point to three levels of initiatives:

- Initiatives that generate savings while representing a reduction of the ecological "footprint" or improving the social/community impact. Examples are: energy assessment and identifying energy savings opportunities, reducing waste, and reusing and recycling.

- Initiatives that create new value for customers and environment/community. An example is: Starbucks sourcing coffee from fair-trade organic growers. The products are healthier for customers, the lands benefit from healthier soils, and labor is fairly rewarded, thereby alleviating poverty. Another example is Royal Caribbean which is building health clinics and schools and engaging in beach and soil preservation in Haiti (where it has a major port facility).
- Initiatives that embed the principles of social responsibility and sustainability into the corporate strategy, therefore influencing competitors and new regulations that raise the standards for all. An example is Wal-Mart creating the Sustainability Index, which helps the retailer and its suppliers to do the following: to improve the sustainability of the products the customers love; to integrate sustainability into the business of buying and selling merchandise; reduce cost, improve product quality and create a more resilient supply chain, and to strengthen customers' trust in retailers and the brands they carry.

The authors thus would recommend actions and activities that are tied to the image, brand, products, and services of the business (which, in essence, is a marketing approach to social responsibility, and thus one that surely will appeal to graduate business students). Some actual examples might be: Home Depot contributing to Habitat for Humanity, where the tie-in is obvious; Publix Super Markets in Lakeland of Florida, as they work with local farmers in growing organic products; Royal Caribbean building schools and health clinics in Haiti, where it has a major port facility; and Starbucks doing the same in Guatemala, where it buys a great deal of its coffee. To further illustrate, Whole Foods Market, similar to their Floridian retail competitor, Publix Super Markets, has a Green Mission encompassing the following efforts: "green" building standards, a "Reduce, Reuse, and Recycle" program, a pollution awareness campaign, using reusable bags and not plastic bags, rewarding customers who bring their own bags to shop, a charitable donation program of both sales income and food to local charities and environmental groups, sponsoring summer camps, and a program where it makes loans and provides training to local farmers and suppliers (Cheretis and Mujtaba, 2014). The objective is for people, the community, and the planet to "flourish" (Salcedo, 2015). The global professional services firm Ernst & Young, engages in social responsibility and sustainability efforts in the areas of energy conservation and environmental protection, as well as "green" training programs for employees, companies, and home owners, not "merely" to "Build a Better Working World" (which is the title of the firm's Sustainability Report), but also because their employees, job applicants, recruits, clients, and customers "care" (John, 2015). The Hilton Ft. Lauderdale Beach Resort has spearheaded the hotel's chain use of wind energy by means of several (very artistic) roof wind turbines to power in part the hotel. The project cost almost \$1 million dollars; and the hotel does not expect to get its "return-on-investment" for several years (Vago, 2015). Nevertheless, the hotel has acquired a deserved reputation in the community and with tourists from around the world as a socially responsible and sustainable business and thus has obtained some very favorable publicity for its "green efforts." Moreover, in the long-term, the hotel also expects to save money by its "green" efforts (and the authors submit that it is the business leader's responsibility to point out these long-term positive consequences for "going green"). These are all obviously beneficial actions to society and ones that demonstrate that a company is a "socially responsible" and "sustainable" one; and the actions will benefit these companies too; and a company should not be shy, the authors believe, in getting some "good PR" to show off their social responsibility and sustainability bona fides. And it is not merely the community that will be impressed by a company's "green" efforts. The fact that a company monitors risks, measures its energy and water use, and does not waste energy and water, but rather conserves both, indicates not just to the public but also to business and financial analysts that a company is an efficient and effective one (John, 2015).

The aforementioned examples are all beneficial actions to society and the environment; and they demonstrate that a company is, or is committed to become, socially and environmentally responsible, while the actions also benefit the brand and profitability of the firm. Corporations are learning to communicate corporate social responsibility and sustainability initiatives to attract clients, employees, and investors, and accordingly to include such efforts in their Annual Reports.

The third challenge is who should be in charge of social responsibility. The authors would recommend a high-level, visible, and empowered (“politically” and financially) position, such as a Vice President of Social Responsibility and/or Sustainability or a Director or Team Leader. Wal-Mart has the position designated as the “Vice-President of Global Corporate Social Responsibility.” Yet some companies (in order to ensure good publicity and/or good community relations have the Director of Marketing or Community Relations in charge of social responsibility and/or sustainability efforts. So long as the position is a “real” one and not mere “window dressing,” that is, there is true “substance,” then the “form” of the exact title should not be controlling.

Particularly when addressing the millennials, business schools have an opportunity to tap into their sense of responsibility and forward-looking perspectives. The graduate business students, therefore, can, and should, be early on introduced to the challenges and opportunities of business today, thereby preparing them for a competitive environment where social responsibility and sustainability are the result of smart and strategic decisions with a “360 degree” perspective of all the firm’s stakeholders. The interest of the students can be awakened, and their acceptance gained, by using the rationale of Ethical Egoism; that is, underscoring the benefits for the individual, the organization, the community, society, and the planet in which we all live and want to do business in; and through inspiring the students by means of real and current examples of ways to be profitable while “making a difference” in society. The business students, through innovative socialization and orientation pedagogies, must be inculcated to engage in smart, shrewd, and strategic social and environmental responsibility (Khan, Ostheimer and Mujtaba, 2015). And the rationale for being socially and environmentally responsible, and one that must be underscored to the graduate business students during the presentation, is Ethical Egoism. That is, the instrumental worth of being a “socially responsible” person and organization will be the advancement of one’s own self-interest, the company’s self-interest, the corresponding benefit to community and society as a whole, and the sustainability of the planet for future generations.

SUMMARY

The societal expectations today are that business leaders and businesses must act legally, morally, and in a socially and environmentally responsible manner. That is the mindset – the “three value drill” - for business leaders. This mindset is the way to achieve sustainability; and business students as future business leaders must show the way. Consequently, the challenge for the business leader is to fulfill these expectations and to meet these challenges. The principal objective of the ethics presentation at the general orientation is to help the student act in conformity with these values and to achieve personal and organizational success. The rationale for adherence to these values (though admittedly not without some cost, effort, and time in the short-run) will be sustainability in the long-term. That is, business students will be able to achieve success and will be able to sustain that success for themselves, their families, their companies and organizations, their communities, for society as a whole, all while making their contribution to build a better planet for future generations. The basic “formula,” therefore, is: the value of legality + the value of morality/ethics + the value of social

responsibility + sustainability (as a means in the form of environmental responsibility) = sustainability (as an end). As Socrates said a long time ago (but which the authors believe is still quite true): “Money comes from virtue.” Or as the Venetians (the very successful international business people) said in the motto of the old Venetian Republic, one must act “For the honor and profit of Venice” (emphasis added). Be successful, become prosperous, but be proud of yourself, make your parents proud, make your employers proud, make your community proud, and make the school proud – and that declaration should be the heart-felt closing counsel and exhortation to the students, in the humble opinion of the authors.

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Analyzing Public Sector Marketing in China: A case Study From Anhui Province.

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Abstract

The potential of public sector marketing in boosting organization's efficiency and service quality has rarely been emphasized. Although, services provision for general public is considered important in Chinese organization, the characteristics of marketing outcome in bringing customers satisfaction by public sector is not yet fully understood. This study has analyzed the effectiveness of public services marketing in delivering the quality services to general public by taking into account the opinion of managers running a public sector organization about the way they hold marketing factors as a strategic aim. We also documented the performance level of organizations from Hefei and Wuhu cities of Anhui province of China in order to identify significant factors governing marketing outcomes. Results of General Linear Model revealed that knowledge and skill is considered an important ingredient for raising the performance level of organizations in both cities. In addition, managers of public sectors have adopted marketing information and resources as key parameters while defining their strategies during marketing. The target population i.e. general population of these two cities has overwhelmingly benefited from services extended by public sectors mainly due to effective marketing outcomes. This study concludes that public sector marketing in China has been an effective tool because of its foundation being laid on key ingredients such as information, resource utilization, knowledge and skills.

Key words: Marketing, customer satisfaction, public sector, effective outcome, knowledge and skills, information, resources.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing is a topic of growing interest for the public sector organization manager as they are willing to confront new and compound market problems. In public sector the marketing is the after everything else to take on comparing then other business functions. In the past the concentration of this sector was in other discipline like management, administration and accounting etc. However at the present time, the marketing is commencement to captivate the concentration of public sector organization.

In this political perspective, addressing the important social challenges confronting developing economies is dependent to the certain level on the ability of public sector organization to design and deliver effective service and product offerings. In the public sector in particular the health, education and criminal justice sectors to achieve effective behavioral change is based on to understand their relationships with service users and relevant marketing framework at a strategic organizational level.

In the early 1990s many literature were available, the major transform was initiated by Dwyer et al.(1987) and Morgan and Hunt (1994) regarding marketing theory and practice by building a relationship marketing discipline .

Kickert (1997) and Cousins (1990) articulated that the various European countries public sector has come to distinguish citizen as customer and these public sectors on track to apply marketing tools and strategic planning (Cousins, 1990)

Kotler (2003) argued that the societal marketing conception allows marketers to put together social and ethical considerations into their marketing practices. It is the task and responsibility of the organization to “determine the needs and wants and interests of the target markets and to deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer’s and the society’s well-being” (Kotler 2003). Marketers who pursue this concept must come across a balance between the three considerations of company earnings, consumer want fulfillment and public attention (Kotler 2003).

Currently when demand exceeded supply for products, marketing largely deals with the proficient distribution goods to give as many customer as possible access to the firm’s offering. Marketing scholars Vargo and Lusch(2004) discussed and influenced by economic literature related to the work of Smith(1776) and Shaw(1912) and toward efficient exchange(e.g.,Copeland,1920) and the role of marketing institutions for facilitating these interactions(e.g.,Weld,1947). In 1971 Kotler and Zaltman introduced social marketing as an approach to planned social change (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971) which leads to initiate some marketing strategies in to public sector organization (Kotlar, 1979; Kotler and Murray, 1975)

Rust (2004) articulated that in recent times marketing characterizes as relationship orientation which focus on long term benefits and an escalating interest in marketing outcome.Further Berger (2006) and Gupta (2004) discussed the conceptual and empirical work on relationship between customer equity and shareholder, have also documented that efficiency of operation oriented marketing such as advertising

(Jedidi et al., 1999) and customer acquisition promotions (Lewis, 2006). Additionally concepts such as corporate social responsibility (e.g., Lichtenstein et al., 2004; Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006) and corporate governance (e.g., Forbes and Milliken, 1999; Johnson and Greening, 1999) receive escalating interest in the marketing and general management literature.

This relationship orientation conception is very broad which characterizes marketing at the present time hysteric with the objectives. It has a choice of approaches and a new concept for public sector marketing, which can overpass the gap between these two disciplines and has been opened and widened over last couple of years.

Public sector marketing in China

China is very unique country which has significant achievements in the public service delivery. In 1978, the central government began to transfer the responsibility of public service delivery to local government and by 1990 public service delivery was on the top position as key component of national development, reflecting the corroborative roles of the government.

The public sector marketing related researches are very less in Chinese perspective. Xu Xiaoji (1996) described some counter measures from the macroscopic perspective and recommended that the government should improve their marketing ability from a different perspective. Yu Peng's (2005) analyses regarding the objective condition and importance of government marketing generation also described the government marketing evaluation criterion by combining the characteristics of the Government marketing. Zhu Jing's (2009) analyses, based on the assumption of the Economic Man of Government behavior, analyzed the reason for the system of government marketing that opened up a new way of government marketing theory. So many other Chinese scholar have also described their views about marketing of local government. Li Derong.Gewifen (2002), using the Ningbo's government as an example and discussed about the city marketing.

Hefei, the capital city of Anhui province, is located in the east of China. Having population of 7.52 million, this city is the economic, political and cultural center of Anhui. Having urban area of 11,400 sq.km, Hefei is one of the top 100 Cities in terms of comprehensive strength, top 50 Cities with Excellent Investment Environment and top 30 Cities with Overall & Growth Competition Strength. Hefei has established sister city relationship with 12 cities in USA, Japan, South Korea, Denmark, Australia, UK, Germany, Chile etc. It has built up trade ties with over 180 countries and regions. The city is not only a booming comprehensive industrial city, but also an important base for science and education in China. It is the first Science and Technology Innovation Pilot City in China.

Wuhu, in terms of economy, is ranked second in Anhui province. As of 2011, the city's GDP showed a staggering 16% increase in its GDP by crossing RMB165.8 billion mark. Wuhu Economic & Technological Development Area, the first of its kind, was launched by the government back in 1993; having the only export processing zone in the province. Chery Automobile and Anhui Conch Cement Company are both headquartered in this development area. Besides having the fifth largest port of the country alongside Yangtze River; Pier, the largest inland river coal harbor of China is also located in this city.

Research Methodology

In this study we used the General Liner Model in order to observe the performance level of organizations from Hefei and Wuhu cities of Anhui province and to identify significant factors governing marketing outcomes.

Research variables

Knowledge

This variable indicates the knowledge and skills within the public sector to carry out marketing activities. For the accomplishment of the marketing objective, staffs in the marketing group take interest to have training and experience in marketing management and they are also encouraged to upgrade their skills. To conduct the marketing activities members are encouraged to acquire resources. The organizations tend to have implementation of new marketing techniques and technologies. And have complexity to attract the skilled staff to carry out marketing activities.

Information

This variable indicates the marketing information and measurement regarding marketing activities by the public sector. It indicates the organizational marketing capabilities which are used to accomplish marketing research to access and delivers advanced value to the citizens. Measurement results which are vigorously use to categorize the areas of improvement and to assess the element of marketing mix. It also consists on processes in place to measure marketing outcome against stated objective.

Resources

This variable indicate the marketing budgets which are adequate or not for the entire marketing activities. Also to carry out those marketing activities the requirement of marketing staff is sufficient or not.

This research work was primarily conducted with an aim to identify key marketing activities in Chinese public sector and examine their relationship to indicate ongoing well as future trends based on the variables selected for the study. Furthermore we were able to highlight the performance level of organizations from Hefei and Wuhu cities of Anhui province of China in order to identify significant factors governing marketing outcomes.

Survey Methodology

To access the public sector marketing in China, respondents were asked during survey to indicate the extent of their agreement with several statements. Those were related to various aspects of their organization and their approach to the marketing management. The survey items examined the presence or absence of best marketing practices in public sector marketing. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed in two different cities of Anhui province, China. Out of these, 225 samples were successfully collected.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The positive role of knowledge and skills in raising the performance and overall business success of an organization has been observed closely linked with public sector marketing. Both the cities of Anhui Province, China i.e. Hefei and Wuhu showed similar trend of knowledge and skills based marketing input and resulting high performance of an organization (Figure 1). The results of General Linear Model depicted that organizations where knowledge and skills were never taken into account, the performance of public sector organizations was at lowest especially in Hefei (Figure 1). However, with the utilization of knowledge and skills in public sector marketing, the performance level drastically increased. An instance where involvement of knowledge and skills has always been an essential part of public sector marketing, the resulting performance of public sector organizations was highest (Figure 1). There was no significant difference between Hefei and Wuhu regions with respect to level of performance ($P=0.287$) however, the inclusion of knowledge and skills in public sector marketing has significant effect on performance level ($F=24.269$, $P=0.005$). The interactive effect between region and giving priority to knowledge and skills in public sector marketing was also not significant (Table 1).

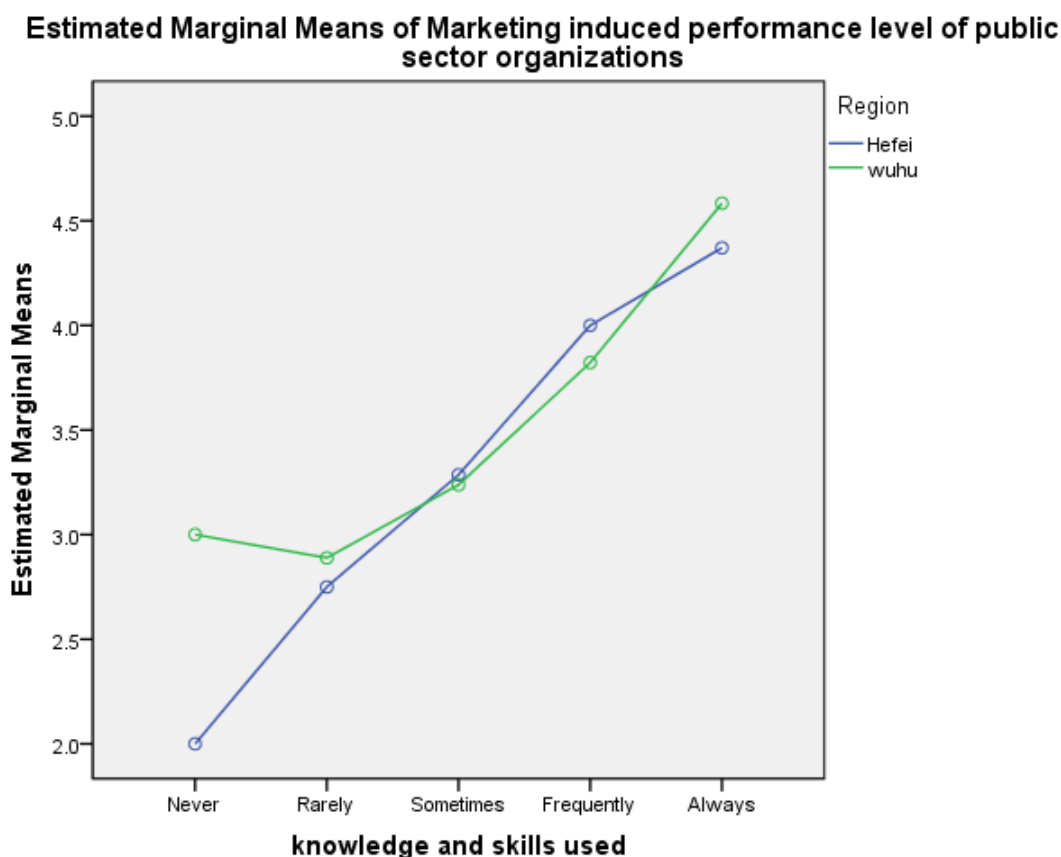


Figure 1: Mean level of performance in public sector organizations by knowledge and skills based marketing practices.

Table 1: Two way ANOVA in general linear model to analyze effect of region and knowledge and skills on marketing induced performance level of public sector organization.

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Intercept	1	597.443	145.535	0.000
Region	1	0.658	1.158	0.287
Knowledge	4	11.784	24.269	0.005
Region * Knowledge	4	0.486	0.801	0.526

Marketing resources are closely linked with public sector marketing since it has a pivotal role in raising the performance and overall success of an organization.

Both the cities showed similar trend of resources based marketing input; resulting in high performance of an organization (Figure 2). The results of General Linear Model depicted that organizations where resources were never taken into account, the performance of public sector organizations was at lowest especially in Hefei (Figure 2). However, with the utilization of resources to carry out marketing activities in public sector marketing, the performance level drastically increased. An instance where involvement of resources has always been an essential part of public sector marketing, the resulting performance of public sector organizations was highest (Figure 2). There was no significant difference between Hefei and Wuhu regions with respect to the level of performance (P=0.038). However, the inclusion of

resources in public sector marketing has significant effect on performance level ($F=5.527$, $P=0.063$). The interactive effect between region and giving priority to resources used in public sector marketing was also not significant (Table 2).

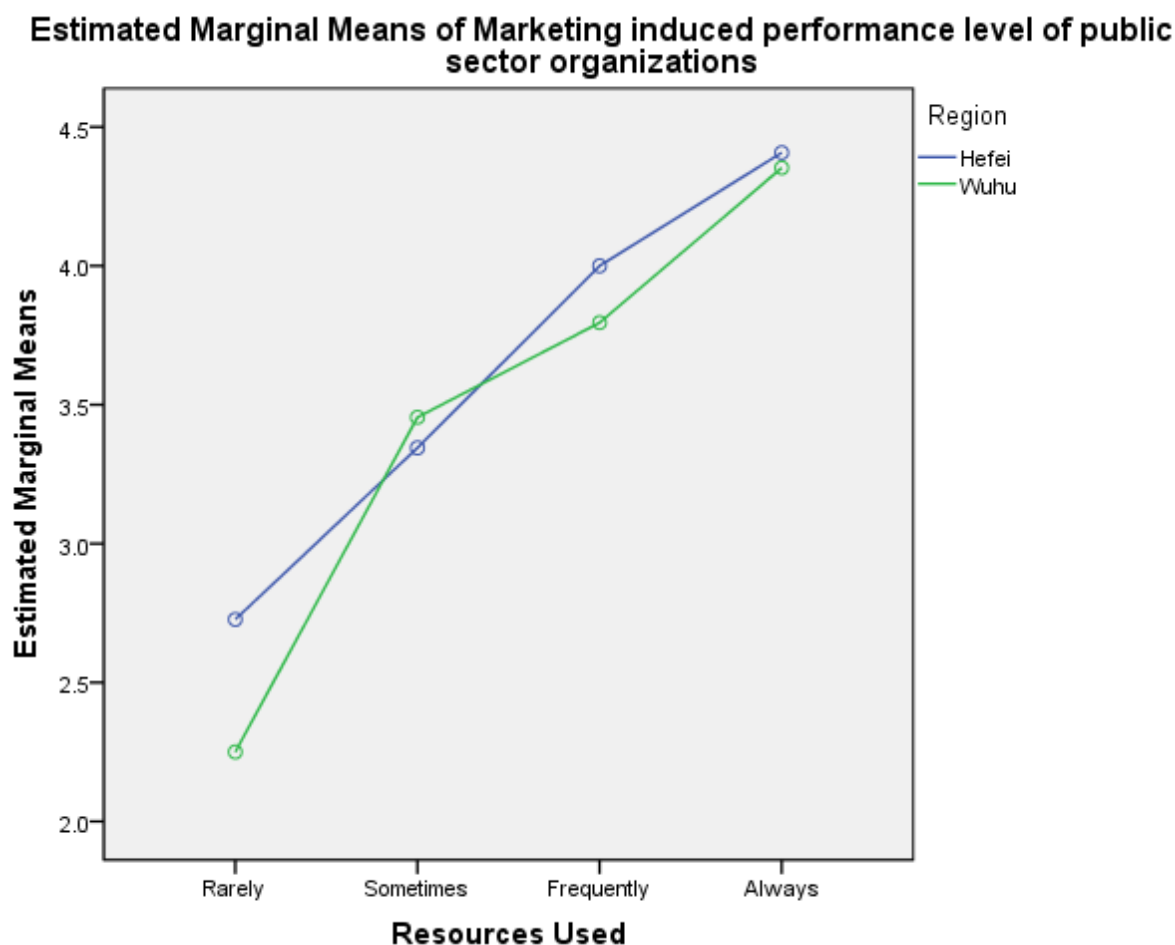


Figure 2: Mean level of performance in public sector organizations by the resources used based marketing practices.

Table 2: two ways ANOVA in general linear model to analyze effect of region and resources used on marketing induced performance level of public sector organization.

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Intercept	1	816.607	152.865	0.000
Region	1	7.814	6.373	0.038
Resources	4	12.307	5.527	0.063
Region * Resources	4	2.227	4.157	0.003

Marketing information and measurement, which is another very important factor in efficient public sector marketing, also showed the same pattern as in the first two factors discussed above (Figure 3).

When analyzed statistically, the organizations where Marketing Information was not applied effectively, showed poor performance. However, when the same was effectively utilized, the performance was significantly increased (Figure 3).

With respect to the level of performance ($P=0.231$), both target cities showed no significant difference. However, with the inclusion of marketing information in public sector marketing had a considerable impact on the performance level ($F=32.687527$, $P=0.000$). The interactive effect between region and giving priority to marketing information used in public sector marketing was also not significant (Table 3).

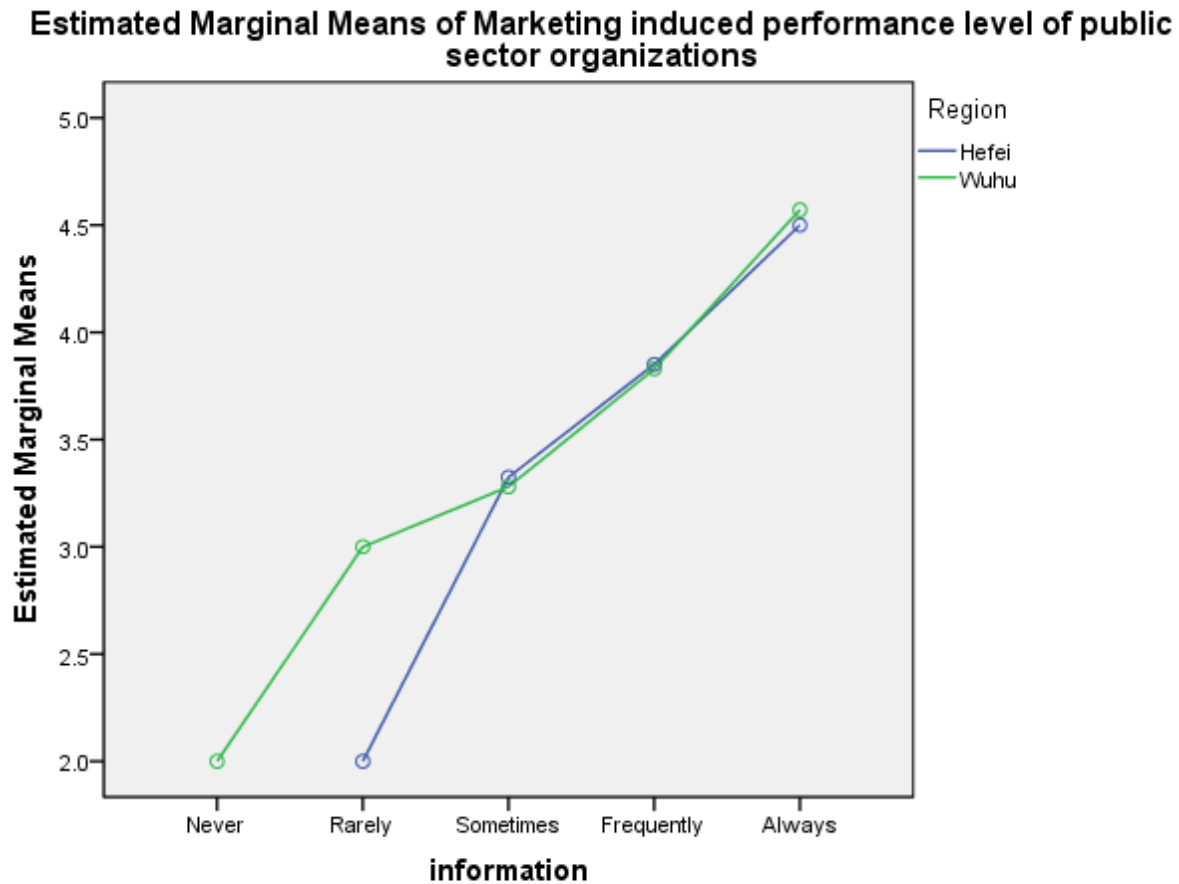


Figure 3: Mean level of performance in public sector organizations by the Information used based marketing practices.

Table 3: Two way ANOVA in general linear model to analyze effect of region and Information used on marketing induced performance level of public sector organization.

Source	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Intercept	1	421.625	124.397	0.000
Region	1	.747	1.460	0.231
Information	4	12.272	32.687	0.000
Region * Information	3	.321	.548	0.650

CONCLUSION

The potential of public sector marketing in boosting organization’s efficiency and service quality has rarely been emphasized. Although services provision for general public is considered important in Chinese organizations, the characteristics of marketing outcome in bringing customers satisfaction by public sector is not yet fully understood.

Our study has clearly indicated public sector marketing as a dynamic factor in Chinese's society. Despite of the fact that budgetary constraint has created several challenges for the government, the service oriented government was found to be closely linked with provision of public goods and services. However, public sector in China has ardently dealt with these limitations and brought substantial improvements in demands and service delivery as well as creation of new services and programs for public welfare

In this study we have analyzed the effectiveness of public services marketing in delivering the quality services to general public by taking into account the opinion of managers running a public sector organization about the way they hold marketing factors as an strategic aim. We also documented the performance level of organizations from Hefei and Wuhu cities of Anhui province of China in order to identify significant factors governing the marketing outcomes. Results of General Linear Model revealed that knowledge and skill is considered an important ingredient for raising the performance level of organizations in both Hefei and Wuhu. In addition, we conclude that public sector in China having huge potential to assist the government in providing effective products and services for public at large and hence we recommend that government should expand its marketing activities in Chinese public sector.

Further research is required to add more factors that can contribute to outcome of public sector marketing in China and to quantify the findings from this research.

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Environmental Coordination: Reneging and Transaction Costs

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Abstract

In the well-known Stern Review from 2006, global warming and climate change was described as the largest externality in the known history of mankind. When externalities take on a planetary scale, then costs will show up in various countries sooner or later, like now China, the Pacific Islands and Western US as well as India for instance. The core of the difficulty of counter-acting the process of poisoning the atmosphere through the emission of greenhouse gases is the set of problems that governments encounter when they attempt collective action through coordination. These difficulties are well analysed in game theory, but the lessons have not been drawn upon in the many international meetings aimed to tackle climate change. The tone is now optimistic ahead of the next major reunion in Paris end of this year, but it is not likely that the government of the countries of planet Earth will overcome the dismal logic of collective action, viz. reneging and transaction costs.

Key Words: logic of collective action, free riding, tragedy of the commons, promises-reneging, unanimity and transaction costs, greenhouse gases: level and growth, affluence or GDP.

INTRODUCTION

Ecological capital is declining year in and year out, because nobody owns it – constituting a huge set of common pools. To measure the decrease in global ecological capital is far more cumbersome a task than to measure economic capital in the conventional sense. Yet, ecological capital is more tangible and easier to estimate than the recently much debated form of capital in the social sciences, viz. social capital or trust, which remains elusive and difficult to pin down in an index.

Concerning the decline in global environmental capital, one may adduce recent evidence about various phenomena, like the following:

- The increase in the number of endangered animals as well as the reduction in the number of species;
- The overfishing of lakes, seas and oceans;
- The increased pollution of the oceans including acidification;
- Increasing temperature in the oceans and seas;
- The concentration of human population in huge urban sites without proper sanitation and access to fresh water;
- The slow vanishing of the rain forests around the globe and the huge forests in Siberia;
- The steady growth of desert areas;
- The shrinking of large lakes;
- The growing fresh water shortages - draughts;
- The pollution of the atmosphere by greenhouse gases, leading to climate change and global warming.

Here, I will discuss the last item in the list above, in particular why coordination failure is likely with regard to the efforts at a planet climate policy, halting global warming, which is probably

the most dangerous type of decline in ecological capital. Global warming propels strongly the other major types of environmental destruction listed above.

COORDINATION AND COLLECTIVE ACTION BY GOVERNMENTS

The somewhat 190 governments of the world come together under the UN climate change program or the G20 group of nations, representing around 70 per cent of global population, meet to discuss ecological policy-making. They have to overcome the inherent difficulties in collective choice, analysed in mainstream game theory, as these meetings invite a set of strategic interactions among leaders, representing the legal entity of a state.

The difficulties in global environmental policy-making appear in a model of social choice under uncertainty:

- a) Who decides? When many governments come together to decide upon the goals and means of global policy, then the requirement of unanimity (consensus) is conducive to huge transaction costs;
- b) The various governments differ greatly in their estimates of probabilities and outcome costs involved in the alternatives of action, meaning resilience will likely be the outcome by default;
- c) Countries already hit by the consequences of global warming favour precaution to prevent even more disasters, whereas other countries prefer to wait and see – resilience;
- d) When preventive measures harm the prospects of economic growth, countries differ in how they trade off the two entities. Opportunistic action strategies – preference distortion, delay, reneging – come in as a major disturbance of the possibility of collective rationality;
- e) If a global agreement is reached at these spectacular meetings, then the outcome will be government promises that can easily be reneged upon.

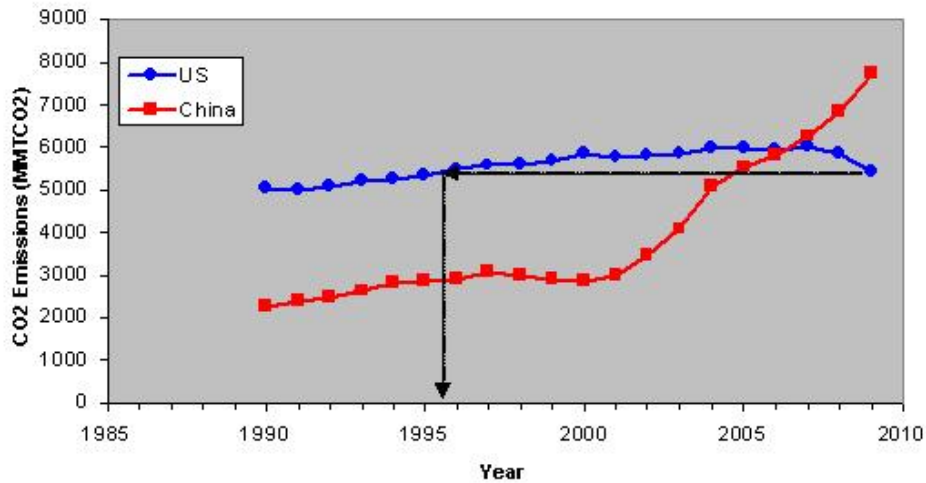
Given these hindrances to a global ecology policy, it is little likely that any such coordination endeavours will succeed in time to halt the growth in carbon equivalent emissions. There will be much discussion about what to do, but little consensus upon concrete policies – resilience taking precedence over precaution.

Thus, climate change is much talked about, but little concrete action is taken. It is hardly a top priority like economic development or growth for the countries with the 20-25 largest economies in the world. However, they and only they can take measures – precaution – that halt the increase in yearly emissions and start a process towards zero emissions per year. In this tragedy of the commons game, we now follow the strategy “resilience” that may give mankind the worst possible outcome in the future.

It is claimed as a major step towards global coordination of a common pool regime against the emission of greenhouse gases that the worst polluters – China and USA – have promised to start reducing their emissions. But this promise has been made for the end of the 2020ies – too late! And it can always be reneged upon, with shifting political conditions.

Figure 1 shows that the emission of CO₂ is now down somewhat in the US but up still in China. But the combined level of emissions is enormous, or some 14 gigatons in 2010! Even if the yearly increases in emissions are eliminated, the level of emissions stay too high for global sustainability.

Figure 1. Increases in CO2 in China and the US



Source: Annual carbon dioxide emissions from the United States (blue) and China (red), 1990-2009 (data source, EIA).

The UK for instance speaks about an 80 per cent reduction during the 21st century, but how it is to be done remains to be clarified, given the strong link between cheap energy, emissions and economic development. And the level of emissions must come down already now. Yet, the recent turn to the massive use of shale oil and gas reinforces the importance of fossil fuels in the world economy, driving down the price of petrol. What basically drives global warming?

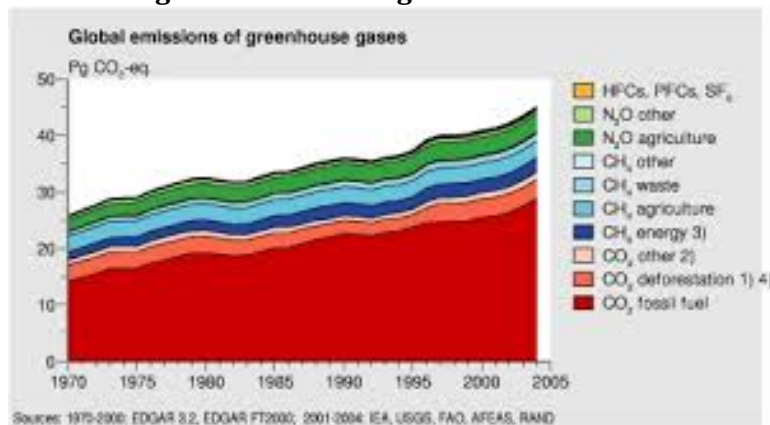
THE JUGGERNAUT OF THE 21st CENTURY: GDP, Energy and Emissions

The inability to halt the expansion of greenhouse gases and to stem the strong increase in yearly emissions since 1980 as well as to possibly reverse the trend depends upon very strong forces in the global market economy. The consumption of cheap energy is a key element in the steady growth in total economic output. And energy is strongly linked with emissions of greenhouse gases. Mankind needs to undo these links between GDP, energy and emissions by new technology, but it will be costly and may hurt rapid economic development in countries that aim at catching-up.

a) Increase in Emissions

Given the enormous risks for mankind in relation to the probability of the worst-case scenario of climate change – 6 degrees or more, it seems negligent on the part of the world powers not to do more. The emission increases in all four types of greenhouse gases are formidable – see Figure 2.

Figure 2. Emissions growth 1979-2005



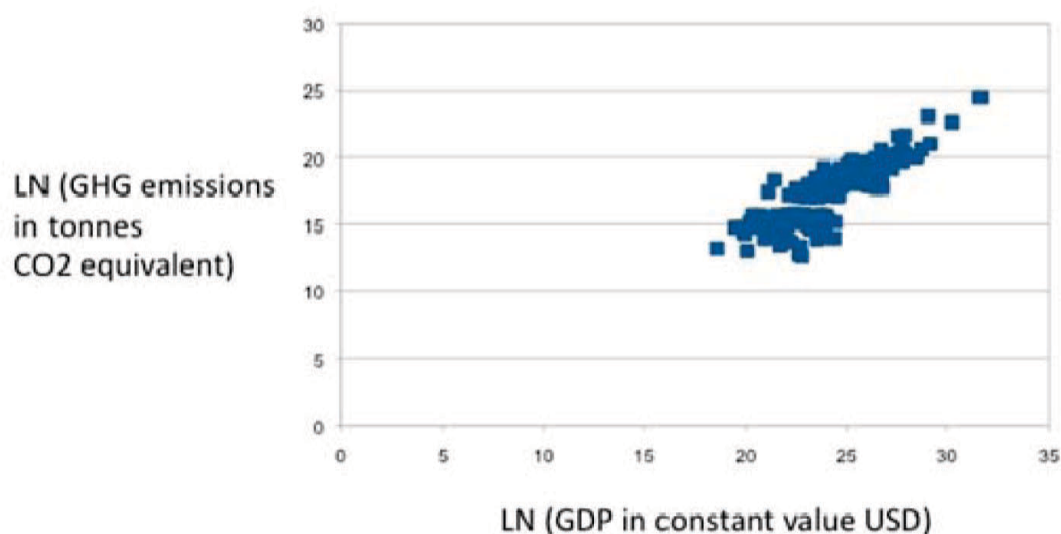
It is the carbon dioxide emission that has kept going up to a level of 50 trillion tonnes in 2013. Planet Earth can absorb less and less of these outputs, especially as global forests are decreasing and the acidification of the oceans increase.

It is often argues that it is the yearly increase in these emissions that must be halted though a common pool global policy. Wrong! It is the total size in gigatons – the level and not the change – that is extremely worrisome for the future and mankind and his/her social systems as well as nature itself.

b) The Links: GDP- Energy – Emissions

What makes the process of global warming seemingly unstoppable is that it is driven by the most mundane incentive among human being, the quest for income and wealth. In order to produce decent living conditions, men and women search for economic development or the growth in GDP. Yet, Figure 3 shows that on the global macro level, the variation in economic development has strong implications for the emission of all kinds of greenhouse gases: the richer and larger a country economy, the more emissions it releases. This finding is, of course, the rationale for the argument that we need another kind of economic growth that builds upon carbon neutral technology. This is no doubt feasible in theory, but in practice we are stuck with the fossil fuel economy. And the destruction of forests and fresh water sources continue.

Figure 3. Total emissions and GDP: Equation: LN GDP - LN GHG Total : $y=0.81x$, $R^2 = 0.708$



Note. GDP vs. Greenhouse emissions for 158 countries in 2011. Sources: 1. World Bank Open Data, <http://data.worldbank.org>. 2. CAIT WRI 2.0: Climate Data Explorer, World Resources Institute, <http://cait2.wri.org>

At global reunions among the politicians and experts, there is much talk about the emissions per capita. Developing countries underline that they tend to display lower emissions per capita than advanced economies. But total emissions count for the policy aim of reducing considerably the poisoning of the atmosphere!

Economic development can, I emphasize again, be environmental friendly. Many micro projects have reduced carbon emissions and yet delivered goods and services more efficiently. However, what counts at the macro level is the overall addition and subtractions. Take the

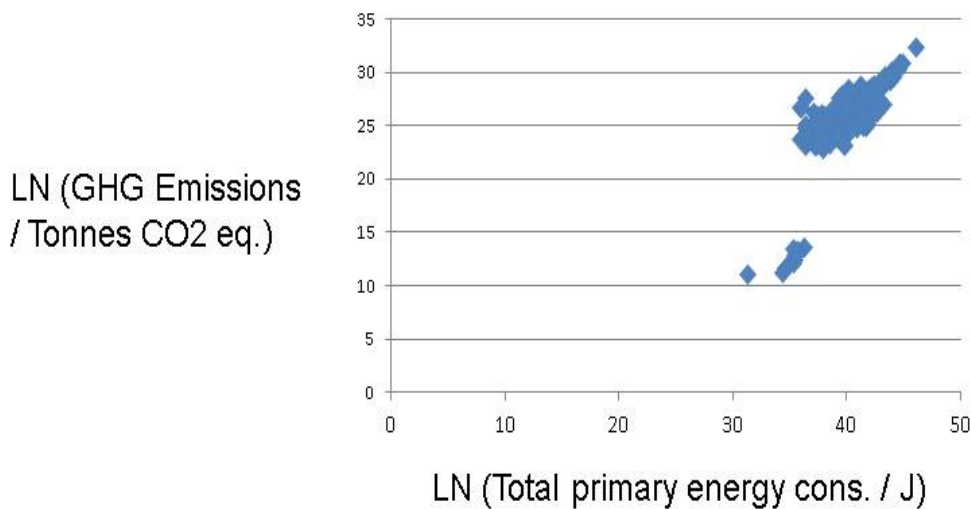
example for Singapore that is well aware of the energy-environmental conundrum. Although it must be admitted that Singapore is doing many advanced projects to promote ecological sustainability, it should be pointed out that it is a big hub for air traffic and sea shipping, which both result in greenhouse gases. In addition, Singapore has coal fired power stations and consumes huge amounts of electricity (water cleaning, waste treatment, air conditioning in almost all housing and public buildings).

The same contradictory finding applies to the UAE where lots of investments are done in ecologically friendly projects. But the fact remains that CO2 emissions per capita here are the largest in the world, like Qatar. To understand the close link between total GDP and total emissions one needs to look at global energy consumption.

Economic activity in all forms consumes directly or indirectly huge amounts of energy. This leads to the emission of greenhouse gases, directly or indirectly. To take a somewhat drastic example: the rapid increase in consumption of meat energy has resulted in an enormous growth of the number of cows in the world, which produce methane that is very conducive to climate change and global warming.

It is also the case that rich countries consume more energy per person than poor countries, as higher levels of affluence require more energy – in general. Again, the situation is paradoxical, as rich countries can invest in environment friendly technology but they also consume more energy for upholding their lifestyle. Figure 4 has the finding.

Figure 4. Total greenhouse gases and total energy consumption: Equation: Energy - emissions: $y = 1,223x$, $R^2 = 0,616$, $N=173$



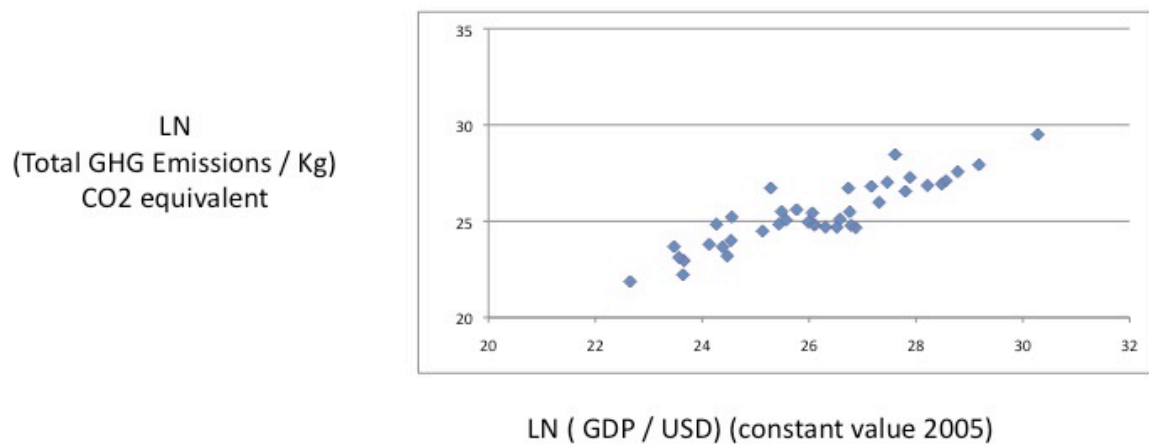
It is evident from the Figure 4 above that efforts should be undertaken to shift towards energy from carbon neutral sources, including reducing the greenhouse gases from fossil energy sources. If Shanghai can build a coal fired power station with no carbon dioxide emissions, then so can all Chinese cities or villages.

The combination of the choice of resilience in the basic game against Nature with the accumulation of massive transaction costs at global reunions leads only to the rapid decline in overall environmental capital. Ecology capital decreases, because there is no owner, mankind being just represented by some 190 governments in chaotic social choice settings at various places around the globe.

c) The 2012 Evidence

In the most recently available macro data, one finds strong confirmation of the hypotheses launched above. It is an undeniable but badly neglected fact that the variation in the country emissions of greenhouse gases is very much a function of the GDP of the country economy! See Figure 5!

Figure 5. Country GDP and country emission of greenhouse gases 2012. Equation: $y=0.85x$, $R^2=0.804$

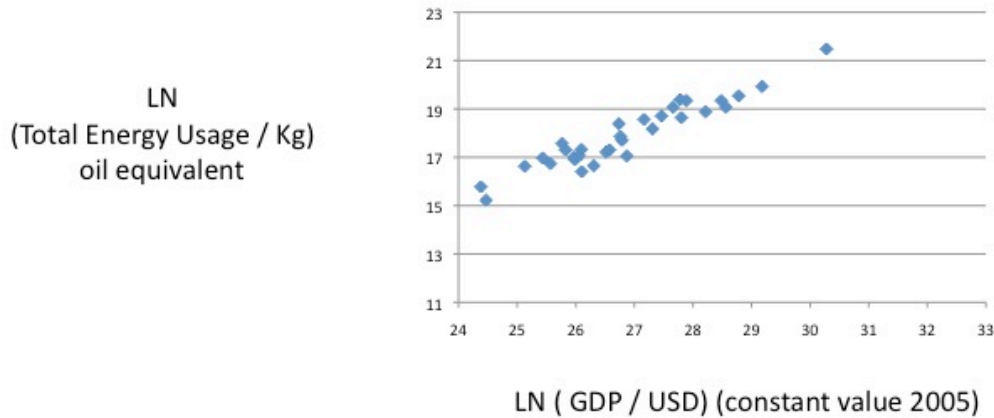


Sources: a) World Bank national accounts data, b) OECD National Accounts Data Files, c) United Nations Framework on Climate Change GHG inventory submissions.

The bigger the economy, the larger the emissions. This means that rich countries with a substantial population as well as medium income countries or even low income countries with huge population display the largest emissions. It also implies that when affluence goes up, emissions also increase. What is at stake is the life-style: cars, infrastructure (cement), urban centres (cement), air traffic, containers and fishing fleets, air-conditioning, food from cows, irrigation, etc., etc.

The core of the country economy is the use of various energy sources to produce goods and services for the global market economy. And most energy is derived from the burning of fossil fuels. One had hoped that there would soon come a global Hubbert peak for global oil production, but the massive exploitation of shale oil in the US and oil sands in Canada has made oil supply larger than demand. It is true that lots of experiments are going on with renewable energy sources, but they do not change the overall trend in energy consumption – see Figure 6.

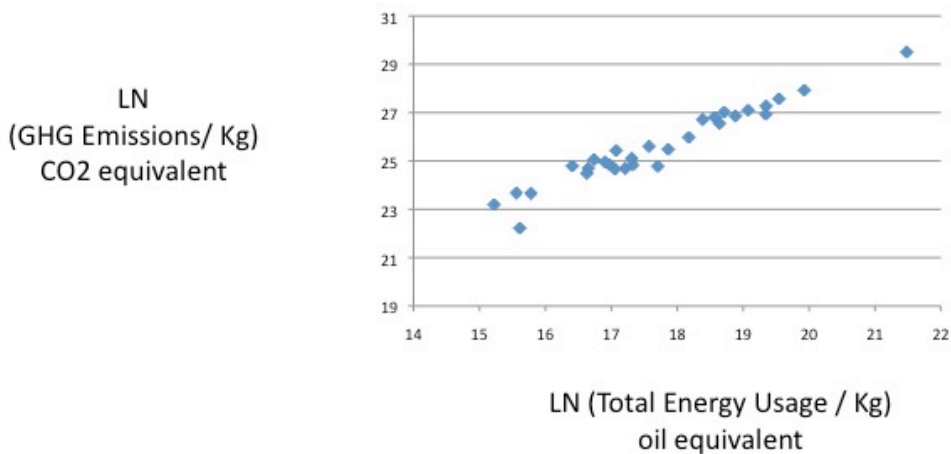
Figure 6. Energy and GDP 2012 at country level. Equation: $y=0.88x$, $R^2=0.908$



Sources: a) World Bank national accounts data, b) OECD National Accounts Data Files, c) International Energy Agency Statistics.

From the perspective of global policy-making, the total emissions must decrease. And this not occurring, despite all micro experiments. The macro trend appears in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Emissions – energy at country level. Equation: $y=1.05x$ $R^2=0.941$



Sources: a) International Energy Agency Statistics, b) United Nations Framework on Climate Change GHG inventory submissions.

The basic theory here links global warming with the size of the GDP , i.e the level of affluence in the economy times the size of the population. This entails among other facts that the emission of greenhouse gases must have exploded in Eastm South and South East Asia during the recent 25 years. Becoming the factory of the planet with enormous increases in affluence, the environment in this region of the world has deteriorated, as the major priority is economic growth.

Let us look at data about the vibrant Asian region, where average temperatures now require the massive use of airconditioning, which increases emissions and requires more energy!

ECOLOGY: Demand (pollution) and Supply (bio-capacity)

There is no one single indicator on Planet's loss of environmental capital. The so-called Ecological Footprint Framework (EFF) launched an ambitious attempt to come up with a single measure on the supply of environmental resources and the demand for them by using the so-called "global hectare per capita measure (<http://www.eea.europa.eu/highlights/Ann1132753060>).

The idea to have most general or encompassing measure on both environmental capital (supply) and human pollution (demand) is an interesting one. But it is not easy to devise or calculate such a measure. Based on an enormous input of information and effort, these environmentalists come up with what is basically an economic type model with supply and demand.

The conclusion that Planet Earth and thus mankind is running a serious and increasing deficit between demand and supply, resulting in an increasing reduction of global ecological capital. This framework is no doubt ingenious, attempting to cover all aspects and dimensions of environmental capital. But there are some problems here in the EF approach.

Table 1 shows such a footprint analysis for demand and supply for some Asian countries, employing per capita measures only, according to the Global Footprint Framework (2009).

Table 1. EAST ASIA and OCEANIA: Total Ecological Footprint, Bio-capacity and Net Result for 2005

	Total per capita Ecological Footprint	Total per capita Bio-capacity	Ecological Deficit or Reserve
Australia	7.8	15.4	7.6
Bangladesh	0.6	0.3	-0.3
Bhutan	1.0	1.8	0.8
Cambodia	0.9	0.9	-0.0
China	2.1	0.9	-1.2
India	0.9	0.4	-0.5
Indonesia	0.9	1.4	0.4
Japan	4.9	0.6	-4.3
Korea DPRP	1.6	0.6	-0.9
Korea Republic	3.7	0.7	-3.0
Laos	1.1	2.3	1.3
Malaysia	2.4	2.7	0.3
Mongolia	3.5	14.6	11.2
Myanmar	1.1	1.5	0.4
Nepal	0.8	0.4	-0.4
New Zealand	7.7	14.1	6.4
Pakistan	0.8	0.4	-0.4
Papua New Guinea	1.7	4.4	2.8
Philippines	0.9	0.5	-0.3
Singapore	4.2	0.0	-4.1
Sri Lanka	1.0	0.4	-0.6
Thailand	2.1	1.0	-1.2
Vietnam	1.3	0.8	-0.5

Source: GFN 2009

Matters are complex, although the ecological footprint is much bigger per capita in richer countries than in poorer ones, with country specific factors playing a large role in shaping eventual surpluses or deficits. Overall, it seems that ecological footprints vary positively with country affluence, while bio-capacity is determined by a host of other factors besides affluence. But when country size is added to the equation, the numbers in Table 1 are totally transformed and quite another picture emerges - see Table 2. What matters crucially is the size of the country in terms of the number of inhabitants.

Table 2: Total Ecological Impact (Deficit/Surplus/Person X Population) 2005

Australia	153.5
Bangladesh	-42.5
Bhutan	1.8
Cambodia	-0.0
China	-1588.0
India	-551.7
Indonesia	89.1
Japan	-550.8
Korea DPRP	-20.2
Korea Republic	-143.4
Laos	7.7
Malaysia	7.6
Mongolia	29.1
Myanmar	20.2
Nepal	-10.8
New Zealand	25.6
Pakistan	-63.2
Papua New Guinea	16.5
Philippines	-24.9
Singapore	-17.6
Sri Lanka	-12.4
Thailand	-77.0
Vietnam	-42.1

Source: GFN 2009

When the total ecological imprint is estimated, taking population size into account, it is no longer tenable to argue that global ecological footprint follows affluence. On the contrary, poor or medium income countries with large populations may have much more ecological impact than small super affluent countries. China and India are big polluters in the Asia-Pacific region. Interestingly, although the average person in Papua New Guinea pollutes more than the average in Bangladesh, the total outcome is much more severe in the latter country, as the number of people is crucial when it comes to ecological footprint. Not surprisingly, the bio-capacity of Papua New Guinea is larger than that of Bangladesh, which is vulnerable to flooding and hurricanes. It is possible to compare these scores for the Asia-Pacific region with comparable scores for other regions of the world. Table 3 attempts this, using the same framework of analysis.

Table 3: Global Ecological Impact (Deficit/Surplus/person X population) 2005

World	-3885.6
High Income Countries	-2624.4
Middle Income Countries	0.0
Low Income Countries	-237.1
Africa	360.8
Middle East and Central Asia	-365.6
Asia-Pacific	-2849.6
Latin America and the Caribbean	1327.7
North America	-892.4
Europe (EU)	-1169.5
Europe (Non-EU)	551.1

Source: GFN 2009

The positive numbers for Latin America include the high bio-capacity for Brazil, Bolivia and Peru – numbers that will go down quickly in the future as the rain forest disappears. The same applies to Malaysia where the rain forest in Borneo is decimated every day.

CONCLUSION

A major source of conflict is the confusion of greenhouse gases per capita and total emissions, which has bearing upon the distribution of costs with any common ecology policy. In the debate about greenhouse gases and CO2 emissions, one tends to mix up the basic numbers. It is vital to distinguish between total emissions and per capita emissions, when comparing countries in ecological policy-making. This confusion results from strategic gaming.

Let me first draw a picture of the total emissions by means of a list of the ones with most emissions, measured in millions of metric tons (Table 4).

Table 4. Countries with most emissions of greenhouse gases (mt) 2010

COUNTRY	Greenhouse gases	In per cent
China	9,679.30	22.7
USA	6,668.79	15.6
EU - 28 members	4,663.41	10,9
India	2,432.18	5.7
Russia	2,291.57	5.4
Japan	1,257.10	2.9
Brazil	1,104.64	2.6
Indonesia	814.71	1.9
Canada	710.72	1.7
Iran	698.38	1.6
Mexico	681.87	1.6
South Korea	661.69	1.6
Australia	560.64	1.3
Saudi Arabia	510.14	1.3
South Africa	458.29	1.1
Ukraine	380.89	0.9
Argentina	363.79	0.9
Nigeria	320.04	0.8
Pakistan	304.85	0.7
Kazakhstan	300.83	0.7
Venezuela	284.99	0.7
Malaysia	282.60	0.7
Taiwan	278.34	0.7
Uzbekistan	215.36	0.5
Total		83%

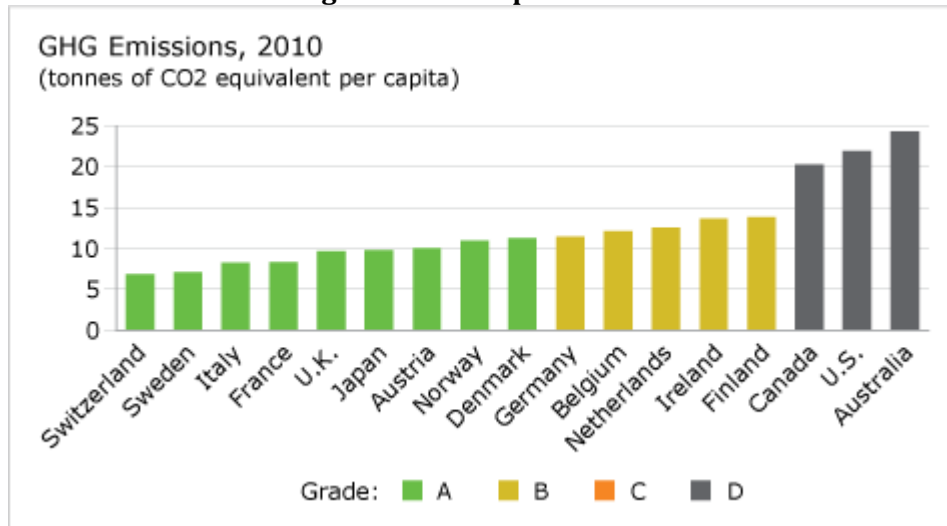
Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_greenhouse-gas_emissions

The structure of total emissions of greenhouse gases for global policy-making entails that what a mere set of some 20 countries, responsible for about 80 per cent of them, do will decides the

outcomes. Were they to reduce their emissions by 5 per cent a year, it would have a tremendous impact upon the risks of climate change. Total emissions are a function of huge economy, sizeable affluence and Soviet legacy. But instead the UN orchestrates mega reunions with all states of the world and confuses total emissions with emissions per capita.

Table 5 shows that the list of countries with very high CO2 emissions per person is very different from Diagram 1. It includes a number of tiny countries that are little relevant for the global policy aim to reduce emissions significantly, sooner rather than later.

Diagram 2. Per capita emission



Source: <http://www.conferenceboard.ca/hcp/details/environment/greenhouse-gas-emissions.aspx>

It may seem fair that all countries contribute to reduce greenhouse gases like CO2 emissions, but it is not efficient to focus upon emissions per capita.

There are several measures of per capita emissions in the literature. One may find diagrams with very high scores for the Gulf states – Qatar! - and Singapore, but they are tiny in a global context.

Climate change is finally getting the media attention it deserves, given the risk of catastrophe involved for mankind. But it still does not score highest in the priorities of the governments of the world. Traditional economic growth trumps ecological concerns, and tradition foreign policy objectives occupy state leaders more than the decline of the planet’s environment. Time is now of the essence in the effort to arrive at global coordination reducing the emission of greenhouse gases substantially. Most important is the ecology policy of China. Why focus on the islands in South China Sea, which will be flooded or cementing Pakistan when so much could be done at home concerning the rebuilding of coal fired power stations?

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Development Strategy of Subak for Supporting Agroecotourism Empowerment

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Abstract

Subak is a traditional irrigation system which has local knowledge society that has been inherited from generation to generation. Local knowledge in the form of socio-cultural activities can be used as a strong binder in subak system. Local knowledge also can be used as agroecotourism empowerment. On the other hand, the development of Bali as one of the major tourist destinations in Indonesia, both positive and negative impacts. One of the negative impacts are reduced wetland phenomenon occurs due to land conversion. One way in conservation efforts is by making subak has a role in "Subak Development Strategy for Supporting Agroecotourism Empowerment". This requires the study objective of this study was (i) identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in the SWOT analysis method to be able to develop agroecotourism empowerment, and (ii) formulate strategies needed by Subak in preparing developing utilization of agroecotourism empowerment. The study was conducted at the Subak Wangaya Betan, Penebel, Tabanan and Subak Lodtunduh, Ubud, Gianyar. The results of the analysis of internal and external factors after taking into account the weight and rating, at each subak sample resulted in a score for determining the development strategy of agroecotourism in subak system. In Subak Lodtunduh obtained internal factor is the total value of 47.5 and the value of the external factors is 20. At Wangaya Subak Betan obtained internal factor is the total value of 11.5 and the value of the external factors is 24 score of the final results of internal and external factors included in the diagram to obtain the location of the chosen strategy to develop agroecotourism in subak is concerned. In the results obtained Subak Lodtunduh, Subak development strategy on aggressive quadrant. Thereby also the Subak Betan Wangaya, Subak development strategy is obtained in aggressive quadrant. Thus the efforts needed to be more aggressive in the development of the agroecotourism subak system.

Keywords : subak, agroecotourism, SWOT

INTRODUCTION

Subak as one of the world's cultural heritage, not just an institution in the field of agriculture, but also a part of the local Balinese wisdom about the relationship between man and God, human relationships, and the relationship between human and nature environment (concept of Tri Hita Karana). Furthermore Susanto, 1999 saw the indigenous people of Bali just about the relationship between humans and the natural environment. Subak has local knowledge society that has been inherited from generation to generation, among others, has the nature of socio-cultural and socio-religious unique and superior (Ginter, 2003).

As a socio-cultural system, Subak has weaknesses. Windia (2008) mentions that one of the weaknesses of the irrigation system that is based on socio-cultural, as well as subak, is difficult to resist interventions that come from external parties, such as the utilization of water resources and land. Subak system always weaker position than others who utilize these resources.

The island of Bali is still a major tourist destination in Indonesia. Along with the development of tourism, a phenomenon which occurs due to the reduction of rice fields because of land conversion. Land conversion that occurred in Bali is large enough that an average of 750 hectare/year (Sutawan, 2005; Lorenzen, 2010). This is part of the challenge or threat to the existence of subak which directly or indirectly caused by the development of tourism in Bali (Sutawan, 2005; Windia, 2011).

There is a tendency that in the future subak system needs to be developed into an organization-oriented economy in addition to perform functions principally as irrigation water management, without having to sacrifice socio-religious (Sutawan, 2005). One way is with the conservation efforts subak synergize with tourism. This requires the development of tourism activity on the subak system as an effort to empower and maintain the sustainability of the subak system in Bali. As a first step of the implementation of these efforts, the necessary "Subak Development Strategy for the Exploitation Support Agroekowisata".

The development of tourism in the subak system is expected as a sub activity of the subak system with economic activity. These activities can provide benefits which are: to preserve natural resources, conserve local technology, and increase the income of farmers/communities around tourist sites, so hopefully will be able to support the empowerment and safeguarding subak system in Bali.

Objectives

The objectives of this research was: (i) identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats by the method of SWOT analysis on the system to be able to develop cultivation subak agro ecotourism; (ii) formulate strategies needed by subak to enhance the knowledge, skills, and management of subak as the community development efforts of the subak system in preparation for developing agroecotourism exploitation; and (iii) formulate activities and facilities needed in order to improve the ability of income (income generating capacity) system in an effort to maintain continuity subak system.

METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in Subak Wangaya Betan, Penebel, Tabanan and Subak Lodtunduh, Ubud, Gianyar. The population in this study are all stakeholders associated with the development of agriculture as well as tourism and culture, namely: (i) members of Subak, (ii) management of Subak, (iii) the Department of Tourism, (iv) the Department of Agriculture,

(v) the Department of Culture, (vi) the travel agency, (vii) the local government, and (viii) the decision makers in the region concerned subak.

Data Collection

Data collection was carried out with various activities as follows.

- a. Conducting interviews with respondents using a questionnaire that has been prepared, to determine the elements of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT). Furthermore formulated strategies to be undertaken by the subak in order to develop agroecotourism.
- b. A meeting with members of the subak to gain a common agreement on the formulation of development strategies agroecotourism. This activity is carried out by the method of Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA).
- c. Conducting interviews with some key respondents were considered to have a broad knowledge in order to develop agroecotourism.
- d. Do the search field to know clearly about the condition of the field at the sample subak.

DATA ANALYSIS

SWOT analysis is based on the logic that maximizes the strengths and opportunities, but simultaneously can minimize weaknesses and threats (Rangkuti, 2008). SWOT analysis is done in three stages, namely the collection of data (input stage), analysis (matching stage), and decision-making (decision stage). In identifying subak, from data obtained through field survey. SWOT analysis is done to obtain alternatives subak development strategy in the rapid development of tourism in Bali.

Tools used to formulate strategic factors is the SWOT matrix. This matrix can clearly describe how external opportunities and threats faced can be tailored to the strengths and weaknesses. Formulation of strategies needed in order to develop the cultivation subak agroecotourism, conducted by Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). PRA is an approach in the process of empowerment and citizen participation, the emphasis on community involvement in the overall development activities.

RESULTS

Overview Subak Lodtunduh

Subak Lodtunduh area in Desa Singakerta area, District of Ubud, Gianyar. Ubud is a cultural tourism based area. Subak Lodtunduh is 25.67 hectare with a total membership of 75 people consisting of 56 landowners and 19 tenant farmers (share-croppers). Subak Lodtunduh is as follows.

North: Subak Gagalan

East: Subak Tebongkang

South: Subak Kalangan Samu

West: Subak Bija

Water source for farming activities derived from Kedewatan weirs on the Ayung River and flows into Subak Lodtunduh through Yeh Lauh River. Pasedahan named Pasedahan Yeh Lauh which is consist 33 Subak in Badung, Denpasar and Gianyar Regency.

In general, farmers in Subak Lodtunduh using 90% of the average area of land is for rice commodity and 10% of the average area of land is for non-rice commodities such as kale,

sweet potatoes, pacar flowers, and chili. Marketing of farm systems in Subak Lodtunduh generally done with slash system. But there are also farmers who direct market their crops to market, and some are selling half his crop and partly for consumption

Overview Subak Wangaya Betan

Subak Wangaya Betan is situated in Desa Mangesta, District Penebel, Tabanan Regency, Bali Province. Subak Wangaya Betan as follows:

North: the mountainous area bordering the Buleleng

East: Badung Regency

South: Ocean Indonesia

West: Jembrana

Subak Wangaya Betan is approximately 76 acres, the number of subak members 96 peoples, consisting of three munduk namely: (1) Munduk Juukan, (2) Munduk Desa, and (3) Munduk Manggis. Geographically, Subak Wangaya Betan are on higher ground on the slopes of Gunung Batukaru, Tabanan and entered as a buffer area of world cultural heritage Jatiluwih.

Cropping patterns in Subak Wangaya Betan apply cropping pattern known as kerta masa (performed simultaneously on a good day). Arrangements are usually made by consensus by members of Subak lead by pekaseh.

Subak Wangaya Betan's water source comes from springs in the region Wangaya Betan Hamlet, Village Mangesta. Implementation of water distribution is done by meeting or rules based tektekin or kecoran (water discharge). Ration irrigation water received by a member in Subak Wangaya Betan based on ayahan system (as compensation obligations of the right to water). Water rights received by a member of the subak will be accompanied by the obligation ngayah in any subak activity.

SWOT analysis

In conducting a SWOT analysis on subak samples, determined internal factors (strengths and weaknesses) and external factors (opportunities and threats). The elements in each of the internal and external factors grouped in mindset aspects, social aspects, and aspects of the artifacts or material.

After identification of the elements of the internal and external factors, further analysis matrix composed strategy by giving weighting to each element of the internal and external factors and rating of each element on the internal and external factors in accordance with the conditions of the subak samples. Total weight for the internal factor is 100% and then divided by average 50% each

for strengths and weaknesses. Similarly to external factors.

Rating of all the elements of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats carried out with a value rating and category as shown in Table 3. Results of the final score on the internal and external factors Subak Lodtunduh then substitution in the diagram to be able to obtain the location of the chosen strategy to develop agroecotourism in Subak Lodtunduh, as presented in Figure 3.

Table 3: Category rating on the internal and external factors

Rating	Category	Internal factors	External factors
-5	very bad	Weakness	Threat
-4	Bad	Weakness	Threat
-3	almost bad	Weakness	Threat
-2	no bad	Weakness	Threat
-1	very no bad	Weakness	Threat
1	very no good	Strength	Opportunity
2	no good	Strength	Opportunity
3	Good	Strength	Opportunity
4	Best	Strength	Opportunity
5	Better	Strength	Opportunity

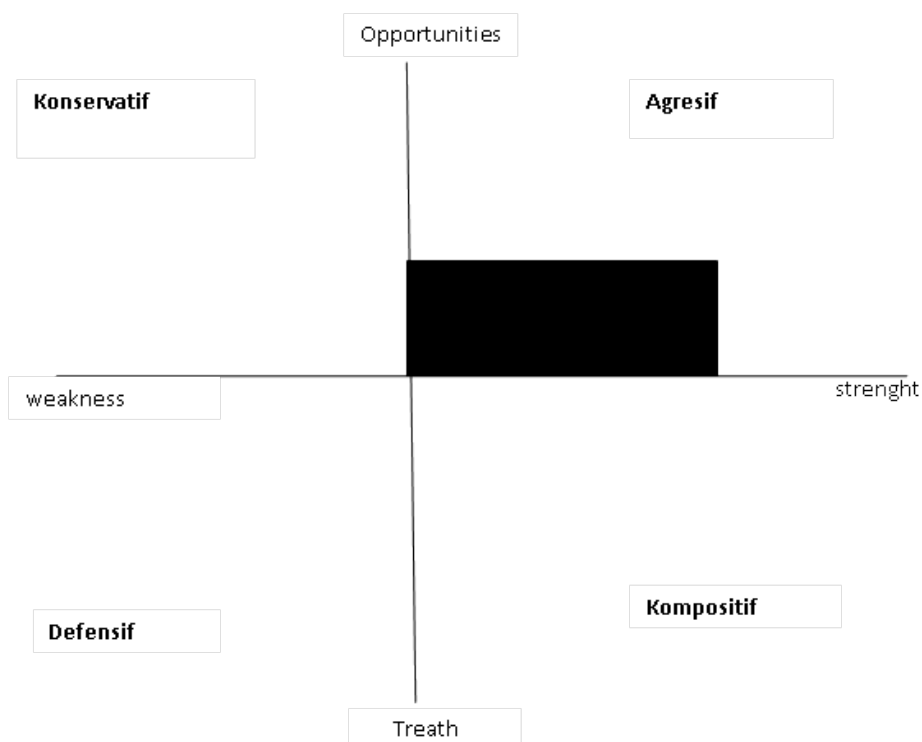


Fig 3. Subak Lodtunduh SWOT analysis Diagram

The results of the final score on the internal and external factors Subak Wangaya Betan then substitution in the diagram to be able to obtain the location of the chosen strategy to develop agroecotourism in Subak Wangaya Betan, as presented in Figure 4.

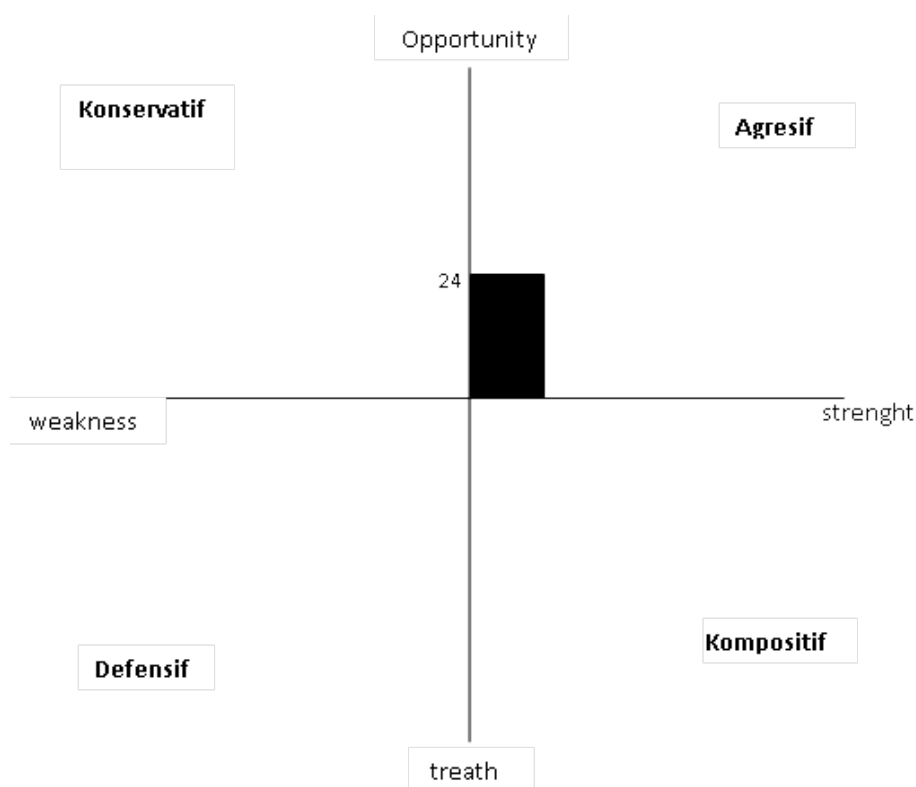


Fig 4. Subak Wangaye Betan SWOT Analysis diagram

Development Strategy based on SWOT Analysis

Based on the results obtained in the SWOT analysis diagram, it can be determined implementation strategy through activities that can be carried out in accordance with the SWOT analysis has been done for the corresponding water control system in order to prepare and support the operation of agroecotourism to be done.

Development Strategy on Subak Lodontuh

Strategies that can be implemented according to the SWOT analysis has been done for Subak Lodontuh to prepare and support the operation of agroecotourism to be done, can be the following activities.

- a. The formation of sub-managers of agroecotourism businesses under institutional subak
- b. Adjacent to the increase in value-added products
- c. Repair some infrastructure, namely: the improvement of some point on the path tracking, improved support facilities (toilets, etc.), procurement / repair restoration, repair stop over
- d. Assistance in improvement plan tracking path
- e. Assistance in promotion through various media (brochures, web, etc.)
- f. Technology assistance in making souvenirs include: production, packaging, presentation, and marketing
- g. Assistance for mediation to local governments and related agencies, namely: Local Government, Department of Tourism, Department of Culture, Department of Agriculture and Foodstuffs, and Travel Agents
- h. Assistance in mastery of information technology upgrades
- i. Assistance in strengthening awig awig for control over the land.

Development Strategy on Subak Wangaya Betan

Strategies that can be implemented according to the SWOT analysis has been done for Subak Wangaya Betan to prepare and support the operation of agroecotourism to be done, can be the following activities.

- a. The formation of sub-managers of agroecotourism businesses under institutional subak
- b. Adjacent to the increase in value-added products
- c. Repair some infrastructure, namely: improved access road to the site, repair some point on the path tracking, improved support facilities (toilets, etc.), procurement / repair restoration, and repair stop over
- d. Assistance in manufacture of floor plan tracking path
- e. Assistance in promotion through various media (brochures, web, etc.)
- f. Technology assistance in making souvenirs include: production, packaging, presentation, and marketing.
- g. Assistance for mediation to local governments and related agencies, namely: Local Government, Department of Tourism, Department of Culture, Department of Agriculture and Foodstuffs, and Travel Agents.
- h. Assistance in mastery of information technology upgrades
- i. Assistance in strengthening awig awig for control over the land.

CONCLUSION

Based on the SWOT analysis for Exploitation Agroecotourism For Effort Community Development and Capacity-Building Revenue (Income Generating Capacity) at subak samples, obtained the location of the chosen strategy to develop agroecotourism on Subak Lodtunduh is an aggressive strategy. Similarly, the location of the strategy chosen to develop the Subak Wangaya Betan agroecotourism is an aggressive strategy.

Strategies that can be implemented according to the SWOT analysis has been done for Subak Lodtunduh to prepare and support the operation of ecotourism to be executed, may be the activities: the establishment of sub-managers of agroecowisata businesses under subak institutions, assistance to the increase in value-added products, the improvement of some infrastructure, mentoring improvement plan tracking path, promotion assistance through a variety of media, technology assistance in the manufacture of souvenirs, for mediation assistance to local governments and related agencies, assisting mastery of information technology capacity building, and strengthening mentoring awig awig for control over the land.

To Subak Wangaya Betan strategies to prepare for and support the operation of ecotourism to be executed, may be the activities: the establishment of sub-managers of businesses agroecotourism under subak institutions, assistance to increase the added value of products, repair some infrastructure, assistance tracking path plan-making, promotion assistance through a variety of media, technology assistance in the manufacture of souvenirs, for mediation assistance to local governments and related agencies, assisting mastery of information technology capacity building, and strengthening mentoring awig awig for control over the land.

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Elderly in India: An Issue of Importance

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Abstract

The elderly population in the world is increasing. The elderly in all societies need special care and attention. The United Nations General Assembly endorsed the International Plan of Action on Ageing in 1982. The United Nations and the World Assembly on Ageing have generalized the boundary for defining old age to be 60 years. The paper is based on secondary sources and mentions some of the studies on the ageing population. Traditionally, India is a country which had special position for the aged in the family. But, the situation is slowly changing. Transition is taking place from joint to nuclear families, with the changing lifestyle of the people. Double-income nuclear families are slowly making the presence of the elderly redundant in their homes. The rising generation gap is creating havoc in the family relations. They are facing several forms of problems, which need to be addressed. The paper tries to provide an overview of the condition of the elderly.

Keywords: Elderly, India, Abuse, Neglect

INTRODUCTION

International community first debated the question of ageing at the United Nations, at the initiative of Argentina in 1948. The issue was next raised by Malta only in 1969. In recognising that longevity was becoming one of the major challenges of the 20th century, the United Nations convened World Assembly on Ageing in Vienna in 1982. In the same year, the United Nations General Assembly endorsed the International Plan of Action on Ageing. In 1990, the General Assembly designated October 1 as the International Day for the Elderly. It was later renamed as the International Day of the Older Persons. The United Nations General Assembly decided in 1992 to observe the International Year of Older Persons in 1999 to raise awareness of the fast changing demographic picture of older persons. The World Health Organisation dedicated its World Health Day in 2012 to ageing. The United Nations and the World Assembly on Ageing have generalized the boundary for defining old age to be 60 years.

Some Studies On The Elderly

Population of the world is ageing. The needs of the elderly population should be given adequate priority by the State, the community and the family. The vulnerabilities of the elderly population need to be addressed by the greater community, in the changing times. Several researches are being carried out throughout the world on the elderly in order to understand their status in today's world and to suggest means to improve their condition. An international survey on the problems of the elderly carried out by the Sandoz Institute in consultation with the United Nations in 1982 found that the elderly have grave financial, health, psychological problems. Pew Research survey focused on the global level and it tried to find out the public opinion on whether the growing number of older people is a problem. The time-frame of the surveys were conducted from March 3 to April 21, 2013. The sample size was 22,425. Nearly ninety percent Japanese, eighty percent South Koreans and seventy Chinese describe aging as a major problem in their country. More than fifty percent the public in Germany and Spain state that it is a major problem. In America, one-in-four express that ageing is a serious problem.

A study on Elderly Abuse in the Health Care Services in Kenya was conducted by HelpAge International, Africa Regional Development Centre and HelpAge Kenya with support from the World Health Organization and the International Network for the Prevention of Elder Abuse. Type, causes and consequences of elder abuse that were vividly described in focus group discussions clearly reveal that older persons are denied a range of rights. Recommendations on improving the condition include establishment of specialist facilities for the elderly and other patients, special and additional training for health workers in the area of geriatrics, possibility of the government of Kenya providing free or highly subsidized health care scheme for the needy elderly, support for the care of the elderly in institutions and at home and collaboration, integration and partnerships beyond the health sector. The scope of the study was limited due to financial difficulties.

A research study conducted by University of Exeter studied the impact of social media on the elderly. It has found that training older people in the use of social media improves cognitive capacity, increases a sense of self-competence and could have a beneficial overall impact on mental health and well-being. State of the Elderly in India: 2014 by HelpAge India highlights the dichotomy between an apparently happy picture of increased longevity and the reality of long years of hopelessness without family, society or state support, which the elderly in India face today. It also focusses on the oft-overlooked area of abuse of the elderly.

Maithreyi Krishnaraj in her paper on the 'Ageing Women in a Welfare State' studied the social security systems existing for the benefit of the elderly women in Europe. It is a matter of prioritization of the resource pool, which needs focus. To women it is a question of unequal gender relations where 'caring' functions are left to women but without corresponding compensations. This paper provides insights into the social security measures of the European States and the debate between home care and institutional care of the elderly. Throughout the word, the share of the burden of household chores, care for the elderly and toddlers etc fall on the women. Gender parity is lacking in the private space.

Meena Gopal in her article on 'Gender, Ageing and Social Security' held that the review of state and national initiatives for providing social security to older women points to the serious lack of will to address the concerns of a silent yet vulnerable section. In the context of state restructuring of the economy with a neo-liberal agenda, it is the deprived and vulnerable sections that bear the brunt of the resource crunch. The elderly, especially, the women, need secure safety nets. The paper touches upon some problems in implementing social security legislation, locating elderly women. Welfare measures of the State need to be targetted to the needy.

Psychological Autopsy Study of Suicides among Elderly states that since the proportion of older people in population is rising worldwide, there is need in increase in developing countries like India to focus on the elderly. This prospective and descriptive study by Nadaf et al among elder people has been carried out in the Department of Forensic Medicine, Victoria Hospital, Bangalore Medical College and Research Institute, Bangalore during the period November 2005 to April 2007. The sample of the study was 70. It has been observed in this study that the elderly suicide is multi-causal in nature. Among them family conflicts (57%), chronic physical pain (51%), chronic illness (51%), psychiatric disorders (46%), financial problems (33%) and addiction to the substance of abuse (34%) were the common factors that are leading to suicides among the elderly.

Leela Gulati and S Irudaya Rajan in 'The Added Years', have analysed data on ageing, gender differentials in ageing and widowhood with special focus on the condition of elderly women in the state of Kerala.

Tulika Tripathi in 'Unhealthy, Insecure, and Dependent Elders' stated that though India faces a growth in the proportion of its elderly, but there is no specific policy of substance to deal with this issue, especially for the elderly who have no resources to bank on. The paper emphasizes that the State should acknowledge its responsibility to the elderly, without hoping that the market will come to its aid. Another concern regarding the issue is the lack of proper data on the elderly and their situation. This could turn into a very grave situation in the future. It says the rise in old age population has increased the support burden on working age people (15-59). The socially backward communities such as the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes face a heavier burden.

Elderly In India

Independent India was a young country with life expectancy just 36 years in 1947. So during the initial years, the issue of managing an ageing population was not a serious challenge for the leaders of the day. Even the Indian official delegation to the World Assembly at Vienna stated that the country did not have much of a problem of the aged since the traditional family took care of the older members and the government health services took care of their health needs. The situation is different today. India now has over 100 million citizens over the age of 60. This is five times the number which was in 1950. Senior citizens today make up about 8.6 percent of the population. It is predicted that by 2020, India will be the youngest country in the world with a median age of 29 years. But, the 2014 State of Elderly in India report by HelpAge India state that the number of elderly people is likely to increase significantly after that.

According to the projections of Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, the projections are that there will be nearly 300 million seniors and make up about a fifth of the population. Compared globally, the number of Indian elderly population is quite small, but, they really require proper attention. In Japan, one-third of Japan's population is already above 60 years. One-third of Brazil's and one-third of China's population will soon cross 60 years. India's old age dependency ratio-the number of seniors for every 100 working age persons-is under 10, and even by 2050, it is predicted that it will not cross 20.

India

According to 2001 and 2011 census of India, there are 30, 68,797 and 49, 76,133 seniors living alone, respectively. In 2001, there were 2, 56, 58,706 widowed, separated or divorced seniors. In 2011, this number has increased to 3, 31, 95, 176. In 2001, seniors were 7.43 percent of the population. In 2011; they are 8.55 percent of the Indian population. India has a population of 5, 26, 28,399 million older women, according to 2011 census. In 2001, the total number of senior women was 3, 87, 52, 804. As women are outliving men, nearly half of all senior women were widowed. The problem of widows is indeed serious in India. According to a sample survey conducted by the Mahila Jagriti Mandal, 5 per cent of the widows in Uttar Pradesh take to begging. Another 1 percent is either divorced or separated. They are in a vicious cycle of alienation, emotional insecurity, healthcare problems, financial insecurity, social ostracisation etc. Most of the elderly women have neglected their health throughout their lives, which lead to dire consequences. There is transition in the structure of the family. Joint families are slowly giving way to nuclear families where elderly women find themselves lonely. The 'empty nest' syndrome affects them dearly. Children are migrating to other cities or countries for work.

Older women have to face age-related discrimination, mistreatment, harassment, violence and elder abuse in their life due to lack of awareness about their rights and support system available for them in old age. There is core poverty due to deprivation of nutritional food, clean potable water, shelter and sanitation. There is relative poverty due to deprivation of literacy, equal livelihood, leisure, access to rights, savings and dignity. Due to fast growing elderly population, increased life expectancy and higher percentage of elderly women in Indian elderly population, specific issues concerning elderly women should not be ignored any longer. Though Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act 2007 have been passed, but many among the elderly population are not aware of this right. If they are aware of this right, parents are not ready to use this act against their own children. This Act makes it obligatory for an adult child or grandchild to maintain elderly parents and enable them to lead a normal life. The Act also provides for a maintenance amount of a maximum of Rs 10,000 per month that children are liable to pay in case they neglect their parents.

Elderly abuse and neglect are shameful acts which bring disgrace to the human civilization. Neglecting the elderly has risen in most societies of the world. Globalization and the rising consumerism have led to heightened abuse of the elderly. They are considered as redundant in the family. Many of them are not taken care of in their homes or they are isolated from their relatives. Many family members forcefully extort money from the elders, even by emotionally blackmailing them. Many elders are left on the roads to fend for themselves. Homelessness can lead to further problems. Elderly abuse and neglect by the close ones are also increasing. But, they are mostly under-reported or totally unreported as the elders do not want to take their sons/daughters/grandchildren to police or courts. Security of the elderly needs to be given primary importance as crimes against the elderly are increasing in today's world.

India Needs To Be Serious About Care Of The Elderly

Art. 41 of the Indian Constitution has directed that the State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right of public assistance in cases of old age. But, this is a non-justiciable right. Social security is a matter looked after both by the Centre and the States as it is in the Concurrent List. The State also provides foodgrains at a subsidized rate to the elderly in below poverty line category of the population. The Government of India provides a paltry amount of Rs 200 to the elderly from the poor background, which is very less compared to the daily expenses. However, Goa, a state in India, provides Rs 2000 as universal pension under Dayanand Social Security Scheme. Elderly who have served the government have pensions, but the cost for health care becomes so high that the elderly needs real support from the State. There is provision for Central Government pensioners to avail Central Government Health Service (CGHS). But, the treatment meted out to the pensioners by the government staff is not dignified enough. The duty hours of the staff are also limited, not the usual hours of government servants. Specialists are not available in all centres. They may be available for twice a week. Even very sick people have to wait for hours to meet the doctor. The doctors are also heavily burdened. Government hospitals need to open specialized geriatric centres to cater to the health needs of the elderly.

The Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizen Act, 2007 has been specifically passed in order to improve the condition of the elderly. Parents can claim maintenance from their children or for childless couple; maintenance can be demanded from a relative who would be the legal heir. This law had to be passed as there were many occasions where the elderly faced ill or inhuman treatment from their children. This law is a form of protection provided by the State to support the elderly rights. But, a miniscule of the elderly population would be ready to complain against their own children in the police station or

courts. Children's wrong doing are pardoned by parents as they do not want their children to suffer at any cost.

There are certain sections in Indian society who still believe that the issue of care of the elderly is that of the family. Only a very small size of the Indian elderly needs support. They believe that the media is just sensationalizing the issue of abuse or neglect of the elderly. It is high time that the rights of the Indian elderly are given importance. The elderly themselves should be aware of their rights. All concerned stakeholders need to work together towards bringing perceptual change towards old age in society, sensitising younger generations towards elderly women, empowering younger women to develop them as strong older women, spreading awareness older women about their rights and powers, bringing attitudinal changes in girls towards their life and finally, initiating the process of strengthening human rights of older women.

Old age homes are coming up in the Indian cities and towns in order to suffice the needs of the elderly. Many elderly couples with children settled abroad or in different cities are switching over to old age homes so that they do not need to take care of electricity bills, telephone bills, the maintenance of their homes etc. Moreover, some of them feel that they can communicate and interact with like-minded people in these homes. Many of them have wonderful emotional connection with others in the homes. They celebrate birthdays, marriage anniversaries, new year etc. They are happy to spend their life with joy.

CONCLUSION

Traditional Indian society held elderly people with esteem. Gerontocracy was common. Caring of the elderly was never an issue as the elders in the joint family were never thought to be a burden. Their advice was always precious. But, with the transition in the Indian society and mindset, it is necessary that the needs of the elderly need to be introspected and analyzed. There is enough evidence to indicate that the quality of life of the elderly goes down with advancing years. Even the elderly who have high income level does not guarantee a secured life. It is very difficult for the elderly to face neglect from the family and the society as they feel that they are becoming redundant in society. A feeling of worthlessness seeps into them. Due to the fast moving world and the fast pace of life of everyone around, the elderly loses the zest for life. Loneliness and depression also lead to suicides. Absence of face-to-face contact deepens the level of isolation. This needs to be changed as the dusk of life should be a time-phase where each one should be happy and feel loved and respected by the people around. The bond of the grandparents with their children is always strong. Socialization and internalization of important values and morals are easily transmitted by the grandparents to the younger generation in the Indian family set-up. The vacuum of the position of grandparents in the Indian families are creating a gap in the family system. This vacuum cannot be filled up by any materialistic goods. The technology-savvy consumeristic society may be advanced, but humanistic values are lacking in the younger generation, which may be detrimental for the whole society, in the long run.

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Gender Gap in German Management Positions and Recommendations for Equality

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Abstract

Companies depend on highly qualified executives to survive and to keep up with the increasing global competition. Modern and globally dynamic companies often get criticized for the underrepresentation of women in management and senior level executive positions. These globally dynamic understand that they cannot do without the capability and commitment of qualified women to be successful in the future. Furthermore it has been proven that mixed teams of women and men work more efficiently, their capability grows faster, and they earn higher profits in comparison to homogeneous teams. Nevertheless, in many companies gender discrimination is a daily life. The result of this is an unequal allocation of gender gap in management positions favouring men. This article explores some of the reasons for the gender gap problem and how it can be solved. The authors provide suggestions to solve the dilemma and to overcome certain circumstances of mentality patterns in the organization's culture.

Key Words: Gender, discrimination, glass ceiling, stereotypes, Germany, Norway.

INTRODUCTION

Ermaine de Stael has been quoted as having said that “success has no gender”, yet modern females face more barriers than their male counterparts in reaching the upper levels of management. In other words, there is no equality in management opportunities among males and females, since men tend to get promoted faster into managerial and senior level positions. There is a great need for fairness and equality in promotions and management opportunities for females working in the modern workplace (Mujtaba, 2014). Workplace equality should lead to an overall improvement in the quality of life of all people, because it reduces poverty, improves education, and increases the economic growth (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes, 2002). The

equality between men and women is a human right afforded to everyone. Worldwide females assume many responsibilities in the workplace but their performance is often not appreciated. They are often disadvantaged and discriminated against. In comparison to men, most females do the largest part of the job or equal to men but they earn around twenty percent less income. Even in the political and business environments women are not equal in comparison with men. The economic potential and performance of women are widely undervalued and therefore often unused. In the German economy women are underrepresented in the highest leadership positions (Reimann, 2012; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010).

Next to reasons of justice there are also economic arguments that are important to motivate qualified females and to lead them into management positions. The increase of women in leadership positions is not yet regulated by the German government. But there are other possible reasons for the low number of women in leadership positions which are described in this paper. In particular, values, and in this context the change in values, represents an important aspect of the cultural and social behaviours. This factor has in turn a strong impact on the role of women in the society.

In the end, political, organizational and cultural recommendations are given to minimize this gender gap in management. Norway is often seen to have a pioneering role in the solution of this problem (Statista, 2015; Reimann, 2012; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). From the example of Norway and other best practices, we can derive at practical recommendations to increase the number of women in management positions and act as a positive example in Europe and in the world.

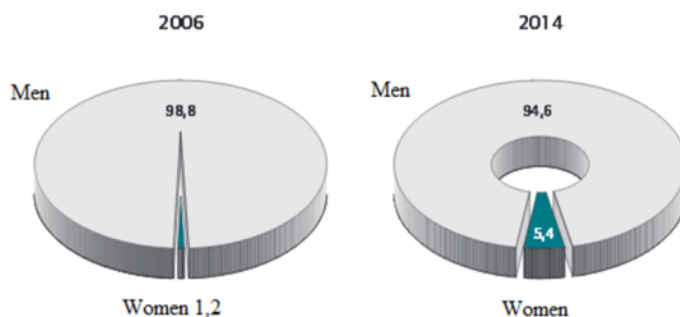
Leadership Positions in Germany

In 2001, the German economy required managers to bring more women in leadership positions, but despite this great need, executive and supervisory boards especially in large companies continued to be in men's hands (Holst and Kirsch, 2015). The federal minister of Family, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth in Germany has emphasized that the German constitution guarantees in its third article, the equal participation of men and women, but it is still not common in most companies.

To implement and ensure equality in opportunities for women and men in German companies the government has recently decided to introduce a quota for women in management positions (Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, 2014). On December 31st of 2014 the federal government cabinet has officially confirmed the draft for a law which will be implemented in 2016 and should guarantee equal participation of women and men in executive positions in private industry and public services (Federal Ministry of Justice and Consumer Protection, 2014).

The rate of women on the executive boards in Germany was 1.2 percent in 2006. This proportion increased slightly in the following years. Eight years later, the proportion of women which were part of the executive boards of the top 200 companies was only 5.4 percent at the end of 2014 (see figure 1). Overall, this was only about 1 percent more than in 2013 (Holst and Kirsch, 2015).

Figure 1: Executive boards in the largest 200 German companies.



Source: Holst and Kirsch, 2015.

According to a study on German firms, every fifth of the top 200 companies is employing women in the executive boards, which is 22 percent in total during 2014 (Holst and Kirsch, 2015). In absolute terms, there are 47 female directors on a total of 877 board seats. The situation of women on supervisory boards in the top 200 companies is a little bit better. Women were represented on 86 percent of supervisory boards.

The proportion of women has risen to about 18 percent in 2014. These are three points higher than in 2013. Due to this positive development, women only filled 397 of 2156 supervisory board positions in German companies. In the DAX-30 we had a proportion of 25 percent in 2014, which can probably be accounted for by the public discussions about gender quotas.

If the figures for the top 100 companies only are taken into account, the share of women in top management boards has in fact fallen from nearly 5 percent to just a little more than 4 percent. In the top 200 listed company groups, the share of female chairs in 2014 in the executive boards ranged from 0 to over 2.2 percent and 0 to almost 7.4 percent in the DAX-30 (Hucht, 2015; Holst and Kirsch, 2015).

The representation of women on supervisory boards increased at the end of 2014, almost 18 percent of board members in the top 200 companies were female. The DAX-30 companies had above-average results for female board members with close to 25 percent. But on both executive and supervisory boards the female chairperson is still the exception. Compared to 4 female CEOs, 179 of these positions on executive boards in the top 200 companies were filled by men.

There was not even one female CEO in the 100 largest companies in Germany in 2014. With only 3 percent of all supervisory chairs, women's representation stayed very low, as shown in figure 2. Figure 3 shows the female CEO percentage in DAX-30 companies in comparison to those located in other countries largest publicly listed firms.

So, with fewer than 5 percent, women are significantly underrepresented in the world's largest companies and with 0 percent particularly in Germany during 2013. This fact demonstrates that the gender gap in management positions is not only strongly represented in Germany but this is also the case in many other countries throughout the world.

Figure 2: Women on executive and supervisory boards in Germany's largest 200 firms

	Top 200									Top 100	
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2013	2014
Executive boards / management boards											
Total number of companies	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	100	100
With data on composition	195	184	191	187	195	197	200	195	197	97	97
With women on executive board	9	15	17	16	22	22	33	35	43	19	17
Percentage	4.6	8.2	8.9	8.6	11.3	11.2	16.5	17.9	21.8	19.6	17.5
Total number of members	953	893	934	833	906	942	970	906	877	484	461
Men	942	877	911	812	877	914	931	866	830	461	442
Women	11	16	23	21	29	28	39	40	47	23	19
Percentage of women	1.2	1.8	2.5	2.5	3.2	3.0	4.0	4.4	5.4	4.8	4.1
Total number of chairpersons	195	184	191	187	195	198	198	194	183	97	92
Men	195	184	190	186	193	197	196	190	179	96	92
Women	0	0	1	1	2	1	2	4	4	1	0
Percentage of women	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.5	1.0	2.1	2.2	1.0	0.0
Supervisory boards / administrative boards											
Total number of companies	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	100	100
With data on composition	170	145	168	153	166	163	170	157	155	86	85
With women on supervisory board	110	101	124	110	117	118	128	123	133	71	76
Percentage	64.7	69.7	73.8	71.9	70.5	72.4	75.3	78.3	85.8	82.6	89.4
Total number of members	2500	2268	2466	2175	2293	2268	2369	2159	2156	1231	1232
Men	2304	2074	2236	1961	2050	1999	2064	1834	1759	1044	1003
Women	196	194	230	214	243	269	305	325	397	187	229
Percentage of women	7.8	8.6	9.3	9.8	10.6	11.9	12.9	15.1	18.4	15.2	18.6
Total number of chairpersons	170	145	168	153	167	167	171	160	149	87	84
Men	167	143	166	151	165	164	168	156	144	83	81
Women	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	5	3	3
Percentage of women	1.8	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.8	2.5	3.4	3.4	3.6
Companies with data on employee representation	123	108	129	103	110	105	118	83	118	46	63
Total number of members	2206	1773	1910	1732	1506	1567	1638	1291	1869	748	1043
Men	2023	1616	1742	1563	1360	1391	1438	1088	1521	640	845
Women	183	157	168	169	146	176	200	203	348	108	198
Female employee representatives	139	117	125	121	105	119	117	110	200	61	113
As a percentage of women members	76.0	74.5	74.4	71.6	71.9	67.6	58.5	54.2	57.5	56.5	57.1

Source: Holst and Kirsch, 2015.

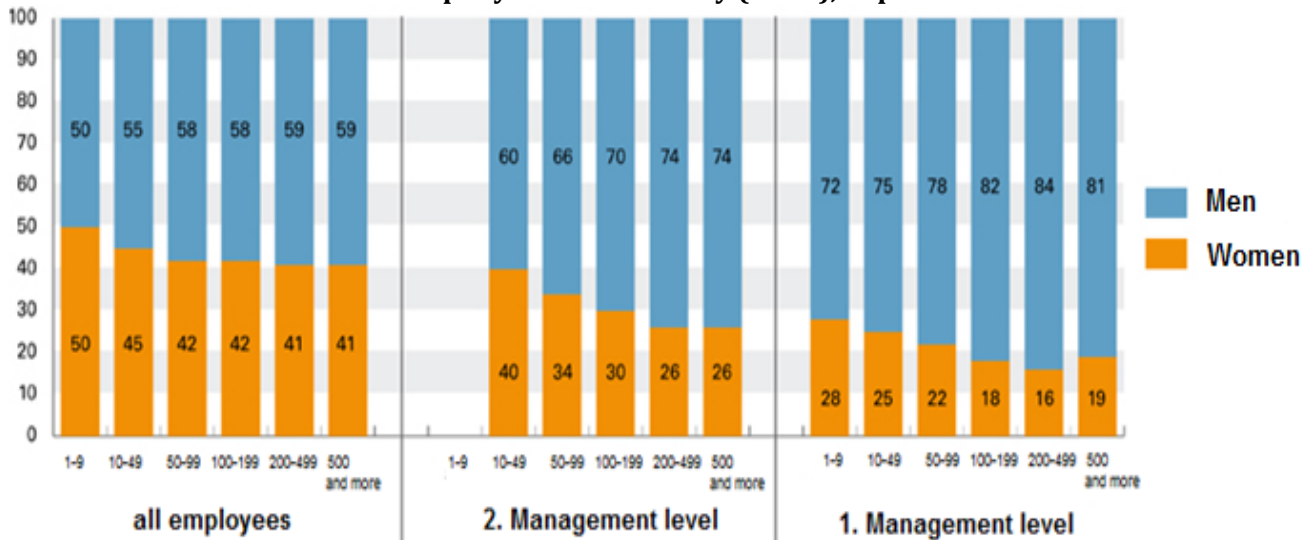
Figure 3: Women CEOs of public listed companies.

Stock exchanges	Percentage	Stock exchanges	Percentage
OECD ¹	< 5.0	European Union ²	2.8
Latin 500 ³	1.8	FTSE 100, UK ⁴	4.0
US Fortune 500 ⁵	4.8	ASX 200 Australia ⁶	3.0
JSE South Africa ⁷	3.6	BSE 100 India ⁸	4.0
Mexico Expansion 100 ⁹	3.0	CAC 40 France ¹⁰	0.0
SGX Singapore ¹¹	4.6	DAX 30 Germany ¹²	0.0
China ¹³	5.6	NZSX 100 New Zealand ¹⁴	5.0

Source: Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP), 2015.

A closer inspection of companies, in Germany in 2012, shows that the representation of woman in general and management positions is decreasing according to the size of the company. Figure 4 shows this problem clearly and illustrates at the same time that in the lower management positions women have better representation. The second management level is achieved by females about 1.5 times more in comparison to the first level. Nevertheless the fact that approximately half of the employees are women demonstrates that there is a problem of gender gap in the highest management positions, it also shows that there is an underrepresentation of females in these modern companies (Kohaut and Müller, 2015; Pfahl, Hobler and Oerder, 2014).

Figure 4: Filling of management positions with women and men on different management levels and company size in Germany (2012), in percent.



Source: Pfahl, Hobler and Oerder, 2014.

To underline the topic above a survey found that the number of women reaching higher management levels was increasing in 2013. After all they remain mainly in managerial functions such as human resources, public relations, communications, finance, and administration. Only a few international companies that were involved in the survey employed women in managerial functions like research, product development, sales, operation, and general managers.

This illustrates the fact that most of the women do not have such extensive experience in management or rather in the divisions which are necessary for a promotion to the executive squad (Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP), 2015; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). However, not only in an enterprise but also in different private industry sectors there is a tendency to cluster females in particular branches in Germany. With 46 percent in 2012, most of the women are represented at the first management level in service sectors like health and education.

A high proportion of women in total and in leading positions are in the retail, hospitality, economic, scientific and freelance service sectors. Nevertheless the number of women in the first management level is much lower than those of men. Branches like financial and insurance services stick out by the fact that the level of female employees, which is around 55 percent, is higher as in other branches. Only 11 percent are represented in the first management level. Other industrial fields such as the information and communication sector, wholesale and

automotive retail and repair or manufacturing industry are held almost exclusively by men which also indicate that the executives are majority men (Kohaut and Müller, 2013).

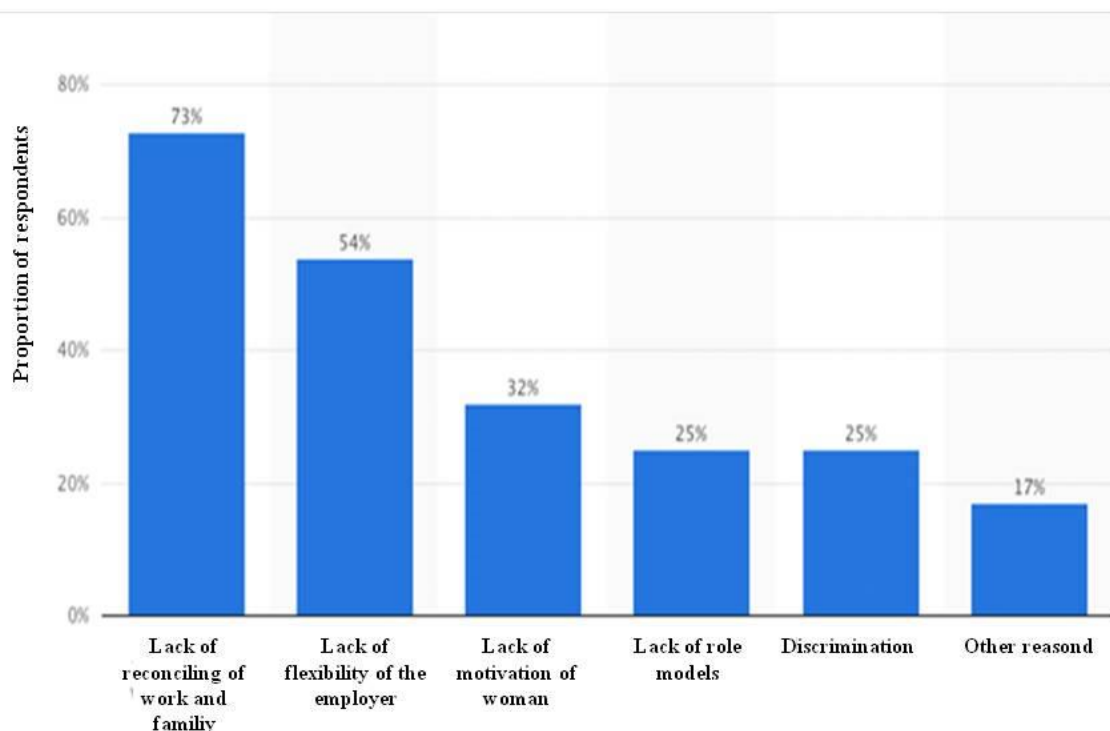
The situation in Germany illustrates that voluntary commitment by the companies to implement more women in the high management positions did not obtain the desired success (Deutscher Bundestag, 2015). It is very clear that much has to be done to combat the disparity between women and men in the working environment. But before that can happen, let us discuss some of the reasons for the gender gap disparity in management.

Reasons for the Gender Gap in Leading Positions

The main question is concerned with the reasons for the gender gap in the leading positions in Germany. Why are women in leading positions underrepresented?

The statistical portal Statista brought a statistical study from over 18,000 sources in Germany in 2015 for this question. Figure 5 shows the result of a survey of executives on the reasons for the low proportion of women in leadership positions. The two main reasons for the difference are lack of reconciliation of work and family with 73 percent, and lack of flexibility of the companies with 54 percent. Around 32 percent regard the fault of women's motivation as the decisive point. Furthermore, for 25 percent the missing role model is the reason for their behaviour of not going into management. Another 25 percent is blatant discrimination toward women, and 17 percent are other reasons (Statista, 2015).

Figure 5: Why are women underrepresented in management positions in Germany?



Source: Figure data based on Statista, 2015 a.

The reconciliation of family and working life represents one important reason for the underrepresentation of women in management positions. For women it is a challenge to combine these two areas of life because of the fact that tasks between a man and woman in the family and housework are not distributed evenly. This is supported by the fact that society still expects women to be mothers and to relieve men from such responsibilities and tasks.

Additionally, most single-parents are women, so even the single-parenthood is seen as a woman's task. The work-life-balance is a challenge especially for single-mothers because they have the responsibility for the economic situation, childcare, and recreational activities. So women in employment and especially in management positions have to handle the double pressure and are, at times, classified as uncaring mothers.

The compatibility of children and career for females are more difficult because of the missing of suitable work-life models and lack of sufficient facilities for childcare. As a result women have more interruptions in their career development, and their promotional prospects are getting worse. Also, part-time job is often a necessity for women's employment and family, and this supports the problem of gender gap in leadership positions because the decision for this kind of work is not always voluntarily chosen (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010; Federal Statistical Office, 2014; European Commission, 2014). Better conditions for the reconciliation of family and working life inside and outside of the company would help to increase the number of women in management positions. This means that all actors in the society such as government, economy and families have to contribute to ensure that employment and family responsibilities are adopted more equally between men and women (Confederation of German Employers' Associations (BDA), 2014; Kleinert, 2006).

Another reason for the underrepresentation of women in management position is the lack of flexibility of the employers. In order to survive in international competition, companies have to integrate diversified management teams with men and women being equally represented in all leadership positions. Actually, large enterprises are highly hierarchically-orientated and tend to have male dominated structures. Only in some departments such as human resources or public relations, there is often a higher representation of women in management positions. But to achieve a higher management position, some business areas are seen as "dead-ends" as they do not lead to senior positions.

Some companies in general see women as risky employees because of their ability to give birth and go on maternity leave, or they may even quit the job when they become housewives or mothers. Furthermore, larger companies use highly formalized recruitment procedures, which are disadvantageous for women, because they are based on male-orientated full-time working models and assess job interruptions as a loss of qualification.

In addition to this, companies have implemented rigid attitudes based on stereotyped role models of women which represent the view that women and leadership are not compatible (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010; Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family and Integration, n.d.; Wippermann, 2014).

The inflexibility of employers demonstrates that companies should implement more flexible working conditions with regard to consideration of time and space. This means that companies have to invest in intervention measures which support and encourage women in the execution of their management tasks.

Therefore they should create and implement flexible corporate cultures which should not only ensure family friendliness, the arrangement of flexible working hours and location, but also guarantee equal opportunity in the achievement of management positions in all corporate areas (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010; Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family, n.d.; International Labour Organization, 2015).

The Lack of motivation is the result of many factors. The missing female role models or role models in top management can cause the problem of identification. Women hardly recognize their gender in executive boards and management positions. In addition, many women miss the appreciation of their immediate supervisor. Some women are frustrated by the lack of recognition and encouragement from their bosses and colleagues. Many women also have the experience that although they invest much time in the career development, but still get passed over for promotions that become available.

They work hard, but at a certain point they are not going any further up the hierarchy, facing the “glass ceiling” which is also known as the “concrete ceiling” which cannot be shattered as easily as the glass ceiling. Additionally family-friendly work structures and measures to facilitate reconciliation of family and career for improving living and working conditions for both gender are missing. Gender-sensitive and equal opportunities to working conditions are a decisive factor for long-term retention of qualified employees to the company. The gender pay gap also causes a lack of motivation; thereby leading to women missing the incentive to ascent in management positions (Austrian Industry Association, 2012).

Another important reason is the deficit of successful female role models in the economic environment, especially in management positions. The reason for this is that women are generally underrepresented in leadership positions. Therefore women in leading positions are necessary, because they motivate other talented females to follow their example. Role models can act like a “magnet” for women in general and especially young professionals. Some studies show that a high number of women in leading positions would have a positive influence on thinking patterns in a company and could introduce changes at the structural level. One particularly interesting aspect is that women in management positions who are also full-time working mothers achieve a higher salary level more frequently than those who are not mothers. Mothers of high-income women are characterized by the fact that they represent the lowest proportion of unemployed females. Consequently mothers in leadership positions act as role models and influence the financial success of their daughters. Females, whose mothers carry out the double burden of family and work, are not usually scared of managing and having children, rather they learn that the multitasking occupation of a woman is natural.

An underrepresentation of women in companies and in management positions may create the impression that women are undesirable for leadership positions. This fact can easily demotivate potential future qualified female managers and women who are already in management positions. Therefore the question needs to be asked: What kind of potential has a company when more than half of competent talents are excluded for a leadership position? (Peuß and Welpé, 2011; Holst and Wiemer, 2010; Wippermann, 2014; Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family and Integration, n.d.; Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family and Women, 2010).

The gender pay gap is one sign that we have not overcome discrimination and inequality in the labour market. In discrimination, the problem is that the way women's competencies are valued compared to men's. Women with similar qualifications, skills and experiences are often poorly paid and undervalued than men. In addition to the evaluation of performance, women's pay level and career development are also biased in favour of men. Germany is one of the countries within Europe, where the gender pay gap between men and women is the greatest for equal education and work experience. The European average is 17.6 % where women get paid less than men. Germany with a 23% gap belongs to the top of the countries in which women are discriminated by a lower salary. This problem is very complex and has various

causes. So politics and certain practices belonging to the causes end up in an unequal treatment of men and women. Also the work industries and jobs in which the work can be better reconciled with family is a cause for this problem. As a result of this women are working in part-time or low-paid occupations and management positions are neglected. Moreover, women are also associated with feminine qualities and not always regarded as having the required skills and competencies, so their abilities are often undervalued. This can lead to a gender bias effect in salary setting and the evaluation of women's performance. But some employers mention specific stereotypical reasons for the preferential treatment of men and the discrimination of women that females have a lower productivity, higher failure times because of care for children and relatives, and they have lower assertiveness (European Commission, 2014).

Stereotypes and traditions are certainly responsible for segregation of men and women in the professional world and may influence the choice of educational paths and professional careers. Consequently, fewer women are working in technical jobs and because of the tradition in which society expected women to reduce their working hours or even quit their jobs to take care of children (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). The more important fact is that some stereotypes are deeply-held in the mind of managers because of the outdated image and perceived role of women in society, but these biases still have a big importance in the workplace as the influence behaviour (Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family and Women, 2010).

The obsolete idea is that a successful career can only be achieved by a man who has the most working experience without any family interruptions. The result is that male managers are perceived as authoritarian, status-oriented, confident, assertive, and ambitious. Female managers are often classified as emotional, sensitive, communicative, diplomatic, and disciplined (Rettig, Engeser and Schmidt, 2013). The German Federal Ministry of Family, Seniors, and Youth has conducted a survey on the attitude of managers towards women in management positions and shows how stereotypes and role models influence one's attitude and behaviour. The result of this survey is existing barriers of men-mind-set in management positions. On the one hand, men expressed great appreciation for competent and ambitious women and showed consent to an increase of women in leadership positions. That means that an important milestone of the acceptance of women is achieved.

On the other hand, there is no increase in the chances of female candidates filling leadership positions. This fact can be explained by the reservations about women in executive positions which are firmly anchored in men's mind. So men act as "guardian of the glass ceiling" (Wippermann, 2014). This "glass ceiling" expression is a metaphor and includes all invisible processes and factors that prevent women from access to leadership positions. These processes include the male culture in companies, whereby mentality patterns have been formed, the lack of role models, and management cultures with their own rituals, language games and habits that favour men.

Consequently men are encouraged by their male superiors, while opportunities for women are denied and this fact causes the manifestation of the current situation and gender gaps in management levels. This means that from the perspective of men, women are not capable for top management positions because of the traditional gender roles, and there is a basic negative attitude towards women in leadership ranks (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). Some competent women shy away from leadership positions because they are concerned that they

need to do more as a woman or because of the higher pressure of expectations than men in the same position (Wippermann, 2014).

Why there are so many stereotypes and clichés about men and woman? Which factors are responsible for the attitude, judgment, decision-making and motivation? According to some social-psychological theorists, culture and the prevalent value system are responsible for much of the stereotypes. According to Milton Rokeach, a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable to an opposite conduct or end-state of existence (Rokeach, 1973). Accordingly, values are enduring personal and social beliefs that determine, whether a lifestyle or a target state is desirable or not. These beliefs represent knowledge and experience that a person has accumulated in its development history.

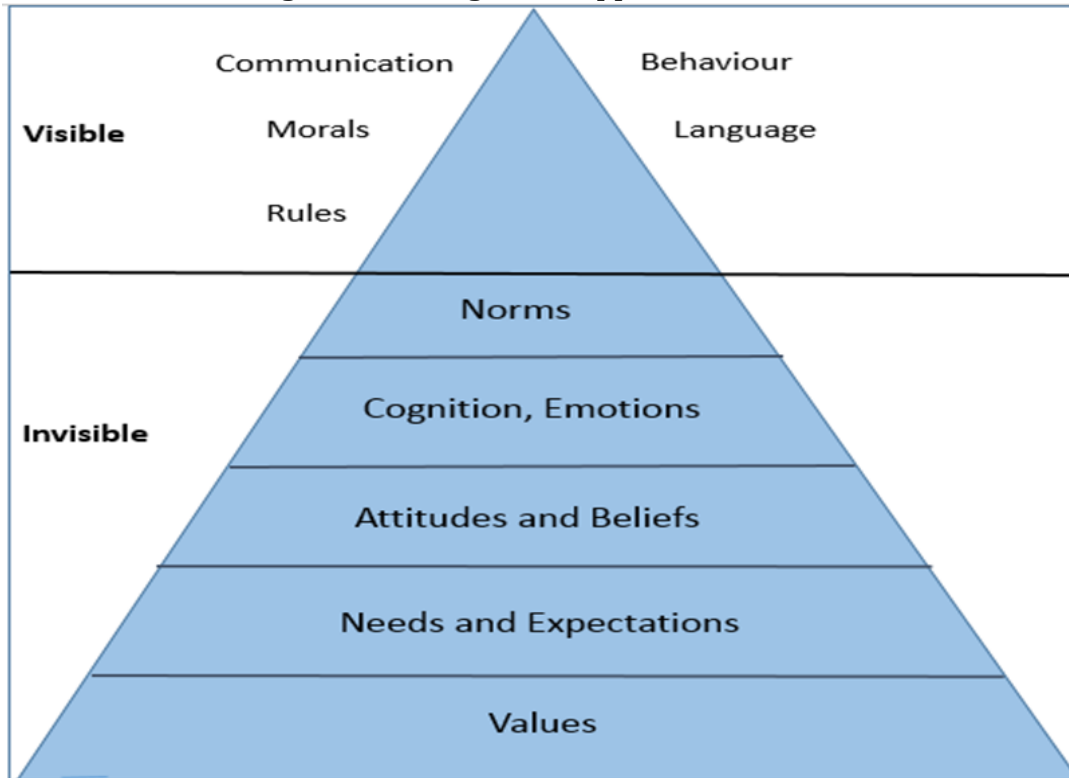
According to the attitude theory by Kahle (1983), values are similar to attitudes and needs, because these are abstractions arising from adaptation, organization and interpretation of environmental information. All values are organized in a value system, a skilled organization of rules and principles that are structured in a hierarchy and are responsible for directing reactions of stimuli. People, to a certain extent, have similar values, regardless of culture and society. Although people have many of the same values, these are situated hierarchically differently. The number of these values or rank is limited in each individual and differing only in the expression intensity.

Values also exhibit a certain degree of stability, thereby indicating human orientation through an extended period. But values are also modified, at times, so they can cause social change. Values affect consciously and unconsciously human behavior and have multiple functions. The meaning of values results from the fact that they act as standards of judgment and thus influence behavior. Summarized values have an orientation and motivation function and contribute to conflict resolution, decision making and for the alternative choice (Kahle, 1983). Out of values emerge attitudes and beliefs, which in turn control and influence perceptions, emotions, behavior and lifestyles and are an expression of human needs. Thus, the pursuit of different goals accordingly has different psychological, practical and social consequences (Schwartz, 1992). They are the result of socialization through important reference groups.

Values are therefore important because through them people are able to define themselves and can express these differences to others. Finally they are cognitive representations of goals that demonstrate the interest of social groups, coordination of behavior, communication and interface between the collective and individual behaviors. Values are cross-culturally universal, but the importance of each value system between cultures and individuals is different (Schwartz, 1994). Therefore, the cultural aspect has a major importance.

Hofstede said that "Culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another.... Culture, in this sense includes systems of values, and values are among the building blocks of culture" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21). This implies that a culture is particular to one human group, is learned and not inherent, and passed down from one generation to the next. Culture is an abstract construct that results from many factors and not only affects the behaviour, it also shapes personal characteristics, gender stereotypes, age, genetic profile and social constraints, imposed by family and social class (Mead and Andrews, 2009). The iceberg model shown in figure 6 represents that culture exists of tangible (visible) and intangible (invisible) elements relating to each other. Intangible elements such as values and attitudes influence the tangible elements of behaviour. So the intangible elements are forming the basis for all visible effects.

Figure 6: Iceberg model applied to culture.



Because of the important function of values it is necessary to analyze the values of the German population to explore its possible links to the prevailing gender gap in leadership positions. The Opinion Research Institute Emnid commissioned a two part representative survey of 1002 respondents at the beginning age of 14 years. For 74 percent of respondents the value of “honesty” was very important. “Family” reached with 68 percent in the second place. The third most important value is “equity” with 64 percent (Kochanek, 2007). The Western Value Index of 2014 demonstrates that the current and important social values of the German population changed which are health, freedom and success.

Especially the value of success makes a big leap forward. In particular, this value plays an important role in business and working environment and consequently for the main question of this paper. The material wealth is no longer at the center point, but the realization of personal goals and aspirations seem to fill this void (Trendbüro and TNS Infratest, 2013; Ehrenstein, 2013). In recent years a “values-change” has taken place in the population with a tendency that the value of success is becoming more and more important, but was not considered in the company-culture.

Finally, the above-mentioned reasons have underlying causes that lie in the culture and its values. The culture includes values and incurring roles and traditions that contain mechanisms of their own reproduction and the exclusion of others. Therefore, it is necessary to take suitable measures, which not only should be political, legal and operational but also cultural.

Stereotypes and traditions are also responsible for segregation of men and women in the professional world and may influence the choice of educational paths and careers along with their thinking about role allocation. Consequently fewer women are working in technical jobs because of the traditions the society expect women to reduce their working hours or even quit their job to take care of children (Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). The more important fact is

that stereotypes occupy the mind because of the outdated perception and role image, and they have a big influence in the workplace in negatively impacting women (Bavarian State Ministry of Employment and Social Order, the Family and Women, 2010). The obsolete idea is that a successful career can only be achieved by men who have the most work experience (Rettig, Engeser and Schmidt, 2013).

SWOT Analysis of Women in Management Positions

This section is divided into two successive stages. The first one involves the SWOT analysis. The SWOT analysis is a structured documentation and classification tool, which can be used to understand the problem of women in management positions by looking at the existing strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWAT) to this gender-gap dilemma. The second part comprised the result of the SWOT analysis as a basis for recommendations to improve the integration of more women in management positions.

In academic and business elaborations, SWOT-analysis is one of the popular used tools to analyze a situation and to create strategies for recommendation to management and its eventual implementation.

For obtaining a structured and comprehensive overview of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the actual situation, the concept of SWOT analysis is used to better understand the dilemma and its solutions. It is applied to show the dilemma in management positions of women in the corporate arena. The analysis is performed in the following three steps, whereby the third step is modified to our case of gender gap in management positions:

1. Analysis of internal strengths and weaknesses of women in management positions.
2. Analysis of external opportunities and threats to women in management position.
3. Compare and aggregate the two steps to offer recommendations (Runia, et al., 2007).

In this case the SWOT-Analysis concentrates on main points for an overall view to show the gap problem of women in management positions.

Table 1: Internal strengths and weaknesses.

Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Effect to lower management positions in the adapting company - Stimulation for other women to work on this kind of level and to apply - A decision between work or family is not necessary - Increase of work-life-balance quality for both gender causes a positive effect on work - Increases the reputation of the company for employees - Variability in management positions brings more compensation in minds - Increase of profitability through positive spillover effect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Work quality can decrease through influence of family - Not all women with suitable qualifications have social skills to be a manager - Not enough women with technical or business education - Men's productivity can decrease - High investment costs (opportunity costs) at the beginning - Increase of costs to recruit women for the company

Table 2: External opportunities and risks.

Opportunity	Threat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A general effect to lower management positions in companies - Stimulation in society for other women to work on this kind of level in working environment - Higher attractiveness for women to apply for management positions - A decision is not necessary between work or family - Increase of work-life-balance quality for both gender causes a positive effect on social life - Increase of profitability through positive spillover effect - Increase of reputation of the company in the environment - Increases the emancipation of women in society - Compatibility between female quote and demographic change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Family may have a negative influence on work quality - Discrimination of men in companies and society - Compatibility between female quote and demographic change

The SWOT analysis of women in management positions is providing many facts regarding the strengths and weaknesses in combination of opportunities and threats.

It can be seen that it is an advantage for women to work at a company, especially in management positions. Besides better teamwork and increased revenues, the acceptance of women on management or executive positions in companies and society has a positive effect on both sides. On the one hand, the company gets a better reputation in national and international boundaries. On the other hand, there are influences on lower management levels. Accordingly women in management positions represent role models for other females who might become more self-confident and more willing to apply for leadership positions. Nevertheless, women with technical or business education are not highly represented in the labor market. For example, Germany is focused on industry, especially in production.

The automobile industry is one key industry where most Germans are working and technical expertise is needed in management positions. Indeed an increasing number of women are studying business and leadership related subjects and going in this direction, but there are still not enough high level candidates for the industry. If professional females have suitable technical qualifications, they also need industry level social skills as well to be a successful manager in a male-dominated workplace.

This fact applies for women and men alike. However, if a woman has these skills then it is not necessary for her to decide between work and family. Otherwise there is the danger that through the influence of family their work suffers. Children and family are always the first priority and work comes second. Therefore work-life-balance is very important and, as the result, women should not have additional pressure to decide between career and family. They

are able to make a career and also be good mothers for their children. Furthermore, the acceptance of emancipation of females in the society increases through this measurement.

The gender gap in management positions is a sensitive topic for men. The preferences for the occupation of women in leadership positions can decrease the productivity of men, because they can feel unaccepted, unqualified or misunderstood at the company or in the society. For this reason the work-life-balance is also bringing many advantages to men. They have the option to spend more time with their family, which can strengthen the family relationship and cause more vitality. Also the greater acceptance of women into management positions can create a spillover effect for the whole company and lead to more effectiveness and profitability at work.

Keeping the balance between increasing the number of female managers and the negative effects of the demographic change is a really difficult and also extremely important point. On the one hand, there is the risk of a negative development of the demographical change through the acceptance of women in management positions in companies and in society. But on the other hand, there is the possibility of equality in companies and in the society of the gender problem. This also causes more harmony in families.

If these ideas of equality between men and women are established in the society, it will be easier to plan the family and to raise children. The conditions for this become more practical and advantageous than before. The acceptance of women in management positions is not just a step for the equality of women's personality; acceptance of women in leadership hierarchy is also the right way to solve the problem of demographic change. All in all, the occupation of women in management positions brings many benefits for companies and the society.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The share of companies with a relatively balanced ratio of women to men on their executive and supervisory board is extremely small in Germany. Top management still remains predominantly male-dominated. Nevertheless every woman, who would like to work in leadership positions, should get the opportunity to do so. In order to increase these opportunities for female professionals and to solve the problem of underrepresentation of women in management positions, political, legal, operational, and communication measures should be adopted and pushed through. The following are several examples for recommendations:

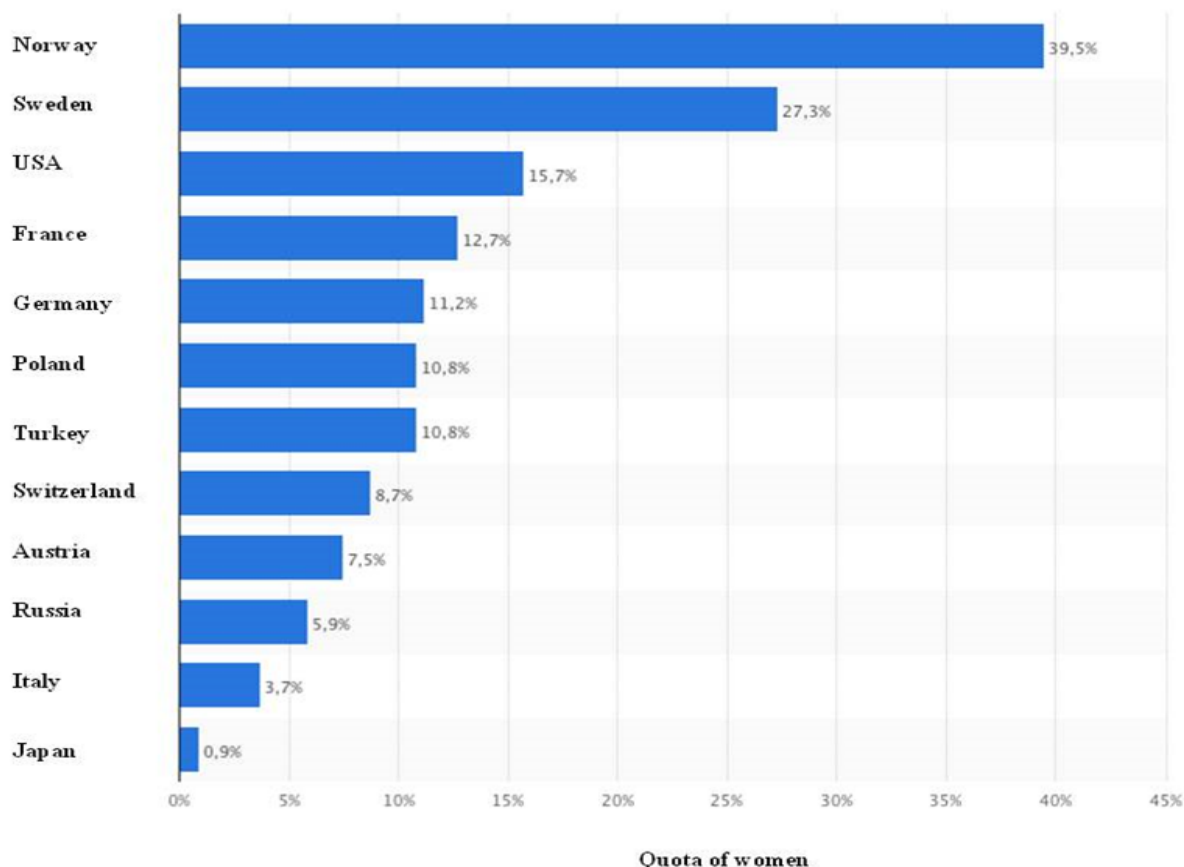
1. Creation of transparency is an important measure, especially in recruitment and promotion to management positions. Also a high transparency concerning salaries and bonus payments would be a step in the right direction.
2. Measure and document women in management. The company management should identify the increase in the share of women in management positions as a corporate goal, to show that they are willing to change the existing gap in inequality. Also, it is important to create a more functional, economical and healthy working atmosphere.
3. The industry and society should support women to become active in areas such as mathematics, computer sciences and technology as well as in the natural sciences and engineering.
4. Corporate culture should be more open to women in management positions, and gender stereotypes should be dismantled. New role models in management positions could serve as helpful examples. Successful women could be highlighted to set a focus on them.

5. Companies should respond to the acceptance of the new values. Management should use the new values with colleagues to make a more gender-neutral working atmosphere.
6. The introduction of flexible career models for women and men, the need to reconcile family and working life-balance should all gain more importance for both genders; for example, offer flexible childcare options. Also many working activities can be done at home through the new electronic infrastructure.
7. Introduce women's quota, with binding targets and a realistic timeframes for achievement. Moreover, management should realize a sustainable increase in the number of future female executives. In addition, incentives and sanctions for implementation should be agreed (Holst and Kirch, 2015; Mujtaba, 2014; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010).

OUTLOOK

The dilemma of underrepresentation of women in management positions is present in many countries and they should solve it quickly. This paper showed how deep the problem of this dilemma is in Germany and other Western countries. Figure 7 shows that the Scandinavian country of Norway has the highest number of women in management positions with 39.5 percent. In contrast, Germany has a very low percentage of females in leadership positions with 11.2 percent. Compared to Norway, Germany only has about one quarter of the proportion of women in management positions (Statista, 2015).

The Norwegian model is a positive example for implementing women in management positions. The Norwegian government determined that the proportion of women on the boards of incorporated companies should be 40 percent in 2003 (Statista, 2015; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010). The government was very strict in implementing the law. Companies had five years to comply with the quote. If a company does not make it within that period, they had to reckon with sanctions. In extreme cases, threatened as other serious violations of the incorporated company law, even the forced dissolution of the company. Through their pressure on the industry, they are the best example for usage of the female quote to represent woman in management positions.

Figure 7: Proportion of women in management positions in selected countries worldwide.

Source: Statista, 2015 b.

Norway is a role model for other European countries in terms of the female quota. The experience of this step shows that the legal compulsion brought success to Norwegian companies. Enough women with suitable qualifications were found for the boards of companies. The 40 percent quota is now exceeded in many firms. Twelve years ago, before the introduction of this law, women were represented on the boards with an average of seven percent. Now an expansion for most companies is in discussion. Furthermore, it seems like the proportion of women on the boards of incorporated companies also took a positive effect on the lower management positions (Reimann, 2012; Hofmeister and Hünefeld, 2010).

Germany has to change something to fight the disparity of gender inequality. Women are unfairly discriminated against in the occupation of boards in Germany and they should solve this dilemma as soon as possible. The German industry can be a role model in the world and they have the responsibility to manage this dilemma. Norway can be applied as a positive and successful example in the implementation of the female quota in management ranks. Their model of the statutory female quota is the right way to manage the problem.

Germany has recognized the problem and they are on the way to implement the female quota system at the beginning of 2016. It is expected that through this method the number of women in management positions in Germany will increase. In addition Germany should not neglect other measures, which are based on the above recommendations and which include values and cultures of the German population to improve the situation of women in management positions. Moreover, the improvement of female leadership positions should be considered as a

worldwide ambitious goal to increase the equality of men and women in management ranks of modern and globally dynamic workplaces.

SUMMARY

In the last few years the proportion of women on executive and supervisory boards in Germany has slightly increased. The proportion of women which were part of the executive boards of the top 200 companies was only 5.4 percent at the end of 2014. With the female CEO percentage in DAX-30 companies at 0 percent, women were significantly underrepresented in Germany during 2013.

This phenomenon of few females being in management positions can be explained by reasons like the lack of reconciliation of work and family, deficit of successful female role models, and gender discrimination. Women with similar qualifications, skills and experience are poorly paid and undervalued than men. In addition evaluation of performance, hence pay level and career development, also biased in favor of men.

Germany is one of the countries within Europe, where the gender pay gap between men and women is the greatest for equal education and work experience. The European average is 17.6 percent where women get paid less than men. Germany has a 23 percent gap and belongs in the top of the countries in which women are discriminated by a lower salary. These reasons are a result of attitudes and behavior derived from the Western values and especially the German culture.

Values have an orientation and motivation function, they act as standards of judgment, and that is why values serve as a foundation for human behavior and determine the role of women in society and consequently in leadership positions.

The SWOT analysis was used to further explore the problem of women in management positions. All previously necessary listed information's are collected and examined for goal-oriented recommendations to change the dilemma of underrepresentation of women on executive and supervisory boards.

The usage of the female quotas, which is currently being introduced in Germany, represents an important measure for future improvements of equality in promotion between males and females aiming for management positions.

In the past, companies could solve this problem on their own; now it is the responsibility of government regulators and policy makers to achieve the social mission of gender equality in the workplace. In addition, improvements in areas such as work-life balance and the elimination of traditional gender stereotypes should not be neglected. When men and women work side-by-side creatively, there is no end to their synergy and success in better serving society.

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Development and Application of Game-Based Learning Software Combining Role-Playing with Problem-Solving Strategies

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Abstract

With the development of educational technology, game-based learning has been gradually applied to teaching practice. This study is divided into two phases. In phase 1, systematic development process was used to develop a simulation e-learning game combining role-playing with problem-solving strategies called "Instructional Design Guidelines – Gem Quest." This game aims to enable learners who intend to act as "game-based learning instructional designers" in e-learning industry to apply the instructional design knowledge, procedures, and project management skill they have learned, experience the practical work contexts in workplaces, and further use problem-solving strategies to complete tasks in the game before they engage in such work. This game is divided into 5 stages: raw materials, structure, storyboard, product, and online. Learners played the role as the game-based learning designers in the contexts, and had to interact and communicate with the members of various projects in the contexts to implement the projects. The conditions for stage completion and feedback mechanism of the game were designed according to the actual workplace status. Upon completion of this software, Phase 2 is an empirical study was conducted during course instruction to investigate learners' technology acceptance and learning effectiveness of application of this game. The participants were a total of 51 sophomores of Department of Multimedia Design in a certain university in the northern Taiwan. The research results showed that, learners' technology acceptance of this game is above the median, and there is a significant difference in their stage completion and posttest scores.

INTRODUCTION

Digital games have been gradually applied to teaching practice and provided teachers with more diversified teaching methods. In recent years, many empirical studies have further verified that digital games have a positive effect on teaching (Kirriemuir & McFarlane, 2004; Pivec, Dziabenko & Schinnerl, 2003; Prensky, 2007, 2003; Squire, 2005). Some studies also have found that game-based learning environment can provide learners with the chance to cultivate conceptual knowledge and engage in practices. In game-based learning environment, learners are more willing to actively participate in activities out of intrinsic motivation, and game-based learning environment can effectively improve learners' concentration (Raybourn & Bos, 2005).

Prensky (2007) generalized several characteristics of digital games to explain the reason they can trigger learners' learning motivation: the form of fun provides learners with fun and pleasure; the form of play provides learners with passionate fun; targeted digital games provides learners with motivation; result and feedback enable learners to learn knowledge; victory in games provides learners with ego gratification. Many researchers (McFarlane, Sparrowhawk, & Heald, 2002; Prensky, 2007; Robertson & Howells, 2008) suggested that an interesting and challenging teaching strategy is the so-called game-based learning (GBL). GBL not only provides knowledge of subject content, but also assistive learning tools to enable students to participate in problem-solving or overcome challenges. GBL uses digital games to trigger students' active participation to improve their learning motivation and effectiveness, as well as to successfully enable them to obtain a sense of accomplishment (Prensky, 2007).

Role-playing originated from a psychodrama. After the psychologist, Moreno, made amendments and performed many studies on role-playing, role-playing teaching method became an important teaching technique. Moreno (1920) suggested that role-playing is to provide individuals with the chance to learn role-playing and play a role or engage in a behavior that does not belong to them in real life and, as well as to try or experience another lifestyle and behavioral model to increase role learning and expand living knowledge. Learners can learn more role models by continue practicing, which increases their flexibility to respond to living environment.

Problem-solving learning is to place learners in a meaningful learning context where the learning focus is on solving the problems in an authentic context. Under the situation where necessary resources and adequate guidance for problem-solving are provided, learners are able to actively establish knowledge and develop problem-solving skills during problem-solving process (Mayo, Donnelly, Nash, & Schwartz, 1993). Dempsey, Lucassen, Haynes, & Casey (1996) found that adventure games and simulation games can help adults develop problem-solving skills and decision-making ability.

Application of information technology to teaching and learning has become a global trend, and various countries around the world have included the promotion of e-learning as important national policies one by one. In order to increase the need for talents in e-learning industry, higher education in Taiwan has endeavored to cultivate "e-learning instructional designer(eID)" engage in the analysis, design, development, implementation, and assessment of e-learning projects, to make sure that the developmental details of e-learning courses and the development of courseware meet the design specifications and customers' need (Yang, Lin, Chang, & Tseng, 2008). However, according to relevant studies, because university students do not have sufficient work experiences in society, there is still a gap between the e-learning-related knowledge and skills they learn during school period and those in workplace (He, Li, & Liao, 2009).

Therefore, this study designed a game-based learning software using work context of e-Learning Instructional Design as background, and provided it for application in the pre-employment training of eID. The game levels were designed according to role-playing and theoretical basis of problem-solving to provide learners with the chance to clarify and understand problems, collect data, analyze data, and implement problem-solving in e-learning projects. Upon the development of the software, the software was actually applied to the empirical study on the course of "design of game-based learning and teaching" for sophomores as instructed by the researcher. It was hoped that the integration of game-based learning could

enable learners to use thinking to associate with knowledge or experiences to further improve problem-solving ability.

DEVELOPMENT OF SOFTWARE

The development of software is divided into 2 phases:

Phase 1 Qualitative Analysis: Game-based Learning as Focus

Based on literature review, this study investigated the functions of eID. This study invited three focus companies who hire eID to receive interviews, and used qualitative analysis to summarize common problems faced by e-learning designers in workplace. In phase 1, this study converted the interview content to transcripts, and performed qualitative content analysis on the transcripts. This study used the work content of eID and divided it into 5 major categories: raw material, structure, storyboard, product, and online.

Phase 2 Development of Game-based Learning Software

Design Concept

This study used FLASH CS6 to develop the game-based software that can be run on various browsers. This software will be subsequently applied to departments concerning the cultivation of e-learning talents in Taiwan or used in courses or units concerning e-learning design in educational training institutes.

For the game mechanism and corresponding theoretical bases. This study used situational learning (Brown et al., 1989) to make the design style of the game close to actual work content. Moreover, this study also referred to role-playing teaching method and problem-solving process (Dewey, 1910) to design the game. In the game, learners played the leading role of the story – “eID,” and controlled and operated all of the objects in the game content. Moreover, they further found out the objects hidden in the scenes and complete their tasks.

For multimedia performances of the game, this study referred to the scaffolding theory proposed by Wood, Brune, & Ross (1976) to provide instant feedback and reminder message. There were explanations provided for all of the accessible objects. To make the game more complete, challenging, and interesting (Prensky, 2007), this study set up a time limit on the plot design, which also conformed to the actual project schedule in real workplace. Learners had to complete the main content of 5 stages of e-learning design within the time limit. In order to enhance learners' feeling of indulgence in the game, background music was added to the game to enable learners to integrate themselves with the atmosphere. In addition, the uncertainty and urgency of the task itself also made them concentrate more on the game.

Characteristics of Software and Operational

This study integrated the card game popular with university students with the training course of novice eID, and designed the common problems faced in workplace as 10 challenges/tasks to enable learners to play the role of challenger and naturally learn the course focuses, as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1 Diagram of Card Game Screen

When students challenged the game levels, their game-based learning progress would be displayed in the bottom of the screen. The right side of the screen displays: Level index, heart of life index, and gem reservoir to enable learners to fully grasp their own learning progress and status, as shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2 Diagram of Game-based Learning Progress

In the beginning of the game, learners were requested to sign their names on the declaration of war to increase their level of participation. Their scores of completion of challenges/tasks would be displayed by the end of the game, and learners could print it to share with other people, which also attracted people interested in the game to participate in it, as shown in Figure 3.



Figure 3 Diagram of Individualized Learning Record

RESEARCH METHOD

In order to understand the learning effectiveness of university students after playing the game-based learning game designed by this study, this study designed pre-and-post tests. Upon compilation of the items of tests, this study enrolled 38 sophomores of Department of Multimedia Design of night school of a certain university in the northern Taiwan to participate in the pre-test, in order to understand the reliability of the research tool. Cronbach α

coefficient of the total scale reached .892, suggesting that the internal consistency of the subscales of various dimensions and total score is high. Therefore, the reliability is high enough to support the research results.

The research subjects of this study were a total of 51 sophomores (15 male sophomores and 36 female sophomores) of Department of Multimedia Design of day school of a certain university in the northern Taiwan. All of the subjects had attended the course of e-learning design and had never played the game. Their average age was 19.

In order to understand learners' technology acceptance of the game, in addition to the pre-test, this study also referred to the scale on technology acceptance assessment developed by Davis (1989) and designed 6 items (the dimensions are perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use). After analysis on the scale completed by the subjects, the overall reliability was 0.67 (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.67$).

Table 3 Scale on Technology Acceptance Assessment

Item No.	Item	Dimension	Reference
Q1	Do you feel that the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest can help you better understand the notices in e-learning design work in workplace?	Perceived usefulness	Davis (1989)
Q2	Do you feel that the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest can help you better understand the priority of e-learning design work?		
Q3	Do you feel that, compared to textbook, the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest can help you better understand the notices in e-learning design work and teamwork?		
Q4	Do you feel that it is easy to operate the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest?	Perceived ease of use	
Q5	Do you feel that it is easy to understand the logic of the plot of the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest?		
Q6	Do you feel that the teaching material design Instructional Design Guidelines– Gem Quest can be operated smoothly without making any mistake?		

Source: Compiled by this study

This study conducted the experiment in computer class, and the class lasted for a total of 50 minutes. Before the experiment was initiated, the students were requested to complete the pre-test. The researcher explained to them the operation of game system for approximately 10 minutes first, and then explained and demonstrated how to use and operate props on the interface of the game. However, any content concerning the game themes and learning themes was not disclosed. Afterwards, the experiment of the game was conducted for 30 minutes. During the experiment, the subjects had to wear headphones, and were not allowed to talk to anyone. By the end of the game, the subjects had to complete the post-test and scale on technology acceptance assessment whether they succeed or fail in the challenges/games.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The difference between pre-test score and post-test score of the subjects reached significance ($t= -9.571, p<.05$), suggesting that the students' performance in post-test was superior to that in the pre-test. Therefore, the use of this software helped improve students' learning.

The two dimensions of technology acceptance were distributed in 6 items of the scale on technology acceptance assessment. The first three items belonged to the dimension of perceived usefulness, while the last three items belonged to that of perceived ease of use. 90.1% of the learners agreed with or strongly agreed with "The game can help you better understand the notices in e-learning design work." 86.2% of them agreed with or strongly

agreed with "The game can help you better understand the priority of e-learning design work." 84.3% of them agreed with or strongly agreed with "Compared to textbook, the game can help you better understand the notices in teamwork." 82.3% of them agreed with or strongly agreed with "It is easy to operate the game." 84.3% of them agreed with or strongly agreed with "It is easy to understand the logic of plot of the game." 78.4% of them agreed with or strongly agreed with "The game can be operated smoothly without making any mistake." The results above showed that, at least 80% of the students agreed with or strongly agreed with "The game can help you better understand the notices in e-learning design work," "The game can help you better understand the priority of e-learning design work," "Compared to textbook, the game can help you better understand the notices in teamwork," "It is easy to understand the logic of plot of the game."

The purpose of this study is to design game-based learning software integrated teaching strategies of role-playing content with teaching with problem-solving for pre-employment training of eID. The suggestions on future studies are as follows:

- (1) Software trial: It is advised to invite users to participate in large-scale software trial, in order to revise or adjust various aspects and design bases of the game, such as interface, figure, and level completion mechanism. Moreover, such information can also be provided as reference for development of other project-based roles in games.
- (2) Assessment on learning effectiveness: After this study's development of the game-based learning software integrating role-playing with problem-solving strategies, empirical research methods can be further used to understand learners' flow assessment after the use of this software, as well as to analyze and investigate the connection of error types.
- (3) Analysis on behavioral model: During the game, many operational behaviors of learner were recorded. If learners' operational process can be understood and further analyzed and investigated based on their behavioral records, learners can understand their self-learning status and be provided with suggestions on learning. Therefore, future studies are advised to use other analysis methods, such as sequential analysis of behaviors (e.g., Hou, 2012), to investigate learners' behavioral process in the game, as well as to investigate their learning behaviors and improvement methods.

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Celestine Bassey and Oshita Oshita (eds). 2007. Conflict Resolution, Identity Crisis and Development in Africa. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited. 275pp.

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The end of the Cold War is often asserted to have left behind in its withering path a myriad of conflicts globally, though contrary scholarship exists (see Fearon and Laitin, 2003:88). Africa was not only worst hit; it was “at war with itself, with war-torn polities and pauperized and divided societies” (Adebayo, 1999) but also arguably came first in the conflict trend (Zartman, 1996; Adebayo, 2010). Worried by such an ugly trend in Africa, the Institute for Peace and Conflict Resolution (IPCR), Abuja, Nigeria, courageously consults with practitioners in conflict management and prevention in ending conflicts in Africa. This edited compendium, organized into three parts with unequal chapters, represents one of IPCR’s numerous peace efforts in Africa.

The centrality of the text is the assertion that conflict/development crisis in Africa” is not ethnic hatred as erroneously conceived but economic and political institutional failures that manifest in poverty, bad governance; the totality of which adversely affect development in Africa (Ake, 1996). In thematic overview of conflict resolution, I. O. Albert and J.M. Amoda’s chapters were simply parallel in syntax. In presenting peace and conflict studies as everyone’s domain; one that is interested in “anything” and not necessarily the elimination of war alone, I. O. Albert’s Chapter One, “Concepts and Methods in Peace and Conflict Studies” is not only pedagogic but also rendered in a free flowing prose. It explains and clarifies concepts, methods of peace and conflict studies and how to become an expert in peace and conflict studies. J.M. Amoda’s Chapter Two “Methodological Issues in Peace and Conflict Studies” presented in complex language asserted that peace and conflict studies in divided societies can best be studied as a form of sovereignty/contentious politics, defined as “contestations over sovereignty”. Thus, in classifying conflicts in Africa into state security, state creation, state development, state expansion, and country creation and country state formation politics, Amoda see the last category as most relevant to Africa and indeed Nigeria, where sovereignty is instituted by way of coercion.

International politics is premised on state sovereignty and non-intervention but states oftentimes terrorize their citizens (Stohl and Lopez, 1984 eds). Thus, when can a humanitarian intervention be made? In Chapter Three, “Humanitarian Intervention and Protracted Social Conflict”, Joseph P. Ochogwu, dwell on this hotly debated subject (see Evans, 2006; Bolton, 2008)). Indeed legal (Benjamin, 1992:157), moral (Pattison, 2010:26) and political (Ezeabasili, 2011:17) issues bedevil humanitarian intervention vis-à-vis state sovereignty. But of what value is state sovereignty without responsibility; for

state sovereignty implies responsibility, and the primary responsibility for the protection of its people lies with the state itself...Where a population is suffering serious harm, as a result of internal war, insurgency, repression or state failure, and

the state in question is unwilling or unable to halt or avert it, the principle of non-intervention yields to the international responsibility to protect" (ICISS, 2001: xi).

J.P. Ochogwu advised that to save humanity from the scourges of war, humanitarian interventions that are devoid of a discriminatory response can be made. But who should authorize a humanitarian intervention; the Security Council, the recently muted concept of Responsibility to Protect (R2P) or a unilateral approach by a world power? Moreover, these institutions/world powers are often accused of being biased and pursuing their realist interests (Ezeabasili, 2011:17). While some scholars are advocating for a council of judges (see Teson, 2006), others are calling for "strengthening parts of the system that are promising: existing legal instruments and institutions that fulfill many of the functions of R2P without undermining the principles of peaceful dispute settlement and of the equal sovereignty of states" (Pingeot and Obenland 2014:47).

A careful handling of linguistic issues is a sure way to conflict resolution (see Bush and Saltarelli, 2000:17; Krauss and Morsella, 2000; Adejimola, 2009). While E. M. Iji's "Language and Communication in Peace and Conflict Resolution (chapter 4)" solicited for caution in language in conflict resolution no matter the justification; J.E. Gyong's chapter 5, "The Structure of Communication in Peace and Conflict Resolution" annunciated the ideals of language; especially tolerance as a criterion for peaceful co-existence.

Ottaway (in Ganahl, 2013:158) notes that in the absence of ideological and programmatic differences, ethnicity remains "the major characteristic by which the various parties could differentiate themselves". Part 11 of the text, christened "Identity Crisis" begins with Okwudiba Nnoli's chapter 6: "Theories and Concepts of Ethnicity". Ethnicity in Africa is considered resulting from the use of state power by "those who control the state". Thus, conflict is eminent as the different ethnic groups struggle to control the state apparatus. Conflict management in such states is difficult as the state is not only an interested party but also one that manages conflict by suppression. Nnoli recommends democratization among African states by way of decentralizing social power in the society and in turn empower institutions as civil society organizations, the mass media, etc, in the prevention, management and resolution of conflict. Though the chapter is comprehensive, exhaustive, sparing use of direct quotes and most elaborate in its end-of-chapter references vis-à-vis other chapters in the text, decentralization as a means of conflict resolution has received much criticism (Brancati, 2006:651).

In Chapter 7: "Power Sharing, Political Stability and Ethnicity in Africa", Samuel Egwu proposed consociationalism within the confines of democracy to deal with the peculiarities of Nigeria's ethnic and divisive character; but Arend Lijphart's consociationalism as a model has its fair share of criticisms. Consociationalism's foremost critic, Brian Barry (1975) argued that "the model of 'consociational democracy' is no longer regarded...as a curiosity but may be in danger of being accepted too uncritically as a model for the resolution of divisions within a society...to suggest that the effect of attempting to introduce consociational practices might make matters worse". van Schendelen, (1984) posited that,

The crucial elements of consociationalism have not been operationalized by Lijphart; that more specifically, the main concepts are loosely formulated (not to mention the minor concepts), that they are often based on implicit theoretical thinking, sometimes badly adapted to the complexities of the plural society to be studied, and that their indicators, in so far as they are mentioned, are often just as loosely formulated, theoretically biased, and not accurate measures of the complexities in consociational

politics (p.160). Thus, Lijphart's consociationalism lacks scientific qualities of validity, verifiability, predictive power, and applicative potential and at best 'consociational democracy remains elitist democracy' (p.173)

From an African perspective, Lemarchand (2007) argued that “translating consociational theory into practice has generally failed in much of Africa”. It is rather suggested here that arising from the apparent constraints in the applicability of consociationalism in African societies, diverse constitutional measures such as “gradual constitutional reform to strengthen liberal institutions, such as strong judiciaries and independent electoral commissions”, could be adopted to achieve stability but definitely “not only by accommodative institutions that encourage decentralization and multiculturalism” (Kuperman, 2014).

The authors in “Chapter 8: Conflict, Equity and Resource Capture in Africa: The Nigerian Experience”, explored the Niger Delta (hereafter ND) development paradox in Nigeria; suggested a number of palliatives if implemented could settle the crisis in the region, etc. Aside the chapter being very brief on an issue with a burgeoning literature, two questions are pertinent here. First, who authored the chapter? Though it is written as being co-authored (Bob Osaze & Oshita Oshita) it is otherwise stated as being single authored with use of a personal pronoun I and not we (p.112). Secondly, Odi community in Bayelsa state is not an oil bearing community (pp.114, 246).

Judith Burdin Asuni's “Chapter 9: Culture and Conflict”, brought to bear her wealth of practical/field experience in conflict prevention, management and resolution asserting that peace reigns where groups learn to accommodate their differences. However, conflict always stirs group differences where a group tends to impose superiority over other groups. She recommends a third party with vast knowledge of both cultures to broker peace between/among the conflicting ethnic groups. But are third party mediators equipped with the challenges such roles presents; for it is a,

Reality that any intervention process activates resistance and, when it is not handled effectively, it can be a disruptive source of discomfort for mediators...Feelings of frustration, sense of failure, hopelessness, anxiety, resentment, loss of energy, insecurity, fatigue can result...the key to handling resistance is feeling secure with the mediation process. The hope would be that mediators, recognizing the significance of resistance to their work, would continue to learn more about its manifold roots and conceptualization, and work to develop better ways of recognizing and dealing with it (Volpe and Bahn, 1992:36).

D.A. Guobadi writing on “Ethnicity, Gender and Peace” in chapter 10 highlighted ethnicity and gender as elements that bear the germ with the ability to threaten the peace of states. But ethnicity and gender are not entirely on the negative spectrum (Rothchild, 1997: vii). The author while relying on the provisions of Section 15 (1-4) of the 1999 Nigerian Constitution as a conflict management strategy should not be oblivious of the endemic Nigerian insincerity in matching theory to practice in her constitutional provisions.

In “Chapter 11: Epidemiology of Conflict and Violence in Nigeria”, Celestine Bassey traced the prevalence of conflict in Nigeria to amongst others its “formative years”, “process of societal transformation”, “system contradictions”, and “poor governance”. To resolve Nigeria's numerous conflicts, the author recommends the empowering of non-state actors as NGOs, CBOs. But can NGOs be entrusted with conflict management? There is a burgeoning scholarship

that points otherwise (Fatton, 1995:93; Ikelegbe, 2001; World Bank, 2005; O'Connor, 2012) to the colossal lapses of NGOs/CBOs in conflict resolution that have been overlooked for too long. Little wonder Anderson (1996) cautioned that,

By failing to consider the political implications of their work, NGOs have in many cases exacerbated the very conflicts and violence they were seeking to relieve. NGO bring new resources into a conflict situation...NGO actions and attitudes can also exacerbate conflict. The author notes, "NGOs must choose to employ some people (and not others), purchase goods from some (and not others), and target their aid toward some people (and not others); these decisions can fuel separate group identities, inequalities, and jealousies.

Part 111: "Conflict Resolution and Development in Africa", commenced with Mark Anikpo's "Chapter 12: Violence as a Feature of Inter-ethnic Compensations: Implication for Stability and Development". Written in a free-flowing prose the author with specific case studies identified imbalance in resource allocation and distribution as the catalyst to inter-ethnic violent conflicts and especially a bane to Nigeria's economic, political and social development. He recommends amongst others assuaging aggrieved ethnic groups, provision of employment opportunities, battling the scourge of poverty, etc, as conflict management and prevention strategies.

Chapters 13 (Federalism and the Management of Ethnicity in Nigeria: 1999 Constitution in Focus) and 14 (Ethnicity, Political Stability and Economic Development in Africa") advocated for the adoption of federal constitution in managing ethnic conflict in divided societies. As E.E. Osaghae noted federalism's greatest fallacy lies in matching theory with practice (see Rothchild, 1966; Anderson, 2013). For Ayo Dumoye overcoming Africa's poor economies resulting from ethnic conflicts could be managed aside federal constitution, the empowering of NGOs, and the enforcement of the moratorium on the importation, exportation and manufacture of light weapons/arms as mediums for preventing conflict. From the foregoing, three issues are pertinent here: (a) as earlier observed NGOs are seen as interested parties, and (b) to the extent that war remains a racket, (see Butler, 1935) the moratorium on the importation, exportation and manufacture of light weapons/arms is simply a ruse.

The paradox of development and its resultant conflict in the ND was the subject-matter in chapters 15 and 16. Using the Urhobo Ethnic Nationality as a case study, Peter B. Okoh, in "Chapter 15, The Place of Ethnicity in the Struggle for Self-determination of the South-South Zone of Nigeria", restated the paradox of development in the ND and its conflict precipitating tendencies. Though an interesting chapter, highlights from the chapter indicates that it was written before 1996, but published in 2007; that is a ten year difference. Therefore, the chapter did not discuss developments in the ND from 1996-2007. For example, the chapter dwelled on the OMPADEC and not the NDDC (1999) as the development agency; the author referred to five oil producing states without a mention of Bayelsa state (created in 1996) as one (p.241). Furthermore, it is the longest chapter (38 pp) but with the least references on a subject as the ND self-determination struggle where an avalanche literature exist.

Greed vs. grievance debate in the ND self-determination struggle preoccupied Oshita O. Oshita in "Chapter 16: Resources and Conflict: A Case Analysis of Niger Delta". He saw the struggle as grievance precipitated rather than greed. Though an interesting chapter, much is yet to be seen from the three key recommendations proffered to assuage the restiveness in the ND: (a) the NDDC since its incorporation in 1999 as a government intervention agency in the ND has

received thunderous outcries against her activities, especially her slow pace, government poor funding, etc; (Etekpe, 2009), (b) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) involvement in implementing the Shell GMoU in the Gbarain/Ubie Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) gathering project (in Bayelsa State) is fraught with allegations of CSOs working too closely with Shell rather than the communities they are supposed to serve; and (c) international support from World Bank and its sister organizations is a suspect, as they are rather partners in an unholy connivance with oil TNCs in various ecological and social malaises in resource-rich regions in the world, especially where “their operations have demonstrated the environmental blindness of much of post-war economic theory which assumes that the market maximizes social welfare and generally produces socially desirable levels of consumption of natural resources” (Thomas, 1992:65).

While the conclusion of the text provided practical steps in conflict resolution, a major weakness in the text is the mix-up in referencing. Works cited in most chapters are not referenced; whereas works not cited at all are instead reflected. Additionally, despite the highlighted weaknesses, this compendium made a huge contribution to the overwhelming literature on conflict resolution that is both accessible and a good read.

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Symptom Distress as Predictors of Sexual Dissatisfaction among Nursing Mothers in Awka, Nigeria.

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Abstract

Sexual dissatisfaction may best be described as a multidimensional experience involving thoughts, feelings, personal and socio-cultural attitudes and beliefs, combined with biological factors. This also involves any situation in which one or more sexual partners is unhappy with the quality, style or quantity of sexual activity in which they are engaging. In this study, the researchers investigated symptom distress as predictors of sexual dissatisfaction among nursing mothers in Awka. A total number of 220 nursing mother volunteers from Awka North and South LGAs and participated in the study. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 50, with a mean age of 27.69 years, and standard deviation of 5.17. The Symptom distress checklist- 90 (1977) and Index of sexual satisfaction (1982), with reliability co-efficient which ranged from .77 to .90 and .92, were used for data collection. The collected data was analyzed using multiple regression analysis. The result showed that: 1) Psychoticism followed by Paranoid Ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility and Obsessive-compulsive predicted Sexual Dissatisfaction negatively among nursing mothers in Awka. 2) Phobic anxiety followed by Interpersonal sensitivity, Anxiety and Neuroticism predicted sexual dissatisfaction positively in the same population. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommended that Doctors, Nurses, Family therapists, Counselors and Clergy should give more attention to the psychological needs of women at this time (post natal period) and indeed at all times so as to make couples and young families healthier.

Keywords: Sexual Dissatisfaction, Symptom Distress, Postpartum Period, Nursing Mothers.

INTRODUCTION

The birth of a child/baby is an awaited event; whether planned or not, is always accompanied by major changes in the life and relationship of a couple (Southern Community Health Services Research Unit, 1990; Oakley, 1980). Whilst both parents of the new-born baby/child must now undertake new responsibilities, the mother is the one most profoundly affected because this major life event confronts women with specific physical, psychological, and social changes (Thorp Krause & Lynch 2004). This implies that while it is often considered as a positive event to become a parent, it is well known that the birth of a child/baby at least for mothers represents a time of vulnerability to several experiences ranging from mood disorders to dysfunction in critical areas due shift in attention from the usual to the new born child/baby (as wives and mothers) and loss of intimacy between them and their spouses/husbands in most cases (Moss & Schwebel, 1993). Furthermore, some women at this point experience loss of sexual desire, which maybe associated with depression and/or dissatisfaction with sexual

activities, which can occur as a result of physical, psychological, or interpersonal factor (Fisherman, Rankin, Soekan & Lenz, 1989).

Thus, while some women resume sexual activity with their spouse few weeks after birth, some find it disinteresting to get along and as a result, sexuality after childbirth is a frequently occurring concern in clinical practice with postpartum often report decreased interest in sexual activity (Dejudicebus & McCabe 2002; Olsson, Lundquist, Faxelid & Nissen, 2005) and sometimes report distress over relationship with their partners regarding this lack of desire (Ahlborg, Dahlot & Hallberg, 2005). Thus the issue of postpartum intimacy and libido (sexual desire) affect approximately eight million new parents (O'Brien & Peyton 2005).

The concept of sexual dissatisfaction, the opposite state of satisfaction, refers to as a multidimensional experience involving thoughts, feelings, personal and socio-cultural attitudes and beliefs, combined with biological factors (Gil, 2005). This also involves any situation in which one or more sexual partners is unhappy with the quality, style or quantity of sexual activity in which they are engaging. Kruger (2007) suggests that sexual dissatisfaction can occur as a result of physical, psychological or interpersonal factors, hence if either member of a couple is unhappy with other partner in other areas of lives together, this can result in a dissatisfying sex life. Kruger (2007) also opined that if a couple is inexperienced sexually, their lack of sexual knowledge can reflect in their overall sexual experience and if there is a discrepancy between the desired frequencies of sexual activity, either or both partners can become dissatisfied. Lynch (2000) had observed that in situations where a partner does not communicate his/her sexual needs, the likelihood of dissatisfaction over sexual activity are high, and if either partner is engaging in sex with someone who is of the opposite gender of preference, sexual dissatisfaction is likely.

According to Hyde and Delamater (2000), sexual dissatisfaction means dissatisfaction in sexual activity and emotional dissatisfaction. It is not just physical displeasure but consists of all remaining feelings after positive and negative aspects of sexual relationship. Therefore, sexual dissatisfaction includes human's dissatisfaction from sexual activities to orgasm. Marital sexual dissatisfaction takes place in two ways:

1. Dissatisfaction with sexual activities.
2. Affective and emotional dissatisfaction.

Sexual dissatisfaction occurs when a man or a woman is not able to fully, healthily, and pleurably experience some or all of the various physical stages the body normally experiences during sexual activity. These stages can be broadly thought of as the desire phase, the arousal phase, and the orgasm phase. Female sexual dissatisfaction is actually quite common. It has been estimated that about 40% of women experience sexual dissatisfaction.

Psycho-Social Perspective of Sexual Dissatisfaction

The psycho-social model/perspective of sexual dissatisfaction looks at the psychological combined with social factors that result in sexual dissatisfaction in humans; thus, this anchors on those emotional/environmental factors that can trigger dissatisfying sex life in an individual. These factors include:

Interpersonal Components/Relationship Factors

A person's view of their own sexuality is largely influenced by culture, society, and personal experience. It may be intimately connected to their own or society's ideas about the appropriate or inappropriate expression of sexual behaviour. These feelings may cause anxiety

because of a personal or cultural association of sexual experience and pleasure with immorality and bad behaviour. Anxiety is then expressed physically by the body in a way that prevents normal sexual function/satisfaction. Anxiety can do this, for example, by stopping or slowing the state of sexual excitement that allows for the lubrication or moistening of the female genitalia - an important step towards fulfilling forms of sexual activity.

The level of sexual dissatisfaction or the sexual problems of the individuals do not affect negatively the individual only. Moreover, sexual dissatisfaction or sexual problems may be originated from both individual and relational resources. The sexual relationship of the couple can be seen as a kind of microcosm of the general relationship (Crowe, 1995).

According to Dziegielewski and Resnick (1998), relationship nature and relational problems may affect the sexual satisfaction of the couples. Similarly, emphasizing the effects of relationship factors on sexual dissatisfaction, Hawton (1985) claimed that, general relationship discord, dislike, loss of affection, or resentment between partners may negatively affect the sexual relationship. Also hostility, anger, distrust, distress, difficulty in talking about sex and few months after childbirth are regarded as the negative contributors of sexual life (Crowe, 1995). In addition, Colebrook Seymour, III (1998) found that, length of marriage and the number of children positively related with sexual dissatisfaction.

In a study by Kimes (2001), many participants emphasized the closeness in the relationship as the most rewarding and exciting element of their sex lives. However, women tended to mention closeness and men tended to mention physical pleasure more, when compared to each other. Women needed an orgasm to get emotional satisfaction; however, men needed it to experience physical satisfaction in addition to emotional satisfaction. Most of the respondents in the study emphasized lack of relationship with the partner as the reason for sexual dissatisfaction. Disagreement between partner's sexual preferences and lack of understanding the other's sexuality were also found to be significantly related to lack of sexual adjustment; since it makes sexual interactions mutually unacceptable and undesirable. It is concluded that lack of understanding denies one knowing how to satisfy the partner (Purnine & Carey, 1997).

Sexual communication is also reported as an important element in a couples' sexual relationship (Berg-Cross, 2001) more importantly in long-term relationships (Means, 2000) and especially for women (Means, 2000). Masters, (1995) stated that communication between partners on sex enhances sexual pleasure and protects them from being physically or psychologically uncomfortable. Communication also provides the opportunity of understanding other partner without "mind-reading". Trying to guess the partner's needs, thoughts, and feelings may cause misconceptions. Additionally, sexual communication problems are the reason of unexpressed sexual problems (Hawton, 1985).

Character, Disposition, and Life Experience

Fear of intimacy can be a factor in arousal problems. Experiences of abuse, either in childhood or in past or current relationships, can establish a cycle of associating sex with psychological or physical pain. Attempting sexual activity in these circumstances causes more psychological or physical pain. For example, if anxiety prevents lubrication, sexual intercourse can be painful. This can lead to sexual dissatisfaction.

Inhibited Sexual Desire

This involves a lack of sexual desire or interest in sex. Many factors can contribute to a lack of desire, including hormonal changes, medical conditions and treatments (for example, cancer

and chemotherapy), depression, pregnancy, stress, and fatigue. Boredom with regular sexual routines also may contribute to a lack of enthusiasm for sex, as can lifestyle factors, such as careers and the care of children.

Inability to become aroused

For women, the inability to become physically aroused during sexual activity often involves insufficient vaginal lubrication. This inability also may be related to anxiety or inadequate stimulation. In addition, researchers are investigating how blood flow problems affecting the vagina and clitoris may contribute to arousal problems.

Lack of Orgasm (Anorgasmia)

This is the absence of sexual climax (orgasm). It can be caused by a woman's sexual inhibition, inexperience, lack of knowledge, and psychological factors such as guilt, anxiety, or a past sexual trauma or abuse. Other factors contributing to anorgasmia include insufficient stimulation, certain medications, and chronic diseases.

Conclusively, social psychological perspective of sexual dissatisfaction centers on the following hypotheses:

- Self-perception theory: people make attributions about their own attitudes, feelings, and behaviours by relying on their observations of external behaviours and the circumstances in which those behaviours occur
- Over-justification hypothesis: when an external reward is given to a person for performing an intrinsically rewarding activity, the person's intrinsic interest will decrease
- Insufficient justification: based on the classic cognitive dissonance theory (inconsistency between two cognitions or between a cognition and a behavior will create discomfort), this theory states that people will alter one of the cognitions or behaviours to restore consistency and reduce distress

Gender Perspective of Sexual Dissatisfaction

One can say that, women and men experience sexuality differently. They have different needs, desires, expectations, and feelings (Barash & Lipton, 2002). After a meta-analysis of 177 sources (126,363 respondents; 58,553 males and 69,810 females), Oliver and Hyde (1993) reported several gender differences on sexual attitudes and behaviors. In terms of attitudes, males reported greater acceptance of pre-marital sexual intercourse, casual sex, sexual permissiveness, extra-marital sexual intercourse, and masturbation. Females reported more sexual anxiety. In terms of behaviors, males reported a higher incidence of sexual intercourse, a younger age of first sexual intercourse, more frequent sexual intercourse, and larger number of sexual partners.

In terms of the relationship between gender and sexual dissatisfaction, there are inconsistent findings in the literature. Some researchers report that women have greater sexual dissatisfaction than men (Renaud & Byers, 1997), however, some report that women exhibit lower sexual dissatisfaction (Kabakçı & Daş, 2002). In addition, some researchers reported that there is no gender difference and that women and men experience similar levels of sexual dissatisfaction (Oliver & Hyde, 1993; Timm, 1999).

In a study examining thoughts and feelings about sexuality (Rosenthal, 1998), many woman subjects reported that they need to be at peace with themselves, feel less shame and hold greater self-acceptance in order to be more satisfied with their sexuality. Research indicates

that low self-esteem and negative body-image significantly correlated with sexual dissatisfaction (Munnariz, et al., 2000) and dissatisfaction with physical or interpersonal self-image positively affects the sexual dissatisfaction (Hawton, 1985; Warren, 2000). The effects of age and different life periods on sexual dissatisfaction are also investigated in the sexuality research. Masters, et al. (1995) states that, psychological need for intimacy; excitement and pleasure do not have to diminish by the person gets older. In contrast, most people, especially women, discover their sexuality in mid-adulthood. Means (2000) opines that women between the ages of 35 and 45 are the most sexually responsive group, while aging and menopause decrease the intensity and duration of sexual response. Çetin (1995) points a positive association between age and sexual dissatisfaction in men. Timm (1999) emphasizes that, the focus on sexual performance of younger couples diminishes by leaving its place to more sensual activities when the couple become older.

“Sexual self-schemas” (sexual self-concepts) are also investigated in terms of the contributions of cognitive variables on sexuality. Andersen and Cyranowski (1994) reported that, women with positive sexual schema reported a more positive view on sex, higher levels of sexual arousal, and more sexual experiences. Conversely, women with negative schema described themselves as cold, conservative, unromantic, self-conscious, embarrassed, not confident and inhibited in their sexual and romantic relationships. These women also held negative attitudes about sex. Thus, there may be some potential vulnerability for sexual dissatisfaction for negative schema women. In addition, similar results were reported when a similar study conducted on male subjects (Andersen, et al., 1999). Literature also indicates a relationship between physical and psychological health and sexuality. Psychological factors such as depression, stress and anxiety (Crowe, 1995; Hawton, 1985) and physical factors such as, hormonal abnormalities, Parkinson’s disease, spinal cord injury, multiple sclerosis, and thyroid disease (Crowe, 1995; Kohn & Kaplan, 2000) are reported as having negative effects on sexuality.

In addition to the effects of health on sexuality, lower level of education is found to be correlated with orgasm frequency and sexual dissatisfaction (Çetin, 1995). Additionally, in another study by Kimes (2001), participants reported that, being sexually inexperienced, sexually less-driven and sexually inactive are positively related to emotional and physical sexual dissatisfaction.

SYMPTOM DISTRESS

Symptom distress can be best described as symptoms associated with distress, often experienced by psychiatric outpatients and with the experience of anguish arising from the problems of living among people in the general population (Derogatis, Lipman, and Covi, 1977). It is also a measure of several manifestations of distress/symptoms in 10 primary categories or domains, which includes Somatization, Obsessive-Compulsive, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Depression, Anxiety, Phobic Anxiety, Hostility, Paranoid Ideation, Psychoticism, and Neuroticism.

Somatization, the first domain in the Symptom Distress is defined by Lipowsk (1988) as the propensity of a patient to experience and report physical/somatic symptoms that have no pathophysiological explanation, to misattribute them to disease and to seek medical attention for them. According to Derogans, Lipman and Covi (1977), somatization is characterized by bodily pains, discomfort, and dysfunction, thus somatizing patients are not feigning symptoms, and somatization is distinct from factitious disorder and malingering. In addition, misattribution of symptoms to somatic disease may result in, or arise out of, the belief that

disease is present; hence there is an ample opportunity for misattribution (Egan & Beston 1987). As such Neuropsychological testing has shown that somatization is associated with information-processing deficits (Rief & Nanke 1999).

Alexithymia meaning “being without word to describe emotions” has been described as an important factor in somatization (Sifness 1996) and it is proposed that in the absence of the ability to describe emotions, individuals respond to stressful life situations in a maladaptive way and one of these, is to express emotional distress as physical symptoms. Alexithymic individuals focus on facts, details, and external events and tend to have a limited fantasy life. Additionally, factor including education and cultural sub-culture (e.g. macho males) also play a part in somatization and intelligence is negatively associated with the number of functional somatic symptoms reported (Kingma, 2009).

Obsessive-Compulsive, the second domain in the Symptom Distress, is a type of anxiety disorder in which people suffer from recurrent, unwanted thoughts or ideas (obsessions); engage in repetitive, irrational behaviours or mental acts (compulsion) or both (National Institute of Mental Health 2006). Obsessive-Compulsive disorder is said to be accompanied with irresistible thoughts, impulses, and actions (Derogans et al., 1977) and current research opined that among people with Obsessive-Compulsive disorder, carrying out compulsive behavior tends to ease feelings of anxiety while repressing compulsive behavior causes stress.

According to the National Institute of Mental Health, Obsessive-Compulsive disorder affects about 2.3% of the United States population age 18 to 54 years (i.e, approximately 3.3 million Americans). An additional 1 million children and adolescents have the disorder. The condition typically begins during early childhood or adolescence and affects men and women equally (National Institute of Mental Health 2006). In addition, up to two-thirds of people with Obsessive-Compulsive disorder suffer from additional psychiatric conditions. These conditions, including depression, eating disorders, personality disorder, attention deficit disorder, and other anxiety disorders (e.g, social phobia and separation anxiety disorder) can make it difficult for physicians to diagnose and treat Obsessive-Compulsive disorder due to overlapping symptoms. Of these additional conditions, major depressive disorder appears to be the most common, affecting up to 55% of Obsessive-Compulsive disorder patients. Bipolar disorder affects as many as 30% of Obsessive-Compulsive disorder patients, while social phobia impacts 23% (Cosoff, 1998).

A clinical diagnosis of the disorder requires that the behaviors be extreme enough to interfere with everyday activities (take more than one hour per day) or significantly interfere with a person’s relationships, health, social functioning, or occupational functioning. For example, up to 70% of people report problems with family relationships, and more than half report interference with social and work relationships (Koran 2000; Hollander 1997; Koran 1996; Calvocoressi 1995). As a result, most people with Obsessive-Compulsive disorder struggle to rid themselves of obsessive thoughts and stop compulsive behaviors.

Interpersonal sensitivity (IPS), the third domain in the Symptom Distress, is a term that describes the ability to sense, perceive accurately, and respond appropriately to one’s personal, interpersonal, and social environment (Bernieri, 2001). The information used to achieve interpersonal sensitivity includes verbal and nonverbal cues exposed through expressive behavior. Nonverbal cues include any detectable signal that has meaning but is not explicitly stated. For example, facial expressions, body language, and vocal intonations are considered nonverbal cues. As a multifaceted construct, interpersonal sensitivity consists of a

variety of skills, capabilities, and incentives that vary across individuals and contexts (Davis, 2002). Moreover, it is likely that multiple situational variables, including cognitive resources, emotional states, and motivation level influence how well an individual can detect nonverbal cues (Simpson, Orina, & Ickes, 2003). Hence, interpersonal Sensivity or interpersonal accuracy is the ability to assess another's states and traits correctly (Schmid Mast, Murphy, & Hall, 2006; Hall & Bernieri, 2001).

In their work, Hall, Andrzejewski and Yopchick (2009) distinguished between attentional accuracy, which is paying attention to the social interaction partner's cues (i.e., remembering others' verbal, nonverbal, and appearance cues); and inferential accuracy, which is the correct interpretation of perceived cues. This distinction corresponds to detection and utilization in the realistic accuracy model of personality described by Funder (1995). Attentional accuracy has been operationalized by accurate recall of others' verbal messages (Overbeck & Park, 2001) or of others' nonverbal cues (Hall, Murphy, & Schmid Mast, 2006) and of others' appearance (Schmid Mast and Hall, 2006; Horgan, SchmidMast, Hall & Carter, 2004). Research on inferential accuracy has shown that people are able to correctly infer other people's emotions (Ickes 2003; Matsumoto, 2000), motives and thoughts (Ickes, 2003); others' personality traits (Murphy, Hall, & Colvin, 2003; Ambady, LaPlante, & Johnson, 2001); and the type of interpersonal relationship in which two or more persons are involved (Schmid Mast & Hall, 2004). As in the realistic accuracy model of personality (Funder, 1995), the attentional part of interpersonal sensitivity is a precursor to being able to draw accurate inferences. Thus, the concept of interpersonal sensitivity is defined as being attuned to and correctly inferring another person's states and traits (Bernieri, Davis, Rosenthal, & Knee, 1994).

Depression, the fourth domain in the Symptom Distress, is defined as a disturbance in mood, thought, and body, characterized by varying degrees of sadness, disappointment, loneliness, hopelessness, self-doubt, and guilt. According to Derogans et al., (1977), depression is a mood disorder characterized by loss of vital energy, interest, and motivation. This implies that the concept of depression includes a wide range of symptoms including normal feelings of depressed mood that affects almost everyone from time to time, to more severe depressive states that meet diagnostic criteria for a depressive disorder.

Furthermore, depression shows high rate of relapse and chronicity as reported in several studies (e.g., Paykel, 1992). Specifically, research indicates that about 50% of those who experienced one depressive episode will be depressed again within one year and about 70% within two years (Angst & Preisig, 1995a; Angst and Preisig, 1995b). Thus, depression is a complex disorder with a multi-factorial genesis. It is well established in the study conducted by Research Agenda for Psychosocial and Behavioural Factors in Women's Health (1996) that depression is approximately twice as common in women as in men and that it affects people of all ages; hence depression has been called the most significant mental health risk for women, especially young women of child bearing and childrearing age (Glied & Kofman, 1995). Moreover, genetics, adverse events in childhood, as well as other stressful events later in life are well documented risk factors for depression (Levinson, 2006; Kendler, Karkowski, & Prescott, 1999).

In addition, depression has been observed as having a negative effect on sexual functioning (Frohlich & Meston, 2002), since it is a common understanding that depression is associated with decreased interest in activities that are customarily pleasurable, including sex (APA, 2000; Lykins, 2006). However, it would be a mistake to automatically presume that depression affects each aspect of the sexual response cycle equally. Some researchers have reported that,

for a portion of the female population, depressed states increase sexual desire (e.g., Lykins, 2006). At the same time, women with depression have been reported to have more than twice the odds of experiencing sexual problems than non-depressed women (Shifren, 2008). Therefore, it is apparent that depression has a significant comorbid relationship with sexual dysfunction/dissatisfaction (APA, 2000), but the exact manner in which it affects sexual functioning seems unclear (Elliott & O'Donohue, 1997).

Anxiety, the fifth domain in the Symptom Distress, is defined as an emotion characterized by feelings of tension, worried thoughts, and physical changes like increased blood pressure. This is also marked with restlessness, nervousness, and tension (Lipman et., al 1977). Feelings of anxiety affect almost everybody from time to time and may be regarded as a normal part of human life. To consider anxiety as an illness, distress and impaired function should also be present.

As is true for depression, anxiety disorders are more common in females and risk factors for developing the disorder are similar to those of depression. Also, anxiety disorders are strongly associated with depressive illness (Kessler, 1995), and research suggests that an anxiety disorder may precede and increase the risk for developing depression (Bittner, 2004; Stein, 2001). Similar to depression, anxiety has been given a generalized sense of interference with sexual functioning/satisfaction and as such, anxiety is a broadly defined risk factor of sexual dissatisfaction and is characterized by excessive worry and apprehensive anticipation (American Psychological Association, 2000). Although depression and anxiety are often seen as highly comorbid (APA, 2000; Rodney, 1997), it is presumptuous to assume that these states have the same effect on the sexual response cycle or that they have an identical effect on the sexual response cycle when identified as the aggravators of sexual dissatisfaction.

Hostility, the sixth domain in Symptom Distress, is defined by Matthews, (1984) as a multidimensional construct that is thought to have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. By extension, the cognitive component is defined as negative beliefs about and attitudes toward others, including cynicism and mistrust. The affective component typically labeled as anger refers to an unpleasant emotion ranging from irritation to rage and can be assessed with regard to frequency, intensity, and target. The behavioral component is thought to result from the attitudinal and affective component and is an action intending to harm others, either verbally or physically (Matthews, Jamison & Cottingham, 1982). In addition, scholars such as Derogans, Lipma, and Covi (1997) viewed hostility as a feeling of anger, hatred, repression, and unfriendliness.

In psychological terms, Kelly (1996) in his model defined hostility as the willful refusal to accept evidence that one's perceptions of the world are in some way out of alignment with current objective reality. Thus, instead of realigning one's feelings and thoughts with objective reality, hostile persons attempt to force or coerce the world to fit their view, even if this is a forlorn hope, and even if it entails emotional expenditure and/or harm to self or others. In this sense hostility is a form of psychological extortion - an attempt to force reality to produce the desired feedback, even by acting out in bullying by individuals and groups in various social contexts, in order that preconceptions become ever more widely validated. In this sense, hostility is an alternative response to cognitive dissonance.

However, hostility is often confused with anger, and although closely related, they are not identical concepts. Hostility is often defined as a personality characteristic of having a rather stable attitude of ill will and negative evaluation of people and events. Anger, on the other

hand, is often described as an emotion evoked when a person is blocked in the attainment of a goal or in the fulfillment of a need (Mendes de Leon & Meesters, 1991). Therefore, hostility is seen as a multifaceted phenomenon that includes cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations. (Siegman 1994).

Phobic anxiety, the seventh domain in the Symptom Distress is defined as intense, irrational fear of specific objects or situations that cannot be voluntarily controlled or reasoned away and that lead to avoidance of phobic situation (Marks 1989). This is also said to be associated with irrational fear and avoidance of objects, places, and situations (Derogans et al., 1977). Therefore, phobias often appear peculiarly dissociated from the intentional verbal-cognitive control that typically is held to characterize normal psychological functioning.

To capture this aspect of phobia, psychoanalysts have interpreted them as unconscious way of coping with anxiety. By investigating the unconsciously originated anxiety in a symbolically related external object, which can be avoided, it is assumed that the ego can be saved from manifest anxiety. An alternative contemporary perspective anchors irrational fears in early, automatic information-processing mechanisms that are inaccessible to intentional control. For example (Ohman & Soares, 1993) has proposed that preattentive, automatic analysis of some types of emotional relevant stimuli is sufficient to activate components of a phobic reaction such as autonomic responses. These preattentive stimuli analysis mechanisms are unconscious both in the sense that they work outside of the focus of attention and that they are inaccessible to introspection and verbal report (Greenwald, 1992). This implies that important components of phobic responses are set in motion before the phobic stimulus is represented in awareness as the subject consciously identifies what he or she is reacting to. Therefore, conscious perception of the phobic stimulus occurs against a background of rising physiological activation that is likely to feed back to the stimulus appraisal process, further enhancing the fear. Thus, phobia may appear to be involuntary and irrational because the fear response is initiated before conscious, intentionally controlled processes come into play.

Paranoid ideation, the eighth domain in the Symptom Distress, is defined by Colby (1981) as persecutory delusions and false beliefs whose propositional content clusters around ideas of being harassed, threatened, and harmed, subjugated, persecuted, accused, mistreated wrong, tormented, disparaged, vilified and so on, by malevolent others, specific individuals or groups. In their work, Lipman et al., (1977) asserted that paranoid ideation is associated with suspiciousness, distrustfulness and blaming others.

In addition, Morey (1991), proposed that paranoid ideation is characterized by intense, irrational mistrust and suspicion, resentment, hypervigilance, persecutory delusion as well as hostility. Freeman and Garety, (2004) added that this anxiety leads towards a sense of resentment for others.

However, persons with paranoid ideation and/or persecutory delusions due to their distinct cognitions and beliefs are reported to have numerous distinct information processing style characterized by less information seeking before making judgments (Garety, Hemsley, and Wessely, 1991); selective attention to threats and jumping to conclusion (Blackwood, Howard, Bentall, and Murray 2001); better memory for threatening words (Bentall, Kaney, Bowen-Jones 1995); self-consciousness (Fenigstein and Vanable, 1992) and else, and thus are subjected to frequent research.

Psychoticism, the ninth domain in Symptom Distress, is defined by Covi et al., (1977) as a personality dimension that is associated with hallucination, delusions, and externally manipulated thoughts. This also refers to a personality pattern typified by aggressiveness and interpersonal hostility.

According to Sybil Eysenck (1986), psychoticism can be conceived as a set of correlated behaviour variables indicative of predisposition to psychotic breakdown, demonstrable as a continuous variable in the normal population and independent of Extraversion and Neuroticism. However, in the Eysenckian personality scheme (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), psychoticism constitutes the third personality dimension, orthogonal to extraversion and neuroticism. It is conceptualized as a continuum of liability to psychosis (principally schizophrenia and bipolar affective disorder) with "psychopathy" (i.e., antisocial behavior) defined as "a halfway stage towards psychosis". Thus, schizophrenics, bipolars, and psychopaths are viewed by as being different only in degree, rather than qualitatively, from normals, with the single personality dimension of psychoticism differentiating normals from psychopaths (intermediate in psychoticism) and from schizophrenics and bipolars (extreme in psychoticism). Self-report questionnaire scales have been developed (Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985), including a children's version that attempt to measure psychoticism. High scorers on the Psychoticism (P) scale are conceptualized as "cold, impersonal, lacking in sympathy, unfriendly, untrustful, odd, unemotional, unhelpful, antisocial, lacking in insight, strange, with paranoid ideas that people were against him."

Neuroticism, the tenth domain in the Symptom Distress, derives from the word 'neurosis' introduced by the Scottish physician William Cullen in 1769 to refer to disorders of sense and motion caused by a general affection of the nervous system. This is consistent with the view that individual differences in neuroticism represent differences in mental noise "operationalized as reaction time standard deviations" (Robinson & Tamir, 2005). This is also viewed by (Lipman et al., 1977), as a state characterised by poor sleep and appetite, and feeling of unwellness.

In Eysenck's (1990) PEN model, neuroticism has been related to activation thresholds in the sympathetic nervous system or brain regions that govern fight-or-flight responses when confronted with danger. This perspective has received ample support from research on individual differences in the responsiveness of the avoidance (vs. approach) system (Carver, Sutton, & Scheier, 2000). In their view Costa and McCrae (1992), referred to neuroticism as a general tendency to experience negative affects. Another conceptualization regards neuroticism as a general negative emotionality (Tellegen, 1985). According to this notion, high-neurotics individuals have a higher likelihood than emotionally stable individuals to experience feelings of anxiety and depression (Church, 1994) and people high in neuroticism are prone to have irrational ideas, be less able to control their impulses, and to cope more poorly than others with stress (p. 14).

Thus, it is not surprising that when Karney and Bradbury (1995) reviewed the literature on personality and marriage, they concluded that neuroticism was the trait most strongly associated with negative marital outcomes. In fact, two theoretical perspectives can explain this link. First, interpersonal models (Caughlin, Huston, & Houts, 2001) suggest that those higher in neuroticism should be less satisfied with their relationships because they tend to create negative life events through negative behavior and emotional contagion. Second, intrapersonal models (Cote' & Moskowitz, 1998) suggest that those higher in neuroticism are less satisfied with their relationships because they are less satisfied with their lives generally,

possibly because they perceive life events more negatively. Though both perspectives suggest that neuroticism affects marriage and sexual activity in marriage through perceptual or behavioral processes, attempts to uncover such processes have been unsuccessful. For example, Karney and Bradbury (1997) found no evidence that the observed nature of couples' communication behaviors accounts for the effects of neuroticism on marriage.

POSTPARTUM PERIOD

The term postpartum period refers to as the time following childbirth or delivery (Hendrick, 1998) or a period generally thought of as the time immediately following the birth of a baby, generally six weeks (Cowlin, in Varney, Kriebs, & Geger, 2004). For the purpose of research, this period was defined from three months, up to twelve months following the birth of a child.

In a medical perspective, the postpartum period refers to the period of time required, after the childbirth, for the reproductive organs to return to their pre-pregnancy state, which takes about six weeks (McGovern et al., 2006). It is important to note that the resumption of the sexual life, after childbirth does not depend only on the female physical recovery and comfort, both partners must feel prepared (Byrd, Hyde, DeLamater, & Plant, 1998). However, Doctors usually recommend that women avoid sex in the first six weeks postpartum, both to promote healing and to reduce the risk of infection. But 26 percent of women did engage in intercourse before their six-week checkup, after seven weeks, that number jumps to 61 percent Van Anders (2000). Masturbation rates of 40 percent in the first few weeks suggest that women are interested in getting back to being sexual. Health-care providers often do not discuss too much about sexuality before that six-week period except to express that women should not be doing anything penetrative until after that time frame, however, Van Anders (2000) notes that women engage in a host of behaviours they feel like.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Sexual intercourse has been one of the gratifications in marital life, and sexual satisfaction has been shown to be very cardinal to the maintenance of psychological wellbeing among couples (Ezeilo, 1995). Indeed, non-gratification of sexual needs seems to be one of the major causes of matrimonial discord, just as infidelity is one of the major causes of divorce. It follows that any situation which may precipitate sustained break in sexual communication, or sexual dissatisfaction will prelude matrimonial discord and family psychological break down.

Behaviour scientists opine that a woman experiences psychological ups and downs at the postpartum period and that many do not recover quickly from that. Indeed, Inwood (1996), implies that beginning/experiencing motherhood for most women affects other relationships. Again, experts in obstetrics hold that for the best physical and psychological development of neonates, they should be fed exclusively with breast milk. Traditionally, house wives in this part of the world breast feed for up to 12months, hence the period of nursing in Awka lasts between 6 and 8months for most mothers.

This period is too long to risk for many couples, and it is suggested that sexual dissatisfaction which starts at this time is indeed the prelude to many cases of couple separation. It is therefore a formidable issue. This seeks to explore this issue/problem of sexual dissatisfaction from the perspective of distress since Russell (1998) strongly believes that the complex physiological and psychological changes that are associated with childbirth are stressful for most women, and not much has been done to understand this, among Nigerians.

Specifically, this study is intended to find out whether:

1. Psychoticism followed by paranoid ideation, depression, somatization, hostility and obsessive-compulsive will predict sexual dissatisfaction negatively.
2. Phobic anxiety, followed by interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, and neuroticism will predict sexual dissatisfaction positively.

HYPOTHESES

1. Psychoticism followed by paranoid ideation, depression, somatization, hostility and obsessive-compulsive will predict sexual dissatisfaction negatively.
2. Phobic anxiety, followed by interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, and neuroticism will predict sexual dissatisfaction positively.

METHOD

Participants

Two hundred and twenty nursing mothers, who were randomly selected (using simple random sampling technique) from nine towns in two Local Government Areas (Awka North and South), in Anambra State, participated in the study. The health facilities selected for the study are located in: Achalla, Mgbakwu, Urum and Amansea for Awka North, and Amawbia, Nibo, Nise, Okpuno and Awka, for Awka South. The participants' ages ranged from 20 to 50 years with the mean age of 27.69 years and standard deviation of 5.17

Instruments

Two standardized instruments were adopted for use in the study and elapsd into a questionnaire. This comprised the Symptom Distress Checklist 90 (SCL-90) designed by Derogans, Lipman and Covi (1977) and the Index of Sexual Satisfaction (ISS) designed by Hudson (1982), whose scores were reversed to measure Sexual Dissatisfaction. In addition, demographic variables which included marital status, gender, and age were included in the overall instrument used for the study. In the whole, the questionnaire contained 115 items (90 for SCL-90 and 25 for ISS).

Symptom Distress Checklist (SCL-90) Scale:

This is 90-item scale designed by Derogatis, Lipman and Covi (1977), to assess 10 primary categories of symptoms associated with distress among psychiatric outpatients and with the experience of anguish arising from the problems of living among people in the general population. It comprises of A-Somatization, B-Obsessive Compulsive, C-Interpersonal Sensitivity, D-Depression, E-Anxiety, F-Hostility, G-Phobic Anxiety, H-Paranoid Ideation, I - Psychoticism and J-Neuroticism. In this scale, sections A-J are scored separately, after which the values of the numbers shaded in each item of each section is added together to obtain the score for the section. The overall values for 10 sections are further added up, to obtain the overall SCL-90 score. The scoring was done on 5-point simple response format of 0-Not At All, 1-A Little Bit, 2-Moderately, 3-Quite a Bit, 4-Extremely

Index of Sexual Satisfaction

This is a 25-item scale developed by Hudson (1982) to measure the degree to which an individual derives satisfaction from sexual relationship with his or her partner. Satisfaction is evaluated in terms of an individual's attitude, feeling, or preference for various forms and aspects of sexual behaviour. There is a direct scoring and a reverse scoring of items; the direct score items are items 4,5,6,7,8,11,13,14,15,18,20,24 and 25, while reverse score items are 1,2,3,9,10,12,16,17,19,21,22 and 23. To get the final score during scoring, the result of the direct scores and the reverse scores are added together to obtain the raw score, after which 25 is subtracted from the raw score to obtain the final score. The scoring was done on 5-point

response format of (1-Rarely or None of the Time, 2-A Little of the Time, 3-Some of the Time, 4-Good Part of the Time, 5-Most or all of the Time).

However, for the purpose of this study, the scores of Index of Sexual Satisfaction (ISS) were reversed in descending order, such that higher scores reflected sexual dissatisfaction where 0 became 4, 1-3, 2-2, 3-1, and 4-0. This was done so that the scale will be able to measure sexual dissatisfaction. However, before adopting the Index of sexual satisfaction to measure sexual dissatisfaction, the researchers subjected the scale to pilot study, through which the researchers obtained raw data, whose scores were reversed and with which, norm for sexual dissatisfaction for the present study was established.

Validity and reliability of the instruments

Symptom Distress Checklist (SCI-90)

Erinosa (1996) reported significant coefficients of concurrent validity between Retirement Stress Inventory, Omoluabi (1996) and SCL-90 Scales which ranged from .26 for Scale F (Hostility) to .47 for Scale J (Neuroticism). Derogatis et al. (1977) reported alpha coefficients which ranged from .77 for Psychoticism to .90 for depression. The one week interval test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .78 for Hostility to .90 for Phobic Anxiety.

Index of Sexual Satisfaction (ISS)

A concurrent validity coefficient of -.20 was obtained by Nwobi (1998) by correlating Index of Sexual Satisfaction with Sexual Anxiety Inventory (Hoon & Chambless, 1986). The reliability coefficients reported by Hudson (1998) are: Cronbach alpha internal consistency of .92 and 2-hour test-retest of .94.

In order to obtain the internal consistency of the scales (SCL-90 and ISS) for this culture, the researchers subjected the scales to study. A total number of 150 students of the Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka, participated in the study. The scores collected through the study were subjected to statistical analysis and the following scores were obtained, showing the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients for the two scales:

Table I: Showing the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of the SCL-90 and ISS obtained through study carried out with the Students of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka

S/N	Scales	No of Items	Cronbach Alpha Coefficient
A	Somatization	12	.88
B	Obsessive Compulsive	10	.85
C	Interpersonal Sensitivity	9	.76
D	Depression	13	.83
E	Anxiety	10	.88
F	Hostility	6	.65
G	Phobic Anxiety	7	.85
H	Paranoid Ideation	6	.77
I	Psychoticism	10	.83
J	Neuroticism	7	.77
K	Sexual dissatisfaction	25	.86

(Source: Anazonwu, Obi-Nwosu & Ifedigbo, 2013)

Again, with the data gathered through the pilot study, a new norm was established for each of the subsection of the symptom distress checklist (SCL-90) and sexual satisfaction (whose

scores were reversed to measure sexual dissatisfaction), with the responses of 150 students of Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.

Table II: Showing standardized norm for Nigerian University Students ages 18-26 by Onighaiye and Erinoso (1996), in Lagos, Western Nigeria in comparison with the norm by Anazonwu, Obi-Nwosu & Ifedigbo (2013), in Awka, Eastern Nigeria for Symptom Distress Checklist Domains SCL-90 and Sexual satisfaction (whose scores were reversed to measure sexual dissatisfaction).

SCALES	YORUBA CULLINE (WEST)		IGBO (EAST)	
	ONIGHAIYE AND ERINOSO (1996), LAGOS.		ANAZONWU, OBI-NWOSU AND IFEDIGBO (2013), AWKA	
A-J	F(n=80)		F(n=150)	
A – Somatization	14.96		15.29	
B – Obsessive-compulsive	14.95		15.83	
C – Interpersonal sensitivity	12.51		12.63	
D – Depression	17.55		18.19	
E – Anxiety	10.66		11.37	
F – Hostility	8.44		7.62	
G – Phobic anxiety	4.95		5.11	
H – Paranoid ideation	4.95		6.63	
I – Psychoticism	7.95		9.88	
J – Neuroticism	7.61		8.62	
SCL-90	108.31		111.17	
General Population SCL-90 norm = 97				
SCALE	NWOBI (1998)	ANAZONWU, OBI-NWOSU & IFEDIGBO (2013)		
	F(n=90)	F(n=150)		
Sexual Satisfaction	36.61	76.24		
Norm for the reversed scores of Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Source: Anazonwu, Obi-Nwosu & Ifedigbo, 2013)				

PROCEDURE

In the context of this study, 'Awka' comprises Awka North and Awka South Local Government Areas of Anambra State. The researchers sought and obtained permission from the Health Departments of the Local Governments, and were subsequently introduced to the Primary Health Care Coordinators and Maternal/Child offices of the centres during a meeting at the Head Quarters. Appointments were then fixed for each centre, when the researchers should visit nursing mothers who were still coming for routine immunization at the respective centres. At the centres, through the assistance of the PHO's, it was easy to obtain informed consent for the mothers in their groups and only a few declined participation. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to all mothers and they were allowed to take their time to complete them. Out of two hundred and thirty-six copies administered, two-hundred and twenty were completely filled, six were not returned while ten were not completely filled; hence 220 nursing mothers participated.

DESIGN AND STATISTICS

One-factor (Symptom distress checklist with ten '10' domains) on a dependent variable (sexual dissatisfaction) predicting design, and the multiple regression analysis statistics was used for testing the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Table III: Showing summary of Regression Analysis of Symptom Distress with Sexual Dissatisfaction Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	110.518	5.715		19.339	.000
Depression	-3.901	2.612	-.172	-1.493	.137
Somatization	-2.509	1.668	-.114	-1.504	.134
obsessive compulsive	-.887	2.128	-.039	-.417	.677
interpersonal sensitivity	2.470	2.386	.116	1.036	.302
1 Anxiety	.988	2.276	.045	.434	.665
Neuroticism	.516	2.121	.023	.243	.808
Psychoticism	-7.157	2.220	-.315	-3.224	.001
phobic anxiety	6.304	2.434	.275	2.590	.010
Hostility	-.910	2.140	-.043	-.425	.671
paranoid ideation	-5.227	2.297	-.233	-2.276	.024

a. Dependent Variable: sexual dissatisfaction

Results from the table above indicated that, Psychoticism ($t = -3.22, p < .05 = .001$), Paranoid Ideation ($t = -.23, p < .05 = .02$), Depression ($t = -1.49, p < .05 = -.14$), Somatization ($t = -1.50, p < .05 = .13$), Hostility ($t = -.43, p < .05 = .67$) and Obsessive-compulsive ($t = -.42, p < .05 = .68$) predicted sexual dissatisfaction negatively. The table also indicated that, Phobic Anxiety ($t = 2.59, p < .05 = .01$), Interpersonal Sensitivity ($t = 1.04, p < .05 = .30$), Anxiety ($t = .43, p < .05 = .67$), and Neuroticism ($t = .24, p < .05 = .81$) predicted sexual dissatisfaction positively.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In the light of the hypotheses, at ranking level, Psychoticism ($t = -3.22, p < .05 = .001$), Paranoid Ideation ($t = -.23, p < .05 = .02$), Depression ($t = -1.49, p < .05 = -.14$), Somatization ($t = -1.50, p < .05 = .13$), Hostility ($t = -.43, p < .05 = .67$) and Obsessive-compulsive ($t = -.42, p < .05 = .68$) predicted sexual dissatisfaction negatively. Therefore the hypothesis, which stated that "Psychoticism, Paranoid Ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility, and Obsessive-compulsive would predict sexual dissatisfaction negatively," was upheld. This is to say that the higher the level of Psychoticism, Paranoid ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility and Obsessive-compulsive, the lesser the Sexual Dissatisfaction.

Similarly, at ranking level, Phobic anxiety ($t = 2.59, p < .05 = .01$), Interpersonal Sensitivity ($t = 1.04, p < .05 = .30$), Anxiety ($t = .43, p < .05 = .67$) and Neuroticism ($t = .24, p < .05 = .81$) predicted sexual dissatisfaction positively. Therefore, the hypothesis, which stated that "Phobic anxiety, interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, and neuroticism would predict sexual dissatisfaction positively," was upheld. This implies that the higher the level of phobic anxiety, interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety and neuroticism, the more the sexual dissatisfaction.

DISCUSSION

The study investigated “Symptom distress (somatization, interpersonal sensitivity, obsessive-compulsive, depression, anxiety, phobic anxiety, hostility, paranoid ideation, psychoticism, and neuroticism) as predictors of sexual dissatisfaction among nursing mothers.”

Results obtained in this study show that hypothesis one, which stated that “Psychoticism, Paranoid ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility and Obsessive-compulsive would predict sexual dissatisfaction negatively,” was confirmed. This agrees inversely with the study reported by Rose Marie, Eckert Kunaszuk, and Jana Mossey (2005), who studied the impacts of intimacy, libido, and depressive symptoms on sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction and result found that depressive symptoms had negative impact on sexual and marital satisfaction.

It is also somewhat related to the findings of: (Heaven, Fitzpatrick, Craig, Kelly, & Sebar 2000), who found that higher psychoticism predicted lower sexual satisfaction in women but higher sexual satisfaction in men, and to that of Costa, (1992), who worked with clients from a sex therapy clinic and found that higher psychoticism predicted lower sexual satisfaction in men but not women.

However, the disparity maybe accounted for by cultural differences, level of ante-natal preparation, number of pregnancies/children previously had and level of husband’s education of the different sets of participants. Again, it is plausible that ‘Omugo’ practice in Igbo land (the area of the present study) also has impact on the general wellbeing of the post natal mother hence such symptoms as depression, hostility, obsessive compulsive, psychoticism, somatization and paranion ideation may not have been so severe as to predict sexual dissatisfaction significantly.

Similarly hypothesis two which stated that “Phobic anxiety, interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, and neuroticism will predict sexual dissatisfaction positively” was upheld. This is in tandem with the discovery of (Hall, 1984; McClure, 2000) who investigated how interpersonal sensitivity relates to other variables such as relationship satisfaction and discovered from meta-analyses that women, in general, are more interpersonally sensitive in emotional cues such as sexual activity than are men. Similarly, the finding corroborates the work of Vann Minnen and Kapman (2000) on the effect of anxiety on sexual dissatisfaction among non-clinical women, which showed that anxiety, is a contributor to sexual dissatisfaction.

This study went further to compare postpartum women who were experiencing symptom distresses on each of the subscale and those who were not, using their responses. This was to see if the nursing mothers who were experiencing one distress or another would differ from those who were not experiencing such distress on their level of sexual dissatisfaction at the postpartum period. In doing this, Independent t-test statistics was used to test for significant differences in the responses of the postpartum mothers on each of the subscales. Also, those that scored high and those that scored low were compared, and the following results obtained:

1. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on somatization and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
2. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on obsessive-compulsive and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
3. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on interpersonal sensitivity and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.

4. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on depression and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
5. There was no significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on anxiety and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
6. There was no significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on hostility and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
7. There was no significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on phobic anxiety and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
8. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on paranoid ideation and those who scored low on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
9. There was no significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on psychoticism and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
10. There was a significant difference between postpartum mothers who scored high on neuroticism and those who scored low, on their level of sexual dissatisfaction.
11. The reason for variation in experience/manifestation of distresses maybe linked to such factors as: a) personality of the postpartum, b) Kind of environment, c) Personality of spouse d) Socio-economic status of the couple, e) Marital relationship between the postpartum couples f) Level of education/exposure g) Religious belief, h) Personal values, i) History of psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety, k) Type of relation, and l) Sex of the baby. Some of these may act as co-morbid factors to symptom distress, which may in turn result to sexual dissatisfaction in the postpartum.

CONCLUSION

The study examined the Symptom distress as predictors of sexual dissatisfaction among two-hundred and twenty (220) nursing mothers in Awka. Two hypotheses were tested using Multiple Regression Analysis. The first, showed that Psychoticism, followed by Paranoid ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility and Obsessive-compulsive predicted sexual dissatisfaction negatively. The second, showed that Phobic anxiety, followed by Interpersonal sensitivity, Anxiety, and Neuroticism predicted sexual dissatisfaction positively. The two hypotheses were both upheld at $p < .05$.

These findings very strongly suggest that six dimensions of symptom distress (Psychoticism, Paranoid ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility and Obsessive-compulsive) are negative significant predictors of sexual dissatisfaction among nursing mothers. This implies that as Psychoticism, Paranoid ideation, Depression, Somatization, Hostility, or Obsessive-compulsive becomes more obvious/severe, Sexual Dissatisfaction goes down. Again, the findings also strongly suggest that the remaining four dimensions of symptom distress (Phobic anxiety, Interpersonal sensitivity, Anxiety and Neuroticism) are positive significant predictors of Sexual Dissatisfaction in the same population. This also goes to say that as Phobic Anxiety, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Anxiety, or Neuroticism becomes more obvious or severe, Sexual Dissatisfaction increases.

These findings are expected to benefit nurses, midwives, health workers, the clergy, marriage counselors, and family psychologists/therapists who may from time to time need to deal with couple conflicts, especially when postnatal women are involved. The knowledge shared during antenatal period could serve a precautionary purpose to family members, and assist women to come off such difficulty faster, if it presents.

It is therefore recommended that doctors, nurses, therapists, and counselors should pay more attention to the psychological needs of women at this time (post natal period) and indeed at all times so as to make couples and young families healthier.

LIMITATIONS

No exclusion criteria (eg presence of previous history of sexual/marital problems, or of psychopathology) were considered in this study. This may impact generalization.

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Selective Competence Renewal and Organizational Performance in the Nigerian Telecommunication Sector

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Abstract

This study primarily is a scientific in-road into deeper understanding of the strategic implication of selective competence renewal influence on organizational performance in the telecommunication sector of Nigeria. This attempt underscores the role of employee competencies and skills in the characteristic competitive business environment. The study has used the questionnaire primarily as the instrument for obtaining data having confirmed its validity and reliability with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.81. The data were analyzed inferentially and it was shown that selective competence renewal is a strategic competitive component of organizational politics at the macro level that ensures agility, improved service delivery and innovative practices. It was concluded based on the findings that selective competence renewal encourages and strengthen firms from competitiveness. It has also been recommended based on the findings that organization should promote skill/competencies enhancement programmes that are targeted at value adding and encourage knowledge sharing among work members.

Keywords: Competence, Renewal, Infrastructure, Targeted Skill Acquisition, Programmed Training.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations within complex and highly competitive environment should not only rely on materials and financial resources as a means of staying competitive and attaining optimal performance but should also rely on quality strategic skills and competences amongst employees that provides unique advantage and shared culture within the organization. Analyzing the organization in terms of its human resource competencies and intellectual formation constitutes an important approach to undertaking certain strategic aspects of organizational activities (Hebron et al, 2008; Millow, 2010). Selective competence renewal remains one of the promising concept in both strategic management and organizational development literature (Garrud, & Karnoe, 2001; Levinthal and Perup, 2005; Siggukow and Levinthal, 2005; Singh, 2006; Crossan, et al, 2009). This is increasingly the case when associated with organizational politics which has been hitherto viewed in some scholarly conceptualizations as improving negative values of 'politicking' at work. Of course this is a delusion that needs to be reviewed. The uniqueness of the concept of selective competence renewal is explained to the extent that it deliberately takes cognizance of differed skills and competencies. Hardy (2008) believes that it is necessary to hold on to the idea of selective competence renewal as a heuristic device for explaining the theory of politics in work organizations. In otherwords selective competence renewal is descriptive in nature with a view to quantifying organizational politics in work organizations. Be that as it may, it is a

strategically focused activity that identifies and refines work skills that facilitates attempts at achieving optimal performance.

In this study, the focus is on the selective competence renewal and its link with organizational performance. Precisely, through operationalized selective competence renewal and organizational performance constructs we intend to determine the empirical link between the variables. The empirical evidence on this subject is quite sparse for emerging economies or markets in which the Nigerian telecommunication sector is a part.

Significance of the Study

The study on selective competence renewal as a component of organizational politics is quite a renewed effort at giving functional meaning to the hitherto described negative tendencies of the concept of politics at work. The results of this study will no doubt illuminate the conceptual horizon on organizational politics operationalized through the strategic practice of selective competence renewal as a key success factor that facilitates the attainment of goals. Managers and industry operators alike will rely on the study outcome in considering strategic skills as core competitive instruments that likely enhance effort at goals. It will also provide a basis for renewing stakeholders thinking on the plausible and incisive use of the selective competence renewal component of organizational politics as a means of achieving desired financial goals.

Objectives of the Study

There is increased need for finding out various phenomenal actions that organizations have to undertake to achieve goals. This is with a view to channeling appropriately scarce organizational resources to activities that best optimize performance. Therefore, the general objective of this study is to examine the link between selective competence renewal and organizational performance. Specifically it will find out how the dimensions of the construct which includes programmed training, targeted skill acquisition, competence analysis and strategic infrastructure relates with organizational performance in the telecommunication sector.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Selective competence renewal

There is huge evidence in strategic management literature on the crucial role of human resource skills and competences in achieving strategic goals (Jarius, 2006; Hardy, 2008, Millow, 2010). Continuous overhauling and acquisition of work skills and competences has also shown prominence in organizational development discourse (Maxwell, 2005; Jarius, 2006; Karien et al, 2006; Oladejo, 2007; Morrison, 2010) Morrison (2010) is of the view that the increasing rate of dynamism in the environment of organization with avowed technological changes must be matched with commensurate skills and competencies for effective and efficient operations management. It is argued in the work of Ephraim et al (2007) that when confronted with change as it were, managers are disposed to the application of core skills and competencies as operational facilities for ensuring effectiveness. Therefore strict planning and monitoring of competencies is a premium that needs to be underscored. These conceptualizations have stirred the debate on selective competence renewal. Selective competence renewal according to Gerald (2009) is a process that is sequenced in multiphases but notable amongst them is the behavioural and structural components. Mena and Samebon (2010) have in their work espoused a distinctive framework on selective competence renewal and viewed it in the light of the strategic role expected. The authors had discussed thematically the selective competence renewal in terms of its ability to ensure programmed and targeted skill and competencies approach for acquiring new skills while at same ensuring renewal of

existing skills profile of organizations. Further it also stated its capacity to consider and reconsider skills through critical competence analysis. Mena and Samebon (2010) also expanded their conceptual latitude on selective competence renewal to include strategic infrastructures which they described as techno-structural aspects. Thus, renewing competencies is an integrative organizational exercise that is strategically conducted to achieve performance goals. Kassim and Zain (2004) made a point for enterprise infrastructures that aid competence renewal aside managerial dynamics. These infrastructures are levers that are used to leverage renewal of competencies and capabilities and ensure success.

Daisy (2010) believed that operationalizing selective competence renewal using Mena and Samebon model is obviously illuminating but has spiritedly argued that when firms develop selective competence renewal culture as a strategic thrust for maintaining and positioning in their market, they strive for improved performance. Infact, many other contributions consider selective competence renewal as fundamental to the entire performance effort (Zhang and Shariff, 2000; Jarius, 2006; Oladejo, 2007; Henry and Ibidanjo, 2010). Fabian (2008) emphasizes the capacity of selective skill and competence renewal to evolve a competent and agile workforce that is capable of stemming change and competitiveness. It strengthens the organization through its analytical characteristics and promotes investment in viable work skills and competences that encourages operational efficiency.

Selective Competence and Organizational Performance

Contemporarily, quite a handful of studies have emerged with the focus of examining the relationship between some strategic organizational actions especially as it relates with competencies, capabilities and performance of organization (Benard & Toche, 2000; Parsley, 2004; Karien et al, 2007; Alzaran and Raja, 2010). In any case, early studies exist that underscore the positive effect of employee competencies on organizational performance but with conceptual difference on the measures of performance. Much of the prescriptive literature has relied much on financial measures for organizational performance and has restricted their conceptual horizon to financial result. This conceptual limitation had however drawn the attention of Kaplan and Norton (1992) who had interestingly expanded the conceptual latitude of organizational performance to include both financial and nonfinancial measures. For instance, outcomes of reviewed competencies may include behavioural and process changes that may have their implicit roles on goals desired. In fact, Bontis et al (2002) have established in their study an empirical link between some work place strategic actions and employee job satisfaction which proximate desired performance for the organization. Skerlavaj (2007) has also demonstrated a positive link between organizational learning as a strategic organizational action and financial and nonfinancial measures.

Importantly, there is a strong consideration by many authors recently for competences renewal as a fundamental competitive action needed for performance improvement. Some had argued that it provides the capabilities needed to respond swiftly to increased customer demand through its ability to create new products and readily make them available to customers in the market (Zain, 2004; Miller, 2007; Karien, et al, 2007; Basil & Ermerna, 2009). While this is assured, empirical evidence to support this position is obviously scanty especially within emerging markets. Nancy (2008) emphasized the importance of strategic renewal in work process and product development as a definite competitive strategy for firm repositioning in her environment and had expectedly showed its positive association with organizational performance measure of increased market share. In our view such renewal effort comes through the strategic human resource whose work skills and competencies are

needed for all organizational activities therefore need to be viewed from that perspective. Nujoma (2009) is of the view that when competencies are targetedly renewed it conveys reliance on their transformative capability to bring about results in some unique form either behaviourally or cognitively which in turn ensure organizational success. All of these intuitive assumptions require empirical evidence that shows the nature of the relationship between selective competence renewal dimension and the performance measures which are in this study viewed from both financial and nonfinancial perspective therefore hypothesized thus:

- H01: Programmed Training does not relate significantly with organizational performance
 H02: Targeted Skill Acquisition does not relate significantly with organizational performance
 H03: Competence Analysis does not relate significantly with organizational performance
 H04: Strategic infrastructure does not relate significantly with organizational performance

METHODOLOGY

Contemporary research attempts have been sufficiently anchored on positivist epistemology as a premise for theory building in social science field (Creswell, 1997; Locke et al, 2004; Maxwell, 2005). This study is conducted based on the positivist philosophy that guarantees the application of nomothetic method which is essentially quantitative. The questionnaire was served as the primary instrument for generating data from a sample of 56 managers that were randomly drawn from the different firms that operates in the telecommunication sector. Their response rate was interesting as they showed commitment to the study. We had regularly visited them to ensure retrieval of all the survey instrument and some of them used e-mails in return. Descriptive and inferential methods were used in our data analysis to extract meaning thereof.

MEASUREMENT

For appropriate measurement of the variables examined in this study, it has adapted and relied on existing validated instruments for the predictor and criterion variable. In the case of selective competence renewal which is the predictor, Mana and Samebon (2010) 24 item scale was applicable. The scale has previously shown reliability when applied by Egarevwa (2011) with an alpha of 0.843. For the criterion variable which is performance, the study adapted Olaleru (2010) consolidated 12 item scale which the author adapted from the works of Lai (2003) Belgin (2004) and Miller (2007) with a reliability alpha of 0.76. All the items were measured using the five point likerts scale of Strongly Agree = 5 to Strongly Disagree = 1.

RESULTS

Table 1: Descriptive outcome and composite item reliability alpha for the examined variables

S/N		Mean	Std	n	No. of Item	Correlation
1	Programmed Training	3.541	0.490	56	6	0.89
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	3.702	0.346	56	6	0.91
	Competence Analysis	3.765	0.473	56	6	0.74
	Strategic Infrastructure	3.771	0.366	56	6	0.72
	Value of Assets	2.706	0.955	56	4	0.83
	Innovativeness	2.486	1.520	56	4	0.83
	Agility	3.111	0.716	56	4	0.71

Table 1 shows the descriptive outcome of the examined constructs and the results on the reliability of the instrument based on the question items. The reliability cronbach alpha result on the different dimensions and measures of the constructs examined using the Nunnally

(1984) threshold alpha of 0.7, the instrument is reliable since the lowest alpha is 0.71 and this adjudged okay. The descriptive are also indicative of selective competence renewal practices with studied firms.

Table 2: Link between Selective Competence Renewal and Organizational Performance

Organizational Performance	Selective Competence Renewal	Pearson Coefficient	R	R ²
OP	Programmed Training	0.334**	.497	.247
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	0.278**		
	Competence Analysis	0.514**		
	Strategic Infrastructure	0.372**		
Value of Asset	Programmed Training	0.216*	.340	.116
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	0.283**		
	Competence Analysis	0.413**		
	Strategic Infrastructure	0.337**		
Innovativeness	Programmed Training	0.313**	.403	.163
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	0.539**		
	Competence Analysis	0.663*		
	Strategic Infrastructure	0.211**		
Agility	Programmed Training	0.363*	.506	.256
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	0.581**		
	Competence Analysis	0.62**		
	Strategic Infrastructure	0.527**		

** correlation is significant @ 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* correlation is significant @ 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 shows the Pearson correlational coefficient of the studied variables. This is in addition to the multiple regression outcomes which show the relationship and the degree of variability on the explanation of the criterion variable. First, the correlation for all the components of selective competence renewal and the measures of organizational performance are positive and significant at $\rho < 0.01$ and 0.05 . The results showed support for the four hypotheses derived from the operationalized dimensions of strategic competence renewal and the three measures of organizational performance which includes value of assets, innovativeness and agility.

The multiple regression of strategic competence renewal on value of assets showed a positive relationship with $R = .340$ and the $R^2 = 0.116$ which means that up to 11.6% of the regressional (criterion variable) is explained by the continued regression (predictor variable) components. For selective competence renewal and innovativeness, he $R = .403$ shows a positive relationship and the $R^2 = .163$ which also showed that combined influence of the dimensions of the predictor variable explains about 16.3% of the variance in the criterion measure. Finally, for selective competence renewal and agility, there also exist a moderate positive relationship with $R = 0.506$. The predictor variable combined; also explain up to 25.6% of the variation in the criterion measure.

Table 3:

Model	Unstandardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient	t	Sig	
	Beta	Std Error	Beta			
1	Constant)	-6.707	3.046		-2.202	0.000
	Programmed Training	0.1445	0.707	.123	0.630	0.018
	Targeted Skill Acquisition	1.282	1.075	.281	1.993	0.033
	Competence Analysis	0.790	0.849	.230	1.131	0.011

Strategic Infrastructure	0.587	0.552	.207	1.061	0.000
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Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance

Table 3 show the coefficient estimates on the influence of the dimension of selective competence renewal on organizational performance. The weight of the β values indicates the magnitude of the influence of each of the dimension. From the results, targeted skill acquisition dimension with $\beta = 0.281$; $t = 1.993$ has the highest weight therefore is considered having more influence on organizational performance. This is followed by competence analysis having $\beta = 0.230$; $t = 1.131$.

DISCUSSION

This study had hypothesized that selective competence renewal dimension or programmed training, targeted skill acquisition, competence analysis and strategic infrastructure do have a statistically significant link with organizational performance measured by value of asset, innovativeness and agility. First, the results from the study supported the hypothesis. Karevos (2000) in his study found that firms undertake a programmed approach to skill enhancement with a view to checking emerging sectoral technologies. Through the programmed training packages they easily respond to areas of customer needs. This study findings corroborates his results as programmed training packages as component of selective competence renewal showed empirical link with agility, innovativeness and value of assets. In conformity with the works of Basil and Emerana (2009); Philips and Philips (2012), the results of this study have placed a theoretical premium on targeted skill acquisition. The authors in their study show that when firms operate within a multi-faceted environment, their acquisition of core skills is important and strategic for competitiveness within such environment. In this study, the sector undertakes much of targeted approach in building employee skills especially in the light of the distinct product features. An empirical link is shown strongly between targeted skills and organizational performance measures. The descriptive and inferential results are indicative. Interestingly, Kassim and Zaim (2004) noted that strategic infrastructures are required to undertake strategic skills and competencies development but did not correlate these strategic infrastructures with performance. This thinking has broadened in this study to close the gap. The results are also clear in showing the positive and significant relationship between strategic infrastructure and organizational performance measures. In line with the conceptual focus of selective competence renewal, the study from its findings reflects on employee skills and competencies as key to success of organizational effort aimed at innovativeness and agility in responding to their environment.

CONCLUSION/POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This study has examined the link between selective competence renewal practices and performance in the telecommunication sector. Recent organizational effort at competing amidst the multifactors and globalized business environment had resulted considering investing their energies in strategic or core competences which are believed to be key both in administrative and operational processes. The study findings however reiterate the thinking as there exists strong empirical links between the examined variables in the study. Selective competence renewal was operationalized as programmed training, targeted skill acquisition, competence analysis and strategic infrastructure and relates with the measures of the criterion which includes innovativeness, agility and value of asset. Simply put, selected competencies are improved or renewed through concentrated effort in order to undertake strategic activities. They are empowered through to be innovative and using agile actions to respond to imposing industry competitiveness. Managers/Operators of organizations expectedly should identify first hand skills that are required to sustain capacity and meet the challenge of emerging

market which the sector belongs, and adjudged characteristically competitive. Continuous competence analysis is also imperative in order to identify areas that are lacking and require reinforcement and through this, skills targeting can also be done.

Suggested for Further Studies

Further search should be initiated in the area of work place factors that encourage capacity in work skills and competencies. This will entail the expansion of the theoretical scope to include other variables that encourage competence reinforcement. The relationship of competence renewal and other performance measure the ones used in this study is also suggested alongside micro level analysis.

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Unstable Political Climate, Brain Drain and Development

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to study development when political climate is unstable like during forthcoming presidential elections in poor countries. The economic agents fear for their life and thus, on the one hand, the skilled labor increases his incentives to invest in human capital accumulation in order to leave abroad in a more developed country, the brain drain is stimulates. In contrast, the unskilled labor increases his savings in order to migrate to rural regions since violence occur in big cities, dualism emerges in the economy. Indeed, depending on the level of the unstable political climate parameter, the economy admits multiple equilibria where brain drain and dualism may vary and leads the economy inside a poverty trap or to development sustainability described by an inverted U-shape curve. Indeed, this article provides theoretical foundations explaining the impact of political climate on economic development in poorest developing countries.

Keywords: unstable political climate, dualism, development sustainability, brain drain, human capital accumulation

INTRODUCTION

Political uncertainty is often viewed as a major factor causing under development in poor countries . According to old development theories such as the Marxian thought, political uncertainty is caused by imperialism faced by poor countries in regard to industrial countries in order to maintain the government which retards development and growth in position to serve their own interest specifically in international exchange . In this article, political non stability is a necessary condition of growth and development. In contrast, human capital and dualism among rural and urban regions are engines of growth and development in poorest countries. This article focuses on political uncertainty climate which prevails when population is expecting to have election for the new president in least developed counties . That reality raises tensions in the country because most of the time, it is observed in poor countries that this situation leads to civil war raised by candidates for the president position and the winner is mostly the one who is the most stronger in weapons. Population often becomes kept in a vicious circle created by fighters for power or the greatest man choice process and obviously, population pay for military actions consequences .

This analysis uses the brain drain analysis to study development in that context . On the one hand, human capital component initiated by Becker and Schultz and introduced in growth analysis by Romer (1986) and Lucas (1988), plays a great role in the capability of a proportion of p high skilled agents to move abroad in countries where the democracy establishment is effective in order to feel more in safety. On the other hand, a proportion of q low skilled agents leave urban to rural regions to protect them self from civil war and death occurrence since violence occurs in big cities creating Lewis (1954) dualism back in the economy. Those behaviors stimulate both the brain drain and dualism among rural and urban regions. Indeed, depending on the level of the unstable political climate parameter, λ the economy admits multiple equilibria where high brain drain and high dualism i.e $p=q=1$ due to forthcoming violence and death occurrence kept the economy inside a poverty trap with low growth and

development retard, when $0 < p, q < 1$ or low brain drain and low dualism prevail, the economy follows the development process with average growth rate, when $p, q = 0$, brain drain and dualism are absent, the economy is becoming developed with a quite high growth rate and poverty absence, thus development is described by an inverted U-shape curve meaning that it is sustainable. Indeed, this article provides theoretical foundations which explain the impact of political climate on development in poor countries.

The scientific contribution of the model holds first on the introduction of unstable political climate effects on development inside both the brain drain and dualism concepts. Second, we established that, development follows an inverted U-shape curve inside the brain drain analysis, a finding due to Kuznets and means that, development is sustainable since required conditions are filled. Moreover, since internal emigration i.e urban to rural emigrations and the brain drain analysis effects on the development process depends on unstable political climate caused by democracy absence, it also guides agents' actions in the decision to migrate to feel in safety through human capital accumulation increase and international labor demand increase and/ or saving increase. In contrast, most of the brain drain models focus on human capital accumulation increase and use relative wages as the main criteria to the decision to emigrate, this model stipulates that political variables are neglected both by the politicians of development economics and by the world organizations in charge of developing countries management. Third, the model re introduces the debate on dualism of the economy between modern and traditional sectors as a key for development according to Lewis (1954). In contrast, as a proof of development retard, the reverse effect coupled to high brain drain i.e $p = q = 1$, makes domestic human capital tends to 0 and drives the economic path toward a poverty trap in the spirit of the work of Azariadis-Drazen (1990). Instead of speaking about the return probability of the skilled labor mostly present in the brain drain models (Docquier-Rapoport, 2012), the model stipulates that, since political climate is stable, the skilled agent is inside the economic system to enhance production. Relative wages increase in this model highlight only normal brain drain i.e $0 < p < 1$ and average internal migration i.e $0 < q < 1$ but since the unstable political parameter signals appear greatly, high brain drain and dualism may occur i.e we may have p and q go to 1. Indeed, depending on political climate of the country λ , development and growth may greatly fluctuate and be located far away from its steady state and lead to poverty and famine increase.

The model is a theory of economic development focused on two main literatures which are the brain drain and development pioneers thought. On the one hand, it can be distinguished three waves of the brain drain literature evolution. The first wave dates back to the late 1960s and includes mainly welfare analyses in standard trade-theoretic frameworks (e.g., Grubel and Scott, 1966, Johnson, 1967, Berry and Soligo (1969)). These early contributions conclude to an essentially neutral impact of the brain drain on source countries and generally emphasize the benefits of free migration to the world economy. This is explained by the fact that highly skilled emigrants may leave behind part of their assets which complement remaining high and low-skill labor (Berry and Soligo, 1969), or simply by the role of remittances and other positive feedback effects that act to compensate sending countries for any real loss the brain drain may cause. From a broader perspective, these studies (especially Grubel and Scott, 1966) emphasize highly skilled emigrant contribution to knowledge. The second wave comes less than a decade later. Under the leadership of Jagdish Bhagwati, a series of alternative models were developed throughout the 1970s to explore the welfare consequences of the brain drain in various institutional settings. Domestic labor markets rigidities, informational imperfections, as well as fiscal and other types of externalities (Bhagwati and Hamada, 1974, McCulloch and Yellen, 1977) were introduced to emphasize instead the negative consequences

of the brain drain for those left behind. Consequently, high-skill emigration was viewed as contributing to increased inequality at the international level, with rich countries becoming richer at the expenses of poor countries. The first papers to analyze the brain drain in an endogenous growth framework rested on similar arguments and also emphasized the negative effects of the brain drain (e.g., Miyagiwa, 1991, Haque and Kim, 1995). Finally, a third wave has emerged since the mid-1990s around the idea that migration prospects can foster domestic enrollment in education in developing countries, raising the possibility for a brain drain to be beneficial to the source country. The novelty of that recent literature is to show that under certain circumstances, the brain drain may ultimately prove beneficial (but of course is not necessarily so) to the source country, and do so while accounting for the various fiscal and technological externalities that were at the heart of the pessimistic models of the 1970s. On the other hand, development has always been conducted in several levels. The first level concerns policy recommendations and applications conducted both by world organizations and economic politicians in poor countries. The second level concerns theories in development which began in the years 40 with Roseinstein-Rodan, Lewis, Myrdal, Hirschman on the one hand and Prebisch, Singer on the other hand inspired by the Keynesian analysis which were rejected after the drop of the Berlin wall in 1989 making countries going back to liberalism in economics or to neoclassical growth models. But both the financial market crisis in developed world and the debt crisis in developing world have contrasted these believes. Economic development evolution remains now in models able to understand what is happening in the world and old theories have finally a sense after all and commonly used as tools to increase its comprehension (Krugman, 1994)

This model uses Lewis concept of unlimited supply of labor caused by the dualism existing between the traditional and the modern sectors of the economy that we assimilate to the one between rural and the urban regions. Internal migrations from urban to rural regions which is clearly detrimental for growth and development is used in order to model the fact that civil war occurrence in Africa take place in big cities and the analysis shows how poverty raises from those situations i.e disorders inside the country. This point is not really new, since we know that development policy began to be conducted with the Marshall plan and the creation of world organizations after the second war on the basis of the aid policy without significant result for most of the country in Sub-Saharan Africa until now. The results highlights by the analysis, is that, development needs political stability for sustainable growth to hold. Unfortunately, economic globalization claimed and the debt crisis generated by the policies conducted in poor countries until now, have both made economic development more difficult to understand and to ask in order to get answers about the mutations occurring in the world. Specifically with emerging countries introduction and the difficulties faced by the Sub-Saharan Africa's countries to get inside the virtuous cycle driven by external economies . Until now, we can't find appropriate model of development and the situation is worsened since the debt crisis have led to adjustment policy proposed by the World Bank and the IMF coupled with environmental issues like HIV/AIDS, those economies still far away from their development frontier, specifically in Sub-Saharan Africa. Recently, the Word Bank had worked greatly in poverty reduction as a development tool and has established a series of goals to achieve in 2015 called the millennium development goals. Development is measured by a human development index which includes per-capita income, education and life expectancy. This measure has enlarges the concept of development which must be sustainable. We find that development is an inverted U-shape, meaning that it is a sustainable vector which fills the characteristics of environment preservation.

The article is organized as follows, in section 2 we introduce the main assumptions and the setup of the model of unstable political climate in the poor country. In section 3 we

characterize the competitive equilibrium. In section 4, we introduce internal and external migration in the basic model presented earlier to study its impact on growth and development. In section 5 we conclude on the analysis conducted and open new horizons of research on the subject studied in the area of development economics.

The simple Model of unstable political climate without Migrations

Consider an overlapping-generation model with agents who live for two periods of time. The world is divided in two countries where the one is developed and still exogenous in the whole model and the other is not developed yet. Developing country’s variables are indexed by t . At each period of time, the production sector is composed of high and low tech sectors, two production sectors manufacture one homogenous consumption good which differ both in their technological sophistication and their skill intensity. The education sector offers the young agents the opportunity to accumulate human capital. In each period, a new generation of agents enters in the economy with a zero endowment of human capital. Young agents must decide whether to accumulate human capital and get inside the education sector as students in order to become a skilled labor next period or to work in production sector as unskilled labor, L_t . The bond market is regulated by an endogenous interest rate, r_t . The High-Tech sector utilizes the cutting edge non rival technological vintage, A_t , the skilled labor E_t^H to adapt new technology into the production process and the unskilled labor stock, E_t^L to perform routine tasks. The low tech sector utilizes old technology, A_{t-1} , the unskilled labor E_t^L to perform routine tasks into the production. Following Eicher (1996), the growth rate of the economy is defined

such that
$$g = \frac{A_{t+1} - A_t}{A_t} = \mu S_t^{\bar{d}}$$
 where μ is technological change growth rate.

The Production Sector

The high tech production function is thus expressed by (1) i.e

$$H_t = A_t F(U_t^H, E_t^{\bar{d}}) \tag{1}$$

Where F is a linear homogenous monotonic production function. Following Nelson and Phelps (1966), the absorption of new technology in the High-Tech sector is skill intensive. However, once a technology has been absorbed, production requires unskilled labor only. Therefore, the low tech production sector uses only old technology, A_{t-1} (absorbed in the previous period) and unskilled labor to perform simple tasks.

The low tech production function is then expressed by Equation (2) i.e

$$L_t = \delta A_{t-1} U_t^L \tag{2}$$

Where $\delta > 0$ is the unskilled labor productivity parameter. When a new technology is introduced in the High-Tech sector, the recently absorbed technology can now be used in the Low-Tech sector which renders the oldest production method no longer profitable and thus discarded .

Production of the consumption goods takes place in a perfect competitive sector. Rewriting H

$$F(U_t^U, E_t^{\bar{d}}) = f\left(\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^{\bar{d}}}\right) E_t^{\bar{d}}$$

in intensive form leads to then profit maximization yields the standard first order conditions:

$$w_t^E = A_t \left[f\left(\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^{\bar{d}}}\right) - f'\left(\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^{\bar{d}}}\right) \frac{U_t^H}{E_t^{\bar{d}}} \right] \tag{3}$$

$$w_t^{UH} = A_t f' \left(\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^d} \right) \tag{4}$$

$$w_t^{UL} = \delta A_{t-1} \tag{5}$$

The factor market equilibrium requires

$$w_t^{UL} = w_t^{UH} = w_t^U \tag{6}$$

The Relative Wage Rates

Equation (6) means that, the marginal productivities of the unskilled labors of the both sectors of production must be the same. Given the linearity of $F(.)$, the relative wage in the High Tech sector depends only on the relative factor prices i.e

$$\frac{w_t^E}{w_t^{UH}} = \zeta \left(\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^d} \right) \tag{7}$$

The derivative function of ζ is positive i.e. $\zeta' > 0$. Substituting (3) and (4) into the factor market equilibrium condition (6) yields an expression of the relative factor demand in the High-Tech sector i.e.

$$\frac{U_t^H}{E_t^d} = \varepsilon \left(\frac{A_t}{A_{t-1}} \right) \text{ where } \varepsilon(.) \equiv f'^{-1} \text{ which implies } \varepsilon(.) > 0 \text{ and } \varepsilon'(.) > 0$$

After substituting the rate of technological change given in function of the student stock in the relative wage of the skilled labor i.e equation (7), it can now be expressed such as a function of past investment in human capital stock i.e.,

$$\frac{w_t^E}{w_t^{UH}} = g \left(\frac{\delta}{1 + \mu S_{t-1}^d} \right) \tag{8}$$

The derivative of the previous function is negative i.e., $g' < 0$, $g(.)$ is also the composite of $\varepsilon(.)$ and $\zeta(.)$.

Equation (8) highlights the forceful implication of the differing factor intensity and technological sophistication in the two production sectors. Human capital investment increase induces the skilled labor wage rate increase. Indeed, human capital investment increase in $t-1$ must also increase technological change and thereby good quality as well. All that increases the economic growth rate and accelerate the development process. Those changes create a bias in the skilled labor demand and induce relative wages increase. Therefore the production function structure establishes a relationship between human capital investment at time t and relative wages at time $t+1$ i.e., there exist a relationship between technological change at time t and the skilled labor stock demand at time $t+1$.

In the rest of the article, for simplicity we assume $g(x)=1/x$ which implies $g'(x)=-(1/x^2)<0$ and the relative wages can now be expressed by (9) i.e.,

$$\frac{w_t^E}{w_t^{UH}} = \frac{1 + \mu S_{t-1}^d}{\delta} \tag{9}$$

The above result means that high human capital investment at time $t-1$ increases also the skilled labor stock. Then technological change speeds since the relative wage increase and thereby increases the higher skilled labor stock in the developing country's economy. If the higher skilled labor stock is high enough, knowledge externalities spread all over the low

skilled labor stock through the use of the older technology. Equation (9) highlights the forceful implication of the differing factor intensity and technological sophistication in the two production sectors. Human capital investment increase induces the skilled labor wage rate increase. Indeed, human capital investment increase in $t-1$ must also increase the higher skilled labor stock. Technological change increases and thereby good quality as well. All that increases the economic growth rate and accelerate the development process. Those changes create a bias in the skilled labor demand and induce relative wages increase. Therefore the production function structure establishes a relationship between human capital investment at time t and relative wages at time $t+1$ i.e., there exist a relationship between technological change at time t and the skilled labor stock demand at time $t+1$.

Utility Optimization

Individuals share the same utility function and they are hurt by unstable political climate which may prevail in the country. Therefore, the utility function of the agents born at t is given by (10) i.e.,

$$W^j = \ln(c_t^j) + \beta \ln(c_{t+1}^j) - \lambda \ln(d_{t+i}^j) \quad (10)$$

Where $\lambda \geq 0$ is the parameter which measures the impact of unstable political climate on the well being variable of the agents where d_{t+i}^j is unstable political climate variable i.e the way democracy absence acts on the agents utility function with $i=0,1$ respectively for the unskilled and the skilled labor. The parameter $\beta > 0$ is the second period consumption elasticity, $j=U,(S,E)$ represents the respective career paths of the unskilled and the skilled labors, c_t^j and c_{t+1}^j represent per-capita consumptions in t and in $t+1$ respectively. Each unskilled labor receives a wage rate income w_t^U during his first period of life and saves the remainder x_t for his resting period and d_{t+i}^j to prevent the military action of the unstable government since the presidential elections is expect to come, so he can hide himself somewhere in the country where there is more safety. Each student borrows b_t in the bond market to finance *first*, his incentives to invest in human capital against a future wage rate income w_{t+1}^E , he pays the tuition, z_t , *second*, his incentives to migrate abroad after being skilled, *third*, his consumption, c_t^S . The budget constraints of the student are given by (13)-(14) whereas (11)-(12) are the unskilled labor budget constraint i.e

$$c_t^U = w_t^U - x_t - d_t^U \quad (11)$$

$$c_{t+1}^U = (1 + r_t)x_t \quad (12)$$

and

$$c_t^S = b_t - z_t \quad (13)$$

$$c_{t+1}^E + d_{t+1}^E = w_{t+1}^E - (1 + r_t)b_t \quad (14)$$

The first order conditions from the maximization problems of the unskilled labor provide per-capita feelings which provide from political tensions in the country and savings expressed by equations (15) and (16) i.e

$$d_t^U = \left(\frac{-\lambda}{1 + \beta - \lambda} \right) w_t^U \quad (15)$$

$$x_t = \left(\frac{\beta}{1 + \beta - \lambda} \right) w_t^U \quad (16)$$

An increase in the parameter λ increases unskilled labor tension on negative feelings about political evolution which may drive to civil war. Thus he ought to leave for somewhere else inside the country like going to his native village and leave urban life. Indeed, as we can see through equation (16), his savings increases like to transfer funds for later period because of this uncertain life. Since $c_t^U - d_t^U = c_{t+1}^U / (1 + r_t)$ is the equilibrium, it yields three cases which are: $|\lambda| > |\beta - 1|$ the agent is expecting to face high damages in his daily life, when $|\lambda| < |\beta - 1|$ the agent doesn't fear a lot for his life, things seem quite going good. Finally when $|\lambda| = |\beta - 1|$ feelings are stable in regard to political impact in daily life.

The first order conditions from the respective maximization problems of the skilled labor provide per-capita well being variable and borrowing (17) and (18)

$$\frac{d_{t+1}^E}{1 + r_t} = \left(\frac{-\lambda}{1 + \beta - \lambda} \right) \left[-z_t + \frac{w_{t+1}^E}{\beta(1 + r_t)} \right] \tag{17}$$

$$b_t = \left(\frac{1}{1 + \beta - \lambda} \right) \left[(\beta + \lambda)z_t + \frac{w_{t+1}^E}{\beta(1 + r_t)} \right] \tag{18}$$

Computing $\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \left(\frac{-\lambda}{1 + \beta - \lambda} \right)$ a variable of equation (17) in regard to λ in order to study its sign, yields to non existence of a real solution because $\beta^2 - 2\beta < 0$, since β is a parameter, therefore political variable movement is complex and hard to determinate easily its law of motion without serious discussions with international other organizations which work with the poor country government (this result is validated for the unskilled agent too). Otherwise, since the skilled labor doesn't receive income during his training period until he begins to work, the equilibrium per-capita borrowing increases in their future discounted income, $\frac{w_{t+1}^E}{\beta(1 + r_t)}$ An

increase in the parameter λ increases student's demand for funds since more money is deferred into the future in order to migrate abroad because of political tensions in the country. Higher direct education cost reduces the current period consumption and allow students transfer more income from the future to the present through the increase of their borrowing. Since $c_t^S = (d_{t+1}^E + c_{t+1}^E) / (1 + r_t)$ expresses the equilibrium in well being of the agent, it yields in parameters term, if $\lambda=1$ which means that the situation is bad and the utility function will be highly damaged if actions for migration are not take, if $\lambda=0$, then there is an equilibrium in development economics. Finally we may have $0 < \lambda < 1$ which means that unstable political climate may be low or high, democracy respect is in process, then the brain drain may be low or high.

To express human capital competitive equilibrium, we follow Eicher(1996) and assume that, since the young agents enter in the economy as identical agents they must be indifferent between either career path i.e $W^U = W^S$. The above assumption leads to the expression

(solving $c_t^U = c_t^S$)

$$\frac{w_{t+1}^E}{R_t} = z_t + w_t^U \tag{19}$$

The Bond Market Equilibrium

The bond market clearing condition expressed by Equation (20) defines the equilibrium interest rate i.e

$$b_t S_t^{\bar{d}} = x_t U_t^{\bar{d}} \tag{20}$$

We assume that $S_t^{\bar{d}} + U_t^{\bar{d}} = 1$. *Per-capita* supply and demand of capital in conjunction with the lenders and borrowers determine the equilibrium endogenous interest rate. Substituting *per-capita* saving rate (16) and *per-capita* borrowing (18) in the bond market equilibrium condition using the career path equation, yields the bond market clearing interest rate (21) i.e.,

$$R_t = \frac{w_{t+1}^E}{\beta \left[\frac{U_t^{\bar{d}}}{S_t^{\bar{d}}} w_t^U - z_t \right]} \tag{21}$$

Where $R_t = 1 + r_t$

THE EQUILIBRIUM

Introducing Equation (19) into Equation (22) characterizes the equilibrium such as a couple of functions of past and current human capital stocks of students expressed by(22) i.e

$$S_t^{\bar{d}} = \frac{\beta / 1 + \beta}{1 + \left[\left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right) \left(\frac{1 + \mu S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}}}{\delta} \right) \right]} \tag{22}$$

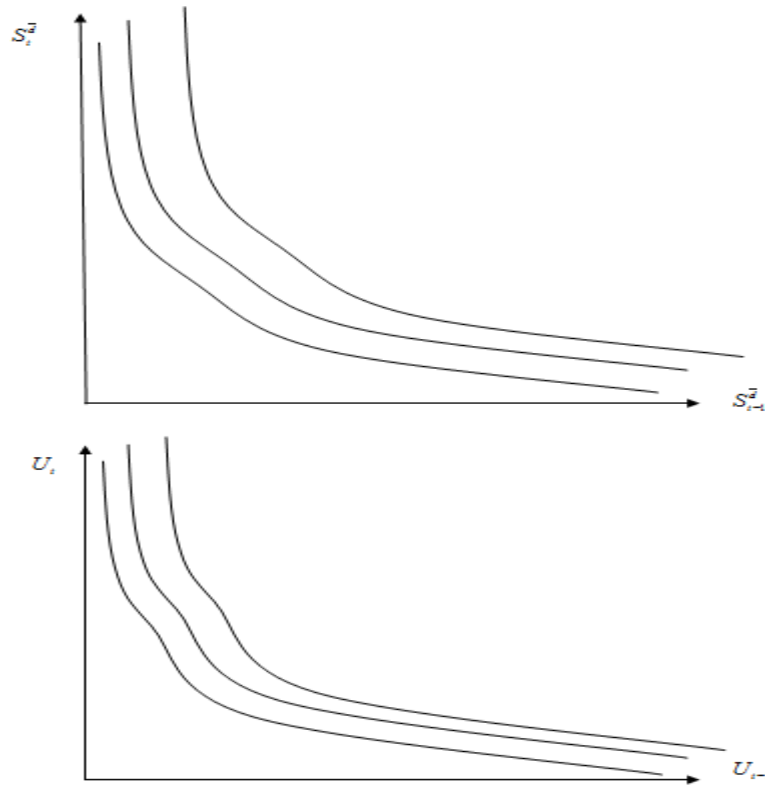
The demand of human capital investment is decreasing with past human capital accumulation and this relationship summarizes two feedback effects along the transitory dynamics. They are first, both the increase of skilled labor while political climate captured by the parameter λ is high, actual human capital decreases because they leave and go abroad, development is retarded. Otherwise if λ is low, current human capital demand tends to increase because incentives to migrate are low. Finally, when λ is stable, the relationship between current and past human capital is decreasing in average term because of the cost of education. This result is similar to those found by Eicher (1996) for private education which is costly and thus decreasing function of past and current stock. This model analyzes the same kind of argument inside which is included political variables.

Curve 1 displays the relationship between current and past human capital, but the curve also depends on the margin propensity to save, $\theta = \beta / 1 + \beta$ and political non stability parameter, λ . The curve goes up when the margin propensity to save, θ goes towards 1 and λ goes to 0 which is its upper level.

When the margin propensity to save, θ is low i.e close to 0 and λ close to 1, the curve is at its lower position. Finally when both the margin propensity to save and λ are inside 0 and 1, the curve is stable at its intermediate level.

In contrast, Curve 2 displays the relationship between current and past unskilled labor stock, like in the previous case, the curve depends on the same two parameters which are political non stability parameter λ and the margin propensity to save, θ . The curve goes up when θ goes to 1 and λ goes to 0 which is its upper level. When θ is low i.e close to 0 and λ close to 1, the curve is at its lower position. Finally when both θ and λ are inside 0 and 1, the curve is stable at its intermediate level.

Curve 1



Definition 1: the balanced growth is the locus in the space where $S_t^d = S_{t-1}^d = S^d$

Proposition 1: along the balanced growth path, the long run growth is a unique solution defined such that:

$$g = \frac{\mu\beta / 1 + \beta}{1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right)} \tag{23}$$

See the appendix for proof

Proposition 2: according to the growth rate given by equation (23), the mechanics of economic development are given by the propensity to save, , technological growth rate, and the unskilled labor productivity parameter, in contrast, unstable political climate parameter is a mechanics of development stagnation.

The results provided by this first analysis join the results given by neoclassical growth models like Solow (1956), Romer (1990) and Lucas (1988) where technological change, human capital and savings play a great role in economic development.

The Model of unstable political climate with internal migration and international migration (the brain drain)

Following Docquier and Rapoport (2012), we assume that, an exogenous fraction p of the highly skilled population leaves the country. For simplicity, we consider that low-skill workers do not migrate abroad only in country sides of the poor country to protect against tensions and violence due to potential civil war which mostly occur in big cities in the country . The proportion of highly skilled among remaining adults becomes:

$$\pi_t = \frac{(1 - p)S_t^d}{1 - pS_t^d} \tag{24}$$

With $\frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial S_t^d} = \frac{1-p}{(1-pS_t^d)^2} > 0$ and $\frac{\partial \pi_t}{\partial p} = -\frac{S_t^d(1-S_t^d)}{(1-pS_t^d)^2} < 0$ which means that since unstable political

climate is an increasing function of incentives to accumulate human capital it also leads to the brain drain increase. The increase of p increases the brain drain, skilled labor leave the country, innovations or high technology assimilation capability, μ decreases and development is retarded.

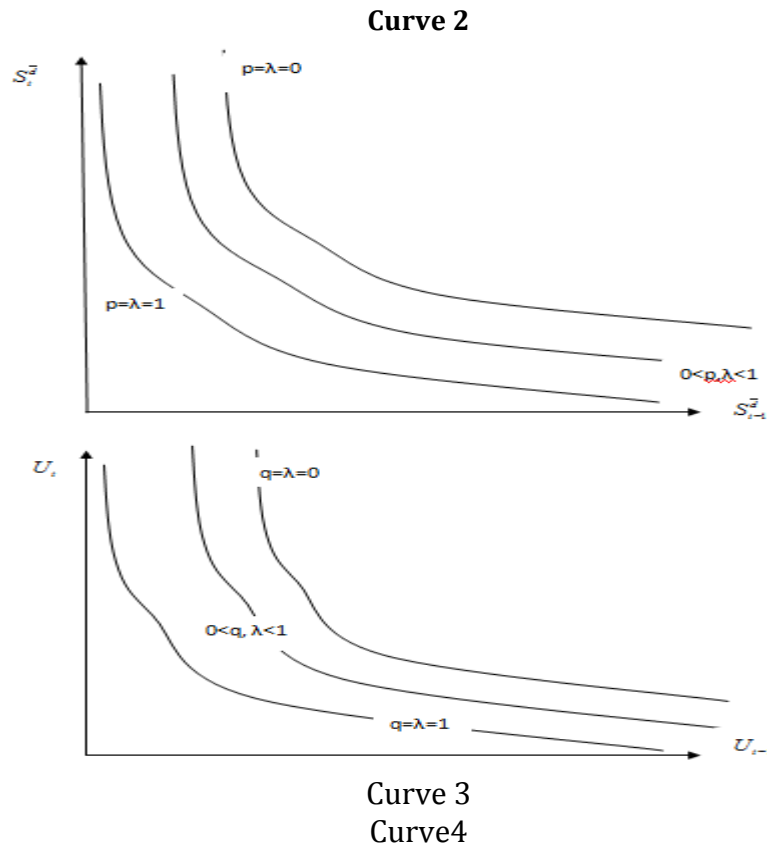
For unskilled labor, civil war forthcoming makes a proportion of agent q leave the city for countryside and the remaining proportion is thus:

$$\pi_t^U = \frac{(1-q)U_t^d}{1-qU_t^d} \quad (25)$$

With $\frac{\partial \pi_t^U}{\partial U_t^d} = \frac{1-q}{(1-qU_t^d)^2} > 0$ and $\frac{\partial \pi_t^U}{\partial q} = -\frac{U_t^d(1-U_t^d)}{(1-qU_t^d)^2} < 0$ which means that since the proportion

of population who leave the city is high, little economy productivity, δ is getting broken and thus economy cease because as empirically observed most of the time they face burglars too who take revenge of the situation to frighten the population who leave all for nowhere looking for a peaceful place.

Consequently, if $p=q=0$ then political climate is stable and *first*, the brain drain almost not exist i.e $\pi_t = S_t^d$, *second*, there is no dualism between the urban and the rural regions of the country i.e $\pi_t^U = U_t^d$. If $0 < q, p < 1$ then the brain drain and domestic migrations are normal because tensions on civil war event are not effective, we have equations (24) and (25) in action. But when p and q tends toward 1, then tensions on civil war occurrence in the country are seriously considered then we may have $\pi_t = 0$ and $\pi_t^U = 0$.



Curve 1 displays the relationship between current and past human capital, but the curve also depends on both the brain drain, p and political non stability parameter, λ . The curve goes up when p goes to 0 and λ goes to 0 which is its upper level. When both $p=1$ and $\lambda=1$, the curve is at its lower position. Finally when both p and λ are inside 0 and 1, the curve is stable at its intermediate level. In contrast, Curve 2 displays the relationship between current and past unskilled labor stock, like in the previous case, the curve depends on two parameters which are political non stability parameter λ and internal migration from urban to rural regions, q . The curve goes up when q goes to 0 and λ goes to 0 which is its upper level. When both $q=1$ and $\lambda=1$, the curve is at its lower position. Finally when both p and λ are inside 0 and 1, the curve is stable at its intermediate level.

Presentation of the results and Discussions

In the following arrays, λ causes p, q which thereby, characterizes growth and development regimes. Recalling that, $\lambda=1$ means civil war is occurring or will occur, $0 < \lambda < 1$ means there exist possibilities for civil war to occur or not to occur, $\lambda=0$ means peace will remains along the political event.

BD: brain drain; D: dualism, UPC: unstable political climate

Table 1: qualification of the poor country political environment

Characteristics of the Economy	$\lambda=0$ Political stability	$0 < \lambda < 1$ Political average stability	$\lambda=1$ Civil war
$p=q=0$	BD=0; D=0; UPC is absent	BD=0; D=0; UPC is average	BD=0; D=0; and UPC is high
$0 < p, q < 1$	Average BD; average D; UPC is absent	BD=0; D=0; UPC= is Average	BD=0; D=0; UPC is high
$p=q=1$,High BD, high D; UPC is absent	High BD; high D; UPC is averagely stable	High BD; high D; UPC is High

Indeed, if $\lambda=0$ and $p, q>0$ then the model joins the results of standard brain drain and dualism models where they are considered to be detrimental for growth and development. Moreover, if $\lambda=0$ and $p=q=1$, then the both migrations are caused by poverty and other economic gains. Cities are not engine of growth, unemployment is high and food is lacking, thus campaigns are better. Otherwise, if $0<\lambda<1$ and $p=q=0$ then the model is out of the standard brain drain and dualism models in such a way that, if λ is high, then traditional brain drain reverse dualism is absent because civil war occurrence has closed frontiers both in international and in domestic plans. Or if λ is low, then it can also be seen that, civil war risks are not high enough for population to move far away from the place they usually leave. Finally, if $\lambda=1$ and $p=q=0$, the interpretation is the same as the case viewed before. $\lambda=1$ and $p=q=1$, then political climate non stability is seriously taken and has negative effects on growth and development. Production cease and famine may occur as long as population keeps living with provision kept for a danger only, if longer it will be unsustainable for them to keep being alive.

We can translate the previous array in terms of growth and development in table 2

Table 2: the impact of political uncertainty on growth and development

Impact of λ on growth and development	$\lambda=0$ Political stability	$0<\lambda<1$ Political average stability	$\lambda=1$ Civil war
$p=q=0$	High Economic Development possibility. It looks like planed Communism countries where emigrations were zero	Development is holding little and little	Population is kept prisoner in the country and production cease due to <i>high civil war degree</i> Growth and Development can't occur
$0<p,q<1$	Possible Development through innovations increase and transfers of workers from traditional to modern economy	Skilled labor proportion is not high enough for Development to emerge faster	The economy is kept in a poverty trap because of <i>average civil war degree</i> . Growth and Development are retarded
$p=q=1$	The modern sector needs to absorb the least skilled workers in the production sector, there is a dualism in the sens of Lewis in the economy. Under Development with high Migrations	Development needs brain drain and dualism cease for the process to accelerate since low skilled labor is transferred in the modern sector since λ is low, otherwise if λ is high, the country is left by its population	The economy is kept in a poverty trap without specialization, it is the full under development holding during <i>low civil war degree since people can move</i> . Growth and Development occurrence is slows

Indeed, if $\lambda=0$ and $p, q>0$ and quite low, development can occur, otherwise if p is too high, human capital accumulation is not enough to faster development in conformity to the endogenous growth with human capital literature. The same thing can be observed if q is too high which means that urban regions are not developed enough to provide food and jobs to the population. The country is mostly rural and agriculture of subsistence prevails. If $0<\lambda<1$ and $p, q>0$ then 2 scenarios can occur, if λ is low as well as p, q , then development can follow its trajectory and approaches its frontier, otherwise if λ is high and p, q are too high, human capital accumulation is not enough and regions are too much heterogenous and can't faster development in conformity to growth and development literatures. If $\lambda=1$ and if p, q low, then development is not altered by political problems because people are not afraid enough to move, or it is but moving is no more possible. If p, q are high, then civil war is great, people can move or leave the country, development can't follow its trajectory and enlarges the gap to its frontier.

Table 3: Others scenarios possibilities

Characteristics of growth and development	$\lambda=0$ Political stability	$0<\lambda<1$ Political average stability	$\lambda=1$ Political non stability
$0<p<1, q=0$	Average BD; D absence and PUC absent	Average BD; D absence; PUC is average	Average BD; D absence and PUC is high
$0<p<1, q=1$	Average BD; high D and PUC absent	Average BD; high D; PUC is average	Average BD; high D and PUC is high
$p=0, 0<q<1$	BD=0; D is average and PUC is absent	BD=0; D is average and PUC is average	BD=0; D is average and PUC is high
$p=1, 0<q<1$	BD is high; D is average and PUC is absent	BD is high; D is average and PUC is average	BD is high; D is average and PUC is high

Table 4: second degree effect of λ on growth and development

Effect of λ on growth and development	$\lambda=0$ Political stability	$0<\lambda<1$ Political average stability	$\lambda=1$ Political non stability
$0<p<1, q=0$	Development without dualism	Development possibly occurs without dualism	Civil war occurs in average level, the economy is slowed
$0<p<1, q=1$	Development with dualism	Development possibly occurs with dualism	Civil war occurs in average level, the economy is slowed
$p=0, 0<q<1$	Development focused on the modern sector	Development possibly occurs through the modern sector	Strong Civil war occurs, the economy is kept in the trap
$p=1, 0<q<1$	Traditional economics without human capital	Traditional economics without human capital	Civil war occurs, the economy is kept in the trap of zero human capital

$\lambda=0$ and $p=0, q=1$ replicates the situation presented by Lewis (1954) for whom development can provide from the cease of dualism among the modern and the traditional sector. Instead, here $q=1$ means that population is going back to countryside to hide himself from danger for their life, thus it is the opposite of Lewis view of development. Whereas, $p=1$ means human capital accumulation absence, replicates Azariadis-Drazen (1990) findings i.e this situation leads the economy inside a trap of poverty. When ($p=q=0$), describe the big country where migrations are low, democracy is established and agents are willing to work more for development process continuity. Moreover, if one assumes that emigration does not modify the incentive to invest in education (i.e., human capital accumulation stock given in (22) is unchanged), the brain drain impact on the proportion of highly skilled among remaining adults is clearly negative (the brain drain is less harmful if few people are educated or if nearly all adults are educated). This would translate in Figure 3 by a shift of the $S_t^d = f(S_{t-1}^d)$ curve to the lower level: for a given technological change growth rate, μ the economy-wide average level of human capital decreases and δ increases. In turn, this reduces the capacity to adopt in relatively poor countries and the capacity to innovate in relatively advanced migrant sending countries. Stable equilibria given by $\pi_t = S_t^d = f(S_{t-1}^d)$ and $\pi_t^U = U_t^d = h(U_{t-1}^d)$ go down: the economy ends up having less human capital and being more distant to the frontier. Those arguments are based on the existence of technological externalities related to human capital accumulation and strengthened by additional mechanisms like unstable political climate in the poor country. First, if political disturbances are high enough to greatly rise the brain drain, it may be sufficiently important to positively affect productivity in the host economy (i.e., increases), this will further increase the technological gap with the leader country. In the same way, if political disturbances are high enough to greatly affect unskilled part of the population, domestic migrations from urban to rural parts of the country increase in order to leave big

cities and protect them self against potential civil war occurring, development is retarded because dualism between traditional and modern sectors (Lewis, 1954) is getting stronger, meaning that unemployment is rising and the labor market no more exist. Self reinforcement of the economy not exists. Economic dualism is the one in which traditional production paid lower wages and/or participated in the market less than the modern sector, thus carry unlimited supply of labor. This also means that, modern methods of production are potentially more productive than traditional ones, indeed leads faster to development, but their productivity edge is large enough to compensate for the necessity of paying higher wages only if the market is large enough. But the size of the market depends on the extent to which modern techniques are adopted, because workers in the modern sector earn higher wages and/or participate in the market economy more than traditional workers. So if modernization can be gotten started on a sufficiently large scale, it will be self-sustaining, but it is not the case, therefore, the economy is getting kept in a trap in which the process never gets going. Consequently, production decrease, national income does the same thing, thus per-capita income too and poverty keeps increasing, finally the economy still under developed. In parallel, the concentration of human capital in the most advanced economies which may stimulate technological progress at the world leave through contact with external economies can't appear in the little country because of linkages absence (Hirschman, 1958) at the moment due to civil war. Grubel and Scott (1966), Kuhn and Mc Ausland (2009, 2010) and Mountford and Rapoport (2010) stressed that the main contribution of the brain drain to the world economy and, in turn, to the origin countries, was to accelerate the rate of technology growth. But those authors assume stability in the country, so that, the brain drain can do so. Second, if the impact of unstable political climate is low, domestic migration emerges in the positive way i.e rural to urban, thus modern sector absorb most of unlimited supply of labor available of traditional sector and the economy increases, δ first because a number of little activities of the economy reinforce the positive effects on development through the ruled of the labor markets and create externalities with the high skilled labor and the brain drain p is at least such that $0 < p < 1$. In Bhagwati and Hamada (1974), international integration of labor markets for highly skilled workers induces a loss for poor countries (this model assumes so only since λ approaches 1) because, a higher integration of high-skill labor markets makes international highly skilled wages more observable and leads the educated elite to bargain for higher wages. Most of the brain drain models assume that the wages are the cause of international migration of the skilled labor, this model accept this argument since $0 < p < 1$, but when λ increase a lot, p does the same thing and introduces an additional argument to emigrate. The brain drain literature stipulates that low-skill workers adjust their wage requirements on skilled wages, so that relative wages on the one hand and the skilled labor differential between two successive periods, can explain growth, development as well as poverty decrease. Hence, the higher integration of highly skilled labor markets generates some spillover effects on low wages. On the whole, highly skilled emigration can increase unemployment for all types of workers. That last argument is also the one given by our model. Third, the brain drain can induce important occupational shortages which can be strongly detrimental to origin countries if these are concentrated in particularly strategic sectors and professions (such as teachers, engineers, physicians, nurses). If the tasks performed by these professionals strongly affect the productivity of other workers or the accumulation of human capital in the economy, as could be argued for example from an O-ring perspective (Kremer, 1993), then their departure may have a disproportionately high negative effect on those left behind. Fourth, development stagnation due to growth absence caused by unstable climate and the brain drain as well as rural migrations, making poverty emerge as already noticed, can also lead to famine and diseases. To show that, let poverty reduction function be defined such as the skilled labor differential rate given in equation (25) i.e

$$\Delta PR = \frac{\pi_t - \pi_{t-1}}{\pi_{t-1}} = -1 + \frac{S_t^{\bar{d}}}{S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}}} \left(\frac{1 - pS_t^{\bar{d}}}{1 - pS_{t-1}^{\bar{d}}} \right) \quad (25)$$

Indeed, if $p \rightarrow 0$ while current human capital stock is higher than past human capital stock, then poverty reduction occurrence is high in the long run and the growth rate is $g = \mu S_t^{\bar{d}}$, otherwise if $p \rightarrow 1$, then there is no reduction of poverty and growth is low, only equal to $g = \mu$ and skilled workers needed to absorb innovations in the production sector are absent, finally if $0 < p < 1$, poverty reduction is quite positive and growth is at its average level, $g = \mu \pi_t$

Proposition 3: Economic development depends on human capital available in the country, the economic growth rate and poverty reduction such that: if technological change growth rate is lower than the remaining proportion of highly skilled labor i.e. $\mu < \pi_t$ because $p \rightarrow 1$, then the brain drain decreases economic growth and increases poverty since $\delta < \mu$ which leads to famine and disease increase. If $\mu > \pi_t$ because $p \rightarrow 0$, then the brain drain doesn't decrease economic growth and poverty where $0 < \delta < \mu$. If $\mu \approx \pi_t$ because $0 < p < 1$, the brain drain doesn't affect economic growth and poverty reduction too much where $\mu \geq \delta$.

According to proposition 3, development depends on human capital accumulation which creates externalities with low skilled labor in production. Indeed, since human capital drives innovations and research development which are engines of growth, development is enhanced. Therefore, since the unskilled labors are kept constant in the space, there is no dualism and economic growth as well as poverty reduction are not altered.

To investigate the brain drain impact on human capital accumulation in this model, we have used the fact that a country's pre-migration stock of human capital can be endogenous to the prospect of migration, an idea relatively old given by Bhagwati and Hamada (1974) or McCulloch and Yellen (1977) who recognized that migration prospects increase the expected wage for highly skilled workers and thus stimulate human capital investments. However, in these papers migration was a self-selection process where all would-be migrants at the time the education decision. We extended that idea since, political climate in the country is not good and make agents emigrate in several ways at any time period. The recent theoretical literature which has explored the possibility for high-skill migration to create more human capital ex-ante than is lost ex-post are the works of Mountford (1995, 1997), which develop probabilistic migration models with either homogenous (Stark et al., 1998, Vidal, 1998) or heterogenous (Mountford, 1997, Stark et al., 1997, Beine et al., 2001) agents where migration prospects raise the expected return to human capital and can therefore induce more people to invest in education at home. A closely-related, yet differently motivated theoretical argument is that migration enhances the option value of education in a context of volatile domestic returns to human capital. The argument, put forward by Katz and Rapoport (2005) and based on the proposition that since migration allows for escaping bad domestic returns realizations, the option value of education is increased when the volatility of the underlying asset rises. All else equal, this will drive more people to invest in education (there is a brain gain) and the expected net effect on human capital formation is positive. Since high income volatility is another feature of developing countries, the argument applies first and foremost to these countries. However, the same argument can be extended to rich countries, be it through introducing heterogeneous human capital (general and specific, as in Poutvaara (2008)), or asymmetric sectoral shocks. On the whole, if ex-ante more people opt for education while ex-post some of them will leave, under certain conditions it is possible for the incentive or brain effect. According to the more

recent brain drain models, education at home is enough for migration towards richer countries to be effective (McKenzie Rapoport (2007) and Docquier Marfouk (2006) data set on emigration rates by education levels).

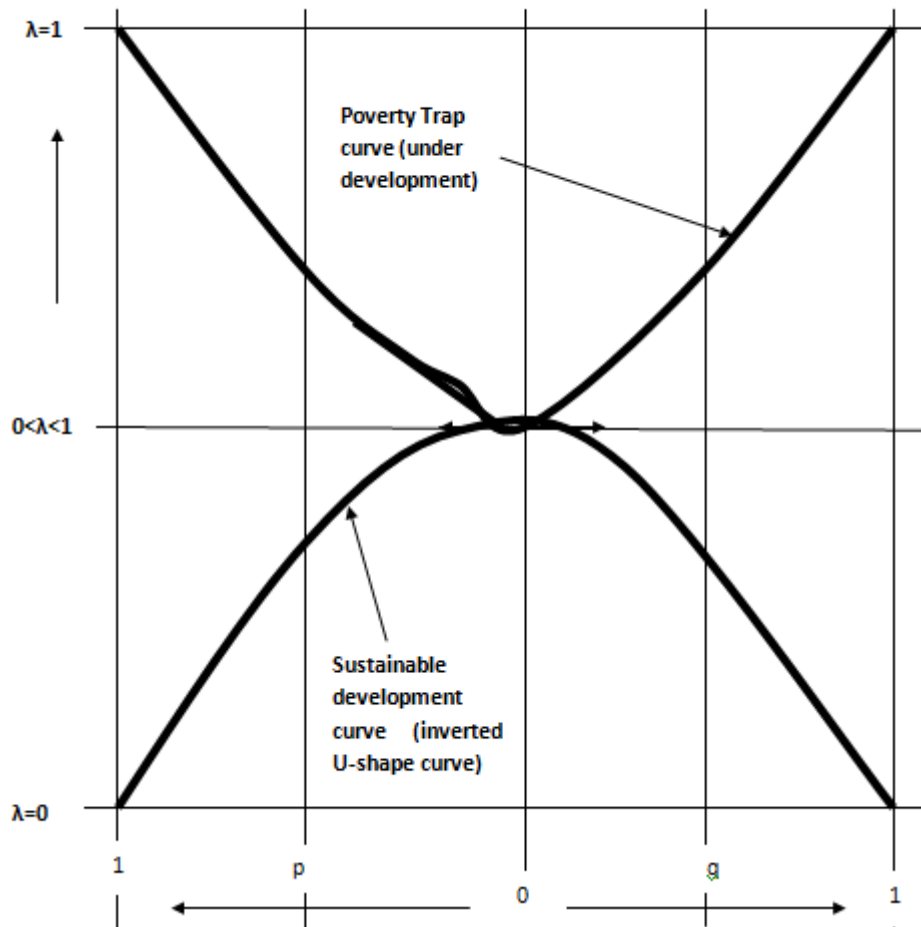
Proposition 4: When political climate parameter, λ is stable, the economy converges to a development sustainability path on which dualism and brain drain cease through time, described by an inverted U-shape curve.

If we join all the situations presented on the tables 1 through 4, development is highlights by an inverted U-shape curve which means that it is sustainable. (see figure 5)

CONCLUSION

This model has reviewed both the brain drain literature and the earliest work in development economics in order to study the impact of political uncertainty on the growth process in poor countries. We found that development establishment is hard because it is also highly linked to political uncertainty event or security problems. Finally, the model results follows Hirschman concept of development like a “virtuous circle driven by external economies where modernization breeds modernization. Some countries, according to this view, remain underdeveloped because they have failed to get this virtuous circle going, and thus remain stuck in a low level trap”. Such a view implies a powerful case for government activism as a way of breaking out of this trap. Finally, the government is the main actor of development occurrence. The world intervention in favor of poorest countries development leave political stability outside of the debates conducted, the key of development is inside not aid or adjustment policies, but more in the head of the country direction. Consequently, the analysis has highlighted in how far political non stability may retard the development process. In how far political climate uncertainty in poor countries can be compared to the European war experience through which the cease of retard in development became effective with the end of the wars and had helped Western countries being strongly developed nowadays.

Figure 5: summary of the study
Civil war zone, full under development



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APPENDIX

Proof of proposition 1

The steady state in human capital accumulation is defined by $S_t^{\bar{d}} = S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}} = S^{\bar{d}}$ we know that

$$S_t^{\bar{d}} = \frac{\beta / 1 + \beta}{1 + \left[\left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right) \left(\frac{1 + \mu S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}}}{\delta} \right) \right]}$$

Indeed, we have: $S_t^{\bar{d}} \left[1 + \left[\left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right) \left(\frac{1 + \mu S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}}}{\delta} \right) \right] \right] = \beta / 1 + \beta$

Setting $S_t^{\bar{d}} = S_{t-1}^{\bar{d}} = S^{\bar{d}} = x$, we can write

$$Ax^2 + Bx - C = 0$$

Where

$$A = \left[\left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right) \left(\frac{\mu}{\delta} \right) \right], \quad B = \left[1 + \left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\delta} \right) \right], \quad C = \beta / 1 + \beta$$

$\Delta = B^2 + 4AC > 0$ there is only one positive solution which can be written such that

$$x = \frac{-B + (B^2 + 4AC)^{1/2}}{2A} = \frac{1}{2A} B \left[-1 + \left(1 + \frac{4AC}{B^2} \right)^{1/2} \right] = \frac{B}{2A} \left[-1 + 1 + 1/2 \left(\frac{4AC}{B^2} \right) \right]$$

Because

$$\left(1 + \frac{4AC}{B^2} \right)^{1/2} \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{4AC}{B^2} \right)$$

Indeed

$$x = \frac{C}{B} = S^* \text{ i.e}$$

$$S^* = \frac{\beta / 1 + \beta}{1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right)}$$

Thus, the growth rate is given by the following expression i.e

$$g = \frac{\mu \beta / 1 + \beta}{1 + \frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{1 + \beta + \lambda}{1 + \beta} \right)}$$

Surviving a Feminized Profession: An Insight into Why Men Choose to Stay in Teaching

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Abstract

This study explored the plight of men operating in a highly feminized teaching profession and examined several reasons why they chose to remain in the classroom. In a random sample, 709 male teachers from the northern and southern parts of Trinidad were selected to participate in the study. A mixed-method research design was employed aimed at triangulating quantitative and qualitative data obtained from a survey questionnaire and focus group discussions. Findings of the study revealed that the majority of male teachers (94%) remained in the classroom because of what they described as their passion for teaching, and 96% of the respondents perceived of themselves as positive role models for young boys. Results of this study show that perhaps the time has come for us to re-examine the argument about men serving as role models for boys in the context of the Caribbean classroom. The results also have implications for education policy decision making aimed at not only retaining existing teachers but also attracting and recruiting new male teachers into the Trinidad and Tobago school system.

Keywords: male teachers, feminized teaching profession, male role models

INTRODUCTION

Feminization of the teaching profession has been the concern of scholars as well as several governments and media practitioners worldwide (Drudy, 2008; Fischman, 2007; Albisetti, 1993; Trouvé-Finding, 2005). In her paper on gender balance/gender bias, Drudy (2008) reports that, women make up more than ninety percent (90%) of primary teachers in Brazil, Russian Federation, Italy, and Slovakia. A similar trend exists in the United States, United Kingdom, and Ireland where eighty percent (80%) of all primary school teachers are women. In Trinidad and Tobago, women account for seventy-eight percent (78%) of primary teachers and sixty-nine (69%) of secondary teachers in the school system. Data from the Trinidad and Tobago Ministry of Education also reveal that male teachers account for only twenty-six percent (26%) of the thirteen thousand, three hundred and sixty-six (13, 366) teachers currently employed in the primary and secondary school system (Trinidad and Tobago, Ministry of Education (MOE, 2014).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent research has shown that the majority of men leave the Trinidad and Tobago teaching service for individual and contextual factors ranging from low salary and the desire to explore opportunities for upward mobility, to lack of parental and administrative support at the school (Joseph & Jackman, 2014). Some of these factors have been discussed in earlier studies on male attrition (Schaefer, Long & Clandinin, 2012; Gardner, 2010; Scherff, 2008; Elfers, Plecki & Knapp, 2006; Petterson, Roehrig & Luft, 2003). The question of low salaries has been specifically identified in other studies as a deterrent for men entering the teaching profession,

particularly at the primary school level (Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Johnson, McKeown & McEwen, 1999).

Other studies show that while there is a flight of men from the classroom, many men choose to remain largely because of the need to provide positive male models for young boys (Davison & Nelson, 2011; Allan, 1994; Priegert Coulter & McNay, 1993; Montecinos & Nielson, 1997; Thornton, 1999). However, Malaby and Ramsey (2011) argue that the merits of the male role model argument have been challenged as being naïve as highlighted in Sketton's (2003) study, and lacking empirical evidence, according to Gold and Reis (1982) in their study on male teacher effects on young children.

Men who choose to stay in the teaching profession are sometimes subjected to labels and stereotypes. According to Nelson (as cited in Malaby & Ramsey, 2011), such stereotypes hold that teaching is women's work and men who are willing to engage in women's work must be either gay or sexual predators. Notwithstanding these labels, some men regard teaching as a profession of choice and prefer to remain in the classroom despite possible challenges experienced by men who work in female dominated careers.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate why men choose to stay in a highly feminized teaching profession. Three research questions set the parameters for this study:

1. What are the pull factors that keep men in the Trinidad and Tobago teaching profession?
2. Does a relationship exist among factors such as teaching experience, qualifications, level of teaching and the decision to remain in the teaching service?
3. How do male teachers perceive their role regarding the boys they teach in the classroom?

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Measures

This study employed a mixed-method research design aimed at triangulating quantitative and qualitative data obtained from a survey questionnaire and focus group discussions. In a random sample, seven hundred and nine (709) male teachers were selected to participate in the study. These men were practising teachers in both primary and secondary schools located in the north and south of the country.

A survey instrument with six questions was used to obtain information on why men choose to remain in a highly feminized teaching profession. Respondents were required to express their opinions on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The survey instrument was pilot-tested and feedback was used to improve the instrument before distributing the questionnaires to the research sample.

Two focus group interviews were used also as a complementary instrument to collect qualitative data for the study. A purposive sample was drawn to participate in these focus group discussions. There were two heterogeneous groups comprising six (6) persons each. All questions were the same for both groups to facilitate consistency in analysis. One-hour long interview sessions were audio-taped and information from the recording was reviewed several times to obtain verbatim accounts from participants.

Techniques used to ensure credibility or validity of the interview process involved verbatim accounts of interviews, use of recording devices to capture data and participants' review of the researcher's synthesis of interviews.

Data Analysis

As part of the survey, participants were asked to discuss their reasons for remaining in the teaching service. Frequencies and descriptive statistics were conducted to provide information about the sample used in the study. Frequency tables were also developed for recording and tabulating demographic responses with the aid of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. These demographic responses included questions related to teaching experience, qualifications, and level of teaching. Statistical procedures such as Spearman's rho correlations were used to explore relationships among independent and dependent variables in the study.

RESULTS

In this study there were 709 participants with teaching experience ranging from 0-4 years to over 30 years (see Table 1 below). Based on the distribution of years of teaching experience, the majority of participants were identified as either developing professionals (51%) with 5-20 years of teaching experience or veteran teachers (30.7%) with over 20 years teaching experience. Participants with 0-4 years teaching experience (17.2%) were classified as novice teachers.

The sample was also classified based on level of teaching. Table 1 shows that the majority of participants, 61% (n=435), taught at the primary school level while 35.9%, (n=255) taught at secondary schools.

Academic qualifications varied among participants of the study. For example, the majority of the respondents, 53.2% (n=377), possessed Bachelor's degrees, while 11.8% (n=81) possessed qualifications at the Master's level. Of the participants with professional teacher training qualifications, 22.1% (n=157), possessed a Teacher's Diploma, with only 2.7% (n=19) possessing a Diploma in Education, and 2.8% (n=20) showing evidence of professional training at the Technical/Vocational level.

Table 1. Demographic Data of Participants

Demographic	N (%)
<i>Teaching Experience</i>	
Novice (0-4yrs)	122 (17.2)
Developing Professional (5-20 yrs)	361 (51.0)
Veteran (>20 yrs)	218 (30.7)
Missing	8 (1.1)
Total	709 (100.0)
<i>Level of Teaching</i>	
Lower Primary (K- Std3)	229 (32.3)
Upper Primary (Std 4 & 5)	206 (29.1)
Lower Secondary (Forms 1 – 3)	63 (8.9)
Upper Secondary (Forms 4 -6)	192 (27.0)
Missing	19 (2.7)
Total	709 (100.0)

<i>Academic Qualifications</i>	
Master's Degree	81 (11.8)
Bachelor's Degree	377 (53.2)
Teachers' Diploma	157 (22.1)
Diploma in Education	19 (2.7)
Technician's Diploma	20 (2.8)
CXC/Advanced Level Certificate	49 (6.9)
Other	2 (.3)
Missing	1 (.1)
Total	709 (100.0)

Frequency analyses were used to account for the reasons why male teachers chose to remain in highly feminized teaching profession. These reasons were addressed in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Survey Items and Participants' Responses

Survey Items	Participants' Responses
I still have a passion for teaching.	Of the 709 respondents, 94% (n=666) indicated agreement while only 6% (n=43) disagreed.
I lack the skills for a competitive job market.	The majority of the respondents 86% (n=610) disagreed indicating that they do have the skills for a competitive job market while only 14% (n=99) felt that do not have the requisite skills to compete in the job market.
I see myself as an important role model for young boys.	96% (n=680) of the participants believe that they are important role models for young boys, while only 4% (n=29) disagreed.
The job is convenient in terms of working hours and holidays.	Of the 709 respondents, 86% (n=610) indicated agreement while 14% (n=99) disagreed.
I am able to do other part-time jobs.	49% (n=354) of the respondents agreed, while 51% (n=355) disagreed that the reason for staying in the teaching profession was because of the opportunity to do other part-time jobs.

Research Question 2 asked: Does a relationship exist among factors such as teaching experience, qualifications, level of teaching and the decision to remain in the teaching service? In order to explore such relationships among the factors in the study, the data were subjected to Spearman's rho correlation since the variables were ordinal and categorical. The Spearman's rho correlation sought to identify relations among demographic factors such as teaching experience, qualifications, and the level of teaching with various reasons for remaining in teaching such as passion for teaching, lack of skills for a competitive job market, role model for young boys, job convenience in terms of working hours and holidays, and the opportunity to pursue other part-time jobs.

Results of the Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a negative correlation between qualifications and the opportunity to pursue other part-time jobs. This suggests that the less qualifications an individual possessed, the more likely he would pursue opportunities for other part-time jobs to supplement his income while remaining in the profession. However, the results also showed that level of teaching was positively correlated to participants' perception of teaching as a convenient job in terms of working hours and holidays as well as their desire to seek opportunities for other part-time jobs. This means that teachers with lesser qualifications are more likely to remain in teaching because of convenient working hours and the prospect of engaging in other part-time jobs.

Analysis of the data revealed that there was a positive correlation between an individual's passion for the job and his perception of himself as an important role model for your boys in the classroom. Results also showed that there were positive correlations between participants' view of themselves as important role models and their decision to stay in teaching because of job convenience.

Table 3. Correlations Among Demographic Factors and Reasons for Remaining in Teaching

	Passion for the Job	Lack Skills	Role Model	Job Convenience	Other Part-time Jobs
Teaching Experience	-.012	-.026	.019	.022	.063
Qualifications	.014	.045	-.055	-.027	-.113**
Teaching Level	.056	-.051	-.038	.097*	.167**
Passion for the Job	_____	.000	.364**	.042	.045
Lack Skills		_____	.062	.046	.053
Role Model			_____	.125**	.040
Job Convenience				_____	.269**
Other Part-time Jobs					_____

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Summary of Focus Group Findings

Two focus group sessions were conducted to probe deeper into the reasons why men choose to stay in a profession that is predominantly female. Each focus group comprised six participants who provided responses to the following three questions:

- Why do you choose to teach when other men opt to leave the profession?
- How do you feel about choosing a career that has become a predominantly feminized profession?
- What can male teachers do to support each other in the profession?

Three major themes emerged from focus group discussions: (a) making a difference especially to male students; and (b) maintaining confidence in a highly feminized environment; (c) garnering support for male teachers in the system.

Making a difference to male students

Findings from the first question revealed that male teachers chose to remain in teaching to make a difference particularly to male students. They felt that one way to do so was to become a positive role model to boys who live in households without a father figure to provide the guidance they need. Driven by a passion for teaching, respondents believed that they could fill the gap in the classroom. One participant stated that becoming a teacher provided him a better opportunity to influence young boys at risk rather than engaging in volunteer work in the community which he did with little apparent success. He said: "I decided that probably if I enter the teaching service I would have been able to make a change there. So that was my motivation to join the teaching service."

Other respondents agreed that young boys in the classroom often look to them for guidance. One participant concluded that "male teachers in the school definitely have an impact on the children and more so the discipline in the school." All participants were unanimous in their

view that providing a positive role model makes a difference in the lives of the young boys they teach.

Maintaining confidence in a highly feminized environment

While teaching is sometimes labeled as women's work in the literature, participants in this study were not daunted by stereotypes imposed on men who choose to teach. As a matter fact, the majority of respondents felt quite comfortable working among women who, as one participant puts it, "generally embrace males in the school." He recalled his experience as a novice teacher in a predominantly female-led school: "most of the female teachers welcomed us with warm arms because you know, we think differently and bring different vibes..." Another respondent added: "in the school where I teach, I am basically the king there because I am the only male among all those females."

Although most of the participants described their treatment as "excellent among the female teachers," one respondent had a different story to tell. For him, the idea of teaching in a female-dominated environment was somewhat challenging since as the only male teacher on staff, he was expected to perform all the menial tasks including "moving the cupboards, fixing the chairs, and other types of hard work." He felt intimidated by those female teachers who asserted their authority and lauded their seniority over him. Despite this one case, the majority of male teachers felt comfortable working among women teachers who operated in a non-threatening teaching environment.

Garnering support for male teachers

Notwithstanding the level of confidence male teachers generally feel about working in a feminized environment, all respondents agreed on the need for greater male support in the teaching service. One participant believed that sports and other forms of recreational activities provide an excellent opportunity for team building and male bonding in cluster schools where women outnumber male teachers. He stated that "cohesion among the men drives them to want to continue to teach in schools."

Another participant suggested that a formal organization should be established to facilitate a wider spread of male teachers throughout the entire teaching fraternity in the country. In this forum, men could freely discuss issues that affect them in the classroom and exchange ideas about best practices in terms of pedagogy and use of resources to facilitate student learning. According to one respondent, "the Ministry of Education should play a leading role in organizing workshops for male teachers." He further argued that this initiative will go a long way on the part of the Ministry of Education in "showing the male teachers how important they are."

Extending the argument further, one participant saw the need for conferences specifically designed to bring together all male teachers in the wider Caribbean region. Other participants believed that male teachers can also garner support through leadership and mentorship programmes. In this way "males can feel empowered to move forward in the profession ...". They all concluded that "the Ministry of Education needs to make the job more attractive to keep promising male teachers in the classroom."

DISCUSSION

This study sought to answer three main questions: (1) What are the pull factors that keep men in the Trinidad and Tobago teaching profession? (2) Does a relationship exist among factors such as teaching experience, qualifications, level of teaching and the decision to remain in the

teaching profession? (3) How do male teachers perceive their role regarding the boys they teach in the classroom?

Participants of the study identified several pull factors which keep them in a profession largely dominated by women. These include a passion for teaching; making a difference by becoming a positive role model for young boys; convenient working hours and holidays; and the opportunity to pursue other part-time jobs. Careful analysis of these reasons revealed that the idea of becoming a positive role model is perhaps the strongest pull factor responsible for keeping men in the classroom. Of the 709 participants who responded to the questionnaire, 96% (n=680) believed that they are important role models for boys. A similar response came from focus group discussions where the majority of respondents believed that they could make a difference by becoming positive role models particularly to boys who live in households without a father figure to provide guidance.

The question of the male teacher as a positive role model has been corroborated by earlier studies (Davison & Nelson, 2011; Allan, 1994; Priegert Coulter & McNay, 1993; Montecinos & Nielson, 1997; Thornton, 1999). Still, this issue has been hotly debated by other writers who challenge the merits of the male role model argument (Sketton, 2003; Gold & Reis, 1982). However, this study showed that the idea of male teachers providing positive role models is worthy of consideration given our Caribbean context. Like other territories, Trinidad and Tobago has a large percentage of absentee fathers; and some single mothers often face an enormous challenge of steering their sons away from the burgeoning gang influence that exists in some of the communities. In these circumstances, the prospect of male teachers modeling positive behaviours should be encouraged. The fact that the majority of male teachers consider this as their role provides hope for those students who are likely to be at risk without the intervention of the male classroom teacher.

Despite stereotypes which hold that teaching is women's work, participants of this study felt secure in their ability to function optimally in a highly feminized environment. This level of confidence came not only from a strong sense of self, but also from a passion for teaching as well as a keen sense of responsibility to young boys in need of mentorship. Focus group discussions revealed that the majority of men experienced positive interactions with their female counterparts who appreciated the different approach and perspective they brought to the job. The study also showed that 94% (n=666) of the respondents regarded their passion for teaching as an important pull factor that keeps them in the teaching profession. Results of the Spearman's rho correlation also showed a positive association between an individual's passion for the job and his perception of himself as a role model for boys in the classroom. Whether or not this perception is accurate can be further explored, perhaps, in other studies on male teachers in Caribbean classrooms.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This research was an extension of an earlier study on male attrition which sought to examine key factors responsible for pushing men out of the classroom (Joseph & Jackman, 2014). Investigation into the question of why men choose to work in a female dominated teaching profession also provides useful insights into what motivates men to remain in the classroom and what strategies they employ to survive a highly feminized profession.

The notion of providing positive role models for young boys seems to be the primary motivation for the majority of men in the study. While this finding has been substantiated by earlier studies, other writers have consistently challenged the veracity of such an argument

pointing instead to what they consider to be more complex matters of gender raised by feminism and the sociology of men and masculinities. Notwithstanding, this study is important because it extends the discourse on male role models to a different Caribbean context.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- There is need for further investigation into what constitutes a positive role model for young boys and whether there is a relationship between positive role modeling and improvement in academic achievements among boys in the Caribbean classroom.
- Given the existing shortage of men in the teaching profession, the Trinidad and Tobago Ministry of Education should give consideration to the idea of offering incentives for male teachers to remain in the classroom. Suggestions made by participants of the study regarding workshops and conferences specifically designed for male teachers may provide a good platform for starting such a conversation.
- Findings from this study should encourage further probe into the merits of the male role model argument from a Caribbean perspective.

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Public Pension, Capital Stock and Consumption in Rural China

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Abstract

This paper investigates the rural public pension in China by employing an overlapping-generations model. We examine the effects of the individual contribution rate, village subsidy rate, local government allowance rate, basic pension benefit rate and population growth rate on the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. Raising the individual contribution rate only increases the per capita pension benefits, and has no effect on the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption. Raising both the village subsidy rate and local government allowance rate increases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. Raising the basic benefit rate decreases the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption, while increases the pension benefits. A rise in the population growth rate decreases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption, and pension benefits. In accordance with the effects and their intensities, it will do more good than harm to raise the individual contribution rate and village subsidy rate, maintain the present basic benefit rate and accordingly raise the local government allowance rate by adjusting the structure of fiscal expenditures, and control the population growth rate.

Keywords: rural public pension; capital stock; consumption

INTRODUCTION

The “State Council Guidance on New Type Rural Public Pension Pilots” (Chinese State Council Document 32 in 2009) stipulates: Peasants make pension contributions, villages subsidize and local governments allowance the individual contributions. Individual contribution standards include five levels, 100, 200, 300, 400 and 500 Yuan per participant per year. Peasants can choose one of the levels as they like. Villages subsidize the individual contributions according to the decision of villagers’ meeting. Local governments allowance the individual contributions with a standard not less than 30 Yuan per participant per year. The individual contributions, village subsidies and local government allowances are accumulated in the peasants’ individual accounts. Each retiree (peasant above the age of 60) can draw individual account benefits from her/his individual account and get basic pension benefits from the central government and local government. The central government pays full basic benefits decided by the central government to the retired peasants in western and central areas, and a half of that to those in eastern areas (this is not explained explicitly, maybe it is because the later is richer than the former). The full basic benefits decided by the central government are 55 Yuan per retiree per month. Local governments can pay more basic benefits to retired peasants according to local circumstances. The rural public pension system is expected to reduce rural poverty, narrow the gaps between urban and rural areas, and promote domestic consumption.

However, the present rural public pension has the following problems: the pension benefits are very low; most participants choose the lowest pension contribution grade; the village subsidies and local government allowances are also very low; and the incentive mechanism is inefficient. In addition, village collective economy offers less competitive products and declines with the upgrading and adjustment of national industrial structure. Hence, it is difficult for villages to subsidize individual contributions and to provide sufficient incentives for participants to choose higher contribution level. Although there are additional subsidy policies on basic pension benefits, the power of these policies is small. These problems, such as insufficient village subsidies and local government allowances, as well as lack of significant incentive mechanism for the long-term participants, will eventually impede the sustainable development of the rural pension system. Therefore, the new system should strengthen incentive mechanism, and gradually upgrade the financing ability and pension benefit level.

Research on the rural public pension should take into account the concrete situations in China. Firstly, the pension benefit level should be raised. The per capita annual net income of rural residents is 7916.6 Yuan. The basic pension benefits are 55 Yuan per month, which only provides the replacement rate of 8.3%. Secondly, world economy has been recovering slowly after the international financial crisis. China's economy is also affected. The growth rate has come down significantly in the last two years, and the downside pressure remains. Although the quality and efficiency of economic development have got unparalleled attention now, the economic growth should not be ignored, because it affects employment, income and social stability. It relies on expanding domestic demand, including consumption demand and investment demand, to maintain the stable, sustainable and healthy growth of China's economy after the financial crisis. Finally, although China is implementing new population policy which allows two children per family if husband or wife is a single child in their own families before getting married, the new policy is unlikely to result in dramatic increase in the rural population growth rate.

Overlapping-generations (OLG) model has been used widely in the literature to investigate the relationship between public pension system and consumption and capital stock. Barro (1974) argues that if individuals in successive generations were linked by bequests, changes in the stock of government debt or in social security programs would have no effect on the steady state capital stock. Feldstein (1974) uses an extended life-cycle model to analyze the impact of social security on the individual's simultaneous decision about retirement and saving, and concludes that social security would reduce the capital-labor ratio in models that do not admit a bequest motive. Blanchard and Fischer (1989) use the OLG model to study PAYG and fully funded social security system. It is shown that a PAYG social security system prevents the rate of capital accumulation and reduces the steady state capital stock. A fully funded social security system has no effect on total savings and capital accumulation. The reason is that the increase in social security savings is exactly offset by a decrease in private savings in such a way that the sum of the two is equal to the previous level of private savings. Zhang and Zhang (1998) analyze the effects of social security on savings, fertility, and per capita income growth with three specifications of utility functions. The literature studies PAYG or fully funded public pensions based on developed countries.

There is also some domestic literature to study the public pension system for urban enterprise employees in China with OLG model. Wang et al., (2001) use computable general equilibrium model to examine the impacts of various design options for pension system reform on the sustainability of the system and on overall economy growth. Within a framework of an endogenous growth OLG model, Yang (2009) examines the effects of the public pension system

on the fertility, economic growth and family old-age security. Kang (2012) compares the effects of improving the contribution rate and postponing the retirement age on capital stock per worker, personal and social pooling account pension level and other economic variables within a general equilibrium OLG model. However, what the literature study is the basic pension system for enterprise employees in China. It is hard to find the studies regarding on the rural public pension system. Employing an endogenous growth model, Yang (2011) investigates the rural public pension by examining the effects of the individual contribution rate, village subsidy rate, local government allowance rate and basic benefit rate on the labor income growth rate, population growth rate, consumption rate, saving rate and education expense rate. But the model is an endogenous growth model. In this paper, we aim to establish an exogenous OLG model to study the rural public pension.

According to the literature mentioned above and the reality of rural public pension, we develop an exogenous overlapping-generations model, examine whether and how the individual contribution rate, village subsidy rate, local government allowance rate, basic pension benefit rate and population growth rate affect the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. We estimate relevant parameter values according to the actual situation in the rural areas, and simulate the effects and their strengths. We hope to look for suitable policies to enhance the local government allowances and village subsidies, raise the individual contribution level and pension benefit level, and promote domestic consumption and capital stock. Most of the studies are based on the assumption that only individual participant pays pension contributions. The exogenous OLG model in this paper considers not only the individual contributions, but also the village subsidies and local government allowances.

THE MODEL

This paper adopts Diamond's (1965) two-period OLG model. There are numerous individuals and villages and a government in a closed economy. Each individual lives for two periods: working period and retirement period. At the beginning of period t , N_t identical individuals of generation t enter the workforce. The population grows at a rate of $n = (N_t/N_{t-1}) - 1$.

Individuals

In working period each individual earns wage by supplying inelastically one unit of labor, makes pension contributions, consumes part of her income, and saves the remainder of the income. In retirement period, she consumes her savings with accrued interest, individual account benefits and basic pension benefits. Each individual derives utility from the working-period consumption and retirement-period consumption. The utility is described by a logarithmic function. Each individual maximizes her utility by choosing savings and consumption. Hence, the utility maximization problem is:

$$\max_{\{s_t, c_{1,t}, c_{2,t+1}\}} U_t = \ln c_{1,t} + \theta \ln c_{2,t+1}, \quad (1)$$

$$s.t. \quad c_{1,t} = (1 - \tau)w_t - s_t, \quad (2)$$

$$c_{2,t+1} = (1 + r_{t+1})s_t + I_{t+1} + J_{t+1}, \quad (3)$$

where $q \in (0,1)$ denotes the individual discount factor, $\tau \in (0,1)$ the individual contribution rate, w_t the wage, s_t the savings, r_{t+1} the interest rate, I_{t+1} the individual account benefits, J_{t+1} the basic pension benefits. The first-order condition is:

$$\theta(1 + r_{t+1})c_{1,t} = c_{2,t+1}, \quad (4)$$

This equation implies that the utility loss from reducing one unit of working-period consumption is equal to the utility gain from increasing $(1+rt+1)$ units of retirement-period consumption.

Villages

Villages produce homogenous commodities in competitive markets. The production is described by Cobb-Douglas function $Y_t = AK_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha}$ or $y_t = Ak_t^\alpha$, where Y_t is the output in period t , K_t the capital stock, $\alpha \in (0,1)$ the capital share of income, A the productivity, y_t the output-labor ratio and $k_t = K_t/N_t$ the capital-labor ratio.

Based on the total labor income, villages provide pension contribution subsidies at a rate of $\eta \in (0,1)$, the local government allowance rate is $\zeta \in (0,1)$, and the basic pension benefit rate is $j \in (0,1)$. In the long term, the village subsidies, local government allowances and basic pension benefits paid by the central government and local governments together are all from the peasants' achievement, which is a part of the labor income. According to the product distribution, we can get that $AK_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha} = r_t K_t + (1+\eta+\zeta+j)N_t w_t$. By virtue of Euler's theorem, we have:

$$r_t = \alpha A k_t^{\alpha-1}, \tag{5}$$

$$w_t = \frac{(1-\alpha)A k_t^\alpha}{1+\eta+\zeta+j}. \tag{6}$$

The government

The individual pension contributions, village subsidies and local government allowances are saved in the individual accounts by governments. The accumulation in the individual account is used to pay the individual when she/he retires in the next period:

$$I_{t+1} = (1+r_{t+1})(\tau+\eta+\zeta)w_t \tag{7}$$

Based on the total labor income of working generation, the governments pay the basic pension benefits to retirees at the basic pension benefit rate: $N_{t-1}J_t = jN_t w_t$, or

$$J_t = (1+n)jw_t. \tag{8}$$

Dynamic Equilibrium

Substituting equations (2), (3) and (5) - (9) into equation (4) gives the following dynamic equilibrium system:

$$k_t^\alpha = \frac{(1+\eta+\zeta+j)(1+\theta)(1+n)}{\theta(1+\eta+\zeta)(1-\alpha)A} k_{t+1} + \frac{(1+n)j k_{t+1}^\alpha}{\theta(1+\eta+\zeta)(1+\alpha k_{t+1}^{\alpha-1})}. \tag{10}$$

Assume that there is unique, stable and nonoscillatory steady state equilibrium. In order to find the stability condition, we linearize Dynamic System (10) around the steady-state (k) gives

$$p(k_{t+1} - k) + q(k_t - k) = 0,$$

where

$$p = -\frac{(1+\eta+\zeta+j)(1+\theta)(1+n)}{\theta(1+\eta+\zeta)(1-\alpha)A} - \frac{(1+n)j\alpha k^{\alpha-1}(1+\alpha k^{\alpha-1})}{\theta(1+\eta+\zeta)(1+\alpha k^{\alpha-1})^2} < 0,$$

$$q = \alpha k^{\alpha-1} > 0.$$

The assumption that the equilibrium is unique, stable and nonoscillatory implies $0 < \frac{k_{t+1} - k}{k_t - k} = -\frac{q}{p} < 1$, Therefore, the stability condition is

$$p + q = -\frac{(1 + \eta + \xi + j)(1 + \theta)(1 + n)}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 - \alpha)A} - \frac{\alpha k^{\alpha-1} [j(1 + n)(1 + Ak^{\alpha-1}) - \theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})^2]}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})^2} < 0.$$

COMPARATIVE STATICS

Since the individual contributions (compulsory savings) crowd-out the voluntary savings, the individual contribution rate did not appear in equation (10) and has no effect on the capital-labor ratio. Totally differentiating equation (10) around the steady state gives

$$(p + q)dk + md\eta + gd\xi + hdj + ldn = 0, \tag{11}$$

where

$$m = \frac{(1 + \theta)(1 + n)j}{\theta(1 - \alpha)A(1 + \eta + \xi)^2} k + \frac{(1 + n)jk^\alpha}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)^2(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})} > 0,$$

$$g = \frac{(1 + \theta)(1 + n)j}{\theta(1 - \alpha)A(1 + \eta + \xi)^2} k + \frac{(1 + n)jk^\alpha}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)^2(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})} > 0,$$

$$h = -\frac{(1 + \theta)(1 + n)}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 - \alpha)A} k - \frac{(1 + n)k^\alpha}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})} < 0,$$

$$l = -\frac{(1 + \theta)(1 + \eta + \xi + j)}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 - \alpha)A} k - \frac{jk^\alpha}{\theta(1 + \eta + \xi)(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})} < 0.$$

Define $c_t = \frac{N_t c_{1t} + N_{t-1} c_{2t}}{N_t} = c_{1t} + \frac{c_{2t}}{1 + n}$ as per capita consumption, $B_t = I_t + J_t$ as pension benefits per retiree. When the economy converges to the steady state equilibrium, the per capita consumption and pension benefits become:

$$c = Ak^\alpha - nk, \tag{12}$$

$$B = \left[(1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1})(\tau + \eta + \xi) + (1 + n)j \right] \frac{(1 - \alpha)Ak^\alpha}{1 + \eta + \xi + j}. \tag{13}$$

Effect of individual contribution rate

The individual contribution rate has no effect on the capital-labor ratio, i.e. $\partial k / \partial \tau = 0$. Partially differentiating c and B with respect to τ , gives:

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial \tau} = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial \tau} = (1 + \alpha Ak^{\alpha-1}) \frac{(1 - \alpha)Ak^\alpha}{1 + \eta + \xi + j} > 0.$$

According to equation (12), individual contribution rate has no effect on the capital-labor ratio, thus has no effect on per capita consumption. The pension benefits are composed of the individual account benefits and basic pension benefits, hence a rise in the individual contribution rate increases the individual account pension, and furthermore the pension benefits.

Effect of village subsidy rate and local government allowance rate

Partially differentiating k , c and B with respect to η , gives:

$$\frac{\partial k}{\partial \eta} = -\frac{m}{p+q} > 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial \eta} = (A\alpha k^{\alpha-1} - n)\frac{\partial k}{\partial \eta},$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial \eta} = (1-\alpha)\frac{\alpha A k^{\alpha-1}}{(1+\eta+\xi+j)}\frac{\partial k}{\partial \eta} \left[(\tau+\eta+\xi)(1+(2\alpha-1)A k^{\alpha-1}) + (1+n)j \right]$$

$$+ (1-\alpha)\frac{A k^{\alpha}}{(1+\eta+\xi+j)^2} \left[(1+\alpha A k^{\alpha-1})(1+j-\tau) - (1+n)j \right]$$

Raising the village subsidy rate increases the capital-labor ratio. According to equation (9), raising the village subsidy rate increases capital-labor ratio directly, and decreases labor income indirectly. The direct effect is greater than the indirect effect, thus raising the village subsidy rate increases the capital-labor ratio. When $A\alpha k^{\alpha-1} > n$, according to equation (12), raising the village subsidy increases per capita consumption. According to equation (13), raising the village subsidy rate decreases the labor income and increases the individual account benefits directly, increases the capital-labor ratio and decreases the interest rate indirectly. Hence, the overall effect of village subsidy rate on the pension benefits is ambiguous.

According to equations (10) - (11) and the expressions of m and g , the effect and function of ζ and η in the model are consistent. So the effects of the local government allowance rate on k , c and B are as the same as that of the village subsidy rate. That is, raising the local government allowance rate increases the capital-labor ratio, and increases per capita consumption if the interest rate is higher than the population growth rate, but the effect on the pension benefits cannot be determined.

Effect of basic pension benefit rate

Partially differentiating k , c and B with respect to j , gives:

$$\frac{\partial k}{\partial j} = -\frac{h}{p+q} < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial j} = (A\alpha k^{\alpha-1} - n)\frac{\partial k}{\partial j},$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial j} = (1-\alpha)\frac{A k^{\alpha-1}}{(1+\eta+\xi+j)} \left[\alpha(\tau+\eta+\xi) \left[1+(2\alpha-1)A k^{\alpha-1} \right] \frac{\partial k}{\partial j} + (1+n) \left(k + j\alpha \frac{\partial k}{\partial j} \right) \right]$$

$$- (1-\alpha)\frac{A k^{\alpha}}{(1+\eta+\xi+j)^2} \left[(\tau+\eta+\xi)(1+\alpha A k^{\alpha-1}) + (1+n)j \right]$$

Raising the basic pension benefit rate decreases the capital-labor ratio. A rise in the basic pension benefit rate decreases the labor income and voluntary savings, and both of which decrease the capital-labor ratio. According to equation (12), raising the basic pension benefit rate decreases per capita consumption if the interest rate is higher than the population growth

rate. According to equation (13), raising the basic pension benefit rate has a positive impact on the basic pension benefits, and decreases the labor income directly, decreases the capital-labor ratio indirectly and increases the interest rate. The overall effect of the basic pension benefit rate on the pension benefits is ambiguous.

Effect of population growth rate

Partially differentiating k , c and B with respect to n , gives:

$$\frac{\partial k}{\partial n} = -\frac{l}{p+q} < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial n} = (\alpha Ak^{\alpha-1} - n)\frac{\partial k}{\partial n} - k,$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial n} = \frac{(1-\alpha)\alpha Ak^{\alpha-1} \{1 + (2\alpha-1)Ak^{\alpha-1} [\tau + \eta + \xi] + (1+n)j\}}{1 + \eta + \xi + j} \frac{\partial k}{\partial n} + j \frac{(1-\alpha)Ak^{\alpha}}{1 + \eta + \xi + j}.$$

A rise in the population growth rate decreases the capital-labor ratio because of the dilution effect of population growth. According to equation (12), a rise in the population growth rate decreases the per capita consumption if the interest rate is higher than the population growth rate. According to equation (13), a rise in the population growth rate decreases the capital-labor ratio and labor income indirectly, increases the interest rate and has a positive impact on the basic pension benefits. The overall effect of the population growth rate on the pension benefits cannot be determined. Since some effects of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables cannot be determined, we check the effects by simulations below.

NUMERICAL EXPERIMENT

Parameter setting

Because one period is usually assumed to be 25 - 30 years in OLG model, and the data of National Population Census in 1982 and 2010 are used in this model, we set each period as 28 years in this paper. The individual discount factor per year is assumed to be 0.985, which is similar to that used by Pecchenino and Pollard (2002). Hence, the individual discount factor per period is $\theta = 0.985^{28}$.

The capital share of income is usually estimated as 0.3 in developed countries (e.g., Zhang *et al.*, 2001; Pecchenino and Pollard, 2002). The labor in China is comparatively cheaper, thus the labor share of income is lower, while the capital share of income is higher than that in developed countries. Hence, we assume that α in China could be 0.35. Since the technological progress is not reflected in this model, and what we want to see here is how the endogenous variables change with the exogenous variables, the constant A can be normalized as 1.

According to China Statistical Yearbook, the rural employed population growth rate in the period from 1984 to 2012 is computed to be $n = 39602/35968 - 1$. The rural public pension came out in 2009. But the peasants above the age of 60 have gotten pension benefits because they had contributed to the pension system when they were young through price scissors of industrial and agricultural products, agriculture taxes, etc.

At present, the annual contributions per participant are 183 Yuan and the monthly pension benefits per retiree 82 Yuan (Gao, 2013). Calculated with 7916.6 Yuan of net annual income per capita in rural areas, the individual contribution rate is computed to be $\tau = 183/7916.6$. According to the annual pension benefits per retiree $J = 12 \times 82$ Yuan and equation (8), the basic pension benefit rate is computed to be $j = J / [(1+n)w] \approx 11.289\%$. The State Council Document

32 in 2009 stipulates: Local government allowances participant no less than 30 Yuan per person per year; village subsidy standards should be democratically determined by villagers' committee. Because the allowances in different regions are different and there is no authorized data, we assume the local government allowances to each participant per year are 45 Yuan. Thus, the local government allowance rate is $\xi = 45/7916.6$. The village subsidies are lower than the local government allowances, thereby we assume the subsidies are 30 Yuan per participant per year, hence the village subsidy rate is $\eta = 30/7916.6$. These are benchmark values of the parameters.

Simulation

Other things are equal, raising the individual contribution rate gradually to 7.0%, simulating with them gives the result shown in Table 1. Obviously, raising the individual contribution rate only increases the pension benefits, and has no effect on the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption.

Table 1 the effect of τ on k, c, B

τ	2.3%	4.0%	5.0%	6.0%	7.0%
k	0.0815	0.0815	0.0815	0.0815	0.0815
c	0.4075	0.4075	0.4075	0.4075	0.4075
B	0.0518	0.0631	0.0698	0.0765	0.0832

Other things are equal, raising the village subsidy rate gradually to 2.0%, simulating with them gives the result shown in Table 2. Raising the village subsidy rate increases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits.

Table 2 Table 1 the effect of η on k, c, B

η	0.4%	0.7%	1.0%	1.5%	2.0%
k	0.0815	0.0815	0.0816	0.0817	0.0818
c	0.4075	0.4077	0.4078	0.4079	0.4081
B	0.0518	0.0538	0.0557	0.0588	0.0618

Other things are equal, raising the local government allowance rate gradually to 2.5%, simulating with them gives the result shown in Table 3. Raising the local government allowance rate increases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits.

Table 3 Table 1 the effect of ξ on k, c, B

ξ	0.568%	1.0%	1.5%	2.0%	2.5%
k	0.0815	0.0816	0.0817	0.0818	0.0819
c	0.4075	0.4077	0.4079	0.4080	0.4082
B	0.0518	0.0545	0.0576	0.0607	0.0637

Other things are equal, raising the basic pension benefit rate gradually to 20.0%, simulating with them gives the result shown in Table 4. Raising the basic pension benefit rate decreases the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption, while increases the pension benefits.

Table 4 Table 1 the effect of j on k, c, B

j	11.3%	14.0%	16.0%	18.0%	20.0%
k	0.0815	0.0767	0.0735	0.0704	0.0675
c	0.4075	0.3994	0.3936	0.3879	0.3825
B	0.0518	0.0569	0.0604	0.0636	0.0667

Other things are equal, raising the population growth rate gradually to 18.0%, simulating with them gives the result shown in Table 5. A rise in the population growth rate decreases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits.

Table 5 Table 1 the effect of n on k, c, B

n	10.1%	12.0%	14.0%	16.0%	18.0%
k	0.0815	0.0797	0.0778	0.0760	0.0743
c	0.4075	0.4029	0.3982	0.3937	0.3892
B	0.0518	0.0517	0.0516	0.0514	0.0513

According to Tables 1 - 5, we calculate the elasticity of the endogenous variables with respect to the exogenous variables, which is shown in Table 6. They reflect the sensitivities of the endogenous variables with respect to the exogenous variables. The sign reflects the direction of the effect and the absolute value reflects the strength of effect. Comparing the absolute values of the elasticity gives the following result: each parameter affects capital-labor ratio to different extent, with the basic pension benefit rate the strongest, followed by the population growth rate, and the village subsidy rate and government allowance rate weakest. As to the per capita consumption, the impact of basic pension benefit rate is greatest, followed by the population growth rate, and the village subsidy rate and government allowance rate have little impact. In regard to the pension benefits, the impact of individual contribution rate is greatest, followed by the basic pension benefit rate, local government allowance rate, village subsidy rate and population growth rate.

Table 6 the elasticity of k, c, B on τ, η, ξ, j and n

	τ	η	ξ	j	n
k	0	0.3%	0.4%	-33.7%	-16.4%
c	0	0.1%	0.1%	-11.4%	-8.2%
B	46.2%	12.9%	16.4%	45.1%	-1.6%

CONCLUSION

This paper investigates the rural public pension system in China by developing an exogenous overlapping generations model. It examines the effects of the individual contribution rate, village subsidy rate, local government allowance rate, basic pension benefit rate and population growth rate on the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. According to the circumstances in rural areas of China, we estimate the values of relevant parameters, and simulate the effects and the sensitivities of the endogenous variables with respect to the exogenous variables. The differences from the previous studies are that this paper uses an exogenous overlapping generations model to analyze the rural public pension. In addition, except from participants pay pension contributions, villages subsidize and local governments allowance the contributions.

The results are as follows. Raising the individual contribution rate only increases the pension benefits, and has no effect on the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption. Both raising the village subsidy rate and local government allowance rate increase the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. Raising the basic pension benefit rate decreases the capital-labor ratio and per capita consumption, while increases the pension benefits. A rise in the population growth rate decreases the capital-labor ratio, per capita consumption and pension benefits. The basic pension benefit rate has the strongest effect on the capital-labor ratio, followed in descending order by the population growth rate, local government allowance rate and village subsidy rate. The effects of the four exogenous variables on the per capita consumption rank in the same order. The effect of the individual contribution rate on the pension benefits is the greatest, followed by the basic pension benefit rate, local government allowance rate, village subsidy rate and the population growth rate.

The recovery of world economy is slow after the international financial crisis. China's economic growth rate also falls, and the downside pressure remains. It must rely on expanding domestic demand, including consumption and investment, to maintain a balanced, sustainable and healthy growth of China's economy in the era of post financial crisis. To enhance attraction of the rural public pension system, we should strengthen the incentive mechanism by increasing subsidies at the entrance and pension benefits at the exit of the system. According to the above results, the following statements can be made. In order to increase the capital stock and consumption, it is necessary to reduce the basic pension benefit rate and population growth rate, and raise the local government allowance rate and village subsidy rate. To increase the pension benefits, it is necessary to raise the individual contribution rate, local government allowance rate, village subsidy rate and basic pension benefit rate, while reduce the population growth rate. In accordance with the effects of the five exogenous variables on the endogenous variables and their strengths, it will do more good than harm to raise the individual contribution rate, local government allowance rate and village subsidy rate, maintain the present basic pension benefit rate, and moderately reduce the population growth rate.

Increasing the local government allowance rate and maintaining the present basic pension benefit rate can be fulfilled by adjusting the present fiscal expenditure structure. Local governments can lower the growth rate of additional basic pension benefits or even temporarily do not increase the amount of it. The saved resources can be used to increase the local government allowances to the individual contributions, namely, transform part of allowances from the exit to the entrance. This can increase the local government allowance rate. When the rural residents notice the increased government allowances to pension participants, and become aware of the fact that the more each participant contributes, the more government allowances, they will experience the growth of their own benefits, be more confident about future pension benefits, and then consciously raise contribution level. As a result, the individual contribution rate increases. Rise in the village subsidy rate relies on growth and grandness of village collective economy. Population growth rate control is still relying on the Chinese special population policy. Based on the above results, it is not suitable to relax the population policy greatly.

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Media Influence on Political Parties in Albania

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Abstract

This article investigates the role of television on the structure and organization of political parties in the post – communist Albania. The existing literature on political parties links the structure of mass parties with the written press, and the structure of electoral- professional and cartel parties with the increasing influence of television. The mass party is based on the principle of membership. Among many tasks that members had to carry out, the dissemination of party's declarations, statements, opinions and ideology, through the distribution of party press is one of the most important. The studies on political parties have observed the emergence of the catch-all, electoral-professional and cartel party, in which the party leaders have substituted the membership organizational network with television, and thus minimized the role of intermediate party organs. In difference from their counterparts in Western Europe, in the new established democracies of post-communist countries, political parties were born in a period characterized by a modern and developed media which was accessible to everyone. Therefore, the immediate access to modern means of communication has distanced the parties from the society since the early phases of their inceptions, without giving them the opportunity and necessity to organize territorially. This article analysed the techniques that have used the Albanian political parties to communicate with their electorate, concluding that in the moment of their creation, television could not serve to the opposition parties as a means of information. That is why they had to rely heavily on the written press and their membership. The opening of some broadcasting channels, after 2000, made possible the access on modern techniques of communication, leading to a minor role of the press and membership. As a result we could say that at the early phase of democratic process, the political parties in Albania shared features of the mass party with a strong territorial penetration, features that started to fade out when television gained a more prominent role in the organization of electoral campaigns by influencing thus a more contemporary western alike model of party organization.

Key Words: Political parties, Organizational structure, television, party press, leader's role

INTRODUCTION

The fall of communism in Europe was accompanied with several phenomena, among which the most important is the emergence of political parties. The appearance of political parties in the new democracies happened in a time when similar organization in the Western Europe had experienced radical changes in their structure and organization, changes that reflected the political, economic and social revolution that took place in the end of 19th and the beginning of the 20th century.

With the fall of communism, was thought that the parties of Eastern and Central Europe would follow the path of western models in the context of democratization. Scholars also suggested that the post-communist parties would skip the earlier phases of development of political parties in Western Europe and would embrace the American "Catch- up- all" party model (Gross, 1992 in Webb & White, pp.5). This was based on the argument that communism had levelled all social-economic differences and it was difficult if not impossible the creation of

organizations that would organize and mobilize different social interest groups because such groups were inexistent (Bielasiak, 2002:189-90). Due to the weakness of cleavage structures, the partisan identities were also weak and because political parties had weak programmatic identities, such as in the case of Albania which falls under the category of patrimonial communism (Kitschelt et al., 1999, pp. 42, 53-52), it was difficult for the electorate to identify itself with a political party and consequently for a political party to create an electorate of belonging (van Biezen, 2003, 35-37).

However, van Biezen identifies medias as another important factor which has influenced the structure and organization of post-communist political parties. Scholars (Panbianco, 1988; Katz & Mair 1995) have already analyzed the role that mass media has played in changing the communication of political parties with their supporters and electorate. While, Duverger (1954) identified members as the necessary mechanism to transmit the message of the party leaders to the society, his successors have pointed out that in a context where mass communication became available, such mechanism of transmission was no longer necessary. By means of mass communication, the political leaders can now on communicate directly with the electorate without using the time-consuming mechanism of transmitting the message by means of branches and rank and file. Van Biezen argues that sequence development of events is important. Since mass communication became available to the political parties before they could organize in the form of a mass party, it hindered such process (2003, pp.41). Because, political leaders has instant access to the public because of the mass media, they do not invest, nor in time, neither in money, to organize a mass party.

Now, 25 years after the fall of communism, the literature on political parties in post – communist parties is rich and academics have concluded that political parties in these countries exhibit similar features with their western counterparts; they are closer to the state than the society and orientated more towards the electorate and less towards members and organizational structures. What is the structure and organization of political parties in Albania? Despite several researches conducted on this topic, the literature is not rich and there is a lack of studies focused on their structure and organization. This article is an attempt to give an answer to this question and it starts with the premise that Albanian political parties did not have access to television at the moment of their creation. Therefore, they had to rely on the organizational structure of the mass party to transmit the party messages in the whole territory. To prove this it is important to see and analyse the amount of accessibility that political parties had on television at the moment of their inception as well as the percentage of coverage that the TV channel guaranteed.

LITERATURE REVIEW: MEDIA AND POLITICAL PARTIES

The media –party relationship has been powerful since the first days of their creation. Party leaders have immediately understood the importance of media, especially of written press, to transmit their political messages to the electorate. Michelis (2001[1917]) says that:

The press constitutes a potent instrument for the conquest, the preservation, and the consolidation of power on the part of the leaders. The press is the most suitable means of diffusing the fame of the individual leaders among the masses, for popularizing their names. The labor press ... is full of panegyrics concerning the personalities of the leaders, of references to their "disinterestedness and self-sacrificingness," to their "ardent idealism, conjoined with a vigorous force of conviction and with invincible tenacity," qualities which, we are told, have alone made it possible for them to create the great working class organizations. ... It is true that the press cannot exert the

immediate influence which the popular propagandist exercises over his audience in public meetings, debates, and party congresses. In compensation for this defect, however, the circle of influence of the written word is far more extensive. The press can be used with effect to influence public opinion ... in order to gain or to retain the sympathy of the masses, and to enable them to keep the guidance of the movement in their own hands. The democratic press is also utilized by the leaders in order to make attacks (more or less masked) upon their adversaries; or to launch grave accusations against persons of note in the world of Politics or finance. These attacks may or may not be established upon a sufficient foundation of proof, but at any rate they serve to raise a dust storm (pg.83-84).

Therefore, the press served as a channel and an arena to transmit the party propaganda: the creation of the leader's cult, the presentation of the electoral campaign, the presentation of arguments for the elimination/ exclusion of party dissidents (read leader's opponents) and the attack against opposition parties. Having in mind that central party meetings, other branches and sub branches served for the same purpose, it looks like that media since its beginning turned into a parallel organization to the party structures. With regard to the political parties in consolidated democracies of Western Europe, the development of media and the increased accessibility of political parties to mass media, changed drastically the relationship between parties and society, especially due to the fall of importance of party organization in the communication of the party with the society (van Biezen, 2003: 40).

The classical mass-party of the Western Europe in the end of 19th and beginning of 20th century had to rely on the organizational network in order to be in contact with its membership and electoral zones. The organizational structure in terrain was needed for communicative and mobilizing motives. The press organs, controlled by the party, played an important role in informing society for the program and party aims, while the circulation and distribution of party press was managed by the members' activity. Apart from this, a large number of party members was indispensable for the so called "two-step flow of communication" (Lazerfeld et al., 1994) that means that each individual could be seen as an important source of information that produces "the snow-ball effect", according to which the lines of communication expand with the increasing number of supporters. The higher the number of party membership, the widest would be the spread of information and consequently its influence (van Biezen, pp.40-41). Kirscheimmer (1968), Pannebianco (1988) and Katz & Mair (1995) noticed that instead of using the central organization from communicating with the electorate, now the party leaders communicate directly with the electorate, minimizing the role of intermediate party organs.

Political parties in the post-communist countries, in difference from their counterparts in the Western Europe, were born in times of a highly developed modern media and accessible for everyone. Now political parties can communicate their messages directly to the audience, militants and the electoral in general, through newspapers, radios and especially on television and as a consequence they do not need to recruit members to fulfil the communicative and mobilizing functions. The creation of an extensive organizational network in the field is no longer necessary.

Media accessibility has led towards a more personalized politics. The role of leaders is especially important in the context of a democratizing country and in the situation when many political parties are new, non-institutionalized and with a non-materialized identity that is not strong enough to stay above the leader's identity (Sartori, 1968). Pasquino (2001: 222)

observes that in the South European context, politics tends to be personalized due to the fact that they are a product of the combination of two factors: the weak party organizations and a high TV influence. Said this, the image of the leader has taken a dominant role during campaign and parties are oriented towards a more centralizing and professionalizing structure, as Farrell and Webb (2000: 123) agree in their analysis of political parties on industrialized countries (van Biezen, 2003: 41).

When we refer to modern techniques of organizing electoral campaigns, political parties are relying more and more on specialized staffs with higher technical skills and drills to control the media appearance of the party and its leader to communicate with the society. In this sense, the access on modern means of communication (and the modern technological presence in general) has influenced not only the size but also the nature of party organization, because stimulates inner specialization and promotes a higher professionalism of the party apparatus. In a period when politics aims to be more and more professionalized, the party structures have the tendency to adapt themselves to these changes. Even though, the access on modern means of communication and technology are important per se, they have gained more relevance in the context of new democracies. Time- or sequence of events- now becomes a critical factor due to the importance of the stages of organizational development in which parties gained access on these means of mass communication and had the chance to use media not only for their campaign but for other activities as well (van Biezen 2003: 41: 42). According to van Biezen the path towards democracy is closely related with the structure and organization of political parties, because it influences their organizational strategies. As a consequence the concepts of path dependency (Mahoney, 1991: 2000: 2001) and the critical junctures (Pierson, 2000: 2004) are intrinsic to explain the structure and party organization in post-communist countries. The order of events is important because it influences and defines what will and how it will happen.

The political parties in the consolidated democracies are characterized by high levels of centralization, increased relevance of professionals and a decreased weight of party activists. Therefore it is observable an increased dominance of the party in public office and a decreased relevance of the extra- parliamentary party. Given that parties in the new democracies were created in an environment in which media was accessible, they gained media access in an earlier stage of their development, even before the development of extra parliamentary organization, and thus they lost the incentives to invest in the territorial organization of the party. As a consequence, the influence of media in the formation of the party organization is more obvious than in Western European countries: media has substituted the need for a territorial penetration of the organization on the ground, and professionals have substituted the need for activists (van Biezen, 42).

Based on a survey conducted by the Institute of Surveys and Opinions in 2002, more than 60% of the Albanian population above 20's watched television 1-4 hours a day and 25% watched television for more than 4 hours a day. The same survey showed that round 70 % of people ranked television as the medium that transmits the most reliable information; 55% said this information was passably reliable and 28% less reliable (Institute of Surveys and Opinions, Media 2002 in Londo 2006: 2). From the survey we can draw the conclusion that the Albanian population, the electorate sees television as an important mean of information, if not the most important medium, a result that stays in the same line with the literature on political parties and their relationship with the media. Pannebianco (1988) observed that not media in general, but television especially changed the nature of political parties. The printed media has existed before and had accompanied political parties since their creation. That is why we can say that

the printed media is a feature of mass parties and not a feature of contemporaneous European parties. The press requires a wide distribution network and human resources and that is why the mass party, organized in branches and sub branches, expanded in the whole territory used this medium as the main mechanisms to transmit the party program and ideology. It is exactly the decreased influence of the press and the rise of television that changed the nature of political parties in the West. The OSBE report on election in Albania (2001:11) says:

According to the Institute for Public and Legal Studies, Albania has 13 daily newspapers with a total circulation of approximately 95,000 copies. Due to poor distribution and lack of a subscription system, even those newspapers aspiring to nationwide readership are distributed only in the cities. As in many other countries in transition, Albanians tend to choose TV broadcasts over print news, making it hard for many newspapers to survive.

Due to the impact of the TV on political parties and its importance on the opinion formation in the country, compared with the other media channels, the paper with focus only on the relation between TV and political parties.

The influence that television has exercised on the Albanian political parties is measured first by evaluating the quality of transmission of the Public Television and second, by measuring the territorial coverage of the independent TVs. Preliminarily it could be suggested that in case that the Albanian public television did not offer equal coverage, in terms of time and impartial judgement, for all parties, these parties were more likely to use other means to transmit their information to the electorate and the possible strategy was to create an extensive territorial network, and thus to create a mass party. The second hypothesis is that in case the independent TVs have started to operate in a later phase of party formation, then again the political parties had to find means of message conveyers other than the TV stations. Therefore they had to rely on the traditional 'transmission belts' – the membership. Therefore if the moment of party creation and that of independent TV stations' creation does not coincide, than these lasts ones could not exercise any influence on the structure and organization of the political parties in Albania.

PUBLIC- RADIO TELEVISION AND ALBANIAN POLITICAL PARTIES

During the transition period, the Albanian media has continued to reflect the same features that characterized her during communism. It found it difficult to emancipate itself and transform from a dependent organ of state-party to an independent institution (Godole, 2014: 70). The stated continued to subsidise quite a high number of media institutions such as TVSH, local public televisions, ATSH (Albanian Telegraphic Agency), Radio Tirana and other local radios in the whole country. In addition to this, the media landscape was enriched by the party press. However, the print media is not part of this study, since the print media is not a variable which could influence the structure of the political parties. Furthermore, it did not have a high legibility due to its entire controlled content by the funding party (Godole, 2014: 70-71). In this context, public media and television especially had the principal role to inform independently the public opinion.

However the reports conducted in that period assess that TVSH has been biased in her stand and has supported publicly the party in government. According to the OSCE report in 1996:

Opposition parties seemed to be consistently banned from holding outdoor meetings, particularly in large towns. In Tirana, opposition parties requested and were denied

permission for a rally in the central Skanderbeg square, whereas the ruling party was permitted to hold its May 24 rally in the central square. Official explanations ranged from the possibility that opposition parties would not have enough supporters at their rally to justify closing the main square, to the view that the Ruling Party rally was not political but a concert, or to the fact that it was not a political rally but a Presidential address (pg.7).

Under such conditions, it is clear that the opposition parties (the Socialist Party as the main opposition party) had only one mean to let people know their messages and that mean was the Albanian Public Television that was the only source of information that could be spread out in the whole country and who was obliged to report independently. The same OSCE report observes that:

The Society for Democratic Culture, an Albanian non-partisan civic organisation, employed internationally accepted methodology for measuring television time and content during the campaign. The SDC concluded that TV coverage of the parties respected the election law in its allotment of time to the various parties. However the SDC also stated that the extensive coverage afforded to the President and the government represented overwhelming de facto coverage and promotion of the Democratic Party. They also noted that the method of coverage of the DP was also likely to favour them. The SDC cited concern with the order that news reports were presented, and the tendency to allow representatives from the ruling party to read their own statements rather than using a journalist (pg.8-9).

With the fall of communism in 1999, the Albanian Radio Television and ATSH were controlled by the state, more specifically by the Parliament and its majority. In this way, these institutions were in favour of government and here lied the source of the permanent conflict among the newspapers, which were in majority, and the Radio-Television. It looks like the state and the opposition, till 1997, had divided the signs of communication between them: the image and the sound in function of the government and the word in service of the opposition. Till 22 March 1992, a time when the Party of Labour of Albania controlled the Parliament, the presidency and the government, the opposition newspapers attacked the Albanian Radio Television as an instrument of manipulation of public opinion and as a centre of propaganda in favour of the party in power. After the 22nd of March, we have the same situation only that the Socialist Party was now in opposition and the Democratic Party in power. The control that the power exercised on television and its program content continued to be the same. Radio television was considered by the opposition as a manipulative instrument of public opinion, a mean of propaganda in the hands of the power that controlled the state (Fuga, 2008: 434-435). In this context, the opposition parties could not rely on the public television to transmit their messages. They needed to do this through a large organizational network in the whole territory.

MEDIA IN ALBANIA: THE ROLE OF PRIVATE MEDIA

As discussed above the public television was not the best mean to spread out the messages of political leaders of the Albanian opposition parties. As it is shown by international organisations and media community, the television was controlled by the party in power and that is why the news and political programs were often accused for being biased and in favour of the party in power. Therefore, the private media is seen as an alternative mean of message distribution for the opposition parties. In this sense it is important to know when did the private and independent media started to act in Albania. Does this moment coincides with the

creation of political parties? The argument of van Biezen (2003) is that political parties in newly established democracies had media access since the moment of their inception and consequently the necessity to organize territorially, as a mass party, did not appear. However the question is whether the same could be applied in the Albanian scene or not? In this context is important to analyse the moment when private televisions appeared and the accessibility of the electorate in their signal.

Until 1995, for the majority of Albanians, electronic media was all about state television. The situation started to change when the first private stations in Albania started to broadcast in 1995. The first private television in Albania, Shijak TV, started its broadcasting on 25th December 1995 even though the law on "Electronic Media" was approved on 30th of September 1998 and ratified on 4th October 1998. According to this law, TVSH became public. Later on were created and licensed a high number of private televisions (Godole, 2014: 78). Based on official data taken by AMA (Authority of Audiovisual Media) of 2006, Albania listed 66 local televisions, two national televisions, and two satellite televisions and 40 Cable TV (in Londo, 2006: 2-3). The majority of electronic media was focused in the western part of the country and especially in Tirana, where are located around 72% of all radio phonic stations and 75% of all television stations.

Godele calls this stage as the media consolidation stage. The media sphere during 1998- 2005, especially after 2005 was characterized by an increase in the number of audio visual mediums such as TV NEWS 24, TV Vision +, ABC News, TV Albanian Screen (previously TV Alsat) etc (Godole, 2014: 79). According to a report by the Council of Europe, 1999, Albania had 30 private TV stations and 30 private radios actively broadcasting. In these conditions it was necessary to draft a law on media that guaranteed the editorial independence and led towards an impartial broadcasting system (Council of Europe, 2000: 9-10). However, in addition to the existence of the independent media itself, it is necessary to know whether such media covered the whole territory or not, since their existence is seen in the light of the ability to spread the message of political parties' leaders throughout the country. The high number of televisions and private radios does not guarantee that they covered the whole territory and that they were capable to broadcast in the whole country. The following table reveals some data about media coverage in Albania:

Table: The territorial coverage with national radio and television broadcaster signal

[Name	TVSH	TV Klan	TV Top Channel
		Public	Lic. Year 2001	Lic. Year 2008
2002	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	2	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	7.33	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	40.91	-----
2003	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	3	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	26.4	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	2.68	-----
2004	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	4	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	46.97	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	42.68	-----
2005	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	5	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	46.97	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	42.68	-----
2006	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	6	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	62.09	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	42.68	-----

2007	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	7	-----
	Conditions of license	-----	86.86	-----
	Factual coverage %	73.31	44.53	-----
2008	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	8	1
	Conditions of license	-----	90	50
	Factual coverage %	73.31	69.8	62.1
2009	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	1	2
	Conditions of license	-----	90	50
	Factual coverage %	73.31	70.2	62.1
2010	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	2	3
	Conditions of license	-----	90	90
	Factual coverage %	73.31	70.2	62.1
2011	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	3	4
	Conditions of license	-----	90	90
	Factual coverage %	75	78	79.4
2012	Licensing year or re- lic.	-----	4	5
	Conditions of license	-----	90	90
	Factual coverage %	87	78	79

Source: Annual Report 2012 of AMA (pp.57-58).

As one may observe, despite their earlier activity, only in 2008, the two national private channels managed to cover more than 50% of the territory. In 2011 they achieve the highest percentages: TV Klan covers more than 78% of the territory while Top Channel 79.4%. According to AMA, TV Klan has decided broadcasting signals in 33 points that cover the Albanian territory and sustained by its satellite platform, and in the terrestrial network “Digitalb”, it covers almost the whole territory in the republic of Albania (2012: 58). Same stands true for Top Channel as well (AMA, 2012: 61-62)

Under such conditions the private televisions, Top Channel and Tv Klan gain a special importance in transmitting the political parties messages. They cover the majority of the territory at a time when other local private televisions do not have a good broadcasting quality, are not always broadcasting and fail to cover the areas they are licensed for (AMA, 2012)

However private televisions in Albania appeared long after the creation of Albanian political parties and when they appeared they were concentrated in the central part of the country, covering a small territory and it was impossible for parties to rely on these mediums to transmit their messages to their members and potential electorate.

Therefore it could be concluded that due to state TV broadcasting bias in favour of the party in power and the appearance of private impartial television long after the creation of political parties in Albania, these parties could not rely on them to reach the electorate and continued to use the territorial organizational network. For this reason the contention of van Biezen (2003) does not stand true in the case of Albania, because media cannot act as an influencing factor in the structure of its political parties

CONCLUSION

The aim of this paper was to explore the connection between political parties and media. The literature on political parties suggests that political parties in Western Europe, in the moment of their foundation, were obliged to adopt an organizational structure that relied on membership that played the role of “transmission belt” to distribute the party messages in the whole country. With the appearance of electronic media, membership lost its relevance,

because now party leaders could communicate with the electorate through the television and as a result the party typology changed from mass parties into electoral- professional parties.

In terms of organizational structure of political parties in the post-communist countries, the organizational sequence plays a significant role. The literature suggests that because post-communist political parties were created in an era where access to media was available, it was not necessary to invest on organizational structures of the party. The TV have substituted the member' role as 'transmission belts' in terms of message distribution from the centre to the periphery.

However, the analysis conducted on electronic media influence in Albania, reveals that due to broadcasting bias of Albanian public television in favour of the party in government and the later appearance of private televisions in the end of the 90's, long after their creation, political parties in Albania could not rely on media to arrive at their electorate and therefore, had to use the organizational network on the ground. So the argument of van Biezen (2003) does not stand true for the Albanian reality, because media didn't play any significant role in the structure of Albanian political parties. On the contrary, the Albanian political parties had to rely on an extended organizational network to convey the message from the centre to the periphery. In this context, at the moment of their inception the Albanian political parties display more features of mass parties rather than features of catch all or electoral-professional parties.

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Keeping our Students Safe: Teacher's Responsibility

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Abstract

During their lunch period, a second grade student began choking on his sandwich. A teacher noticed the student choking and walked with him to the office on the other side of the school. When the student and teacher got to the office, the school secretary performed CPR but the student had already passed out. 911 was called while the secretary continued to perform CPR. When the ambulance arrived, the EMTs also performed CPR and the student was taken to the hospital where he was pronounced dead. When interviewed by the police and district personnel, the teacher who had escorted the student to the office said she did not perform the Heimlich maneuver because she had just discovered she was pregnant.

Key words: Safety, Student and Teacher Rights, Communication Policies

CASE NARRATIVE

Worth ISD is a suburban school district on the outskirts of a major metropolitan area. Worth serves approximately 25,000 students and has 24 elementary schools. Jenks Elementary School, one of the 24 elementary schools in Worth ISD, is a unique school in many ways. First, it sits in the middle of two upper-middle class neighborhoods but buses students in from other areas of town. It also serves as bilingual magnet campus so it serves an extremely diverse population of students.

The lunchroom at Jenks Elementary School is a large, bright area situated on the far end of the school. On duty, there are always one teacher and three paraprofessionals monitoring lunch throughout each lunch period. Each grade level has its own lunch period, which average 80 students. The second grade had a slightly smaller number at 76 students. During lunch one day, a second grade student began choking on his sandwich. After a teacher noticed the student choking, she escorted him to the office. Due to the school layout, the office was on the other side of the school. Per district guidelines, there was only a school nurse there two days a week and this was not one of those days.

When the student and teacher got to the office, the school secretary did her best to perform CPR but the student had already passed out. 911 was called, and the secretary continued to perform CPR. When the ambulance arrived, the EMTs continued performed CPR and the student was taken to the hospital where he was pronounced dead.

When interviewed by the police and district personnel, the teacher who had escorted the student to the office said she did not perform the Heimlich maneuver because she had just discovered she was pregnant and did not want to risk hurting her pregnancy. The teacher continued to say this to anyone who would listen as well.

The principal was not on campus when this occurred, and the assistant principal was out for the day with a sick child. The superintendent immediately came to the campus, but the ambulance had already left with the student. The superintendent then went to the hospital to be with the family. The school secretary was inconsolable, and the teacher stood in the office continuing to say that she was pregnant.

At this time, the principal was called back to the campus to deal with the crisis. He first wrote a note that was sent home with each of the students explaining that there was a death of a student on campus that day. The content of the letter was brief and included only the scarcest of details. The students however, shared a great deal of information with their parents and the parents shared it with one another. When the parents spoke to the teacher about what had occurred, she reiterated she didn't want to risk her pregnancy.

By late afternoon, there were multiple television news crews present at Jenks Elementary. As parents were picking up their children from school, they were being interviewed about what had occurred without having any knowledge yet of the incident.

The principal called a mandatory staff meeting after school where he shared the information of the student's death. He explained the student had choked on a piece of food in the cafeteria, had been transported to the office area, collapsed and subsequently died at the hospital. Immediately, the faculty and staff began asking questions regarding the crisis plan that was reviewed at the beginning of the year. This designated procedures for emergency situations, identified individuals who were certified in CPR, and chain of command information. Additionally, the majority of the group expressed indignation that the teacher did not perform the Heimlich.

After the meeting, the principal sat in his office reflecting on the day. Not only had the worst possible thing happened- the loss of a child. His campus was now in crisis. As of the end of the meeting, teachers were arguing with each other, voices were raised and tears were shed. His secretary had put up a good front, but he was concerned about her as well. She had stayed at school attempting to shield him from the media and angry teachers when she, herself, was traumatized. How had it come to this? What could he have done differently?

TEACHING NOTES

When is a child's safety more important than personal needs? As teachers and administrators, it is our responsibility to keep children safe. It is every student's right to be safe on their campus. After this incident, it was evident that the students did not feel safe. Some of the students refused to eat during lunchtime and were fearful of even eating in their classrooms. Multiple parents asked for their children to be moved to another teacher's class after finding out that the teacher did not assist one of her students in a life-threatening situation.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

The following discussion questions are set to facilitate discussion as a class but also can be used in a small group setting.

- Consulting an Educator's Code of Conduct, was the teacher within her ethical guidelines regarding child safety?
- If you were the administrator, would there be any disciplinary repercussions for the teacher? What? Why?
- Was there proper supervision in the cafeteria? Reflecting on this scenario, where was the breakdown in supervision?

- If you were the principal of this school and came back to this happening, what would be your next step?
- Based upon this reading, what aspects of climate and culture are present in this school?
- What impact do you think that this had on the teachers in the school?
- What would your response be when the parents asked for a transfer out of the teacher's classroom? How would you handle the teacher reassignment?

ACTIVITIES

The following activities can be completed both in class and out of class. They are also set so that they can be used as an individual assignment, group discussion assignment, or group assignment.

- Construct the note that should go home with the students about the incident.
- If you were the principal of the school, create a school wide action plan that might have stopped this incident from occurring.
- Create a media package to deal with this occurrence. How would you have dealt with the media on campus? Outline the steps you would take for dealing with the media including a statement to them.

Emerging Private Education in Pakistan Administrative Kashmir and Determinants of Households Choice for Public versus Private Schooling

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Abstract

The number of private schools has been increased since decentralization of education in Pakistan as well as in Azad Jammu & Kashmir. Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) and a random sampling survey of 103 households of all income groups from district Kotli AJ&K Pakistan was made for analysis. With the help of ASER report 2011-2014 we observed that number of private schools has increased whereas number of public schools declined. Moreover we applied binary regression to find out the factor which affected the parent's decision towards the school choice for their children. We used household choice dichotomous dependent variable (type of school) whereas family characteristics, child characteristics and school characteristics as independent variables which are sub categorized into, father & mother education level, household per capita income, family size, child gender & education level, school cost, school medium of instruction , school distance from household and quality of education which has been observed as one of the most effective determinants of school choice in state of Azad Jammu & Kashmir rural.

Key words: Azad Jammu & Kashmir, Public & Private school, Household Choice

INTRODUCTION

Education is not only crucial to the overall development of an individual but also the society at large. It is pivotal element to gain the fundamental objectives of economic development and lays the foundation of a stronger nation. Thus education is an investment in human capital and it can have a great impact on all aspects of nation's growth including social, political and economical. Historically education has been finance and provided by the private sector and it became the domain of the government sector during the 20th century for reason of nation building, social integration, sharing a set of central values – all necessary to achieve social cohesion. Towards the end of the 20th century, governments are facing numerous constraints

in financing and providing educational services such as population growth and low efficiency in resource allocation (Shobhana).

Nevertheless, developing countries face a daunting task in their efforts to expand the delivery of educational services due to rapidly expanding populations and tight government budgets. Moreover public educational expenditures are often used inefficiently providing school buildings where they are unneeded, paying teachers that are unqualified or who do not perform, and providing school supplies that are inadequate and ill-timed. Increasingly, parents are responding to perceived inadequate public education by enrolling their children in private schools.

Consequently private primary school enrollments have increased dramatically during the few last decades in low-income countries including Pakistan. The consensus from studies of the relative effectiveness of public versus private schools in developing countries is that the predicted performance of children in private schools is higher than predicted performance in government schools (Andrabi, 2006; Monazza, 2006; Nasir, 1999).

In Pakistan 30 % school going children are enrolled in private schools (Ejaza 2012). Whereas when we look at education statistics of Pakistan administrative Kashmir 38 percent children are absorbed by private sector schools and trend to of private schooling is increasing gradually in rural areas (ASER 2014). Private school has specific characteristics. These schools are privately owned and managed by sole proprietors, Non Governmental Organizations (NGO's) or other forms of management. Mostly these schools are business oriented and owned by an individual entrepreneur. Formal private schools profit institutions, charge fee because they do not get any financial support neither from government or nor from any donor agencies. The private schools located in rural areas have very low fee structure and mostly owned by private personnel. A few of them are owned by welfare foundation and NGOs which also charge fee equaling or more than to other formal private schools but they provide comparatively quality education (Shabbir, 2014a).

Public schools have also explicit characteristics educating huge masses. These schools are single-gender without any of charge, providing free education. Currently 4202 primary public schools are located in Azad Jammu and Kashmir. Among 298 schools (189 boys schools & 109 girls schools) are located in urban area. In urban area most of people prefer private schooling. A total number of 9589 primary teachers are appointed in these schools. Although government spending a large share of its recruiting budget but the schools facilities always remained as a question in public sectors schools. In AJK 41% schools are without buildings 87 % without electricity, 73% are without availability of drinking water and 82% are without boundary walls (Pakistan Education Statistics, 2011; Shabbir, 2014b).

Since then large gains have been made in provision of both the private and public schooling in both rural and urban in Pakistan. Nevertheless considerable gaps still occur essentially in decision making in Pak. administrative Kashmir even it is first attempt to find out the determinant of parent choice in AJ&K Pakistan. The decision about primary child schooling is mainly dependent upon their parent's choice. Parents decide about their children schools on the basis of various factors. The probable determining factors which shape a household decision to send a child to a private school or a public school varied to economic, parental and child characteristics.

Unfortunately, most existing studies of public versus private schools do not include the choice of parents for public and private schools in AJ&K. Our previous studies have compared the public and private schools on basis of performance measures (Shabbir, 2014a 2014b, 2014c) but do not shed light parent decision about public and private schooling for their child. The present study determines the factors that affect house hold decision making about their child schooling in AJ&K and solicited respondent's perception about schooling in public and private sector.

Review of literature

Joseph L. Bast et al. (2004) examined how economic principles predict parents would do a better job choosing schools for their children and concluded that that parents can choose the best schools for their children is collaborated by economic theory and empirical research.

Andrabi, et al. (2002) investigated that private schools particularly at primary level have an important factor in elementary education of children. Rural-urban gap largely exists in private education. He concluded that private schools are not an urban elite phenomenon. They are affordable to middle and even low-income groups and (Alderman 2001) pointed out that poorest parents send their children to private schools in Pakistan rural.

Yasmeen et al. (2011) examine parent's choice of private versus public schooling of their children as an outcome of different family size parent's characteristics, child's characteristics and school characteristics and concluded that there is strong preference for private schools not only in the higher income class but economic class particularly in urban areas in Punjab province of Pakistan.

Nadeen & Arfan (1999) investigated family decision by using choice theoretic framework and concluded that household income, parental education are important factors in shaping household's decision for their children schooling in Pakistan.

Ejaz (2012) examined the household choice of private versus public sector schools as an outcome of child, household and school characteristics by using logit model. The study found that income of the household, education of the parents; English as medium of instruction in school and distance of public school from the household enhance the preference of private schooling.

Aram et al. (2008) conducted a study related to the socio – economic factors which affected the parent's decision towards the school choice for their children in Punjab province. Lower cost of schooling was the dominant factor to increase the enrolment in public schools. Further the study concluded that parent's education, and income was positively and strongly influenced the private school enrolment. In urban areas, parents enrolled their children in private school. The age of the child, distance from school, family size and cost of schooling were negatively related to private school enrolment.

METHODOLOGY

A random sampling survey of 103 households of all income groups from district Kotli AJ&K Pakistan was made in 2013. Household were chosen who sending their child either in public or private schools in rural areas. We applied binary regression to find out the determinants of school choice. We used household choice dichotomous dependent variable (type of school) whereas family characteristics, child characteristics and school characteristics as independent variables which are sub categorized into, father & mother education level, household per capita

income, family size, child gender & education level, school cost, school medium of instruction, school distance from household and quality of education. Variables have been explained in Table 1. Moreover Annual Status of Education Reports (ASER 2011-14) were also analyzed to find out the enrolment rate in public and private sector schools.

Table 1 Variables Explanation

Variable	Explanation
School choice	dichotomous dependent variable, type of school (public and/or private school) where private school = 1 and 0 otherwise
Child Gender	1 if child is male, 0 otherwise
Education level	Child's level of education in completed years
Family size	Number of family members in a household
Father education	Father's education in completed years of education
Mother education	Mother's completed years of education
Household per capita income	Monthly household per capita income in PKRs
Medium of instruction	1 if medium of instruction in school is English, 0 otherwise
Fee	Fee of the relevant school in PKRs
Distance	Distance of the relevant school from home to school (in KMs.)
Quality education	1 if school if school provide quality education, 0 otherwise

RESULTS

Emerging Private Schooling in AJK

Table: 2 Five Years Public And Private School Enrollment at Primary Level

Years	Total enrolled	Out of school	Public	Private	Madras	Others	Total
2011	89.7	10.3	65.5	32.9	1.4	0.2	100
2012	92.5	7.5	64.1	35.5	0.6	0.3	100
2013	94.8	5.2	61.4	37.4	1	0.2	100
2014	93.9	6.1	60.7	38.1	0.9	0.2	100

Source ASER Pakistan (2011-2014)

Table 2 shows the four years enrolment (2011 – 14) of public and private school in AJ&K Pakistan. The result presented in table indicates that trend of private schooling in AJ&K is increasing gradually from year to year whereas enrolment in public schools is declining.

Logistic Model of Household Choice for Public and Private Schooling

A logistic regression was performed to find out predictors that had influenced household decision making for their children whether to send in public or private school. School choice was taken as dependant variable whereas ten independent variables were use in this analysis including father & mother education level, household per capita income, family size, child gender & education level, school cost, school medium of instruction, school distance from household and quality of education.

The overall chi-square test for the logistic model was significant ($\chi^2 = 96.85$, $df = 10$, $P = .00$) which indicates that there were significant relationship between independent variables and school choice. The Omnibus test was carried out to measure how well a model performs. It gives significant result with $p=0.0000$ and demonstrates that we are 96.85% confident that the model is appropriate/significant.

To check the adequacy of the logistic regression model Hosmer and Lemeshow test was performed. The Hosmer and Lemeshow statistics indicates that $\chi^2 = 4.802$ with degree of freedom ($d.f$) = 8 and non significant with p -value = .778 which shows a well fitness of model. Hence we conclude that the model does not differ significantly from the observed data. Thus model is appropriate and is satisfactorily fit the data.

The Cox and Snell test, indicating the percentage of variance of the dependent variable explained equaled 60.9 %, while the Nagelkerke explained 81.15 % of the variance. Based on this analysis 91.1 % household who had choice for public schools were classified correctly, and 93.6 % of the household who had choice for private schools were classified correctly. Thus, 92.2 % of household in the sample were classified correctly based on the findings of this logistic regression.

By examining the table 3 it is revealed that there was significant difference found in nine predictors of schools choice except child gender.

Table 3: Logistic Model of Household Choice for Public and Private Schooling

Variables	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Child Gender	4.068	1.516	7.196	1	.097	58.421
Child Education level	-.826	.273	9.160	1	.002	.438
Father education	.110	.259	.182	1	.040	.895
Mother education	.171	.266	.415	1	.044	1.187
Household per capita income	.001	.000	9.691	1	.002	1.001
Family size	-.551	.457	1.455	1	.046	.576
Fee	-.662	.678	.953	1	.029	1.939
Distance	-.812	.369	4.839	1	.028	2.252
Quality of education	2.708	1.270	4.548	1	.033	14.995
Medium of instruction	2.475	1.474	2.820	1	.043	.084

DISCUSSIONS

In AJK Pakistan there are two main types of schools – government and private. Both kinds of schools are different in term of financing and regulation but similar in their educational structure. Purpose of this study was to find out emerging trend of private schooling and factors influencing household choice to choose schooling for their children in Pakistan administrative Kashmir rural areas. The emerging trend of private schooling at primary level indicates the better performance of private schools as compared to public school. Moreover our study demonstrates that parents are influenced by many factors of school choice when they choose school (public or private) for their children such as parents characteristics, children

characteristics and school characteristics which can be sub divided into as, child gender & education level, school medium of instruction, father & mother education level, household per capita income, family size, school cost, distance and quality of education. The predominant findings show that almost all these factors have significant influence on parent choice for public and private school except child gender.

The first predictor of household choice taken in this study was child gender. The gender disparities are also affecting on parents choice of schooling which has been explored by the previous studies (Afzal, 2013; Chaudhry, 2009). Our findings revealed that this factor is not affecting on parents choice for public and private schooling In AJ&K Pakistan. Our finding are not consonant with previous studies (Arif, 1999; Madeeha 2012) who pointed out that in Pakistan parents prefer private school for boys and low level education for girls. Our findings revealed that in AJK parents give less priority for child gender disparity in choosing school. Although private school are expensive and public schools are free but parent choose schooling without any gender discrimination in best favor of their child.

The child education level is also a significant indicator influences household choice of public versus private schooling. There are few logical reasons. First private schools are easily available at primary level and located almost in all areas. The second reason is may be private schools are thought to be better in providing quality education or at least well than public schools. Parents want a strong education base of their children by choosing private schooling for their children. The third reasons may be the school cost which increases with education level of students. The educational level of the child results into increase in school fees. However, we have found that by increase in years of education of child the probability for the child to go to private schools declines. But it has been seen that enrolment in private school at secondary level increases as compared to middle level schools. An important aspect of the choice of the schools by the parents at secondary level is that students have to appear in examination hold by board of inter mediate & secondary education to get the result/ certificate that remains with the students for ever in the coming academic and professional years so the parents may prefer private schooling at secondary level to get better academic result of child at this stage.

The next indicator which affects household choice for public versus private school is parent's personnel characteristics which are critical in determining. We have found that educated parent prefer private schooling for their children which gives a positive perception of educated parents toward private sector schools. Further the educated parents have higher source of income and able to meet the private schooling expenditure. Household per capita income and family size are also determinants of parental school choice. We have found positive relation between house hold per capita incomes and choice for private schooling. The families who have reasonable source of income prefer private schooling. But family size has negative association with household choice for private schooling.

Further factors are associated with school characteristics. School medium of instruction is one of those significant indicators of household choice for schooling. In Pakistan, English is viewed mainly as the language for development at both the individual and national levels. Private schools offer 'quality' education to elite children in highly resourced classrooms through the medium of English in urban area. Although private schools located in rural area, are providing education, quality wise not equal to privately managed schools in urban but at least better than public sector schools where children studying in poorly resourced classrooms who have little or no exposure to English outside the 30–35-minute English class every day in school.

Proficiency in English is assumed to be required for joining different professions such as civil services, in armed forces, better paying jobs in private companies and NGOs. It is also medium of instruction in science education in colleges and universities. So parent prefer private schooling and our results revealed a positive association between the choice of private school and medium of instruction as English.

School cost is most important factor influence on the decision of schooling. We use school fee as the proxy of school cost excluding others educational expenditures such as expenditure on educational material and uniform and transportation. Our result revealed the reverse relationship between school cost and parental choice for private schooling that as the fee rises, the probability of enrolment in private schools falls. Our result is consonant with (Ejaz, 2012) who investigated that reverse relation between schools cost and enrolment.

School distance from the household is also significant factor of household choice for public and private schooling. Parent's willingness to send their children to school depends upon the school availability and accessibility. It is found that more the distance of public sector school from the household, it is more likely for the child to go to private school. The accessibility of public sector schools is much important for enhancing the school enrolment. There is general thinking that lower income group households send their children to public sector schools. But in case of absence of public school household choose private school whether they are willing for it or not.

The quality of education is also main determinant of parent choice for public and private school. Parents are likely to send their children to private school based on the academic performance of that school. Although the private school located in AJK rural areas are not providing the good quality education but the quality of private schools is perceived to be better than public schools. Mostly the students who enrolled in private schools performed better than public school students. Due to the better performance of students of private schools in different exams, parents consider them better than public schools students. There is positive association between quality of education and parent choice for private schools.

CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

The above assessment enlightens the household choice of private versus public schooling. We have observed that there are many factors shape a household decision to send a child to a private school or a public school varied to economic, parental and child characteristics. Our results indicate that child gender & education level, father and mother education, English as medium of instruction in private schools, house hold per capita income, family size, school cost, quality and distance are significant factors influencing parent decision to choose private or public school for their child. Our results revealed the stronger preference for private schooling rather than public schooling quality of private schools is perceived to be better. The decision is combination of parent's awareness of importance of investing in their children education. Quality of educations in private schools is emerging the enrollment in private schools. The decline enrolment in public school is a question for quality of education in public schools. Private education is expensive and not accessible for poor household so poorer households are at a disadvantage in ensuring quality education for their children. Government should make efforts to improve quality of public schools for social equity reasons by providing better infrastructure with physical resources and immediately equipped with the contemporary facilities to make the learning environment conducive for children as well as providing regular and effective teacher's training. The government must be adopted as long-term policy for professional development of school teachers. There is need of special effort to improve quality

of public schools in remote areas of AJK. The dualism in the education system must be phased out and follow uniform pattern up to primary level by providing quality education in public sector schools.

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The Impact Of Industrial Training On Students' Academic Performance

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Abstract

We studied the impact of IT on students' performance, using Benson Idahosa University as a case study. To achieve this purpose, performance was measured using six different variants of performance while seven independent variables were measured and used to test the hypotheses. A total of fifty-three students were sampled. Questionnaire was used to elicit data for the study. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics and correlation analysis and hypotheses tested using t-test statistics and regression. Among the 6 items on Performance issues, 4 produced statistically significant in respondents' ratings. We find that, Stipends, Number of Units, IT Relevance, use of Tools, and supportive Boss impact on students' performance. Supportive Boss is a key variable that ensures that IT impact on students' academic performance since; it cuts across all of the variants of performance. We conclude that, industrial training impact on student's performance. We therefore recommend that institutions should include IT training in their accounting program and institutions should endeavour to collect relevant data base from their IT students.

Keywords: industrial training, impact study on IT, Stipends, IT relevance

INTRODUCTION

Industrial Training program provides pre-professional work experience with specific assignments and responsibilities. An Industrial Training should be relevant to student's personal career interests and academic course of study, serving as a bridge between university and the world of work. Productive industrial trainings help students make informed decisions and improve their marketability after graduation. Industrial training program is getting more and more popular in student learning process. Many Universities are implementing industrial training program as one of the compulsory requirements of most fields of study.

Industrial Training Fund (ITF) established the Student Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) in 1974. SIWES is a planned and supervised training intervention best on a stated and specific learning and career objectives geared towards developing the occupational competencies of the participants. The Nigeria University Commission (NUC) designed SIWES as a skill training program, which forms part of the approved minimum academic standard in the various degree programmes for all Nigeria Universities. It is an effort to bridge the gap between theory and practical work in engineering and technology, sciences, agriculture, medicine, management sciences and other professional educational programmes in Nigerian tertiary institutions. It teaches students about machines and equipment, professional methods and ways of safeguarding work areas and the workers in the industries and organization. (NUC Handbook, 2001) The scheme was designed to expose student to the industrial environment and enable them to develop occupational competencies so that they can really contribute their quota to national economic and technological development after graduation, and also to impact on the student's performance academically.

In Nigeria, the current form of cooperative education is known as the SIWES. Often, Student mistakenly and commonly refers to SIWES as IT, where as Industrial Training is generic; SIWES is a specific form of cooperative education or industrial training operation in Nigeria.

According to a study done by Thomas and Jim(2002), they highlight that "working in organizational setting makes the student more aware of the importance of soft skills such as effective communication, social interaction, teamwork and ability to solve problem in environments where defining the problem is a major part of the overall job." Industrial training brings a lot of advantages and benefit where these benefits are unable to obtain from a classroom learning as mentioned by Albert Camus: (1913-1960) "You cannot acquire experience by making experiments. You cannot create experience. You must undergo it." This is the purpose Universities want their students to learn the above mentioned soft skills by undergoing it with experiment it.

Benson Idahosa University (BIU) accounting department introduced this principle of "undergoing IT" in 2003. Since then, students from the department have been undergoing IT. There has not been any empirical report on the effect or impact of IT on student's performance. Hence, this research study intends to fill that gap.

To achieve this, the research question for this study is; Does the length of IT, interest linked with stipends, practical exposure to work, adequate monitoring, access to organization's tool and supportive boss impact on students academic performance? In order to answer this question, we identified the factors that impact on students academic performances.

The scope of this study mainly focuses on the impact industrial training has on students of BIU accounting department - academically. This study covers 300 and 400 level accounting students of the above mentioned institution; 2012/2013 session. These students fit into the unit of analysis because; they have undergone industrial training since their 200 and 300 levels long holiday. A study on the impact of Industrial Training on accounting students will immensely be useful to a lot of stakeholders such as;

Various bodies involved in the management of the SIWES exercise i.e. Federal Government, ITF, NUC, NBTE, and NCCE. In the study of Tan, Wee, and Aida (2007), they reported that "Practical training provides students and the faculty with a means of bridging the gap between career expectations developed in the classroom and the reality of employment in the real world." This is one of the issues usually faced by majority of students. The career expectation gap can be reducing after the student goes through the industrial training program. Students will only know what the actual practice of real world is like after undergoing the industrial training. The research will enhance students' interest in IT, since it will enable them know that, partaking in IT will enhance their academic performance. In that case, students are able to analysis and imagine class works in the light of reality. The experiences that students get through exposure to the business world, such as experience in situation where judgments and estimation are required, cannot be learnt in classrooms or from textbooks. Students can also bring along their industrial training experiences into classroom learning, enhancing the understandability of a student, hence improving the student's performance academically.

The employers benefit from industrial training as students are sources of future employees, also the employer's benefit from these programmers', as IT can provide them with inexpensive help, new ideas, and potential future employees (Rothman, 2007; Cannon & Arnold 1998). This study will also benefit the institutions offering IT programmes as it will educate them of the

determinants that enable IT to enhance students' performance. People use to say "Practice make perfect" nothing is better than industrial training, gaining the real world experiences.

The remaining part of this paper shall review related studies as well as educate readers on BIU SIWES program. The following section shall delineate the methods adopted, next is on data collection and analysis and the last section outlines the results; make recommendations and conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Training according to Ajidahun (2007) is an integral part of vocational or career development and it is fast becoming a global and pervasive phenomenon in any establishments, the absence of which spells doom for such an institution and the presence of which determines the success of any enterprise. In the view of Ezeali and Esiagu (2009), training is an organized, coordinated development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed by an industrial worker to master a given situation or perform a certain task within an organization setting.

Many studies had been conducted based on the usefulness of IT. A study which was done by Osman, Omar, Kofli, Mat, Darus & Rahmans (2008) examined students perception of IT. It was based on the student perception before and after they undergone the industrial program in the civil engineering sector. In addition, according to the exposure draft issued by International Federation of Accountant (IFAC) on Practical Experience dated on January 2007 highlighted the following importance of practical experience: A period of practical experience under guidance of a mentor enables trainees to integrate knowledge gained through formal education with experience in real work environment.

Ukwuoma and Akanwa (2008) observed that effective training brings about an increase in knowledge required in the job, knowledge of the structure and business arms of the organization. This implies that the knowledge base of the practitioner increases in proportion to the training acquired. Training is a key factor in enhancing the efficiency and expertise of the workforce. Adomi (2000) reported that ninety percent of students studied affirm that IT is very relevant and amongst the study's recommendation, he recommended 6 months period for IT as against 3 months.

The SIWES Programmes according to Onwuji (2004) being a skills acquisition programme blends theory with practice in the industrial and commercial activities of our national economy. Ugwuamji (2010) asserts that SIWES is a cooperative industrial internship program that involves institutions of higher learning, Industries, the Federal Government of Nigeria, Industrial Training Fund (ITF), Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC), and NBTE/NCCEE in Nigeria.

The scheme affords students the opportunity of familiarizing and exposing themselves to the needed experience in handling equipment and machinery that are usually not available in their institutions. Thus, the students' industrial work experience scheme generally referred to I.T (Industrial Training) is an initiative of the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) that provides avenues for student in institutions of higher learning to acquire practical skills that they are likely to meet after graduation.

Afonja, , Sraku-Lartey, & Oni, (2005) reported that approximately 60% of policymakers surveyed in Ghana subscribe to the opinion that the lack of industrial experience of the average technical teacher is a major handicap to performance. They further contend that even when students are accepted by employers for industrial attachment, they are often not well

supervised or assessed. To strengthen industrial attachment, they suggest faculty-employer involvement in the design and supervision, establishment of strong industrial placement units by faculties and a way of compensating employers for providing placement for students on industrial training.

However, Wodi and Dokubo (2009) opined that if the Scheme is not adequately implemented, it becomes difficult for graduates of the system to secure employment in the occupations or make a smooth transition from schools to work. They concluded that in spite of apparent economic difficulty, the SIWES in Nigerian institutions are attaining its objectives. Nevertheless, SIWES plays a significant role, and students according to Ugwuamji (2009) should be aware of what the present society holds for them and adapt accordingly.

There are little studies on the determinants of IT in impacting on students' performance. This study therefore, finds it relevant and appropriate to identify these factors.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SIWES

The Students' Industrial Work-Experience Scheme (SIWES) started in 1974 with 748 students from 11 institutions of higher learning participating. By 1978, the scope of participation in the scheme had increased to about 5,000 students from 32 institutions. The Industrial Training Fund, however, withdrew from the management of the scheme in 1979 owing to problems of organizational logistics and the increased financial burden associated with the rapid expansion of SIWES (ITF, 2003). Consequently, the Federal Government funded the scheme through the National Universities Commission (NUC) and the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) who managed SIWES for five years (1979 – 1984). The supervising agencies (NUC and NBTE) operated the scheme in conjunction with their respective institutions during this period.

By 2008, 210,390 Students from 219 institutions participated in the Scheme with over 112 eligible courses. However, the rapid growth and expansion of SIWES, has occurred against the backdrop of successive economic crises which have affected the smooth operation and administration of the Scheme. Most industries in Nigeria today, are operating below installed capacity while others are completely shut down (Manufacturing Association, 2003 - 2006). This has impacted negatively on the Scheme as Institutions of Higher Learning find it increasingly difficult to secure placement for Students in industries where they could acquire the much needed practical experience.

Nature and Scope of Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES)

Practical knowledge relates to doing. According to Ochiagha (1995) practical knowledge is learning without which mastery of an area of knowledge may be too difficult to achieve. Practical knowledge involves developing skills through the use of tools or equipment to perform tasks that are related to a field of study.

No society can achieve meaningful progress without encouraging its youth to acquire necessary practical skills. Such skills enable them to harness available resources to meet the needs of society. It was against this background that SIWES, otherwise referred to as Industrial Training (IT), was introduced in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

SIWES is a skill development program designed to prepare students of universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education for transition from the college environment to work (Akerejola 2008). Oyedele (1990) states that work experience are an educational program in

which students participate in work activities while attending school. This work experience program gives students the opportunity to be part of an actual work situation outside the classroom. SIWES is a cooperative industrial training program that involves institutions of higher learning, industries, and the federal government of Nigeria, Industrial Training Fund (ITF), Nigerian Universities Commission (NUC), and NBTE/NCCE in Nigeria. It is also compulsory at National Diploma (ND) level and is scheduled in the NBTE curriculum. The training program is undertaken in the third year of a four-year degree program.

Eze (1998) points out that government has recognized the importance of SIWES through the establishment of the Industrial Training Fund (ITF). The ITF was established in 1971 and was charged with human resources development and training. Following the establishment of ITF, SIWES commenced in 1974 with the aim of making education more relevant and to bridge the yawning gap between the theory and practice of engineering, technology, and science-related disciplines in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The specific objectives of SIWES were summarized by the federal government in its Gazette of April, 1978 as follows:

To provide an avenue for students in institutions of higher learning to acquire industrial skills and experiences in their course of study;

To provide students with an opportunity to apply their knowledge in real work and actual practice;

To make the transition from school to the world of work easier and to enhance students contacts for later job placement.

It is obvious that the reasons that led to the inception of the program some decades ago are today even more relevant due to rapid technological development, especially as it concerns accounting practice.

Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (Siwes) and Training of BIU Accounting Students

The Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) also referred to as Benson Idahosa University Industrial Training Scheme (BIUITS) in BIU is a set of composite practical experience scheme that is integrated to offer students a vital blend of theory and practical exposure to real life application of what has been thought and learnt in the degree programme. The Scheme is described as: "Accounting Laboratory/Industrial Works Experience/Students Workshop," The main scheme is divided into three as follows:

- A. Use of computer Laboratory (Accounting Laboratory)
- B. Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme involving exposure to work place real life experience, obtained under supervision in recognized organizations.
- C. Students practical work
 - i. Laboratory use will be supervised by the Computer Tutors and Computer Laboratory Administrator. Scores for student attendance and Log Book of work done and time spent will be maintained by the Laboratory Administrator. The student Log Book will be signed by the Tutor and Administrator. The Tutor will assess the student Computer Work at 20%; Administrator will assess attendance at 20% of the marks.
 - ii. The University's SIWES Officer will assist to place student for practical work experience. Each student's Log Book will be signed by the Industrial Works Supervisors and an assessment for student performance sent by them to the Department. Score will be 40% for this component.

- iii. Student will develop an independent project under the programme. That project will be scored by the course Advisers at 20%.

All 400 level papers examined will each include a case study, to test practical application of knowledge.

The BIUITS is an essential part of the programme, the programme is therefore not deemed to have been passed by student, by the faculty board of studies and the University's senate until a satisfactory report has been written. Benson Idahosa University (BIU) accounting department introduced this principle of undergoing IT in the year 2003. Hence, student from the department have been undergoing IT over the years. Accounting department undergo industrial training during the 200 level and 300 level summer break, unlike some other departments (i.e. Computer science, Mass Communication, etc.) who undergo IT after their 300 level first semester examination.

After the industrial training experience, the students are to submit their SIWES Training Logbook which they obtained before the training and prepare a report on what they have experienced.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted by collecting information from both primary and secondary sources of data. The research and data were analyzed in the light of the objective of the study. The basic research design used was the survey. This was designed specifically to obtain relevant information and data that relates to the study via questionnaire.

The population of the study is narrowed down to all Benson Idahosa University (BIU) accounting students who have undergone industrial training. Since industrial training is usually done during the summer breaks of 200level and 300level in BIU, we therefore, included those in 300level and in 400level as our study's sample because they must have IT experience. We also assume that there could be some without the experience; hence, we always ask them before we administered the questionnaire to them. As a result the table below shows the number of students qualified to participate as respondents of this study.

Table I Number of Sampled Students

SEX	300 LEVEL	400 LEVEL
MALE	10	19
FEMALE	23	31
TOTAL	33	50

Source: field work (2013)

The data collected will be analyzed using descriptive statistics, and the use of stata 9 software to test hypotheses. Regression was used as well as T and F statistics to test the various hypothesis generated.

DATA

Eighty-three (83) questionnaires were distributed to students in four (400) and three (300) hundred levels in Benson Idahosa University and fifty-three (53) in total were retrieved; representing 66%. Presentation of distribution is shown below:

Table II Questionnaire Distribution Table

	NO. DISTRIBUTED	NO. RETRIEVED	PERCENTAGE
400 LEVEL	50	40	50
300 LEVEL	33	13	16
TOTAL	83	53	66

Source: Field Work, 2013

Table III below shows the fact collected from the surveyed students (See appendix). The variables are measured using the likert scale of five (5) points except for the variable NOUNIT (i.e. Number of unit trained in) which was measured using four (4) points (e.g. 1unit, 2units, 3units, 4units).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The companies where the students underwent the industrial training attachments were analyzed. Students' attachments were basically companies in Edo, Delta, Lagos, Rivers and Akwa-Ibom states. Majority of the companies are private companies.

Tables Iv: Descriptive Statistics Of It Companies Profile

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	MEDIAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
LOCATION	52	2.769231	2.000000	1.246413
COYTYP	52	3.076923	2.000000	1.938730

From the table IV above, the result shows that, most of the companies used for IT training are between Edo and Delta state while most of the companies fall within private foreign companies. The students bio were also analyzed and the students sex mean ($\alpha = 1.7$) which shows that more females are in the sample studied. The mean ($\alpha = 1.8$) of the students age is between 20 to 25 years while, the mean ($\alpha = 2.5$) duration of the IT is between two to three months (see table V for students bio).

Tables V: Descriptive Statistics Of Students Bio

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	MEDIAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
SEX	52	1.7308	2.0000	0.4479
AGE	52	1.7692	2.0000	0.5465
LEVEL	52	1.7500	2.0000	0.4373

The variables were also analyzed and the descriptive statistics are shown in table VI below.

Table Vi: Descriptive Statistics Of The Dependent And Independent Variables

VARIABLES	N	MEAN	MEDIAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
APERF	52	4.1346	4.0000	0.7148
FINPERF	52	4.3462	4.0000	0.6226
PASPERF	52	3.6346	4.0000	0.9707
MAPERF	52	3.8269	4.0000	0.7598
TAXPERF	52	3.8269	4.0000	0.8794
INTERPERF	52	3.9423	4.0000	0.8725
LENGTH OF TRAINING	52	2.4808	3.0000	0.6713
IT DURATION	52	2.4808	3.0000	0.6713
INTEREST LINKED WITH STIPENDS	52	3.7115	4.0000	1.2420
ITRELEVANT	52	4.5385	4.5385	0.6991
NO OF UNITS	52	1.8462	1.0000	1.0000
TOOLS & EQUIPMENT	52	3.8269	4.0000	0.8568
SUUPPORTIVE BOSS	52	4.4615	5.0000	0.8509
MONITORING	52	3.2308	3.5000	1.2306

From the table above, the descriptive statistics shows that, the average perceptions of the students concerning this number of units the students underwent the training is 1.85 approximately 2 units. On the average, the students were indifferent as far as monitoring by faculty members is concern ($\alpha = 3.2$). The perform perceptions of the students stood at ($\alpha = 4$) which implies that they all agree to the facts that industrial training impact on performance.

Based on the descriptive statistics, we could be tempted to conclude that IT impact on the performance but to get a clearer view, association test needs to be conducted; thus, the result of the correlation analysis is shown in table VII below.

Table VII: Correlation Analysis Of The Dependent And Independent Variables

	perf	interperf	finanperf	psaperf	maperf	taxperf	duration	intstip	monitor	itrelevant	tool	bossup	nounit	reward
Perf	1.0000	0.2594	0.3155	0.1649	0.2161	0.4415	-0.0317	0.0711	0.0261	0.3761	0.2662	0.3239	0.1366	-0.0604
Interperf		1.0000	0.1616	0.2676	0.0344	0.1257	-0.1477	0.2520	0.0721	0.1723	0.2995	0.0341	0.2033	-0.0408
Finanperf			1.0000	0.1354	0.1098	0.3589	0.1168	0.0529	0.2532	0.3346	0.2687	0.3128	0.0575	-0.2269
Psaperf				1.0000	0.0409	0.1991	-0.1015	0.0574	0.2761	0.1512	0.1498	0.0526	0.2718	0.0490
Maperf					1.0000	0.2766	0.0289	0.1368	0.1191	0.0799	0.0435	0.4956	0.2530	-0.0549
Taxperf						1.0000	0.3715	0.0619	0.4171	0.2776	0.4719	0.3546	0.1359	-0.2135
Duration							1.0000	-0.0216	0.1969	-0.0913	0.0577	0.1772	0.0341	0.0306
Intstip								1.0000	0.1717	0.1554	0.2587	-0.1095	-0.0527	-0.2502
Monitor									1.0000	0.1282	0.2444	0.0436	0.0456	-0.2312
Itrelevant										1.0000	0.2350	0.2871	0.1775	-0.0765
Tool											1.0000	0.0987	-0.1859	-0.2244
Bossup												1.0000	0.2648	-0.1622
Nounit													1.0000	0.0730
Reward														1.0000

Form table VII above, the result showed that Academic performance, performance in interpreting financial statement, and Public sector accounting performance, (PERF, INTERPERF, and PSAPERF) are negatively associated with Duration of IT internment ($r = -0.031, -0.148, -0.102$ respectively) and academic performance, performance in interpreting financial statement, financial accounting performance, management accounting performance, and taxation performance (PERF, INTERPERF, FINANPERF, MAPERF and TAXPERF) are negatively associated with Reward ($r = -0.060, -0.0408, -0.2269, -0.0546, -0.2135$ respectively) while PERF, INTERPERF, FINANPERF, PSAPERF, MAPERF and TAXPERF are positively associated with Interest In Stipend ($r = 0.071, 0.252, 0.053, 0.057, 0.2137, \text{ and } 0.062$ respectively), Monitoring ($r = 0.2269, 0.072, 0.253, 0.276, 0.119, \text{ and } 0.417$ respectively), Use Of Accounting Tools And Equipment ($r = 0.266, 0.300, 0.269, 0.150, 0.044, \text{ and } 0.472$ respectively), Supportive Boss ($r = 0.324, 0.034, 0.313, 0.053, 0.500, \text{ and } 0.346$ respectively) and Number Of Units Trained In ($r = 0.137, 0.023, 0.253, \text{ and } 0.136, \text{ respectively}$). The association between PERF, INTERPERF, FINANPERF, PSEPERF, MAPERF and TAXPERF and the relevance of IT (ITRELEVANT) are all positive ($r = 0.376, 0.172, 0.335, 0.151, 0.080, \text{ and } 0.278$ respectively). In the association report, there is no prefect positive or negative association between the variables hence there should not be any case of autocorrelation.

TEST OF HYPOTHESIS

Based on previous studies on industrial training, we hypothesized that there will be a positive relationship between the independent variables and the dependents variables. The dependent variable performance was measured in six (6) ways, using some variants of accounting subjects.

Tables Viii: The Results Of The Test Of Hypothesis

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	COEFF.	ADJ.R ²	F-TEST (F TEST PROB.)
FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING PERFORMANCE	C	1.990	0.137	2.182(0.05)*
	DURATION	0.053		
	INTSTIP	-0.013		
	ITRELEVANT	0.222		
	NOUNIT	-0.093		
	TOOL	0.083		
	BOSSUP	0.183		
	MONITOR	0.093		
PUBLIC SECTOR ACCOUNTING PERFORMANCE	C	2.339	0.068	1.537(0.18)
	DURATION	-0.251		
	INTSTIP	-0.019		
	ITRELEVANT	0.041		
	NOUNIT	0.290		
	TOOL	0.185		
	BOSSUP	-0.041		
	MONITOR	0.218		
MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING PERFORMANCE	C	1.873	0.224	3.143 (0.01*)
	DURATION	-0.113		
	INTSTIP	0.134		
	ITRELEVANT	-0.166		
	NOUNIT	0.105		
	TOOL	-0.019		
	BOSSUP	0.491		
	MONITOR	0.061		
PERFORMANCE IN TAXATION	C	-0.616	0.417	6.308(0.00*)
	DURATION	0.357		
	INTSTIP	-0.049		
	ITRELEVANT	0.149		
	NOUNIT	0.096		
	TOOL	0.396		
	BOSSUP	0.181		
	MONITOR	0.180		
FINANCIAL STATEMENT INTERPRETATION PERFORMANCE	C	2.389	0.028	1.210(0.317)
	DURATION	-0.218		
	INTSTIP	0.132		
	ITRELEVANT	0.063		
	NOUNIT	0.062		
	TOOL	0.277		
	BOSSUP	0.025		
	MONITOR	-0.001		

ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE	C	1.577	0.116	1.974(0.08**)
	DURATION	-0.054		
	INTSTIP	0.009		
	ITRELEVANT	0.256		
	NOUNIT	0.054		
	TOOL	0.180		
	BOSSUP	0.190		
	MONITOR	-0.038		

The results as shown in table VII above shows that the independent variables (i.e. IT variants) contribute 14% to a student performance in financial accounting. This result is said to fit at 5% significant level (adj. $r^2 = 0.14$, $F = 2.182$; $P = 0.05$) and five out of the seven variants of IT impact positively on students financial accounting performance e.g. DURATION, ITRELEVANT, TOOL, BOSSUP, and MONITOR (i.e. 10%, 22%, 8%, 18% and 9% respectively).

Public Sector accounting (PSA) report has shown that, the independent variables (i.e. IT variants) can only contribute 7% to a student performance in PSA. We cannot say that this result is fit because, fitness result is not significant (adj. $r^2 = 0.07$, $F = 1.537$; $P = 0.18$) implying that we are only 82 percent sure that the variants explain the performance in PSA. Four out of the seven variants of IT impact positively on students' public sector accounting performance e.g. ITRELEVANT, NOUNIT, TOOL, BOSSUP and MONITOR (i.e. 4%, 29%, 19% and 22% respectively).

The independent variables (i.e. IT variants) contribute 22% to a student performance in management accounting. This result is said to be fit at 1% significant level (adj. $r^2 = 0.22$, $F = 3.143$; $P = 0.01$) and four out of the seven variants of IT impact positively on students management accounting performance e.g. INTSTIP, NOUNIT, BOSSUP, and MONITOR (i.e. 13%, 11%, 49% and 6% respectively).

The relationship between the independent variables (i.e. IT variants) and taxation performance is explained by 42%. We can say that this result is fit because, fitness result shows that, it is 1% significant (adj. $r^2 = 0.42$, $F = 6.308$; $P = 0.001$) which implying that the result is more than 99% certain that the variants can explain the students performance in taxation. Six out of the seven variants of IT impact positively on students' taxation performance e.g. DURATION, ITRELEVANT, NOUNIT, TOOL, BOSSUP and MONITOR (i.e. 36%, 15%, 10%, 40%, 18% and 18% respectively).

The report on table VIII has shown that, the independent variables (i.e. IT variants) can only contribute 3% to a student performance in interpreting financial report. We cannot say that this result is fit because, fitness result shows no significance (adj. $r^2 = 0.03$, $F = 1.210$; $P = 0.32$) implying that we are only 58 percent sure that the variants explain the performance in financial reports interpretation. Five out of the seven variants of IT impact positively on student's performance in interpreting financial reports e.g. INTSTIP, ITRELEVANT, NOUNIT, TOOL, and BOSSUP (i.e. 13%, 6%, 6%, 28%, and 3% respectively).

Finally, the test on the overall performance of students shows that the independent variables can explain 12% of student's Academic performance. The result also shows a fitness of 10% significance (adj. $r^2 = 0.12$, $F = 1.974$; $P = 0.10$) implying that, we can be 90% certain that all the IT variants can impact students overall academic performance, and five out of the seven variants have positive impact on academic performance e.g. INTSTIP, ITRELEVANT, NOUNIT, TOOL, and BOSSUP (i.e. 1%, 26%, 5%, 18% and 19% respectively).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations were based on the findings of the study and as a solution to the identified issues:

- The boss of the IT trainee should endeavor to be supportive in terms of showing concern and patiently directing the students. This is because, this variable had one hundred percent relevance in all the dependent variables tested.
- Students should be rotated through departments/units, this variable also had eighty percent relevance since it appeared in all the dependent variables except financial accounting performance.
- The need for learning institutions to get involved in the supervision of trainees during IT. Increased supervision makes IT programme more effective hence, the study shows that it relevant to all the performance variables except for interpretation and academic performance. This finding is consistent with Afonja et al. (2005) who contended that when students are accepted by employers for IT, they are often not well supervised. In extension, the various bodies involved in the management of the SIWES exercise i.e. Federal Government, Industrial Training Fund (ITF), NUC, NBTE and NCCE should come together and fashion out a modality that will ensure smooth operation of the SIWES exercise. Efforts should be made to ensure that students attached to the organization are properly monitored to ensure that what they are doing is in line with the objectives of the SIWES exercise.
- A form should be made by the institution and given to all students who have completed the industrial training program, to enable other researcher easy access to information about industrial training by students who has graduated from that intuition. A specimen of such form is as shown below;

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING ATTACHMENT RETIREMENT FORM

Candidates Name:.....
Level:
Matriculation No:
Name of IT placement company:
Location of IT placement company:
Type of company
Unit/department of IT:
No. of unit/department served:
Your perception of IT:.....
.....
.....
State the course(s) you think your IT experience will impact.....
Reasons for the course(s).....
State your academic performance after IT.....
What was your recommendation towards the IT.....
.....
.....
State how industrial training would help you in labour market.....
.....
State how many months are effective for IT in your opinion and why.....

CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the impact of IT on students' performance. 300 and 400 level students of the Benson Idahosa University were studied, using survey questionnaire. 53 students' filled the questionnaires and the data they provided were analyzed using stata 9 software. Based on data analysis, the following conclusions were drawn: Long academic training up to 6 months duration is more meaningful than 6-8 weeks training, Institute faculty monitoring system needs reassessment, Industries that offer stipend to students during industrial training enhances student's interest and performance. The number of units a student renders IT's services the better the performance, and most importantly, IT is very important in enhancing accounting students performance.

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APPENDIX

Tables II presentation of Coded Variables

per f	Inter pref	Finan pref	Pas per f	Ma per f	Tax per f	duration	intsti p	monitor	itrelevant	tool	bossup	hounit	reward
5	4	5	4	4	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	1	3
3	4	4	2	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	1	3
4	5	4	5	4	4	2	5	5	5	5	5	1	1
5	4	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	5	5	5	1	4
5	4	5	5	4	5	3	3	2	5	4	5	2	1
4	5	5	3	4	3	1	3	4	4	4	4	1	1
5	4	5	3	3	5	3	4	4	4	5	5	1	0
5	4	5	3	3	5	4	3	4	4	5	5	1	0
4	4	5	4	3	5	3	4	2	5	5	5	1	4
3	3	5	4	4	3	3	5	4	4	3	5	2	1
3	2	4	3	3	2	2	3	2	4	2	4	1	2
4	3	3	4	4	5	2	3	4	5	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	4	4	1	3	5	5	3	5	1	1
2	4	4	3	3	4	3	5	4	4	4	3	1	1
5	2	4	1	5	4	2	4	3	4	3	5	1	1.5
3	4	5	4	4	4	2	5	4	5	5	5	3	1
4	4	5	3	4	3	2	3	3	5	4	5	1	4
5	4	5	4	4	5	2	5	5	5	4	5	3	4
4	4	4	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	4	1	4
4	4	5	5	5	4	2	4	4	5	5	5	1	1
4	4	5	2	4	4	3	5	2	4	5	4	1	1
4	4	5	4	3	4	3	4	4	5	2	4	4	4
4	4	4	3	2	4	2	5	3	4	4	2	1	1
5	2	5	3	5	4	3	5	3	5	3	5	2	1
4	4	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	5	3	5	2	1
3	2	4	5	2	2	2	3	3	5	3	4	2	4
5	5	4	5	4	4	3	5	3	5	5	5	4	4
4	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	5	4	4	4	3	1
4	4	4	4	5	4	3	3	4	5	4	5	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	3	4	3	5	1	4
4	4	4	3	4	4	2	5	3	5	4	5	1	2
5	5	5	4	5	4	1	4	2	4	4	5	4	3
5	5	4	5	5	5	3	5	4	5	4	5	3	1
3	3	2	3	4	2	2	4	1	2	3	4	2	4
5	5	5	4	4	4	2	3	1	5	5	5	1	4
4	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	1	4
4	5	5	2	4	5	3	3	5	5	4	5	1	4
4	3	4	3	5	4	2	2	4	5	4	5	4	1
5	4	4	4	4	4	2	5	2	5	3	5	2	1.5
4	3	4	3	4	4	2	4	4	5	4	4	1	1.5
4	3	4	4	4	4	2	1	2	4	4	4	1	4
4	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	4	5	3	5	2	4
5	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	2	4	3	5	3	4
4	5	4	4	4	4	2	4	1	5	4	5	2	1
4	3	5	3	5	3	3	5	3	5	4	4	1	4
5	5	4	5	2	2	1	5	3	5	4	1	1	4
4	2	4	1	3	4	3	1	1	5	3	4	2	4
4	5	4	2	3	2	2	3	1	5	3	5	2	4
4	4	5	5	5	4	3	3	3	4	2	5	4	4
5	3	5	5	3	5	3	1	5	5	5	5	3	1
3	3	4	4	3	3	3	1	4	2	3	4	1	4
4	5	4	2	3	2	2	3	1	5	3	5	2	1
4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	2	4	4	4	1	4