Volume 3, Issue 2 – Feburary 2016
ISSN 2055-0286

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal

Society for Science and Education
United Kingdom

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

DISCLAIMER

All the contributions are published in good faith and intentions to promote and encourage research activities around the globe. The contributions are property of their respective authors/owners and ASSRJ is not responsible for any content that hurts someone's views or feelings etc.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1790.
Opara, B. C., & Nwulu, S. C. (2016).The Nigeria Hospitality Industry Experience on Customer Relationship Management and Marketing Effectiveness. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 01-08.

The Nigeria Hospitality Industry Experience on Customer Relationship Management and Marketing Effectiveness

Bright C. Opara, PhD
Department of Marketing
Rivers State University of Science and Technology, PMB 5080
Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Stella C. Nwulu
Department of Marketing
Rivers State University of Science and Technology, PMB 5080
Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between Customer Relationship Management (CRM) and Marketing Effectiveness (ME) in the Nigeria Hospitality industry. Structured questionnaire was employed as the instrument for data collection. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient with a threshold of 0.7 was used to test the reliability of the research instrument, which showed CRM as a reliability coefficient of 0.763, while the Marketing Effectiveness is 0.838. The Spearman Rank order Correlation tool was employed to test the study hypotheses, in the SPSS package version 15. The major findings of this study showed that there is positive relationship between CRM and ME. The study also revealed that customer relationship management, and marketing effectiveness significantly impacted on Nigeria hospitality industry performance. Similarly, service automation significantly influenced ME in Nigeria hospitality industry. Since CRM, ME and service automation positively impact on industry performance; to achieve the desired ME in the Nigeria hospitality industry, marketing managers need to attract and retain customers through deliberate and consistent CRM policies and strategies. All staff therefore, should be given adequate marketing management orientation and training that would help to identify and treat customers as kings.

Key: Customer, Relationship, Management, Marketing, Effectiveness.

Concept of Customer Relationship Management

Customer relationship management (CRM) can be appreciated from marketing task; which is to provide real value to target customers, motivate purchase, and satisfy consumer needs. It is important to note that customers are attracted, retained or successfully managed when their needs are met. Customer relationship management consists of the processes a company uses to track and organize its contacts with its current and prospective customers. Darrell et al, (2002) argued that, CRM software is used to support these processes. The software system can be accessed, and information about customers and customer interactions can be entered, stored and also accessed by employees in different company departments. Typical CRM goals are to improve services provided to customers, and to use customer contact information for targeted marketing (Nwokah & Opara, 2004; Opara, et al, 2010; Wali & Opara, 2012).

Swift, (2001) assert that CRM are business activities that identify, quantify, acquire, develop and retain increasingly loyal and profitable customers by delivering the right product or service, to the right customer, through the right channel, at the right time and the right cost. It integrates sales, marketing service, resource planning and supply-chain management functions through business process automation, technology solutions, and information resources to maximize each customer contact. According, to Swift (2001); Adiele & Opara, (2014), perspective of CRM is an enterprise approach to understanding and influencing customer behaviour through meaningful communications in order to improve customer acquisition, customer retention, customer loyalty, and customer profitability.

Concept of Marketing Effectiveness

Marketing effectiveness can be described as the function of improving marketing goal by optimizing their marketing activities to achieve better results for the short and long-term objectives. To increase marketing effectiveness you need to increase business performance with the same or less marketing spending over time. It is important to note that there is no one universal way of measuring marketing effectiveness, however some perspectives are stated below. The four basic dimensions of marketing effectiveness according to Nwokah, (2006) are: Corporate, Competitive, Customers and Exogenous factors. While Richie, (2012) identified five essential strategies for measuring Marketing Effectiveness to include: Plan ahead and design a response-attribution infrastructure to support all channels, Create control groups for a more-accurate measurement of campaign lift, define relevant measurement metrics, define specific attribution rules by campaign, then automate and use visual reporting and analytic tools.

The key for measuring marketing effectiveness is to build a tracking mechanism into each marketing tactic before it is employed. By assigning a unique tracking mechanism to each marketing tactics, you can identify which marketing efforts deliver a positive Return on Investment (ROI) and which ones do not. Here are ten tracking mechanisms that can also be used to measure the effectiveness of marketing: (1) campaign codes, (2) telephone numbers, (3) SMS keywords (text message responses), (4) email addresses (unique email addresses), (5) website landing pages (unique URLs), (6) mail-in response cards, (7) social media interactions (number of comments, likes, shares, connections, follows), (8) online form submissions (unique forms), (9) coupons/certificates/Rebates (presented at point of purchase) and (10) market insight surveys (Kotorov, 2003; Ndubisi, 2004; and Solcansky, & Simberova, 2010).

The challenge marketers have in measuring marketing effectiveness is that the data to support these activities spans across disparate systems. Other challenges include different definitions or business rules for key metrics, like response, across marketing channels (Nwokah, & Opara, 2010; Opara & Opara, 2010). External conditions like competitive, weather, interest rates, gas prices, and others can pose challenging impacts on marketing effectiveness (Nwokah, 2006).

Nature of Hospitality Industry

The hospitality industry is one of the world's major industries, and it is the second largest employer in USA (Richie, 2012). This is not the scenario in Nigeria. People travel for a variety of reasons, including for vacations, business, and visits to friends and relatives. For many of these travelers, hotels and other accommodations may be more than just a place, to stay, but destinations in themselves. The industry includes all types of lodging, from luxurious 5-star hotels to youth hostels and RV parks. While many provide simply a place to spend the night, others provide food service, recreational activities, retail shops such as gift boutiques, newsstands, drug and cosmetics counters, laundry services, swimming pools, beauty salons, and fitness or health centers, and meeting rooms/halls.

In hospitality industry it is easy to set high expectations because guests will not be able to judge the product until after they have consumed it (Solcansky & Simberova, 2010; and Wali, &

Opara, 2012). Customer expectations are based on past experiences, the opinions of friends, and market information; and if we meet customers' expectations they will be satisfied.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

We selected from the population of ten hospitality industry a sample of forty senior managerial personnel randomly drawn from listed functional operating firms in Port Harcourt Metropolis as a case study for Nigeria hospitality industry. The Primary data was generated from structured questionnaire designed to elicit responses relevant to the study. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient with a threshold of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978) was used to test the reliability of the research instrument, which showed CRM as a reliability coefficient of 0.763, while the Marketing Effectiveness is 0.838. The Spearman Rank order Correlation tool was employed to test the study hypotheses, in the SPSS package version 15.

Data Presentation and Analysis

The study presents and analysed the raw data obtained from the field through research questionnaire. Out of 40 administered research questionnaire, 36(90%) were retrieved for the analysis.

The result of Table 1 revealed in row one that 9(28%), 11(34%) and 11(34%) strongly agree, agreed and undecided respectively, with respect to Creating an enabling environment and take advantage of customers' consumption decision; with 3.8 mean.

Row two question two showed that 19(59%) respondents strongly agreed, while 9(28%) agreed, 1(3) undecided, 2(7) Strongly Disagreed and 1(3) Disagreed respectively with mean score of 4.3 to confirmed that brand value for customers is through available information build. On whether customers are treated as king with added value, the record showed 20(62%) strongly, 7(22%) agreed and 5(16%) were indifferent. This percentage of acceptance coupled with the mean score of 4.5 is respondents' affirmation to the question.

The fourth row, on whether quality services helps to build long term relationships with customers, shows 18(56%) strongly agreed, 10(31%) agreed, while 3(10%) were undecided and 1(3%) strongly disagreed with a mean score of 4.4.

Table 1: The Impact of CRM on Firms Performance

S/N	Items	Strongly Agreed (5)	Agreed (4)	Undecided (3)	Strongly Disagreed (2)	Disagreed (1)	Total(s)
Q1	Create an enabling environment and take advantage of customers' consumption decision.	28 9	34 11	34 11	0 -	0 -	3.8 32 .95
Q2	Brand value for customers is through available information	59 19	28 9	3 1	7 2	3 1	4.3 32 1.04
Q3	Customers are treated as king with added value	62 20	22 7	16 5	0 -	0 -	4.5 32 .76
Q4	Quality services helps to build lasting relationship with customers	56 18	31 10	10 3	3 1	0 -	4.4 32 .80

Survey Data 2014

Table 2 is the result of CRM impact on ME, which revealed that row one has 5(16%) strongly agreed, 6(19%) agreed, 10(31%) undecided, 6(18%) strongly disagreed and 5(16%) disagreed with mean score of 3.0. In row two, which indicate that, management job is effective with the marketing resources show 11(35%) strongly agreed and 9(28%) agreed, 8(25%) undecided, and 4(12%) strongly disagreed with a mean value of 3.8.

Table 2: CRM Impact on ME

S/N	Items	Strongly Agreed (5)	Agreed (4)	Undecided (3)	Strongly Disagreed (2)	Disagreed (1)	Total(s)
Q1	Customer Relationship Management impact on Marketing Efficiency	16 5	19 6	31 10	18 6	16 5	3.0 32 1.29
Q2	Management job is effective with the marketing resources	35 11	28 9	25 8	12 4	0 -	3.8 32 1.0
Q3	Marketing at the top communicated and implemented down the line	28 9	25 8	19 6	3 1	25 8	3.6 32 1.5

Survey Data 2014

The last row recorded a mean score of 3.6, 9(28%) strongly agreed, 8(25%) agreed, 6(19%) undecided, 1(3%) strongly disagreed and 8(25%) disagreed to marketing at the top communicating and implementing down the line.

Table 3: Integrated Marketing Efforts Impact on CRM

S/N	Items	Strongly Agreed (5)	Agreed (4)	Undecided (3)	Strongly Disagreed (2)	Disagreed (1)	Total(s)
Q15	Marketing integration Efforts do not impact on CRM	41 13	18 6	41 13	0 -	0 -	4.0 32 .92
Q2	Marking Research does not impact on CRM	44 14	41 13	0 -	12 4	3 1	4.1 32 1.12
Q3.	New product development does not impact on CRM	41 13	53 17	0 -	6 2	0 -	4.3 32 .77

Survey Data 2014

In row one of Table 3, the question on marketing integration efforts and its impact on CRM, the responses showed that 13(41%) strongly agreed and 6(18%) agreed, 13(41%) undecided, and a mean score of 4.0. While the second row recorded 14(44%) for strongly agreed, 13(41%) agreed, 4(12%) strongly disagreed and 1(3%) disagreed with mean of 4.1. Similarly, the mean value for the last row revealed 4.3, strongly agreed 13(41%), 17(53%) agreed, and 2(6%) to new product development impact on CRM. In view of the above results, it is observed that there is a significant relationship between CRM and ME variables.

In table 4, four questions were raised to elicit answers on sales force automation as a dimension of CRM influence on ME. The first row showed a high percentage of occurrence as

14(44%) strongly agreed, 10(31%) agreed and C undecided, and 1(2%) strongly disagreed, for build mechanism to attend to feedback from customers.

Table 4: Sales Force and CRM Impact on ME

S/N	Items	Strongly Agreed (5)	Agreed (4)	Undecided (3)	Strongly Disagreed (2)	Disagreed (1)	Total(s)
Q1	Build mechanism to attend to feedback from customers.	44 14	31 10	22 7	2 1	0 -	4.2 32 .88
Q2	Efficiently manage leads, customers, selling and other activities	50 16	28 9	16 5	6 2	0 -	4.2 32 1.1
Q3.	Sales are well improved through sales force automation	56 18	44 14	0 -	0 -	0 -	4.6 32 .50
Q4.	Effective integration of sales, marketing and services makes the customer the centre of our hotel enterprise.	66 21	25 8	9 3	0 -	0 -	4.6 32 .67

Survey Data 2014

This was further confirmed with a mean value of 4.2. In row two, the question item recorded 16(50%) strongly agreed, 9 (28%) agreed, 5(16%) undecided, and 2(6%) strongly disagreed, with a mean score of 4.2. Similarly, row three showed that 18 (56%) strongly agreed, and 14 (44%) agreed with a mean value of 4.6, on whether sales processes are improved as sales force automation (SFA) is practiced.

Finally, row four showed responses to the question item on influence of effective integration of sales, marketing and customer services to ME, as 21(66%) strongly agreed, 8(25%) agreed and 3(9%) Undecided with 4.6 mean. It can be said that sales force automation has shown to be very significant in the MCR.

HYPOTHESES TESTING

In this section, the study hypotheses are statistically tested and analysed using the SPSS window output version 15.0, with a view of proffering answer to the study problem. We therefore state decision rule that: (a) ±.00 - .19 (very weak), (b) ±.20 -39 (weak), (c) +.40 - .59 (moderate), (d) ±.60 - .79 (strong) and (e) ±.80 -.99 (very strong); lastly, (1) ±.1 (perfect).

Key:
(a) ** = Correlation significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)
(b) * = Correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)
(c) Rho = Spearman Rank order correlation coefficient.

Ho1: ME does not significantly impact on hospitality industry Performance.
Ho2: There is no significant relationship between CRM and hospitality industry Performance.

Table 5: Impact of CRM and ME on Firms Performance

PREDICTOR Variable	Statistical index	Marketing Effectiveness	Firms' Performance
Customer services	Rho	0.383**	0.317*

Survey Data 2014

The results of the hypothesis Ho1 in Table 5, showed Rho of 0.383 and a significant level of 0.01, implying that Marketing Effectiveness significantly impact on Firms' Performance, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.

In the case of Ho2, the Rho value is 0.317 at a significant level of 0.05 which implies it significantly influenced Marketing Effectiveness, but the correlation is weak. It therefore means that Ho2 is rejected; there exist a significant relationship between customer relationship management and Nigeria hospitality industry Performance. It is observed that the relationships between the CRM variables and measure of ME are all positively significant, and the correlation between CRM and ME is strong, as shown by coefficient of 0.716 at significant level of 0.01.

Ho3: Service automation does not significantly influence ME in Nigerian hospitality industry.
Ho4: There is no significance relationship between service automation and CRM.

Table 6: Result of Sales Force Automation and CRM Impact on ME

PREDICTOR Variable	Statistical index	Marketing Effectiveness	Service Automation
Sales force automation	Rho	0.301**	0.463**

Survey Data 2014

The results in table 6 shows Rho of 0.301 for Ho3 and significant at 0.01 level ($P<0.01$), as such hypothesis three is rejected. This means that, Service Automation significantly influenced Marketing Effectiveness in the hospitality industry, but the correlation is weak.

In the case of Ho4, which analyzed the relationship between Service Automation and CRM, the result showed Rho of 0.463 which indicates a positive relationship that is significant at $P<0.05$ level. In view of this, Ho4, is rejected, that is, there is a significant relationship between service automation and CRM.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study was set out to examine the impact of CRM and ME in the Nigerian hospitality industry. Our findings revealed that, CRM and ME significantly impacted on Nigeria hospitality industry performance. Similarly, service automation significantly influenced marketing effectiveness in Nigeria hospitality industry.

The finding is consistent with that of Law et al, (2013) and Oluto et al, (2010). They found that CRM is a combination of policies, processes, and strategies implemented by an organization to unify its customer's interactions and provide a means to track customer's information Operational.

The concept of building relationship is emphasized through CRM as noted in Nwokah, (2006). However, Law et al (2003) relevantly remarked that the goal is to build a profile of loyal and profitable customers with the right philosophy. Hoots, (2004) conclusively opined that effective implementation and management of the existing relationships with consumers and customers will eventually lead to Marketing Effectiveness.

Similarly, Swift (2001) posits that generally, customers' services, campaign management and service automation form the core of the CRM. While he noted that operational CRM provides support to facilitate office business process.

Kotorov, (2003) discovered that Service Automation (SFA) is positively and significantly related with ME. Richie (2012), and Opara et al, (2010), argued that CRM integrates sales, marketing, services, enterprise resource planning and supply-chain management functions through business process automation; just as technology solution and information resources do maximize Marketing Effectiveness. These attributes of Service automation are necessary if a long-term customer relationship is to be enjoyed they opined (Opara & Nwulu, 2009) .

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The findings of this study showed a positive relationship between CRM and ME in Nigeria hospitality industry; and that service automation significantly influenced ME. We conclude that, since CRM, ME and service automation significantly impact on firms' performance in Nigeria hospitality industry; to achieve the desired ME in the Nigeria hospitality industry, marketing managers need to attract and retain customers through deliberate and consistent CRM policies and strategies. It is imperative for hospitality firms to improve on the present ME as to achieve the desired CRM and industry Performance. The Nigeria hospitality industry can achieve this by formulating policies/strategies that will help in acquiring, keeping and growing profitable customer relationships that would deliver superior customer value and satisfaction. We recommend among other things, that all staff be given adequate marketing orientation and training that would identify and treat customers as "Kings".

References

Adiele, C. K. and Opara, B.C. (2014) Physical architecture and customer patronage of banks in Nigeria: An empirical study. African Journal of Marketing Management, 6(8),110-116.

Adiele, C. K. and Opara, B.C. (2014) Analysis of corporate identity on customer patronage of banks in Nigeria. International Review of Management and Business Research, 3(4), 1809-1818.

Darvell, R. K; Reichheld, F. F. and Schefter, P. (2002) Avoid the Four Perils of CRM, Harvard Business Review 8(2), 101-109.

Hoots, M. (2004) Customer Relationship Management for Facility Managers: Journal of Facilities Management, 3(4), 346-361.

Kotorov, R. (2003) Customer Relationship Management: Strategic Lessons and Future Directions, Business Process Management Journal. 9(5), 566-571.

Ndubisi, N. O. (2004) Relationship Marketing and Customer Loyalty, Marketing Intelligence and Planning 25(1), 98-106.

Nwokah, G.N. and Opara, B.C. (2004) Evaluation of the relationship between market orientation and innovation performance. Journal of Business Studies, II(1), 115-125.

Nwokah, N. G. and Opara, B. C. (2010) Total quality marketing and impression management for effective insurance marketing. Oxmosaic Journal of Business Strategy, 1(1), 157-176.

Nwokah, N. G. (2006) Marketing, effectiveness and business performance, Nigeria Journal of Business and Society, 3(2), 15-26.

Nunnally, J. (1978) Psychometric Theory. New York, McGraw-Hill.

Oluto, A. O.; Maclayton, D. W. and Opara, B. C., (2010) An Empirical study of relationship marketing orientation and bank performance. Research Journal of International Studies, Issue 16, 47-57.

Opara, B.C. and Adiele, C. K. (2010). The changing dimensions of relations: A Case study of relationship brand management and public relations. Journals of Knowledge Management, 1(1), 53-63.

Opara, B. C., Olotu, A. O. and Maclayton, D. W. (2010) Analysis of impact of technology on relationship marketing orientation and bank performance. European Journal of Scientific Research, 45(2), 291-300.

Opara, B. C. and Nwulu, S. C. (2009) Impact of relationship marketing on the corporate performance of GSM network service companies. The University Advance Research Journal, Issue 1, 143-154.

Opara , B. C. (2010) Strategic options for firms marketing across national frontiers. American Journal of Scientific Research, Issue 10, 15-25.

Opara, B. C. and Opara, D.N.C. (2010). Analyses of government policies and Nigerian firms' export marketing strategies. International Bulletin of Business Administration, Issue 8, 6 - 17.

Richie, S. (2012) How to Increase Marketing Effectiveness with Measurement. Accessed from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/marketing. (March 2).

Solcansky, M. and Simberova, I. (2010) Measurement of Marketing Effectiveness, Economics and Management, Issue 15, 755-759.

Swift, R.S. (2001) Accelerating Customer Relationships: Using CRM and Relationship Technologies, New Jersey, Prentice- Hall.

Wali, A.F and Opara, B.C. (2012) E-Service quality experience and customer loyalty: An Emphasis of the Nigeria airline operators. European Journal of Business and Social Sciences. 1(9), 118-125.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1795.
Kirui, K. & Osman, A. (2016). Role of Borderless Higher Education for Refugees Programme in Offering Hight Quality Teacher Education and Training for Refugees in Dadaab Settlement in Kenya. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 09-19.

Role Of Borderless Higher Education For Refugees Programme In Offering High Quality Teacher Education And Training For Refugees In Dadaab Settlement In Kenya

Kirui Kipng'etich E. J. (PhD)
Senior Lecturer, Dept of Curriculum Instruction and Education Media
School of Education, Moi University, Eldoret – Kenya.

Ahmed Osman (PhD)
Principal Garissa University College
Constituent College of Moi University, Garissa, Kenya.

Abstract

The purpose of this paper was to describe the role of Borderless Higher Education for Refugees (BHER) initiative in improving access, equity, and quality in professional training and education of refugee un-trained volunteer teachers in Dadaab refugee settlement schools in north eastern Kenya. The quality of refugee education across the world is wanting. Teacher quality for all in refugee camps/settlements is difficult to achieve in many countries that host refugees. Reason is because most international agencies that come to aid of the refugees are mostly concerned with basic humanitarian assistance like health, food and shelter. But teacher quality is a key determinant of students' participation rates and achievement levels. It also remains an important ingredient towards attainment of social justice in terms of equity in educational quality for students. One contributing factor to teacher quality is professional training and education though its availability and quality create inequity for many refugee teachers in their camps. A qualitative review of the role of BHER was focused in this perspective.

Keywords: Teachers training and education, BHER education Project.

INTRODUCTION

Quite a number of countries are already passed the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) goal of Education for All (EFA) that was replaced by Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) in the last quarter of 2015. However, there is a struggle within the refugee circles to achieve 'teacher quality for all', in the refugee settlements in Kenya. Yet teacher quality is one of the key factors determining the participation rates of children in schooling and the quality of their education (Verspoor, 2004; OECD, 2005; Hanushek, 2005). Though indicators of teacher quality are contentious and the methodological problems in comparing their significance considerable (Vignoles, Levacic, Machin, Reynolds & Walker, 2000) there is broad consensus that it is the single most important school variable influencing student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; UNESCO, 2006). It is also an important element in promoting social justice in terms of educational quality in rural and remote areas, where teachers tend to be less qualified than their urban peers and less well-resourced and supported. In recognition of its importance, support for teachers' quality education and training is receiving more attention in the discourse of international and national agencies, for example: Hammarberg (Commissioner for Human Rights, Council of Europe) while addressing World Teachers Conference during World Teachers' Day, on 5th October 2006 said that in our fast-changing world, teachers must be engaged in life-long learning to be able to meet new challenges. It is a grave political contradiction that so much emphasis is being given to the importance of education while so little is being done to give teachers status, support and reward that they require to propel their work to beneficial levels. The professional status of teachers should be recognised as one of the most important in society in enhancing the suitability of school graduates to the society. It is the responsibility of policy-makers and school management to support and empower the teachers in this important role, and to work toward raising their professional status.

Few would disagree with Hammarberg that teachers should be supported and empowered in their professional role though the means of achieving this generates diverse views. Providing an enabling environment (i.e., policy, resources, and support) where teachers have access to relevant professional training opportunities presents governments and planners with huge challenges. 'Training opportunity' here refers, not just to a training event, but to "an experience with an anticipated or inferred learning outcome. Such an experience may be carefully planned and purposefully structured, or it may occur naturally and informally" (Schwille, Dembélé, & Schubert 2007:29). In her review of international literature on teachers' professional development, Villegas-Reimers (2003) concludes that a career long approach to it "requires the transformation of processes and policies that support teachers, their education, their work and their growth in the profession" (p. 141). In other words, it requires system-wide policies and arrangements that are fair, inclusive (open to all teachers), good quality, and affordable.

In Kenya, there has been a tremendous expansion in the education sector in the recent past, thanks to policies like Free Primary Education (FPE) and Subsidised Secondary Education (SSE). The high enrolment rates in both primary and secondary schools have seen the government expand university education by increasing the number of public universities from a conservative figure of seven to current twenty two. The Kenya constitution of 2010 proposes that every county should have at least a public university. The World Bank yet again asserts that for every population of around 500,000 people, there should at least be established university. Based on these scenarios, most universities have expanded out of their traditional enclaves. Moi University expanded to the north eastern part of Kenya by establishing a university college at Garissa. Kenyatta University set up a campus at Dadaab refugee settlement. However, the impetus was halted when the hand of terrorism struck hard at Garissa University College claiming the lives of 142 students. This was a big blow to the families of the young intellectuals and the academic fraternity. Garissa University College remained closed for most part of 2015 until recently when low scale activities were reactivated by the national government. Dadaab Campus scaled down their operations and it under 24 hour security surveillance and even educators on BHER programme are given tight security escort to and fro the campus. This makes provision of education here a very expensive undertaking. Other security concerns here saw the giant teachers' unions (KNUT and KUPPET) in Kenya withdraw their members from this volatile region. This has left thousands of school going children unattended putting their future at stake. In fact some observers have said that as long as these refugee youths are left idle, they will always be kept busy by criminals out to expend their energies through radicalisation to terrorism.

To be able to overcome challenges where such disruption take place, OERs and ICT have the potential to support education policies as has been demonstrated in both developing and industrialised countries (Robinson & Latchem, 2003; Perraton, Robinson & Creed, 2007). Without OERs and ICT, some of the improvements so far achieved in teacher quality would not have been possible, especially in developing countries. The growth of ICT has added new options for teachers' training and professional development (Collis & Jung, 2003; Unwin 2005;

Leach, Ahmed, Makalima, & Power, 2006) as well as raised concerns about the inclusion of disadvantaged groups like refugees settled in north eastern Kenya.

The biggest challenge has been to equip the refugee teacher volunteers in Dadaab settlement who are teaching in schools run by international agencies. The scenario that has given an impetus to this desire for training of teachers is the recent expression by the Kenya government to return all refugees to their home countries following their perceived participation in terrorism activities that saw not only teachers unions withdrawing their staff but also several other workers both in the government and private sectors left the region paralysing essential services to the people of this region. Prof Don Dopp remarked that the training will make the returnees to be in charge of education and more curriculum development in their countries of origin when they go back. He said that it will be a big catastrophe to send back these people without these skills so that they are able to settle back well.

Because of the huge challenges of getting the necessary professional teacher educators who are willing to go and offer teaching services at this region, the big question is: how can the uses of OER and ICT support goals of social justice for refugees in teacher education among the refugees in Dadaab in north eastern Kenya? What kind of criteria should be used in judging the achievement of these refugee teachers?

From the above perspective, there was need to examine pertinent questions on BHER's programme in the context insecurity, financing acceptability and the effective professional development of the teacher currently working as volunteers in the many agency schools within Dadaab refugee settlement. It begins with a brief description of the project, and then examines the broader issue of refugee teachers' rights to professional training/development (i.e., the policy context in which any teacher education sits). There is a need to take a peek into what contributions Open educational Resources (OER) and Information Communication and Technology (ICT) play in meeting the programme's outcomes.

BHER programme at Dadaab's refugee settlement

Dadaab refugee camps lie in the north-eastern part of Kenya, in Garissa County, approximately 100 Kilometres south of the Kenya-Somali border. This is a settlement of some sorts and is made up of six different camps housing over half a million people. It was established in 1992 as a temporary camp for refugees who were fleeing Somalia after a war broke out following the toppling of Siad Barre as the president. The temporariness has become a permanent feature in Kenya's geo-political and social landscape.

In recent years, Dadaab has captured the attention of an innovative consortium of universities in Kenya and Canada. These universities are Moi University, Kenyatta University and African Virtual University from Kenya and York University and University of British Columbia (UBC) from Canada. The consortium created Borderless Higher Education for Refugees, known as BHER, whose aim is to provide formal training to the many of untrained volunteer teachers who already teach in the various schools in camp.

Despite the time-honoured presence of the encampment, Dadaab refugees have little opportunity for integration into Kenyan economies. With the exception of a few "incentive jobs" offered by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), refugees are not allowed to work in Kenya and they rely on international aid for their basic needs. Dadaab refugees are also not allowed to move beyond the camps without a permit, limiting their freedom of mobility and making them, in effect, prisoners within the camps. "Without access to higher education, the choice of occupations is very limited for refugee youth. The alternatives for young men and women are in very precarious forms of employment such as working for a militia, working for the pirates, drug running, working as a prostitute," says Professor Wenona Giles. Professor Giles and Professor Don Dippo, both from York University in Toronto (Canada) and Professor Too Jackson of Moi University, Kenya, lead the Borderless Higher Education for Refugees (BHER). Though still in its first phase (the first cohort of secondary school teachers have just been admitted), BHER is developing the world's first programme to provide innovative, equitable, and internationally accredited university education to encamped refugees.

The BHER team is comprised of a global consortium of NGOs and academic institutions committed to improving the quality and accessibility of education for refugees. At present, they administer education initiatives with refugees along the Thai-Burma border and are already running programmes within the Dadaab refugee camps (that comprise Hagadera, Dagahaley, Dadaab and Ifo). The impetus behind the Dadaab branch of BHER came from Dr Marangu Njogu of Windle Trust Kenya, the NGO responsible for running secondary schools in the Dadaab refugee camps. The founder was exasperated by the limited education in the camps. He therefore envisioned a new programme that would provide teacher training for primary and secondary school teachers in order to improve the overall quality of education in Dadaab. In 2008, pursuit of this vision led him to Philip Landon, African Director of the World University Service of Canada (WUSC), an organization best known for offering scholarships for refugees to study at various Canadian universities. As Giles shares, "WUSC was also interested in expanding what they could do beyond individual scholarships". Giles goes ahead to say that scholarships tend to be more of a drop in the sea, "there are not many for the number of refugees that need them most." So, in 2008, Landon and Njogu travelled to York University in Toronto, a WUSC partnership university with a specialized research centre focused on refugee issues. It was there they met with Professor Giles and Professor Dippo, both of the Centre for Refugee Studies.

Intended Recipients of the Programme

The programme targets various groups of all refugees. The majority of cases in the BHER programme now are refugees from Somalia. There are also those from Ethiopia, and South Sudan. Out of the overall amount of students attending the courses through BHER, 75% are refugees, while 25% are local students.

It is instructive to note that at the same time, the target group of this project are young women. This is a focus on gender equality because usually women do not even attend secondary schools and therefore hardly qualify for the higher education programme offered through BHER. This project aims at involving them. There was a projection of a 30% women enrolment in the first year group and 40% in the second phase.

Essential Enablers for the Programme

Besides the partners involved in the project, strong support is given by the UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees). As well as others, they have provided computers and assisted in the construction of the Dadaab campus. The government (of Kenya) as well gives full support to the project, besides others by donating the land where the campus has been built. The government of Somalia has worked with Kenya and UNHCR on the situation.

Programme Challenges

The main challenge of the project is security. Throughout many meetings that the consortium had, there was always a threat of terror. These problems also caused a certain delay in the timeline of the project. To prevent these, police usually escort the partner members throughout their stay in the refugee camps.

Another challenge is gender imbalance. It is very hard to find women with the required score for admission at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) to secure enrolment to start this course. For one to qualify to train as a teacher for primary school, they are required to a score a mean grade of 'C' and above and any grade below this is not good enough to enter higher education, more so as a teacher.

Yet again, it is a big challenge to keep students in the programme. Currently, there are grants for students (scholarships) that work on the individual level ('who gets a scholarship is saved'). This is why this project is trying to work on the inclusivity, group work, teaching them on how to work with each other and how to help each other in the process.

Finally, taking into account the situation in the camps, one big problem is the fact that students do not usually have electricity at home. To work on this issue, the project also started a smaller initiative which works on collecting money (crowd funding) to buy solar lamps. Each student enrolled in the programme has benefitted from a solar lamp.

BHER PROGRAMME DESIGN

Phase 1 – Increased access and Skills for Tertiary Education (InSTEP)

Potential learners will initially enrol in a university preparation programme called the Increased access and Skills for Tertiary Education (InSTEP). Its purpose is to prepare prospective students for university education through courses in English Language for Academic Purposes, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Research Skills. It will run as a school based programme, i.e., when schools are not in session like in August, December and April. The programme accommodates a cohort of 200 students in any given year. Windle Trust Kenya and WUSC deliver this programme.

Phase 2-A – Completion Educational Studies (Elementary)

Students who elect to proceed with their studies (after InSTEP) will be admitted to the one year Certificate of Completion in Education Studies (CES). Courses will incorporate both current theory and local knowledge, and will be sensitive to and appropriate for the context within which the Certificate is being offered. Both participants and their instructors will be challenged to creatively find and develop resources that can be used to support teaching and learning in the camp context. The Certificate programme is offered by York University.

Phase 3-A – Teacher Education Diploma (Primary) (DTE-P)

Students who complete CES successfully may choose to undertake the Teacher Education Diploma (Primary) (DTE-P). The courses that make up the Diploma programme will be university unit courses that will be transferable to other degree programmes, are recognized by local education authorities, and will support untrained teachers in developing the knowledge, skills, abilities that will help them become effective educators at the primary school level. The DTE-P is offered by the School of Education at Kenyatta University.

Phase 2 & 3-B – Teacher Education Diploma (Secondary) (DTE-S)

As an alternative to the Teacher Education Diploma (Primary), students completing InSTEP may be admitted to a two year Diploma in Teacher Education (Secondary) (DTE-S). This programme is offered by Moi University in collaboration with the University of British Columbia.

Phase 4 – Degree Programmes

Upon successful completion of the DTE-P or DTE-S, students may elect to follow Bachelor degree programmes (currently under development) in the following areas to be offered by the BHER partner universities: Community Health Professional, Community Development and Extension Studies, Public Policy and Administration, Human Rights and Equity Studies and Liberal Arts.

It is also important to take into account that the students in Kenya are following these courses simultaneously with other students in Canada. That is the reason why ICT course offered at Phase 1 – InSTEP is very relevant because this course is more of Distance Learning.

PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY

Taking into account that this is an on-going project, the results are not possible to be measured. However, for now the project is working very well and one of the best indicators is the fact that the model used is being recognised as effective and for example UNHCR is monitoring it closely in order to take this model on board of their other activities.

Since the facilities are one of the main expenses, the system is sustainable following this initial period and should be able to run the full course. As soon as the bridging programme (Phase 1) was announced, BHER received 500 applications and admitted 187 students. Three-quarters of them are refugees from Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia and Chad, and one-quarter are Kenyan nationals who are also living in the Daadab refugee camps (as teachers from the rest of the country or living close by the camps and want to take the opportunity given).

Students range in age from 18 to 50, with most in their 20s. Although the consortium is mandated to attract more women to the programme, at this point fewer than one in five is female. Modelled on university transition programmes, InStep aims to bring students up to university level by offering three components: English for academic purposes; research methods; and computer skills. Since refugee teachers cannot afford to give up the small wage they earn teaching at the camp, the courses are taught intensively during the school holiday months of August, April, and December, as mentioned earlier.

Professor Dopp of York University on observing the first batch of students said that students are finding the first month of bridging demanding and challenging, but they are pleased with the rigour. The first cohort started their bridging programme in August, 2014.

The university consortium, partnering with World University Service of Canada (WUSC), Windle Trust Kenya and other non-profit organizations, secured $4.5 million in funding from the Canadian International Development Agency, as well as partnership development grants and additional support from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council. York and UBC are also foregoing tuition to offer the programmes on a cost-recovery basis.

Students who complete the bridging programme are eligible to take either an elementary teaching diploma offered by Kenyatta University in partnership with York or a high school teaching programme offered by Moi University in partnership with UBC. The UBC-Moi programme started at the camps' campus in August 2015, with a first cohort of about 60 students. York's courses are offered to Dadaab and York students at the same time. "While a prof is teaching in Toronto it will be online in camp, and then he'll go to the camp and it will be online at Toronto," explained Dr. Giles. Students on these programmes in Dadaab and York University will interact through discussion boards and online video and lessons.

Both UBC and York have been sending professors to teach part of the courses in the camps, with long-established contingency plans to teach the courses online if the environment is unsafe. "We were already preparing courses that can be delivered online if need be," said Dr. Giles.

There has seen decreased stability in the camps since September 2011, due to flooding in Somalia and political crises, but that such challenges provide even more reasons to offer initiatives that keep students and their teachers focussed on a positive future: "We do think that our BHER programmes offer a good alternative to joining militia groups like the Al-Shabaab" which, incidentally, means "youth" or "youth movement."

For WUSC, the BHER project was a natural fit with the organization's mandate to help vulnerable women and youth. WUSC recently celebrated 35 years of its programme to sponsor refugees to attend a year of university in Canada.

Women in refugee camps face complex barriers to complete an education, said Tom Tunney, WUSC's senior manager of youth and community engagement. "Girls, if they are able to attend school, are also responsible for household chores, so their only time to study is in the evening when there's no electricity." WUSC and other groups started raising funds for solar lamps to overcome that particular obstacle. But cohort progression rate is very low i.e. there are presently two women on DTE (S) at the Dadaab Campus.

These hardships are apparent on the ground, say BHER organizers who have visited the Dadaab camps. "You'll have five kids crammed at a desk looking at one very old and tattered, worn textbook," said Rita Irwin, associate dean of teacher education in UBC's faculty of education.

She and her UBC colleagues were impressed by the dedicated students learning without resources we take for granted. For example, high school physics students are asked to imagine what a Bunsen burner is. The first time they will use one is the day they are tested, performing an experiment on an instrument they had never seen.

But with certifications and perhaps university diplomas down the road, access to university-level instruction may give students an opening once they return to their home countries. The creators of BHER hope that Dadaab may be a model for similar programmes in other camps and countries. This is because "We see a direct connection between higher education and peace building," said Dr Giles. "Like our Kenyan partners and other Canadian partners, we think education is the basis for building better countries, for moving away from militarization to productive ways to earning a living." Prof. Dippo, "beyond secondary education, most refugees all around the world in refugee camps have practically no access to higher education." The inconsistency or unavailability of quality education for refugees stems largely from the fact that education is not prioritized within the array of emergency responses in refugee situations.

Funding from NGOs and international agencies tend to go toward the most basic survival needs like food rations, shelter, and emergency health care. This problem is exponentially compounded, however, by the increasing lengths of refugee situations.

Dadaab's Community Involvement

At the heart of BHER is the community involvement in the programme for them to own it. The programme used participatory approach model. The BHER team at Dadaab recruited refugees and local Kenyans to act as their watchdog on the ground. The recruited team worked through 2012 and they spoke extensively with individuals and focus groups. This provided a comprehensive picture of how the residents of Dadaab would like their education system to take shape. With this input, BHER then planned the Dadaab refugees' courses from partnership universities via a combination of internet, DVD, and on-site learning. The first cohort of BHER students are those already teaching in the primary and secondary schools in Dadaab, most of whom cannot afford lengthy periods of time off to upgrade their skills. Studying via BHER's flexible delivery framework allows the teachers to upgrade their skills without sacrificing their income. It also enabled them to apply the new materials that they are learning into their primary and secondary school classrooms. By this arrangement, BHER will improve the quality of education for the children and youth of Dadaab while opening the door for teachers to gain post-secondary qualification. The certificates will helped them be licensed to teach in Kenya and more importantly get employment in their countries of origin when they repatriate. Community engagement by BHER has increased naturally as the programme matures. This engagement has helped to keep teaching methods relevant to the community-specific cultural and social needs, as well as provided more opportunities for people who live there to participate in the project in more important and meaningful ways.

Working toward Equity

BHER was intended to meet the educational needs of Dadaab's refugees but the programme is fully accessible to Kenyan nationals whether of Somali descent or other communities. This is important because while Dadaab's refugees and Kenyans live in similarly dire conditions of poverty, refugees are eligible to receive international aid in the form of food rations or healthcare, while the local Kenyan residents are not; a fact that has been an on-going point of contention in the community. "They are living in a situation that is structured in very glaring unfairnesses," points Professor Dippo. Given these inequities, Dippo was initially surprised at the ease with which the Dadaab locals and refugees worked together during BHER's two week community researcher training session in Nairobi. Giles offered an explanation of her own that the thing about education is that it brings people together.

Giles and Dippo admit, however, that while inter-group relations between Kenyan citizens and refugees is more amicable than they had anticipated, gender discrimination in the community is still severe and pervasive. For instance, UNHCR data from 2012 indicates that only 26.5% of school-age girls attend primary schools. At the secondary school level the percentage of school-age girls enrolled drops to only 3.7%. The dearth of education for girls aggravates their marginalization in the community as it limits their access to employment and scholarships for further schooling. This is a problem BHER hopes to redress. "You can't just declare you're getting equal participation and then get it. Even in order to begin to make the smallest shift in the gender dynamics, women are going to have an awful lot of challenges," says Dippo.

In an effort to move toward more equal representation, the BHER project plans to incrementally increase the proportion of women in their programme each year. By training more women teachers through the BHER programme, it will strengthen the role of women in education and provide academic role models for younger girls in the primary and secondary schools. BHER stresses the need for innovation and flexibility in the delivery of education for women and girls. "It's a lot of navigation and a lot of listening," says Giles. As Dippo shares, the education of girls has often been seen as a lesser priority than that of boys. Indeed, girls' education has often been constrained by domestic duties, early marriages, safe transportation, or even a lack of sanitary napkins. BHER will offer things like MP3 players for at-home study and buses for safe transport, while keeping student security a top priority. "Whatever it is that is offered as an explanation for why the participation rate of girls is low, we have to be prepared to shift what we're doing around in order to address it," says Dippo. According to Giles, the community participation has been crucial in formulating different ways to optimize inclusivity in learning initiatives. For instance, the community's in the Dadaab context suggests that a women's only computer lab will help foster a safer, comfortable, and conducive learning environment.

The New Scholars Network (NSN) will also play an important role in providing support to women in the BHER programme through their online student mentoring programme. The NSN will be teaming up with BHER to provide one-on-one mentoring to students in the Dadaab camps, pairing them up with students and scholars from across the globe. Access to academic role models and peers is especially important for the young women of Dadaab, who face an uphill battle in accessing education. Dippo is also quick to point out the reciprocity of the mentorship relationship, suggesting that, "Given the online modality that technologies like Skype offer, I think it could be very, very productive and very satisfying for both parties."

References

Alberta Teachers Association (2004). Teachers' Rights and Responsibilities. Declaration of rights and responsibilities for teachers. Retrieved May 19, 2007 from: http://www.teachers.ab.ca/Albertas+Education+System/Teaching+in+Alberta/Teachers+Rights+and+Responsibilities/

Asha, K. & Stamenka, U. T. (2015). A Basic Guide to Open Educational Resources (OER). Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Beiter, K. D. (2006). The protection of the right to education by international law. Leiden: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.

Carnine, D. (1992) Expanding the notion of teachers' rights: Access to tools that work. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 25(1), 13-19.

Collis, B., & Jung, I. (2003). Uses of information and communication technologies in teacher education. In B. Robinson & C. Latchem. (Eds). Teacher education through open and distance learning (pp. 171-192). London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher Quality and Student Achievement: A review of State Policy 2000. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 8(1). Retrieved May 24, 2006 from: http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v8n1/

EU-China GBEP. (2005). External evaluation report on the Impact of ICT Training. Lanzhou, Gansu: EU-China GBEP Project Office.

EU-China GBEP. (2005). External evaluation report on the impact of ICT training. Lanzhou, Gansu: EU-China GBEP Project Office.

EU-China GBEP. (2006). Action, innovation and progress: In the footsteps of the EU-China Gansu Basic Education Project. Lanzhou, Gansu: EU-China GBEP Project Office.

Farnham, C. (8 September 2011). Induction Course for Commonwealth Diplomats: Transforming Learning through Open Educational Resources. Sir John Daniel Commonwealth of Learning.

Hanushek, E. A. (2005). Economic outcomes and school quality 2005. Paris and Brussels: The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and International Academy of Education (IAofE).

Hon-Chan, Chai, & Mukherjee, H. (2003). Policy, planning and management of distance education for teacher education. In Robinson, B. and Latchem, C. (Eds.) Teacher education through open and distance learning (pp. 48-71). London:.RoutledgeFalmer.

Johnson, J., & Strange, M. (2005). Why Rural Matters 2005: The facts about rural education in the 50 states. Arlington, VA.: Rural School and Community Trust.

Leach, J., Ahmed, A., Makalima, S., & Power, T. (2005). DEEP Impact: An investigation of the use of information and communication technologies for teacher education in the global south. London: Department for International Development.

Nkamba, M., & Kanyika, J. (1998). The Quality of Education: Some policy suggestions based on a survey of schools: Zambia. SACMEQ Policy Research: Report No. 5. Paris: International Institute of Educational Planning, UNESCO.

OECD. (2005). Teachers Matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers. 2005. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Perraton, H., Robinson, B., & Creed, C. (Eds.) (2007). International case studies of teacher education at a distance. Oldenburg: Bis-Verlag der Carl von Ossietsky Universität Oldenburg.

Robinson, B. (2006). Internal evaluation report on Component 1: Basic Education Quality Support. EU-China Gansu Basic Education Project (ALA/CHN/98/4). Lanzhou: Gansu.

Robinson, B., & Latchem, C. (Eds.) (2003). Teacher education through open and distance learning. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Robinson. B., & Yi, Wenwu. (2008). The role and status of non-governmental ('daike') teachers in China's rural education. International Journal of Educational Development 28(1), 35-54.

Rivkin, S., Hanushek, E., & Kain, J. (2005). Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. Econometrica, 73(2), 417-458.

Schwille, J., Dembélé, M., & Schubert, J. (2007). Global perspectives on teacher learning: Improving policy and practice. Fundamentals of Educational Planning, 84. Paris: UNESCO.

Sir John Daniel, President and CEO of the Commonwealth of Learning. (2012). Paper on Transforming Learning through Open Educational Resources. UNESCO's World Conference on Open Educational Resources to be held in Paris on 20-22 June, 2012.

Tomaševski, K. (2004). Manual on Rights-based Education: Global human rights requirements made simple. Bangkok: UNESCO Bangkok.

Tomaševski, K. (2003). Education Denied: Costs and remedies. London and New York: ZED Books.

UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2006). Teachers and Educational Quality: Monitoring global needs for 2015. Montreal: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

United Nations (1976). The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. ICESCR. Twenty-First Session of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: The right to education. Retrieved February 19, 2008 from: http://www.unhchr.ch/tbs/doc.nsf/(symbol)/E.C.12.1999.10.En?OpenDocument

Unwin, T. (2005). Towards a framework for the use of ICT in teacher training in Africa. Open Learning, 20(2), 113-129.

Verspoor, A. (2004). The Challenge of Learning: Improving the quality of basic education in sub-Saharan Africa. Paris: Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA).

Vignoles, A., Levacic, R., Machin, S. Reynolds, D., & Walker, J. (2000). The Relationship Between Resource Allocation and Pupil Attainment: A review. DfEE Research Report No. 228, London: DfEE.

Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). Teacher Professional Development: An international review of the literature. Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.

APPENDIX A: LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED

- BHER –Borderless Higher Education for Refugees
- CNN – Cable News Network
- COL - Commonwealth of Learning
- DRM - Digital Rights Management
- DTE – P - Teacher Education Diploma - Primary
- DTE – S - Teacher Education Diploma - Secondary
- EFA – Education for All
- FPE – Free Primary Education
- InSTEP - Increased access and Skills for Tertiary Education
- KCSE – Kenya Certificate for Secondary Education
- KNUT – Kenya National Union of Teachers
- KUPPET – Kenya Union of Post Primary Education Teachers
- MDG – Millennium Development Goals
- MIT - Massachusetts Institute of Technology
- NGOs – Non Governmental Organisations
- NSN - New Scholars Network
- SDG – Sustainable Development Goals
- SSE – Subsidised Secondary Education
- TESSA - Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
- UBC – University of British Columbia
- UNESCO – United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
- UNHCR – United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- WUSC - World University Service of Canada

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1729.
Okyere-Kwakye, E., & Nor, K. M. (2016). The Effect of Socio-Cultural Diversity on Knowledge Sharing. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 20-28.

The Effect of Socio-Cultural Diversity on Knowledge Sharing

Eugene Okyere-Kwakye
Faculty of Management and Human Resource Development
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Skudai, Johor Bahru

Khalil Md Nor
Faculty of Management and Human Resource Development
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Skudai, Johor Bahru

Abstract

Knowledge sharing, perhaps knowledge management tops the headlines of todays' organizational news. As the old adage goes "knowledge cannot be found in one man's head"; therefore, employees should share their knowledge. While individuals in organizations might be cognizance with the strength in diversity and the significance of sharing their experiences, it is no news that employees loath the act of sharing their knowledge especially to people of different social group. This issue has been examined by many researchers. As the behavior individuals' exhibit in varied circumstances hinges greatly on the social environment in which they find themselves, their level of participation or willingness towards sharing knowledge might also not be different. Thus, we hypothesize those certain socio cultural factors: nepotism, tribalism, openness to diversity and cronyism may have influence on individuals' knowledge sharing behavior.

Keywords: Cronyism, Nepotism, Tribalism, Openness to Diversity, Knowledge Sharing

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge management, more specifically, knowledge sharing has been interpretated as one of the very important features that help creating value and clinching success for an organization (Lahti and Beyerlein (2000). In this current era, most firms such as Xerox, IBM, Federal Express, Honda and others have made a pragmatic strategy swing from hardware based to knowledge based (Alavi and Leidner, 2001). Researchers suggested that organizations are benefiting from implementing knowledge management paraphernalia as it improves efficiency and effectiveness.

There is a Ghanaian adage that, "Knowledge or wisdom cannot be found in one persons mind". This adage suggests that comparing and sharing different thoughts and ideas is always better. Ghana is seen to be one of the countries in African that has rich cultures with almost about thirty two (32) ethno-tribal lines. Diversity is seen to be strength for a country's development but with Ghana it is seen as a detriment. The post political independence era of the nation's history has seen the ripple effect of diversity where citizens in the country have been divided based on ethnic and tribal lines. It is believe that individuals who are polarized on ethnic grounds would also extend it to work places where knowledge, experiences and other ideas would be exchange based on cultural sentiments.Prior studies have extensively investigate on knowledge sharing; however, only few studies have deductively looked at the influence of these social-cultural factors; nepotism, tribalism, cronyism, and openness to diversity on knowledge sharing. A study on this gap may shed further lights on the reasons why employees feel reluctant to share their knowledge to people from other culture, belief and orientation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Knowledge, Knowledge Management And Knowledge Sharing

Defining knowledge has been of a puzzle since time in memorial. Some researchers have categorized it based on the relationship that it has with data and information (Fahey and Prusak, 1998). Moreover, other writers have made a conscious effort to define it. Knowledge is an acceptable truth (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Another researcher sees knowledge as "a fluid mixed of flamed experience, values, contextual information and expert insight" (Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

Verily, because defining knowledge is quiet exigent, perhaps some researchers have classified it based on the relationship that it has with data and information. Thus it is quite imperative to discuss the distinction between knowledge, information and data. According to Becerra-Fernandez (2004) data are raw facts and figures of an object or event. This defines data as something "crude" i.e. something with no comprehension or insight. Contrastingly, information is data that have insight, context, relevance and can be manipulated. According to Becerra-Fernandez et al., (2004), knowledge, information and data are of the same hierarchy but knowledge is the worthiest among them. Knowledge is needed to make meanings out of data (Becerra-Fernandez et al, 2004).

According to Bhatt (1998), knowledge management is to utilize, discover, distribute and absorb internal and external knowledge of the organization through management tools to achieve foreseeable outcome. Its importance to an organization is multi-functional. The idea was first used by Karl Wiig when he was addressing the United Nation's International Labour Organization in 1986. In another definition, knowledge management can be termed as the act of finding, selecting, sharing information and providing expertise essential for organizational activities (Gupta et al, 2000).

Barriers of knowledge sharing

Factors that bare the activities of knowledge sharing can be categorized into three i.e., individual, organisational and technological. On the individual factors, Riege (2005) proposes that to share tacit knowledge, individuals need to have experience and the need for constant interaction between the parties. Lack of ample time frame of exchange between the receiver and the sender of the knowledge was also identified as a barrier. Lack of good communication and lack of interpersonal skills are identified as factors that influence individuals' knowledge sharing behavior. Moreover, Riege (2005) posit trust as one of the most important factors that influence individuals to share their knowledge. In another literature review work examining individual factors and knowledge sharing concluded that reciprocity, self-efficacy, altruism, personality, and Machiavellianism have a positive significant effect on knowledge sharing (Ben-Ner et al, 2002; Okyere-kwakye et.al 2011; Endres et.al 2007; Lin 2008).

Also, the following literatures argue that an individual is knowledge sharing behavior is affected by demographical factors. A study conducted by Miller and Karakowsky (2000) denotes that there are differences among women and men when soliciting knowledge. Women are found to exert more effort in seeking knowledge than men. Pangil and Nashrudin (2008) indicate that gender has an influence on how individuals share their knowledge. Imar, Bordia and Abusah (2005) suggest that females share more knowledge than men because women benefit from sharing their knowledge. Also a study by Gumus (2007) found that age has an influence on knowledge sharing. Keyes (2008) also discovered that there is a correlation between a person's age and knowledge sharing.

Using virtual communities, Chiu et al (2006) conducted a study to investigate the factors that enhance individuals' motivation of knowledge sharing. This research shows that social interaction ties, reciprocity, and identification increase individuals' quantity of knowledge sharing but not knowledge quality. Meanwhile, in their study, trust does not have a significant relationship with knowledge sharing quality. In another related studies on community of practice and knowledge sharing, Huang et al (2008) found that there is a positive significant relationship between the individual cognitive factors, environmental factors such as trust, self-efficacy and IS success and individuals intentions to share knowledge in a virtual communities.

On the organisational factors a study conducted by Lau et al. (2008) indicates that organization team innovation climate and job characteristics have a significant influence on knowledge sharing. A research conducted by Tsai (2001) suggests that organizational climate and individuals goals have a significant influence on knowledge sharing. In addition, the results of the study indicated that goal setting can influence individuals' self-efficacy and self-regulation. In another study, Lin (2008) attempts to investigate the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior, gender and knowledge sharing in workplace using five constructs i.e., altruism, courtesy, consciousness and civic virtues as organizational citizenship behavioral factors (OCB) and gender as a moderating factor. The study unveils that altruism for women to share knowledge is stronger than men. However, the construct courtesy and sportsmanship on knowledge sharing are stronger for men as compared to women.

Govindasama (1999) conducted a research on factors affecting organizational commitment of knowledge workers in Malaysia using the constructs: knowledge sharing practices, task orientation, and fairness of performance management, promotion, opportunity of training and development and compensation. The results show that training and development and compensation system have a significant influence on the commitment of knowledge workers. However, the effect of organizational practice and fairness of performance management was not supported. In another study Liao et al (2004) investigates' employee relationship and knowledge sharing. Questionnaire was used to collect the data from the respondents. They concluded that the success of knowledge sharing in an organization does not only depend on technologies but also on individuals behaviour.

In a literature study, Oliver and Kandadi (2006) attempt to investigate the factors that may influence the development of knowledge management culture in organizations. They suggest ten factors that have positive influence on the development of knowledge culture. These factors are: leadership, organizational structure, evangelization, communities of practice, reward systems, time allocation, business processes, recruitment, infrastructure and physical attributes.

A study conducted by Hoegl and Schulze (2005) examine the relationship between organizational knowledge creation process i.e., socialization, internalization and the generation of new ideas. The research concludes that there is a significant relationship between knowledge creation and the process of generating new ideas.

On the effect of technological factors on knowledge sharing, Lee & Al-Hawamdeh (2002) suggest that technology is the basic prerequisite of knowledge sharing. Technology is the means by which knowledge is exchanged and transferred from one point to the other. In essence technology acts as the life wire for information flow in the organization (Gurteen, 1999). Identifying the technological factors that influence knowledge sharing, Riege (2005) proposes 7 technological barriers that hinder people from sharing knowledge which include:

1. Lack of information technology process and system integration which limit employees to work.
2. Lack of internal and external technology support.
3. Unrealistic expectation what technology can do and cannot do.
4. Mismatch between technological needs, systems integration and information
5. technology processes.
6. Reluctant to use information technology because of unfamiliarity.
7. Lack of training to get use to new information technology systems and processes.
8. Lack of communication and usage of new system advantages compared to current system.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social Categorization Theory

Social Categorization Theory states that individuals seek to attain and preserve their desired self identity by joining groups or sub-groups based on shared characteristics such as identical skin colour, language, ethnicity and culture (Carte and Chidambaram, 2004). As a result of this cleavage, individuals with dissimilar characteristics will be neglected and seen unappealing to commune with (Mor-Barak& Cherin,1998; Loden and Rosener, 1991). Based on this groups people may see themselves to be part of the caucus and the dissimilar people to be out of the group which will consequensely culminate biases towards the similar group members. In a similar context, Stephenson and Lewin (1996) also state that, individuals generally prefer to interact with others of the same gender or race. The theory of categorization highlights the premise that an individual would like to always attached himself or herself to others who have similar features such as skin colour, eye colour and other visible outlook other would also make a cleavage base on language, culture and other inconspicuous features. Lots of research in the diversity domain mostly used SCT as its underpinning theory. This study selects the SCT as a theoretical support for the constructs tribalism, openness to diversity, nepotism, and cronyism which seem to have their bases from social categorization theory. SCT seems suitable to be used as a supportive theory for this study.

Research framework and Hypotheses development

The research framework in Figure 1 is formulated based on review of previous studies that portray these factors (tribalism, openness to diversity, nepotism and croynism) to be important factors of knowledge sharing. These factors were selected based on their relationship with Social Categorization Theory (SCT). Four variables are chosen to represent the four hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, and H4) in the research model and would be empirically tested. The next paragraphs present discussion that supports development of the hypotheses in the research model.

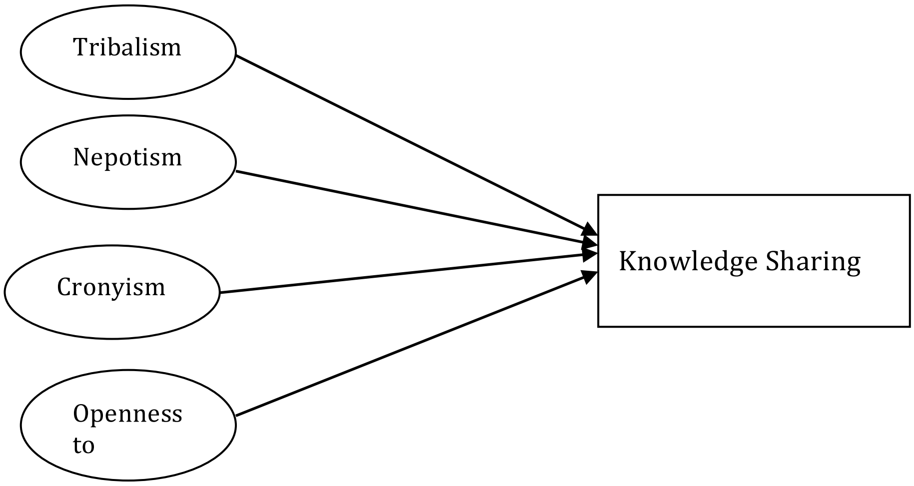


Figure.1 A proposed research model of relationship between nepotism, tribalism, cronyism, openness to diversity and knowledge sharing.

METHODOLOGY

Tribalism

Tribalism has been an issue of concern since time in memorial. It is no news that currently social commentators and other sociological researchers consider its existence as a rage to society and the world as a whole. Looking at the predicament in Yugoslavia, flashback on the brutes of Rwanda i.e., Hutus and tosses ethnic cleansing and the revolution of the Biasa war in Nigeria, not to even mention the war between the Abudus and the Adanis in Ghana illustrates the contribution of tribalism to the problems of this world.

The term tribalism has received numerous attentions but it is quite unfortunate that only a few literatures can be found on the relationship between tribalism, nepotism and knowledge sharing. Tribalism is a group of individuals who share the same culture, identity and security (Jawhar, 2005; Nauta et al., 2001). The term tribalism was originated from the word tribe which represent a group of people with the same appearance who share the same culture and identity. Due to the resemblance in the appearance, culture and other identities, members of the tribe may strive hard to make sure that the culture, name, and other atheistic of the tribe survives notwithstanding the level of education or status (Price and Cybulski, 2007).

Knowledge sharing is the transfer of ideas, experience and expertise from one point to the other. Researchers have identified that individuals, to some extent consider their knowledge as power or a commodity for which lend them to put certain factors into consideration when sharing. Hutcheon (2009) may put it that individuals feel good when sharing and serving in the mist of his or her people. He continues to argue that people may sacrifice even their life to preserve the life of their offsprings and the other family members' offspring for tribal perpetuation. Looking at it from a broader view, one can argue that in an organization, individuals may tend to easily share their experience, ideas and knowledge to their tribe members than people outside their tribe since they would want their tribe to be perceived as superior over the others.

According to Okyere-Kwakye et al. (2011), individuals in a team from the same tribe would form a clique by exchanging in their own language and observing issues using their own ethnical fundamentals which would leave the other members of the group deserted. In support of this gemology, Hilder (2004) posits that tribalism controls the action and the discretion of people within the organization. We believe that people would be motivated to share their knowledge when they perceive the recipient to be one of their kind.

Proposition 1: Tribalism has a positive significant influence on knowledge sharing

Nepotism

Nepotism is a situation where an individual benefits or enjoys certain rights or facilities due to a group attachment (Becker 1957; Fershtman et al. 2005). Analysis of this definition shows that if one is not attached to that particular group discrimination tends to surface. This supports Becker's (1957) distinctions between discrimination and nepotism by classifying nepotism as the positive aspect of discrimination. In another definition, nepotism was denoted as the act of providing an unmerited offer or position to someone in close relation (Hanekom and Thornhill 1983). Nepotism is not only practised in the organization such as promotion exercises but also in terms of awarding contracts for project execution, provision of state scholarships, and other social endeavors. Nepotism from the above definition, has a linkage with tribalism which in a way may affect knowledge sharing in the organization, in that, as individual employees share the same tribe or affiliation they may find it easy to share their technocrats or experience to favour their affiliate members. For instance, during succession planning, the protégé tends to learn faster from the mentor when they of similar affiliation such as family, church and any other social groups. They easily share their knowledge and know-how to the group member because of the trust they have for them. We feel that people may be willing to share their knowledge to other people when they are of the same fraternity.

Proposition 2: Nepotism has a positive significant influence on knowledge sharing

Cronyism

Cronyism is a form of favoritism that refers to being bias towards friends and associates. This is about providing offers to friends and colleagues who may sometimes not deserve. This concept was derived based on the axiom that "It is not what you know but who you know." Cronyism occurs within a network of insiders-the "good old boys", who confer favors on one another. As the people from the Queensland would say "old school tie". The above saying illustrates that individuals tend to favour their friends and associates during political or social endeavors. It can be deduced from this concept that cronyism may have a link with knowledge sharing, that individuals are partial to their friends and associates in providing contracts, positions and other things, so would they like to share their hard earned experience, knowledge and ideas with their friends and colleagues. We feel that individuals would be enthused to share knowledge with their cryonics.

Proposition 3: Cronyism has a positive significant influence on knowledge sharing

Openness to Diversity

Openness to diversity can be defined as the act of becoming open to accept views and perception of individual and groups with different cultural background. The ability of an individuals to tolerate the differences in other people be it culture, tribe ethninicity, age, gender and politics is known as openness to diversity.

When an individual becomes open to the culture of other people, the negative effect of diversity would are normally be stiffled. Openness to diversity is said to have a relationship with knowledge sharing (Hobman et al. 2004; Michell et al., 2009). According to Haas (2006), a majority of the current workforce are cosmopolitan and they posses experience with the mindset of belonging to the world not a particular locality. However, employees with the open mindset has a greater probability of managing or tolerating diversified environment. Cabrera et al.(2006) posit that an organization can only leverage employees to share only when its diverse employees are open to diversified. They would tend to share their experience, knowledge and insights without considering any impediment.

In this study, openness to diversity is defined as the degree to which an individual is open to share his/her knowledge to other people with different culture. Openness to diversity is selected as a construct for this study because the researcher believes that, employees' may share their knowledge to people from other tribe when they are open.

Proposition 4: Openness to diversity has a positive significant influence on knowledge sharing

PROPOSED EMPIRICAL TEST

We propose an empirical study to test the hypotheses we have suggested. A questionnaire can be used to collect the data on the following independent variables i.e., nepotism, tribalism and cronyism and dependent variable of knowledge sharing. Each item used to measure the construct will be on the 5 points likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The questionnaire consists of section A and section B. The Section A may contain questions on demography of the respondent which includes: Age, Gender, Tenure and Level of education and Position. These would be closed ended questions where a respondent only has to choose from the list of categories relevant to him or her. The questions here would be up to a total of five close-ended. Section B would consist of about 20 likert scale questions, 5 questions for each of the independent variables: nepotism, tribalism and cronyism and the dependent variable knowledge sharing. We propose a multiple regression as the statistical technique to test the relationships.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper makes an attempt to discuss some of the social factors that can affect knowledge sharing. The paper suggests that nepotism, tribalism and cronyism have effects on individuals' knowledge sharing behavior. Several factors may affect individuals' willingness to share knowledge but as individuals are social beings and interact with each other, it is quite critical to examine the relationship between nepotism, tribalism, cronyism and knowledge sharing. An appropriate statistical testing tool would be deployed to analyze the data where an emphatic conclusion can be made.

Refrences

Alavi. M., and Leidner, D. (2001). Knowledge management and knowledge management systems: Conceptual foundations and research issues. MIS Quarterly, 25(1). pp.107-136.

Becker, Gary S. 1957. The Economics of Discrimination. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Ben-Ner, A., Putterman. L., Kong. F., and Magan, D. (2002). Reciprocity in a part dictator. Journal of Economic Behaviour and Organisation.1 (53). pp. 333-352.

Govendasamy, M. (1999). Factors affecting affective organizational commitment among Knowledge workers in Malaysia. Masters Thesis. Department of Business Administration. Universiti of Sains Malaya

Gumus, M. (2007). The Effect of Communication on Knowledge Sharing In Organizations, Journal of Knowledge Management Practice, 1(8). Retrieved 10 May 2010 from http://www.tlainc.com/articl133.htm.

Gurteen, D. (1998). Knowledge, creativity and innovation. Journal of Knowledge Management, 2(1). pp.5-13.

Fahey, L., and Prusak ,L. (1998). The eleven Deadliest Sins of Knowledge Management. California Management Review, 40(3): pp. 265-276.

Fershtman, Chaim, and Uri Gneezy. 2001. Discrimination in a Segmented Society: An Experimental Approach. Quarterly Journal of Economics 116:351–77.

Hanekom, X.Y. and Thornhill, C. (1983). Public Administration in contemporary Society: A South African Perspective. Halfway House: Southern Book Publishers (Pty) Ltd.

Hilder, T. (2004). Viability versus tribalism. Kybernetes 33 (3/4), p.632-646.

Hoegl, M and Schulze, A., (2005). How to support knowledge creation in new product development: an investigation of knowledge management methods, European Management Journal. 23(1). pp. 263–273.

Huang, Q., Davison, R. M. and GU, J. (2008). Impact of personal and cultural factor on knowledge sharing in China. Asia Pacific Journal Management.25(1). pp. 431-471.

Irmer, B. E., Bordia, P., and Abusah, D. (2002). Evaluation apprehension and perceived benefits in interpersonal and database knowledge sharing. Academy of Management Proceedings. pp.OCIS:B1-OCIS:B6.

Jowhar, D. A. (2005) Part v: Essentials of tribal psychology.p.805.

Keyes, J. Identifying the barriers to knowledge sharing in knowledge intensive, Organizations, Retrieved September 2010 from:http//www. newarttech.com/ Knowledge Sharing.pdf

Miller, D. L. and Karakowsky, L. (2005). Gender influences as an impediment to knowledge sharing: When men and women fail to seek peer feedback," Journal of Psychology. (139). pp. 101-118

Nauta, A., De Vries, J. and Wijngaard, J. (2001) Power and biased perceptions of interdepartmental negotiation behaviour. Group Processes and Intergroup Relations 4 (3), p.263-270.

Oliver, S. and Kandadi, K.R. (2006). How to develop knowledge culture in organizations: A multiple case study of large distributed organizations. Journal of Knowledge Managemen.10 (4). pp. 6-24.

Okyere-Kwakye .E., Md Nor.K. Md Nor, Ghani (2011). Nepotism and Tribalism in Teams: Initial Investigations. African Journal of Business Management.(AJBM). Vol. 4 (6).p.3508-3012

Pangil, F. and Nasrudin, A.M. (2008). Demographic factors and knowledge sharing behaviors among R&D employees. Knowledge management international Conference (KMICE), Langkawi. pp.128-133.

Price, J. and Cybulski, J. (2005). Stakeholder bargaining behaviour - the social backbone of Communication, negotiation and consensus as used for information system requirements elicitation. In Australian Workshop on Requirement Engineering (AWRE), Melbourne, Australia.

Fernandez, I., Gonzalez, A., & Sabherwal.R. (2004). Knowledge Management: Challenges, Solutions and Technologies, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Bhatt, G. (1998). Managing Knowledge through People knowledge and processes. Management Journal of Knowledge Management.Vol.(53). pp.165-171.

Cheng, J.W., & Lee, S. (2001). The relationship between organizational justice, trust and knowledge sharing behavior. Journal of Human Resouce management (in Chinese), 1(2), pp. 69-93.

Chiu, C.M., Hsu, M.H & Wang, E.T.G. (2006). Understanding knowledge sharing in virtual communities: An integration of Social capital and social cognitive theories. Decision Support Systems,(42), pp. 1872-1888.

Davenport, T.H., and Prusak. L. (1998). Working knowledge: How organisation manage what they know.Havard Business school Press, Boston, Massachusetts.

Endres,M.L., Endres.S.P.,Chowdhury.S.K., & Alam.I. (2007). Tacit knowledge sharing, self efficacy theory and application to the open community, Journal of knowledge management. Vol.11. No.3. pp. 92-100.

Gupta, B., Iyer, L.S., & Aronson, J.E. (2000). "Knowledge management: practices and challenges", Industrial Management & Data Systems, Vol. 100 No. 1, pp. 17-21.

Haas, M.R., & Hanson, M.T. (2005). When using knowledge can hurt performance: The value of organisational capabilities in a management consulting. Strategic Management Journal, Vol 26. No.1. pp.1-24.

International Labour Organisation, (2006). Knowledge Sharing: Gender equality in the world of work. Available online: http//www.ilo.org/gender

Lee, C.K., & Al-Hawamdeh. S. (2002). Factors impacting knowledge sharing, Journal of Information and Knowledge Management, (1) pp. 49-56.

Lahti, R. K. and Beyerlein, M. M. (2000). "Knowledge transfer and management consulting: a look at the firm". Business Horizons. 43(1): 65-74.

Liao, S. H., Chang, J. C., Cheng, S. C., & Kuo, C. M. (2004). Employee relationship and knowledge sharing: A case study of a Taiwanese finance and securities firm, Knowledge Management Research and Practice, 2,pp. 24-34.

Lin, C.P. (2007). Gender differs: Modelling knowledge sharing from perspective of social network ties. Asian Journal of Social Psychology, (9), pp. 236-241..

Nonaka, I., & Tekeuchi, H. (1995). The Knowledge Creating Company: How Japanese Companies Create The Dynamics Of Innovation, London: Oxford University Press.

Riege, A. (2005) Three-Dozen knowledge sharing barriers that managers must consider, Journal of Knowledge Managemen. 1(9). pp.18-25.

Tsai, W., (2001). Knowledge transfer in intra organizational networks: effects of network position and absorptive capacity on business unit innovation and performance. Academy of Management Journal 44 (5), 996–1004.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1561.
Nevins-Bennett, C. (2016). Counterproductive Work Behaviour among Academic and Administrative Staff and Its effective on the Organizational Effectiveness. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 29-41.

Counterproductive Work Behaviour among Academic and Administrative Staff and Its effect on the Organizational Effectiveness.

Cerease Nevins-Bennett
School of Business and Entrepreneural Studies
Excelsior Community College

Abstract

This article examines the impact of counterproductive work behaviours of academic and administrative staffs on the effectiveness of an educational institution. Results showed that the perpetrators of deviant acts were individual actors and groups who were influenced by personal and organizational factors. Employee behaviours were intentional and geared towards harming the institution for personal benefits and reprisal. These intentional behaviours were targeting specific victims such as the institution, students, other key stakeholders, and the community. The nature and execution of behaviours were divided into categories stemming from misuse of organization's time and resources, poor attendance and work quality, and unfair work practices. Consequences of these deviant acts led to organizational ineffectiveness in the form of poor students' services, quality control issues, low students' intake and retention, and bad institutional reputation - leading to the conclusion that the institution is toxic and not functioning according to it guiding principles and norms.

Keywords: Organizational effectiveness, counterproductive work behaviour, toxic institutions.

INTRODUCTION

In various educational institutions, workers exhume behaviours that are contrary to how they should behave in a professional setting. Their behaviours violate organizational norms and are considered to be unethical. It is a growing practice for employees to become engaged in theft, organizational fraud and misdemeanor, high levels of absenteeism, verbal abuse and decrease in work-time because more time is spent on social networks. This practice has become popular in recent years because workers feel marginalized, unfairly treated by their supervisors, feel under compensated and unrecognized for their valuable contributions to the organization, or has an unhealthy psychological state.

Due to the behaviours exhumed, organizations suffer from decreased productivity, increased cost, inefficient work and organizations deteriorating status and reputation (Nasir & Bashir, 2012). These are common behaviour of negative workforce deviance, which is commonly characterized as voluntary behaviour aimed at violating organizational norms, coupled frequently with intent to harm the organization or those within it (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). None of the proposed definitions of production deviance were adequate for use in this study as they were limited in scope, and a broad range of such behaviours were never observed. In this article, production deviance is defined as:

> *"Any conscious counterproductive acts brought about by the intentional behavior of an organizational member which violates significant organizational norms of acceptable production levels in a manner which is contrary to the interest of the*

> *organization; that harms or intend to harm the organization, delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished and by extension resulting in a decline in organizational performance and profitability."*

In this article organizational norms are described as those formal and informal organizational policies, rules, and procedures against which appropriate individual behaviours are judged, and that guide all members of staff in exerting pressures of conformity and organizational control". Organizational norms exist when an individual's behaviour is judged against the standard behaviour of other members of staff and when that individual's behaviour is similar to those of the other members and is considered to be normal. It must be noted that every act of breaking the rules is not considered to be deviant, but only to the extent where these behaviours are outside of the norm and is enforceable by management.

So how do we link workforce deviance to organizational effectiveness? Organizational effectiveness is affected by the level and extent of negative workforce deviance of the employees, and according to Jensen & Raver, 2012 employees' behaviors are the core mechanisms through which organizations are able to pursue and accomplish their strategic goals; thus managers are rightfully concerned about ensuring that employees enact behaviors that will help the organization to succeed (Jensen &Raver, 2012). It is believed that counterproductive work behaviour affects organizational effectiveness which may be measured by low students intake and retention; poor student services and low organizational productivity and profitability.

In this article, the researcher will investigate the effects of counterproductive workforce behaviour of the academic and administrative staff on the effectiveness of the institution.

It will seek to answer the following questions:

1. What are the factors that contribute to counterproductive behaviour among administrative and academic staff at the institution?
2. How does counterproductive workforce behaviours affect the effectiveness of the institution?

This article only examines production workforce deviance and not other forms of deviances that would be relevant in explaining its effect on organizational effectiveness. In addition, this article will focus on deviance occurring at the organizational levels and not at the individual levels. Since it is qualitative in nature, the operationalization of production deviance and organizational effectiveness has been induced from the study and not deduced from the literature. In this study production deviance and counterproductive work behaviour are used interchangeably.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Robinson and Bennett (1995) have identified interpersonal deviance that targets individual members of the organization and organizational deviance that affects the organization as a whole. They used multidimensional scaling analysis to capture the full domain of workplace deviance - the dimension of severity refers to the extent to which the deviant act violates important organizational norms and thus is perceived as more potentially harmful to the organization or its members (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007); whereas the target dimension reflects whether the deviance is directed at the organization or organizational members (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007).

Factors Contributing To Counterproductive Workforce Behaviour

According to Bryant & Higgins, (2010), a substantial body of literature focusing on the causes and consequences of organizational deviance exists. Chirasha (2010) stated that the causes of counterproductive work place behaviour have been summarized into organizational related factors and work related factors. The organizational related factors are summary of perception that people attach to particular features of the work setting (Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993; Lau, Au, Ho, 2003); such as organizational climate, organizational justice, perceived organizational support, and trust in organizations (Chirasha, 2010); while work stress and powerlessness are work related factors. Jelinek & Ahearne (2006) are of the view that bureaucracy has a very important role to play in workplace deviance stating that it creates communication gaps between employees and the management and lowers employee morale and commitment and encourages counterproductive behavior.

Organizations in which individuals protect their self-interests are most likely to put up with such deviance (Appelbaum, Iaconi &Matousek, 2007). Organizational factors that may contribute to employee deviance include ''job stressors, organizational frustration, lack of control over the work environment, weak sanctions for rule violations and organizational changes such as downsizing" (Henle, 2005). Several studies have reported that some form of production deviance and property deviance are more likely to involve employees who are young, new to their job, work part-time, and have low paying positions (Baucus & Near, 1991).

Organizational Effectiveness

The term effectiveness focuses on successful performances to achieve organizational goals and objectives (Krapetch, Kanjanawasee & Prachyapruit, 2009); and may be defined as the degree to which an organization realizes its goals (Daft, 1995). Mott (1978) has observed three aspects of organizational effectiveness a) productivity b) adaptability c) flexibility. (Katara, Garg, & Rastogi, 2013). Deviating behaviors of employees are destructive and injurious to the health of an organization and these diverging behaviors have serious adverse affects on the overall productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, and profitability of an organization (Nasir & Bashir, 2012).

This research will look at organizational effectiveness in the context of a tertiary educational institution; therefore, the term school and institutional effectiveness is used interchangeably to describe organizational effectiveness. Dugan & Hernon, (2002) stated that institutional effectiveness examines the extent to which institutions meet their stated mission, goals, and objectives. Naturally, the planning and evaluation process focuses on the effectiveness of student learning and the extent to which learning and the institution's contributions to society center on the research process.

Kleeman & Richardson (1985) classified effectiveness in organization at higher levels of education into ten categories: 1) programs and services for students, 2) attention to women and minorities, 3) quality of teaching and research, 4) publication of knowledge and research, 5) workshops and counseling to broaden access, 6) sports, 7) focus on cultural activities, 8) programs for graduates, 9) leasing facilities, and 10) enhancement of standards (Ashraf & Kadir, 2012).

METODOLOGY

Research Design

A qualitative case study approach was used in this study to determine the effects of counterproductive work behaviour of academic and administrative staff on the effectiveness of the institution, where the researcher conducted structured and unstructured interviews, participant observation, and focus group discussions with the academic and administrative staff holding substantive and subordinate positions within the institution.

Sampling

Eighteen participants were selected for three focus group discussions based on age; gender; tenure; job title; and socio-economic background. The sampling for the focus group was based on the homogeneity or similarity of group members. A Systematic participant observation approach was employed in observing thirty full-time employees of the institution, which were divided into fifteen administrative staff and fifteen academic staff. The Administrative staff participants consisted of six males and nine females who held supervisory and staff roles; while the academic staff participants consisted of five males and ten females across faculties.

Six participants were selected through a purposive sampling method to participate in a structured interview. These six participants consisted of three academic staff and three administrative staff who were not a part of the focus group discussions. These participants were selected from a population of two hundred staff members based on their perceived value system and were referred to the researcher by a key informant.

Data Transformation And Coding

The general inductive approach was used to analyze the qualitative data of the focus group discussions to identify themes in the text data that were related to the evaluation objectives. Once the data files were cleaned and put into a common format, the analysis commenced with a close reading of the text, which was carried out by the researcher. During the analysis, specific themes were developed, which captured core messages reported by participants. The analysis revealed similar themes across the various groups that addressed both the factors affecting counterproductive workforce behaviours among academic and administrative staff at the institution, what those behaviours were, and how these counterproductive behaviours affected organizational effectiveness.

RESULT AND ANALYSIS

The general inductive approach was used to analyze the qualitative data to identify themes in the text data that were related to the evaluation objectives. The main idea garnered from the results was that although the behaviours of academic and administrative staffs were known to the management of the organization and considered to be normal, there were some behaviour that were unprecedented and deemed as overbearing and deviant in nature. These unprecedented behaviours, were believed to have impacted organization's effectiveness the most, however known deviant behaviours varied according to their intensity, had a lasting impact on the organization and lead to organizational ineffectiveness over time (See figure 1).

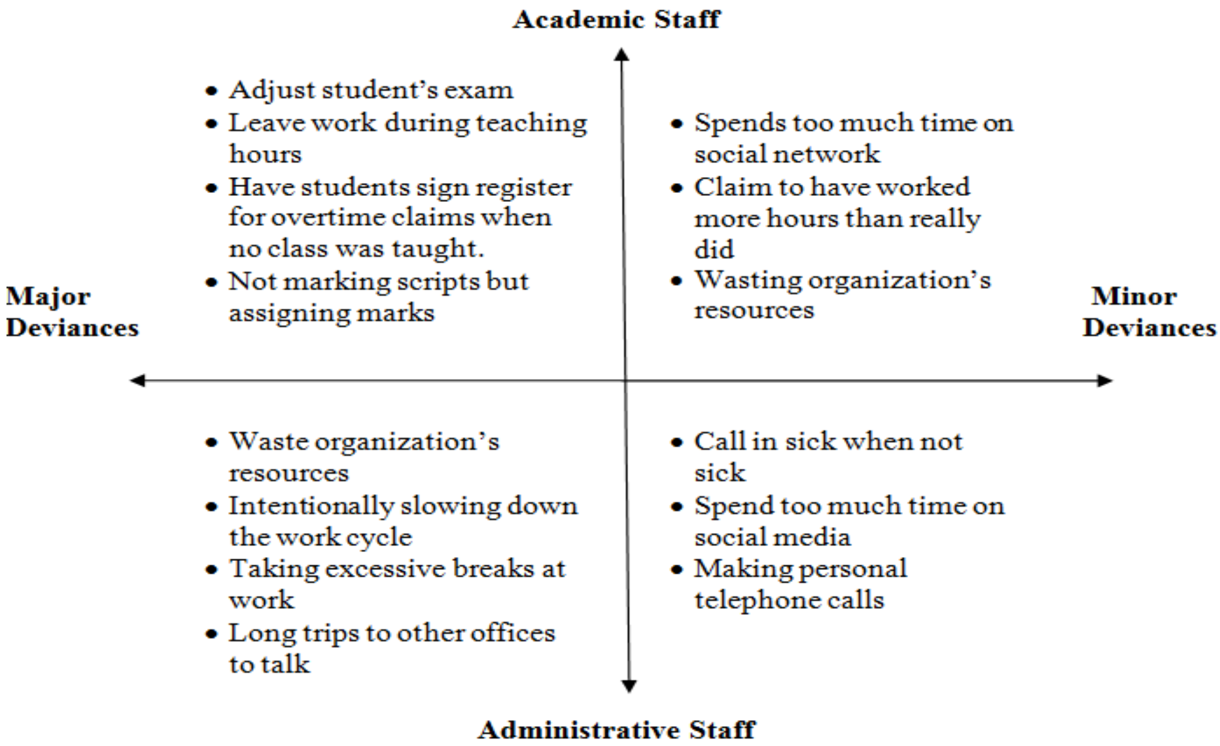


Figure 1: Typology of Production deviant behaviours of Administrative and Academic staff at the Institution. (Concept adopted from Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Results showed that the perpetrators of the deviant acts were individual actors and groups who were influenced by personal and organizational factors. Employee behaviours were intentional and geared towards harming the institution for personal benefits, conflicts of interest, and reprisal/revenge (see figure 2).

These intentional behaviours were targeting specific victims such as the institution, students, internal customers, other key stakeholders, and the community. The nature and execution of behaviour were divided into categories stemming from misuse of organization's time, misuse of organization's resources, poor attendance, poor quality work, and unfair work practices. The model then went on to show that consequences of the behaviours lead to organizational ineffectiveness in the form of poor students' services, quality control issues, low students' intake, low students' retention, low productivity, low profitability and bad institutional reputation. These consequences will lead principals towards implementing institutional actions such as increase motivation, improve work environment and improve job training and enrichment.

Results of the study show that the institution is faced with a myriad of production deviances that have an impact on its effectiveness. Organizational effectiveness here is the extent to which the organization is able to attract and retain its students; graduate students to enter the job market on a yearly basis; provide services that will satisfy the internal and external customers; and do everything that is possible to achieve the organizational goals in conformity to the mission and vision of the institution. Effectiveness has been compromised because the results show that students' degrees have not been ratified on time because of the ineffectiveness and tardiness of members of the academic and administrative staff; monies have been wasted on training programmes not full attended by members of staff; monies been paid out for overtime not earned; and there have been claims of poor customer services among members of staff.

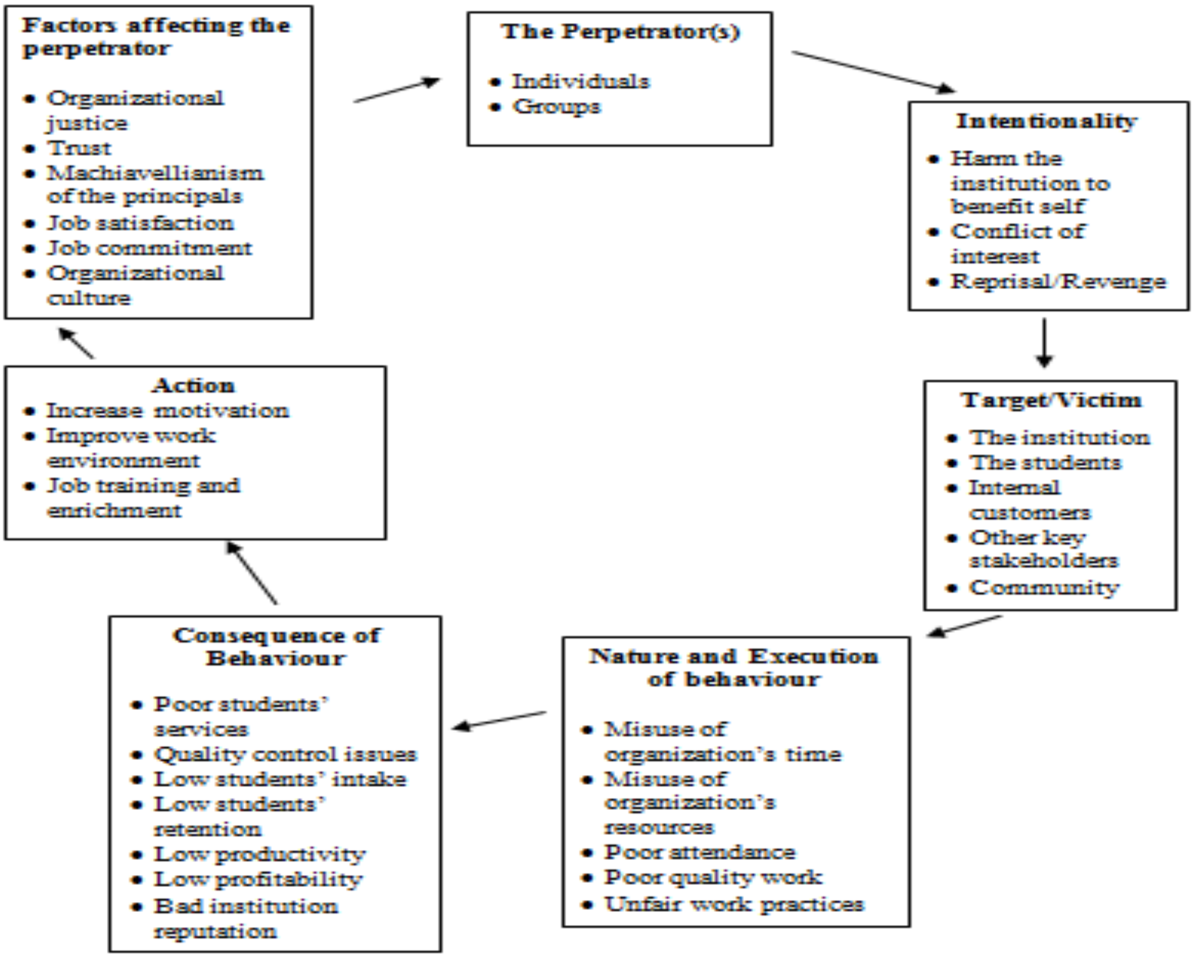


Figure 2: Model of production deviance and its effect on the effectiveness of the organization.

RESULTS OF FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

From the focus group discussions there seems to be an atmosphere of chaos and widespread disloyalty among the members of staff; and counterproductivity among the workers was being blamed on the inefficiencies of management, unfair work practices, lack of sound leadership, strong bureaucracies of the system, lack of promotional opportunities which were at times unfair, and unfair handling of part-time (overtime) benefits. Part-time deprivation was a major problem within the institution as most members of staff believed that they were 'black listed' from receiving such benefits and that it was not evenly distributed among members of staff.

The second problem relates to the lack of promotional benefits to staff and the unfair work practices of the Human Resource Manager. The Human Resource Manager was being accused of unfair work practices and treating the employees in an unjust manner; not following protocol in employing and promoting employees; and not representing the employees in cases of dire need. Most employees believed that those in leadership and management positions were selected because they shared similar characteristics to those in power and were relatives, friends and or acquaintances to those in managerial positions. Based on a rough estimate, more than thirty per cent of the employees working at the institution were either related to or had close ties with someone in management and leadership position.

Based on the results of the focus group, it is believed that organizational factors played a greater role in organizational deviance than personal factors. This is because the employees had personal grouses with management and therefore tried to harm the organization in the process, believing that members of the organization tried to harm them first. These acts of reprisal were carried out in the form of working slowly spending more time on lunch breaks, spending more time on social network; and leaving work before or at the end of the workday without engaging themselves in extra work activities. Most employees within the institution did not have any comradery or loyalty to the institution because of how they were being treated currently or have been treated in the past and thus only act in a manner to benefit them and not necessarily the institution.

RESULTS OF OBSERVATION

The observations conducted shows that the institution is one where the employees do not like to follow rules and regulations, the "anything goes" behaviour and mentality were present because the employees believed that no action would be taken to correct bad behaviour or reprimand those who were counterproductive. The institution lacks accountability and transparency as there should be a system of checks and balances on employee's attendance; matching lecturers mark books to grades being placed on the database system; and matching overtime claim to ensure that work was actually done before payments are being made. Management needs to ensure that the student's signatures on the register are coherent, because persons have been caught forging students signatures in order to be paid in instance where they did not attend classes. The workers seems to be motivated when they 'meet and greet' in their small groups and cliques; and works best when they are working alongside close friends – this is when they are most productive on the job.

The teaching time for the lecturers varied and as such all were never present at work at once during any given day. There is an attendence register where the lecturers would sign 'in' but not 'out' and this register was never monitored or checked against the class rosters to determine if a teacher was early or late for class. Management knows of lecturers being late by virtue of student's complaint or passing the classrooms by chance, but rarely does anything to prevent the reoccurrence of such actions.

Group Having The Greater Impact On Organizational Effectiveness

It is difficult to determine from the results which group had the greater impact on organizational ineffectiveness since this is a qualitative study, however much evidence points to the lecturers. The lecturers were frequently absent from work; present at work but absent from classes; changed students grades to allow them to pass their examinations; and refrained from carrying out certain job functions that are apart of their job description. The administrative staff have been involved in counterproductivity but to a lesser extent because their activities and functions were more closely monitored compared to those of the lecturers. Even though these members of staff would converge in the lunch room for prolonged periods of time; spend more time on social network when they should be working; and fail to deal with customers in an amicable manner, they had a greater propensity to become involved in production deviance because of their positions and roles within the institution. However they seemed to be more motivated, gain greater recognition by management, and are more involved in institutional planning and operation than the lecturers and thus are less counterproductive.

Administrative staff members seemed to take part in most of the institutions activities and are also involved in its planning and execution. The academic staff members at the junior levels were more involved in the students' lives and seem to be interested only in planning their academic related activities that satisfied their immediate functions as they were the ones who felt marginalized. The senior members of the academic staff have administrative functions and feel less marginalized and are less likely to be involved in counterproductive work behaviours, their roles and functions are to keep the institution functioning to the best of their abilities.

The types of academic staff members who were more likely to be counterproductive were the junior staff members with tenure of over two years; staff members with tenure over three years and have not been made "permanently employed" by the Ministry or the institution; members of staff who have been at the institution for over five years and have not been given senior lecturer status with special responsibilities; and lecturers who have not been give adequate overtime benefits, if at all. Another concern is those lecturers who have been given the same work load but have been considered to be Assistant lecturers by virtue of the pay scale. These lecturers were more likely to become counterproductive because for most, they have a masters degree, are teacher trained, but may not have five years teaching experience; Similarly they may have the number of years teaching experience (five years), have a masters degree but no teacher training. These lecturers have become disgruntled with the organization and management, especially if they were deceived in the initial stages to believe they would be employed as lecturers, as they are all called, only to be told upon accepting the contract that they are on the assistant lecturer's pay scale.

Evidence also pointed to lecturers within the institution who have been working there for over ten years but are considered to be assistant lecturers and are counterproductive. These lecturers are the holders of bachelor's degrees with no teacher training. They are often disgruntled because they make constant comparisons to persons in seniority roles who are in the same positions as themselves. Because they do not see themselves benefitting in the way they would like within the intuition, they have become counterproductive.

In conclusion, production deviances are exhumed by all workers within the institution but the extent of these behaviours and the intensity determines the level of effectiveness of the institution. The academic staff members were found to be more counterproductive than the administrative staff members based on the extent and intensity of their counterproductive behaviours. It is believed that lecturers who were deceived by management in accepting the job believing to be "lecturers" but only to be told that they were "assistant lecturers" were highly involved in counterproductive behaviours as they had grouses with management. Lectures working for the institution for over three years but were not made permanently employed were also greatly involved in counterproductivity.

DISCUSSIONS

This article represents a minute step in gaining a better understanding of organizational effectiveness, though it is such a difficult concept to measure. Organizational effectiveness here represent the extent to which the organization is able to achieve its goals and in so doing, is able to retain and satisfy its internal and external customers; aligning the processes and work task to the strategies of the institution; and facilitating output by ensuring that quality graduates are presented to the job market every year. These, however, are daunting tasks if employees are not properly aligned to the mission and vision of the institution.

To achieve effectiveness, the workers must be comfortable; highly motivated compensated for a fair day's work; be provided with opportunities to grow; be given some amount of autonomy; and be empowered. Management however has an important role to play in ensuring that these employees stay on track and not become deviant or counterproductive. With that said, an organization can achieve effectiveness and reduce production deviance by implementing radical changes to the structure of the organization. It is said that management are to be blamed for the counterproductivity within the organization and as such these radical changes should be eminent where acts of deviance have rendered the organization toxic. In order to reduce production deviance among employees, Applebaum (2006) suggested that the organization in seeking to repair the damages must adapt to a specific organizational culture; and that newly devised culture must be centered on extremely important ethical core values (Sinclair, 1993). A new organizational culture must be created to reflect a culture of fairness, justice, honesty, transparency, and accountability.

Based on the results presented, it is evident that the institution is operating as a toxic institution and not functioning according to its guiding principles and norms. The mission and vision of the institution has not been upheld and thus compromised by the various acts of deviance that have plagued the institution through the corrupted actions of members of staff at all levels especially the academic and administrative staffs. The quality of the degrees provided by the institution may be compromised tremendously by the callus and deviant behaviours of its members of staff. This of course happens when the institution constantly receives bad reviews; customers (students) are treated unfavorably; and the words of 'devious acts' are divulged to the general public thus discouraging others from becoming a part of the institution as a student or otherwise.

Toxic organizations will find it difficult to maintain an effective organization. Since the common reasons for toxic organizations are organizations having insufficient funding, unending conflicts, widespread personal agendas, poor management practices, and the inevitability of people bringing their unresolved emotional issues to work, (Coccia, 1998), it is likely that the institution will be ineffective. To support this claim, findings of the study shows that deviant behaviours have escalated because of the breakdown in communication among the members of the executive, the senior members of staff with special responsibilities, and the junior members of staff; breakdown in the yearly appraisal and frequent evaluation system; break down in honing and retaining talents among members of staff; lack of compliance; leadership woes; and process and strategic inefficiencies.

Measure Of Production Deviance Against Organizational Effectiveness

Production deviance can be measured against organizational effectiveness; however a more empirical study is needed to tests various hypothesis and correlation for a much clearer picture of the association between variables. Notwithstanding, it is important to note that an employee who is involved in production deviance may contribute more to organizational effectiveness than those who are not considered deviant. For example Adler & Golan (1994) said that coming to work early and leaving late is a factor affecting production deviance as employees may be on the job constantly loafting, daydreaming or may be on social networks instead of conducting the organizations duties, however employees who are deviant in other ways may be more productive all because they have not violated significant organizational norms – that are accepted and considered to be normal among groups within the organization.

The activities of management have created a ripple effect within the institution and have contributed somewhat to the production deviance among administrative and academic staff. For management, production deviance is not only about coming to work on time and leaving late, but having long meetings outside of the designated meeting hours; thus resulting in loss of productive time. Bad management practices have also lead to organizational ineffectiveness which is offset by production deviance among the academic and administrative staff. The issue of inequality, inequity, and the fact that the organization might not be enforcing norms by punishing those persons who violated these norms, have resulted in organizational ineffectiveness.

Norms may be different for the academic and administrative staff within the institution, but are the same for similar categories of workers. For the academic staff, the rules and conduct as it relates to performance are standard. For example, each lecturer is expected to come to work on time for classes, prepare course-works and exam papers within a prescribed time period, mark exam papers on time and provide timely feedback of students' grades to both students and the department – all these are criteria for departmental and organizational effectiveness. However, as it relates to the administrative staff, the set of guiding norms would include coming to work by 8 am, taking an hour lunch break, provide support to all members of staff, and provide administrative duties to internal and external customers. Therefore, most of the norms relating to production that applies to the administrative staff do not apply to the academic staff. A violation of all these rules and policies results in production deviance, thus affecting the institution's ability to achieve its goals.

PROPOSITION/RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of propositions may be put forward in addressing the problem of production deviance within the institution. The question on everyone's lips is 'how do we make organizations more effective given the prevailing circumstances and situations? The answer to this, taking into consideration the findings of the study is to properly align employees to the strategies of the institution. Findings of the study revealed that the employee's deviant behaviours were in part attributed to improper job description, inadequate job functions, and not properly aligning administrative and academic staff to their levels of qualification and skill competencies. The institution has its own limitations in measuring strategy and the effectiveness of the workers because it lacks a proper functioning appraisal or measurement tool. The organization can only measure the extent to which the organization or department is effectively functioning through financial indicators such as revenues from tuition and other miscellaneous services, ignoring nonfinancial indicators which provide the institution with the bulk of knowledge on performance and effectiveness.

Borrowing from the Balanced Scorecard perspectives from Kaplan and Norton, nonfinancial indicators of effectiveness include results gathered relating to the customer's perspectives, learning and growth perspectives, and internal business process perspectives. Therefore it is important to measure the effectiveness of the institution by looking at the satisfaction, honing and retention of internal and external customers; the impacts of training and development on the output of the employees; and what business processes and innovation the institution could employ to maintain competitive advantage. By adopting the Balance scorecard perspectives, the employees may be involved in less deviant acts because their goals and objectives will be clearer and organizational effectiveness will be heightened in the long run.

In order to align the employees to the organization's strategies to reduce organizational ineffectiveness there must be an organizational "fit for purpose" structure where employees understand expectations and accountabilities within the institution. This works in conjunction with a positive work environment; capable and credible leadership that not only requires results, but on who has the workers interest at heart; and there must be a people-systems and processes that drive the right behaviors among workers within the institution. This is just one of the many recipes to reduce the toxicity of the institution thus allowing it to operate more as a learning organization.

Improving organizational effectiveness may take myriad of work starting at the helm of management. The first step is the developmental process of management skills and capabilities since this was the number one problem obtained from the findings. Management, in order to reduce organizational ineffectiveness should be able to foster communication, trust, confidence and loyalty between themselves and their employees. This is at an all time low, as the results indicates that there were inadequacies in the communication system and that managers need to introduce a more family-like structure in how they communicate.

The institution is consumed by greed, selfishness, manipulation, secrecy, and maliciousness; which are the contributing variables to the institution's ineffectiveness. To alleviate this problem, the organization should focus on an area of positive organizational scholarship, examining the positive behaviours and practices of the organization so that the employees can flourish, have a better psychological state of mind and function better on the job. When fairness, justice and positivity are instilled within the organization, observed and practiced by many, the level of counterproductivity will decrease. As Koyuncu et. al., (2006) stated this is why recent efforts to improve organizational performance have begun to inculcate positive organizational concepts like optimism, trust, and engagement – because it yields positive results and reduce counterproductivity among staff.

To solve the issues of counterproductivity among staff and the organizational ineffectiveness a multiple approach must be adopted by the institution in order for it to operate at maximum capacity and reduce toxicity. Such approach should encompass combining approaches or knowledge of theories to better deal with management processes, organizational development, organizational structure and functionality. To create effective organizations, management must adequately identify the practices within the current organizational capabilities that are hindering its ability to fulfill its mission. Since a great deal of counterproductive work behavior in organizations comes from having too many or too few levels of work, employees must be given sufficient authority to undertake their responsibilities. Other ways to improve organizational effectiveness within the organization are by creating opportunities for employee feedback and participation; make managers accountable for the performance of their subordinates; design and maintain fair pay systems in the organization; equitable distribution of overtime (part-time); and most importantly to develop the skills and competencies of the employees and create a succession plan.

CONCLUSION

It is apparent that there were acts of deviant workforce behaviour within the organization which prevented the organization from achieving its goals and objectives. Results showed that the academic staff members were more prone to deviant acts than administrative staff members, and these deviant acts ranged from simple to unprecedented behaviours. Across departments supervisors faced significant challenges in their efforts to align and engage their employees to their strategy; however effectiveness of the organizations which is measured by the congruence between the goals of the organization and the observed outcome was achieved.

CONTRIBUTIONS

The organizational behaviour literature is heavily equipped with materials on production deviance which have acted as the dependent variable as researchers examines factors affecting such a construct as well as its causes. This has lead to a tremendous gap in the organizational studies literature. To fill this gap, this study has sought to use the construct as an independent variable and organizational effectiveness as a dependent variable. The study of organizational effectiveness is not new but the concept has been ignored for a period by researchers and has been outrun by the study of organizational performance. While the literature is weak and draws on the same models and theories of organizational effectiveness across discipline, this current research provides a fresh view of organizational effectiveness and looks at how production deviance from the individual level affects organizational effectiveness.

This study contributes to the literature on education institutional studies looking at the role that the academic and administrative staffs plays in organizational ineffectiveness through their deviant acts. While many organizational studies literature looks at effectiveness as the extent to which the organization is able to meet their goals; gain and efficiently use resources; as the ability to connect with network of interrelated systems; problem-solving and renewal capabilities, perform effective management functions; and as the ability for the organization to maintain itself and grow; the literature failed to look at effectiveness from the perspective of individuals and group connectedness and value systems, individuals' wellbeing, organizational and individual characteristics. In essence these theories of explaining organizational effectiveness ignored the human factors.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The effective of production deviance on organizational effectiveness is a topic that is not widely studied. For future qualitative research, a grounded theory approach may be used to develop a concise model or theory since this is a topical issue and one that is experienced by all organizations throughout the country, the region and the world. A 'one size fits all' theory is not possible and a theory designed to fit the Caribbean context is necessary. For generalization and replicability a mixed approach may also be considered for future research to attain a more theoretically sound research paper that could be extended to the population.

Reference

Adler, S. & Golan, J. (1994). Lateness as a withdrawal behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 66(5), 544-554. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.66.5.544

Appelbaum S. H., Iaconi, D, (2011). Positive and negative deviant workplace behaviors: causes, impacts, and solutions, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 7: 5, 586-598, DOI 10.1108/14720700710827176

Ashraf, G., & Kadir, S. (2012). A Review on the Models of Organizational Effectiveness: A Look at Cameron's Model in Higher Education, International Education Studies, 5(2), 80 doi:10.5539/ies.v5n2

Baucus, M. S., & Near, J. P. 1991. Can illegal corporate behavior be predicted? An event history analysis. Academy of Management Journal, 34, 9–36.

Bryant, M., & Higgins, V. (2010). Organizational change Self-confessed troublemakers: An interactionist view of deviance during. Human Relations, 63, 250

Chirasha, V., & Mahapa, M. (2012). An Analysis of the Causes and Impact of Deviant Behaviour in the Workplace. The Case of Secretaries in State Universities. Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS), 3(5), 415-421.

Coccia, C. (1998), "Avoiding a toxic organization", Nursing Management, 29(5), 32-4.

Daft, R.L. (1995), Organization theory and design, St. Paul: West Publishing

Dugan, R., E., & Hernon, P. (2002). Outcomes Assessment: Not Synonymous with Inputs and Outputs. The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 28, (6). P.376-380

Henle, C. A. (2005). Predicting Workplace Deviance from the Interaction between Organizational Justice and Personality, Journal of Management,17, 247-263

Jelinek, R., & Ahearne, M. (2006). 'The enemy within: examining salesperson deviance and its determinants'. Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 26, 327–344.

Jensen, J. M., & Raver, J. L. (2012). When Self-Management and Surveillance Collide: Consequences for Employees' Organizational Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. Group & Organization Management, 37, 308, DOI: 10.1177/1059601112445804

Kataria, A., Rastogi, R., Garg, A., P. (2013). Employee Engagement and Organizational Effectiveness: The Role of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Internal Journal of Business and Information Technology, 6 (1), 102 – 113.

Kleeman, G. L., & Richardson Jr, R. C. (1985). Student characteristics and perceptions of university effectiveness. Review of Higher Education, 9(1), 5-20.

Koyuncu, M. – Burke, R. J. – Fiksenbaum, L. 2006: Work engagement among women managers and professionals in a Turkish bank: potential antecedents and consequences. Equal Opportunities International, 25, pp. 299–310.

Krapetch, C., Kanjanawasee, S., Prachyapruit, A., (2009). Organizational Effectiveness Evaluation for Higher Educational Institutions, Ministry of Tourism and Sports. Research in Higher Education Journal.

Lau, V., C., S., Au, W., T., Ho, J., M., C., (2003). A Qualitative and Quantitative Review of Antecedents of Counterproductive Behaviour in Organizations. Journal of Business and Psychology, Vol. 18, No. 1

Lawrence, T. B., Robinson, S. L., (2007) Ain't Misbehavin: Workplace Deviance as Organizational Resistance Journal of Management, 33:3, 378-394

DOI: 10.1177/0149206307300816

Nasir, M., and Bashir, A. (2012). Examining workplace deviance in public sector organizations of Pakistan. International Journal of Social Economics, 39, 4, 240-253.

Ostroff , C., & Schmitt , N. (1993). Configurations of Organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Academy of Management Journals, 36, 345-362

Robinson, S., Bennett, R. J. (1995). A Typology of Deviant Workforce Behaviours: A Multidimensional Scaling Study. Academy of Management Journal 38: 2, p. 555-572.

Uline, C., Miller , D., M., & Tschannen-Moran, M. (1998).School Effectiveness: The Underlying Dimensions. Educational Administration Quarterly, 34 (4), 462-483.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1807.
Kumar, M. (2016). Importance of Population Growth in Future Economic Development of Pakistan. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 42-59.

Importance of Population Growth in Future Economic Development of Pakistan

Mahendar Kumar
Siam University, Thailand

Abstract

Population growth is considered by most of the scholars an obstacle for economic development of any country as the resources are always limited. Therefore, this study is conducted to analyze the population growth in terms of old age security, cultural pressure and women empowerment in order to visualize its impact on future economic development of Pakistan. The study while quantitative in nature with complimentary qualitative features found at the end that there is a weak relationship between components of population growth and future economic development of Pakistan.

Keywords: population, economic development, women empowerment, old age security.

INTRODUCTION

This study empirically explores the relationship between population growth and future economic development of Pakistan. It has taken population growth in terms of old age security, cultural pressure and women empowerment and experiment to find relationship between these elements and future economic development of the country. Pakistan is ranked as 6th most populated country in the world as populace is grown from merely 31 million in 1947 to 191,807,221 as of 01 November 20151.2.3. Economic development is mostly characterized by increasing gross domestic product GDP in nations and GDP per capita (Rautakivi, 2012). It also means the distribution of income (Coleman & Nixon, 1985).Population growth is considered to be a biggest problem for Pakistan as GDP per capita growth is not as fast as population growth hinders the progress of the country in a substantial way4. Since the 1950, Pakistan has experienced a significant population growth rate ranging between two to four per cent per annum. During the period of 1950-1985, the country's population had grown at the average rate of 3 per cent per annum. However, it declined to an average of 2.6 per cent per annum during the period 1986-20005. In 2015, the population growth rate in Pakistan would remain at 1.92 per cent6. Pakistan is likely to continue experiencing population growth in the near and distant future at least until 2050 and more so than any other world region except sub-Saharan Africa7. If the population continues with the same pace, Pakistan would be 5th largest populated country in the world until 2050. On the other hand, GDP has increased from last six decades (1951-2015) with 5 percent growth rate as an average as compared to the population growth rate approximately 5.5 fold until 2013.The population that was 32.5 million in 1951, when Pakistan was the 14th most populous country in the world moved to become a 6th populated country in the world with almost 200 million population8.

The relationship between population growth and economic development has long been theoretically and empirically analyzed by various schools of thought in economics. Most development economists believe that rapid population growth is detrimental to growth. Population growth reduces savings and the capital-labor ratio. It raises the dependency ratio, and puts strains on education and health systems as well as the food supply. Larger and larger populations may also contribute to environmental degradation9. Economic development is mostly characterized by increasing gross domestic product GDP in nations and GDP per capita10. The first scholar who emphasis on the impact of population on economic growth was Malthusian (1798), he argues that the population growth is geometrical in nature while economic growth is linear11. Malthus's view of population is based on the assumption that human behavior is driven by nature, and men will have as many children as nature gives them the possibility to sustain12. Indeed, Malthus demographic theory regarding the equilibrium between fertility and mortality rates is based on his basic philosophy regarding human beings which he termed the general laws of nature12. That difference will cause population to grow much faster than the economic growth. In the long run, there would be scarcity of food as the land would be depleted by its production capacity12. He further argues that growth is vice versa means that economic growth will also stir population growth in the form of early marriages and the increase in fertility rate11. Counter argument to the above theory was made by Karl Marx and Engels (1948) that man controls nature: man therefore is able to control nature consciously and make his own history. It is this ability which allows him to produce beyond subsistence and which guarantees that he will not have subjected to the dilemma that Malthus has described (p.109)12. Since, in Marx view, the decisions about fertility are related to the modes of production and also to social class, there should be a difference in family decisions between the bourgeois and the proletariat. He stresses that it is the economic differences between classes that lead to a difference in family behavior. Regarding the bourgeoisie, children are a means for continuing the family business: On what foundation is the present family, the bourgeois family based suppose on capital or on private gain. In its completely developed form this family exists only among the bourgeoisie. The bourgeois sees in his wife a mere instrument of production (Marx and Engels, 1948, p.26)12. Population growth enlarges labour force and, therefore, increases economic growth. A large population also provides a large domestic market for the economy131415. Moreover, population growth encourages competition, which induces technological advancements and innovations. Nevertheless, a large population growth is not only associated with food problem but also imposes constraints on the development of savings, foreign exchange and human resources 16. The relationship between population and economic growth is complex and the empirical evidence is ambiguous, particularly concerning the causes and impacts17. It can be demonstrated in a theoretical model that a large population growth could have both negative and positive impacts on productivity. A large population may reduce productivity because of diminishing returns to more intensive use of land and other natural resources. Conversely, a large population could encourage greater specialization, and a large market increases returns to human capital and knowledge18. Thus, the net relationship between greater population and economic growth depends on whether the inducements to human capital and expansion of knowledge are stronger than diminishing returns to natural resources. Therefore, it is important to examine the population and economic growth nexus19.

Therefore, this study presumably assume in favor of theory of Malthusian that population growth in the long run is hampering the economic growth and development of any country or in this case Pakistan. This study would investigate the population in terms of old age security, cultural pressure and women empowerment components. This study will only cover these three elements and would reflect the understanding of postgraduate students and business intellectuals about the subject as sample size would be taken from this group. The study has limitations in terms of sample size and financial resources and access to participants as well. The primary objectives of this study are to find out the relationship between old age security, cultural pressure and women empowerment with the future economic development of

Pakistan. The secondary objective is to get the general perception about the impact of population growth on the future economic development of Pakistan.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Population trend is on the upward side from the last six decades as population has been increasing constantly from 1950s with more than 2%-3% as an average per decade until 201020. In this year 2015, there has been a slight decrease of 0.10 percent with 1.90 percent PGR but as compared to the world population growth rate that is decreasing from 2.3 percent in 1960s to slightly over 1% in this decade and expected to reach 0.6 percent until 20506,7. In this scenario, Pakistan has to be aware about the consequences of rapid population growth and how it can produce extra pressure on socio-economic structure and prove to be the biggest hurdle in the face of rapid economic development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Economic development ideally refers to the sustained, concerted actions of communities and policymakers that improve the standard of living and economic health of a specific locality21. The terms “economic development” and “economic growth” are often used interchangeably but in fact there is a very big difference between the two. Economic growth can be viewed as a sub category of economic development22. In recent years the relationship between population growth and economic development in the developing countries has attracted a considerable attention of economists and researchers23. As Dawson and Tiffin (1998) have observed, “The relationship between population growth and economic development has long been thought to be fundamental to our understanding of less developed countries (LDCs)”pp14924. Economists have often neglected the impact of fundamental demographic processes on economic growth25. Bloom and Canning (2001) are among the few who explore the effect of the demographic transition on economic growth. They argue that it is possible that the interaction of economic growth with population dynamics can result in a poverty trap. Consider two clubs: one with low income and high population growth rates, while the other with high income and low population growth rates. While transition between these clubs may be rare, they are able to show that when it does happen, it does so very quickly, due to the positive feedbacks between growth and the demographic transition26. More recently, Dyson (2010) claims that mortality decline aids economic growth and hence leads to an increase in the standard of living27. As people live longer, they tend to think more about the future and are more likely to take risk and innovate. For instance, Bloom and Canning (2001) and Kalemli-Ozcan (2002) find evidence in developing countries that mortality decline has the tendency to raise educational attainment and savings rates and thus to increase investment in both physical and human capital26,28. There is one most popular model in population studies that is called demographic transition model, that shows that population in all contemporary developed nations is that over the past couple of centuries it has passed through three stages (i.e., demographic transition). The first stage is characterized by high birth rates and high death rates, resulting in a slow population growth. In the second stage there was a decrease in death rates, however the birth rates remained high as a consequence of increases in population. Finally, in the third stage, fertility rates fell and combined with low mortality rates resulted in very low or no population growth19. Pakistan is trapped into the second stage where birth rates exceed the mortality rates as 26.1 percent crude birth rate in 2015 as compared to 6.80 percent mortality rate6. Huge gap between these two are the point of concern for this research as the working population age group from 15-64 has increased from 53% in 1998 to 56% in 2014 with unemployment rate increasing from 5.6 percent in 2009-2010 to 6.00 percent in 2014-201529.30.31. Moreover, total fertility rate (TFR) in two decades (1996-2014) as an average 3.775 percent with the dependency ratio of almost 50% in 201431.32.33.GDP growth rate

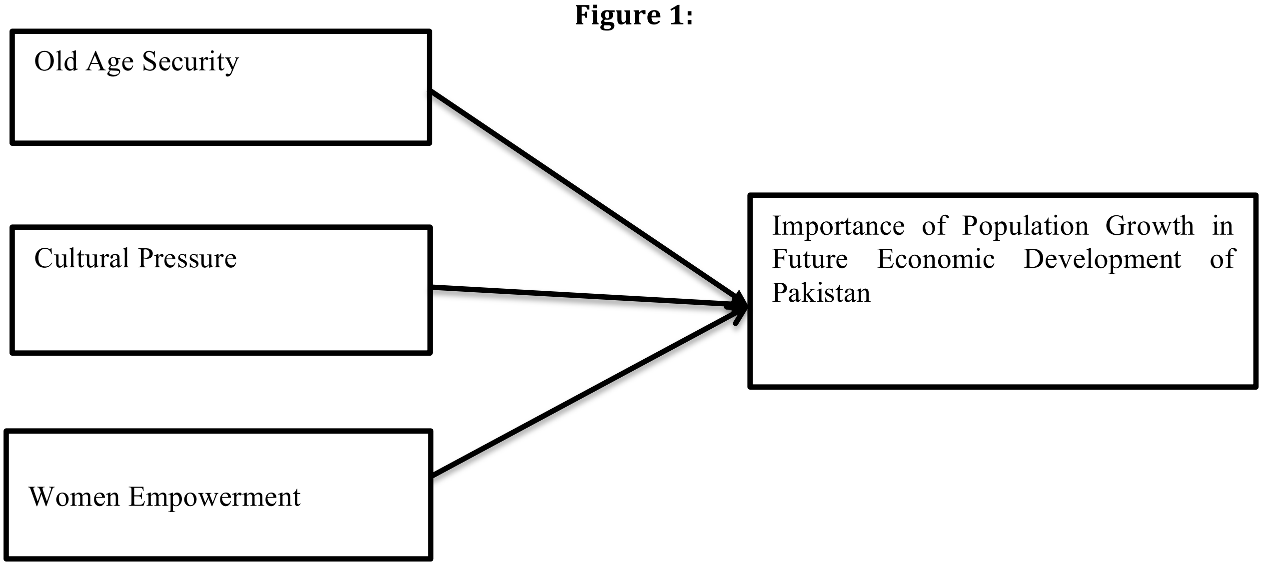
(1951-2015) is also dismal showing 5% growth rate in last six decades as an average34.35. GDP per capita at current prices increased from $348.2 in 1981 to $1,427.1 in 2015 with an average of $665.49 in 34 years with less than 2% in US dollars as an average36.37. On the other hand, it's also a fact that economic development at different stages encourages or discourages population growth as economic incentives changes human behavior, access to education and evolution of new lifestyle38. That is why the population growth in developing country contributes more than 80% in world population39. Becker (1960) argued that the decline in fertility is a by-product of the rise in income and the associated rise in the opportunity cost of raising children. His thesis suggests that the rise in income induced a fertility decline because the positive income effect on fertility was dominated by a negative substitution effect brought about by the rising opportunity cost of raising children40. Similarly, Becker & Lewis (1973) postulated that the income elasticity with respect to investment in children's education was greater than that with respect to the number of children, and hence the rise in income led to a decline in fertility along with an increase in the investment in each child41. In traditional societies it is often argued that parents' desire for old age security in the form of transfers from their children provides an important motive for childbearing. Some doubt has been cast on this "old age security hypothesis" by recent estimates which suggest that the rate of return on investments in children tend to be negative in most developing countries42.One of these studies on population suggests that it may be inappropriate to infer that negative rates of return to children imply that the economic motivation for childbearing is weak. Rather, the combination of a negative rate of return and a positive rate of population growth may imply a very strong economic motivation for childbearing because parents need to have a large number of children in order to obtain a subsistence level of old age consumption43. The further implication is that population growth in such circumstances is inefficiently high in the sense that each individual in current and future generations could be made better off if (a) the rate of population growth were lower and (b) the level of transfers to the elderly from the economically active segment of the population were increased. Moreover, the microeconomic model of fertility decisions assumes that children are treated purely as capital goods43. That is, parents do not receive any direct utility from their children; their only motivation for childbearing stems from the expectation that children will support them in old age43. Longitudinal evidence from Thailand suggests that intergenerational support flowing from children to parents does not seem to abate 44.The same study suggested that many aspects of intergenerational solidarity persist although the forms taken may be altered as both older age parents and adult children adapt to changing circumstances44. In the case of Korea, it's found that despite a decline in the Confucian tradition of filial piety, a majority of elderly (70 percent) received financial transfers from children, transfers accounted for about a quarter of the average elderly person's income, and they constitute the main mechanism to prevent poverty45 .

Culture has an important role to play in economic development of any country as well as cultural differences are an important part of the story of economic growth and development. From past five decades, the Confucian- influenced economies of East Asia outperformed the rest of world by a wide margin. This holds true in spite of the fact that they are formed by a wide variety of economic and political institutions46.By comparison; most African economies have experienced low level of growth rates during the same period of time. Both societal-level and individual-level evidence suggest that it is not only a society's economic and political institutions but also its cultural factors values, norms and factors are important in determining the economic development of any country46.Numerous studies empirically provide the credence to the hypothesis that informal convention and culture play a vital role in economic growth 47.48.49.50.51.52.53.54.55.56.57.Scholars from various disciplines have observed that distinctive cultural traits endure over long periods of time continue to shape society's political and economic performance58.59.In the field of population studies, it has long been recognized that education is strongly related to a broad range of demographic behaviors. The spread of education throughout a population has been shown to be of central importance for the long-term demographic transition from high to low levels of fertility59.Caldwell (1980), in particular, has maintained that high levels of fertility would nowhere persist for long once a society had achieved "mass education", that is to say, once a large majority of children were sent to school60.Over the 30-year period between 1970 and 2000, estimated adult illiteracy rates (for ages 15 years or over) declined worldwide from 37 to 20 per cent, mostly owing to effects of increases in primary school enrolments59. Mainly from 1990 to 1999, the Gender Parity Index (based on gross enrolment ratios) increased from 0.87 to 0.92 for primary school age enrolments and from 0.75 to 0.89 for secondary school enrolments in the developing countries. The proportion of girls in primary and secondary enrolment remains considerably lower than that of boys in many parts of the developing world, notably Southern Asia, the Arab States, North Africa, and sub-Saharan Africa. By 2015, adult illiteracy is projected to decrease further to 15 per cent. Even though there has been substantial progress in all regions, illiteracy remains common in much of the developing world like Pakistan. On the other hand, the demand for children (the number of children that a couple desires) is also the outcome of complex calculations59.Economists have predictably focused on the net contributions of children to the income and material welfare of the family. In very low-income communities, children typically become contributors to the economic welfare of the family at a very young age61.Small children care for younger siblings, thereby releasing their mothers to work either in the fields or in shops. Often, very small children also assist in the herding of small animals and in the care of kitchen gardens. In addition, children provide parents with economic security in their old age61.Around the world; women play a vital role in providing for families, sustaining communities and managing natural resources. Yet too many lack the means to improve lives and shape the planet's future. Empowering women through better education, economic opportunity and healthcare including family planning is pivotal to world progress, with far-reaching benefits for families, communities and the planet. Women who are empowered to make choices about childbearing are more likely to seize economic opportunity and invest in their children's education; they and their children are less likely to be poor 64.The health benefits would be dramatic: universal access to reproductive healthcare could prevent two-thirds of unintended pregnancies, 70% of maternal deaths, 44% of newborn deaths, and three quarters of unsafe abortions62. Despite significant progress toward universal primary education, only 87 out of 100 children in developing countries complete primary school and more than half of those not in school are girls like in Pakistan63.Because women typically invest more in their children than do men, helping women has significant benefits for families. Improvements in women's education and health have been linked to better outcomes for children in countries as varied as Brazil, Nepal, Pakistan, and Senegal62.A range of legal and social measures are needed: primary and secondary education for girls; enforcing laws and human rights standards that prohibit child marriage and gender-based violence; and improving women's access to credit, land, employment, and training62.In addition, experts tell us that family planning and reproductive healthcare is one of the most cost effective and powerful strategies to empower women and improve their lives. The ability to choose whether and when to have a child is a fundamental human right; it is central to women's health, wellbeing and in many cases survival. Addressing the unmet need for family planning and reproductive healthcare is an essential tool for achieving women's empowerment and sustainable development62.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework is based on theory of Malthusian (1798) based on his book "An Essay on the principle of population"11. This research has chosen three independent variables namely old age security, cultural pressure and women empowerment in order to find their relationship in terms of population with future economic development of Pakistan.

Figure 1:



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is an empirical positivist study based on deductive approach with mainly data collection through quantitative and complementary qualitative instruments suits the nature of this research. This research will use non-probabilistic judgmental sampling because the subject at hand is complicated enough and only some individuals with the background knowledge of subject could be included in the sample size based on their academic and professional qualification. The sample size is 226 participants for data collection through questionnaires and 3 participants for data collection through unstructured interviews. The participants are divided into two categories one for questionnaire and one for unstructured interviews. The questionnaire participants are business postgraduate students from IBA (Suk), Sbazaist(Hyd & Karachi), IMSA(Hyd), Isra University(Hyd), Sindh University Main Campus(Jamshoro), Iqra University(Karachi).While unstructured interviews are taken from lecturers and employees working in private and public financial institutions. Independent variables are operationalized for questionnaires in terms of three different factors. Old age security is operationalized into financial incentives; lack of effective government social security and lack of opportunities for old age people. Cultural pressure is operationalized by social recognition, family succession and time pressure. The last but not the least women empowerment is operationalized by women education, participation in decision making and gender equality awareness. Economic development is operationalized in terms of GDP growth per capita, government expenditure and current account status. The data collected then is analyzed through SPSS Spearman and Pearson correlation test to find the relationship between each independent and dependent variables and by the combination of all independent variables and dependent variable.

FINAL RESULTS

This research was carried out in an endeavor to understand the population phenomena and its impact on economic development of Pakistan. The research found at the end of its descriptive analysis of questionnaire through SPSS that 60% participants agree that financial incentive to old people encouraging population growth while only 13% are disagreed, 58% agree with the point raised by this research that lack of effective old age security contributes in population growth while only 23% are disagreed, 70% participants agree that due to lack of opportunities for old people playing its role in population growth in Pakistan. Furthermore, it was also found by this research that 50% participants are agreed while only 30% are disagreed that younger population get married because of social recognition, 65% participants agree while only 16% disagree that younger population produce babies due to family succession. This research also mentioned that younger population produce babies before their middle age and 69% participants were agreed on this point while only 15% showed their disagreement. Moreover while asking women empowerment questions; it was come up to the surface that 61% participants agree that women education plays a role in women empowerment while only 24% disagreed with the point. On the other hand, on the issue of women participation in family decision making, 53% participants were agreed that it would increase women empowerment while 31% disagreed with the notion. While asking gender equality question, 72% participants were agreed that gender equality can empower the women while only 9% were disagreed with the idea. Finally, when it was asked about the GDP per capita relationship with the population growth, 74% participants were agreed while only 8% disagreed that there is a relationship between GDP per capita and population growth in Pakistan. While asking about the impact of population growth on government expenditure and subsequently increase budget deficit, 67% were agreed that there is a relationship while only 14% showed their disassociation. Lastly, when asked about the current account deficit and its impact on population growth, 57% participants were agreed that current account deficit and lesser economic activity have a relationship with population growth while 22% were dissatisfied with the position.

Relationship with Old Age Security:

This research has carried out the Spearman and Pearson correlation test in order to find the relationship between old age security and future economic development of Pakistan.

Figure 2

Correlations

		Dependent	Independent1
Dependent	Pearson Correlation	1	.285**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	226	226
Independent1	Pearson Correlation	.285**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	226	226

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

Figure 3

Correlations

			Dependent	Independent1
Spearman's rho	Dependent	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.279**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	226	226
	Independent1	Correlation Coefficient	.279**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	226	226

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

The above results in Fig 2 & 3 show that there is a weak relationship between future economic development and old age security.

Relationship with Cultural Pressure:
The research has used two analysis tests Pearson and Spearman in order to find the relationship between cultural pressure and future economic development of Pakistan.

Figure 4

Correlations

		Dependent	Independent2
Dependent	Pearson Correlation	1	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.342
	N	226	226
Independent2	Pearson Correlation	.063	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.342	
	N	226	226

Figure 5

Correlations

			Dependent	Independent2
Spearman's rho	Dependent	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.044
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.508
		N	226	226
	Independent2	Correlation Coefficient	.044	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.508	.
		N	226	226

The above findings in Fig 4 & 5 show that there is no relationship according to the test between cultural pressure and future economic development of Pakistan.

Relationship with Women Empowerment:
This research has found the following results by carrying out two different tests in order to find the relationship between women empowerment and future economic development of Pakistan.

Figure 6

Correlations

		Dependent	Independent3
Dependent	Pearson Correlation	1	.183**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006
	N	226	226
Independent3	Pearson Correlation	.183**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	
	N	226	226

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

Figure 7

Correlations

			Dependent	Independent3
Spearman's rho	Dependent	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.194**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.003
		N	226	226
	Independent3	Correlation Coefficient	.194**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.
		N	226	226

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

The above outcome shows that there is a very weak relationship between women empowerment and future economic development of Pakistan.

Relationship between Population Growth and Future Economic Development:

The research has finally carried out the final tests in order to find the relationship between Population growth and Future economic development of Pakistan.

Figure 8

Correlations

		Dependent	Independent
Dependent	Pearson Correlation	1	.252**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	226	226
Independent	Pearson Correlation	.252**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	226	226

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

Figure 9

Correlations

			Dependent	Independent
Spearman's rho	Dependent	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.239**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	226	226
	Independent	Correlation Coefficient	.239**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	226	226

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

The above results show that there is a very weak relationship between population growth and future economic development of Pakistan.

The above findings has achieved the objectives of this research and found the relationship between two of the independent variables namely old age security and women empowerment. Since the research couldn't find the relationship between cultural pressure and future economic development of Pakistan. But as far as combined variable namely population growth and dependent variable future economic development of Pakistan, it was observed a weak connection between the two factors.

DISCUSSION

This research was carried out based on the theory of Malthus(1798) in which he argues that population in the long run will produce problems for economic growth as economic growth is linear in nature while population growth is geometrical. The research therefore also included the related questions that are asked during interview from different professionals in order to understand the Malthus theory and also to find the relationship between population growth and future economic development of Pakistan.

In your opinion, is old age security means people producing more babies because of those young children will support them emotionally and financially in their future is also a reason behind population growth?

The old age security has some connection with the population growth as this was argued by Benjamin (1989) that the combination of a negative rate of return on child investment and a positive rate of population growth may imply a very strong economic motivation for childbearing because parents need to have a large number of children in order to obtain a subsistence level of old age consumption43. The further implication is that population growth in such circumstances is inefficiently high in the sense that each individual in current and future generations could be made better off if (a) the rate of population growth were lower and (b) the level of transfers to the elderly from the economically active segment of the population were increased. Moreover, the microeconomic model of fertility decisions assumes that children are treated purely as capital goods43. This was supported by our one interviewer "Old age security seems to have a direct impact on population growth because we have more people working for private sector rather than government sector and they don't have old age security as it should be". Another interviewer puts the counter argument "Yes, this is a valid concept but now people are more aware about disadvantages of producing more babies than before. If you look one or few decades back, people were having more children and the behind that the reason was same that that the more children will earn for them and support them in long run and they consider it as old age security for them. Third interviewer disagrees with the above both "There are socio-cultural reasons behind population growth however old age security is not among the key reason. Such factor does exist in rural populace however can't widely recognized in urban family structure". In addition with all above, the questionnaire analysis suggests that 58% participants agree with the connection between old age security and population growth. While 70% seems satisfied with the idea of lack of opportunities for old people contributing in population growth. By that means, the research can say with mild assurance that there is a connection between the two factors. But on the other hand, it was also found during the SPSS correlation test that there is a weak relationship between old age security in terms of population growth and future economic development of Pakistan

Do women education plays a role in population growth in Pakistan?

Women education plays a very significant role in reducing population growth as there has been found a significant relationship between the two during our literature review and during this research as well when this was mentioned by our two interviewees "Women education plays very important role in population growth of Pakistan. If a woman is educated then she is more concerned about her children than the uneducated woman and also prefers to have few". "Access to education will increase awareness towards women about her duties, health, risk factor and her role understanding in a joint-family-structure". Recent survey data shows that education continues to exert a significant influence on fertility levels, preferences and regulation. At the aggregate level, countries with higher literacy rates and overall educational attainment have lower total fertility rates (TFRs) than countries whose populations have lower education levels59. So this time we can say with quite assurance that there is a significant relationship between women education and population growth universally59. This trend was also found during our questionnaire survey when 61% participants accepted the notion that women education plays a greater role in women empowerment while 72% were also agreed on the gender equality contribution in women empowerment. While, it was also found through SPSS correlation test there is a very weak relationship between women empowerment in terms of population growth and future economic development of Pakistan

What do you think about Pakistani culture; does it encourage or discourage giving birth to babies generally?

The large Asian population reflects the legacy of history; even in antiquity, the populations of China and India numbered in the tens of millions65.Fertile river valleys, complex irrigation systems, extensive trading systems, and strong states created agrarian civilizations with extensive peasant populations. Over the centuries, these civilizations expanded and contracted with accordion-like waves of demographic growth and decline. Asia had fallen behind the European economic and technological advances in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, but Asian populations had, overall, continued to grow during this period65. Therefore one interview mentioned that "Pakistani culture encourages giving birth to babies as there is no any law for population control like as in China there is law for population control". Another described "Desire of son because of succession of family name, increase in labor and old age security". The third one declared "Pakistan is parochial society that also seems to be reason for high fertility rate". Although the research SPSS correlation test found no relationship between cultural pressure in terms of population growth and future economic development of Pakistan

What do you think generally about population growth in Pakistan, is it good or bad in terms of economic development (GDP, GDP per capita)?

When this question was asked from multiple interviewers, it was mentioned by one interviewer "Population growth is increasing since its inception but in Pakistan (a developing country) it is not good in term of economic development. As the population increase, GDP per capita will decrease due to limited resources". While other one said "This is good for Pakistan in the long-run. Here several theories of controlling population growth has been tried and tested, yet failed to make remarkable impact for one or the other reasons". The last one argued "Impact of population is not the one way street so we can't see if income of the populace increases, will it decrease the population growth or not because it depends on number of other factors as well but population control would have a positive impact on economic development of the country". There are also some other scholars worth mentioning here that supports the above arguments like Cincotta & Engelman(1997) argued that population growth has dampened the growth of per capita gross domestic product, the primary measuring unit of economic growth66. The negative effects of rapid population growth appear to have weighed most heavily on the poorest group of countries in the developing world during the 1980s and also throughout the two previous decades. Population affects economic performance suggests a possible resolution of the old and persistent empirical puzzle of the generally small and statistically insignificant impacts of population growth on the growth of GDP per capita67, 68, 69.It was argued by another scholar that the net relationship between greater population and economic growth depends on whether the inducements to human capital and expansion of knowledge are stronger than diminishing returns to natural resources. Therefore, it is important to examine the population and economic growth nexus19. It was also found during our questionnaire analysis that 74% participants were agreed on the idea that there is a relationship between population growth and economic development in terms of GDP. The below table shows the indicators of population growth and economic development but it is hard to understand the relationship between the two factors by analyzing the below data.

Table 1:

Year	GDP Growth Rate	GDP Per Capita($)	Population Growth Rate(PGR)	Total Fertility Rate(TFR)
1996	6.6	503.7	2.5	5.2
1997	1.7	484.6	2.5	5
1998	3.5	471.1	2.4	4.9
1999	4.2	465.9	2.4	4.7
2000	3.9	534.9	2.3	4.5
2001	2	511.8	2.2	4.3
2002	3.1	501.2	2.1	4.1
2003	4.7	565.3	2	4
2004	7.5	652	2	3.9
2005	9	714	2	3.8
2006	5.8	877	2	3.8
2007	6.8	953.8	2.1	3.7
2008	7.2	1,042.80	2.1	3.6
2009	-1.6	1,009.80	2.1	3.5
2010	3.8	1,043.30	2.1	3.4
2011	3.6	1,230.80	2.1	3.3
2012	3.8	1,266.40	2.1	3.3
2013	3.7	1,282	2.1	3.3
2014	4	1,334.10	2.1	3.2
2015	4.2	1,427.10	2.1	3.2

Source: The World Bank Database, Fertility Rate (1996-2014), Population Growth Rate (1996-2014), GDP growth rate, GDP per capita (1996-2014) accessed on 20th October 2015

During the SPSS correlation test, it was also found that there is a weak relationship between population growth and future economic development of Pakistan. So, it could be said with certainty that population growth has some impact on the future economic growth of Pakistan but whether that impact is positive or negative couldn't be argued at this moment. Although it could be narrated with certainty now that there is a connection between the two factors.

What kind of impact has it produced in the past or going to produce in the future on the socio-economic structure of Pakistan?

During interview from multiple interviews, it was argued by one of them that "Due to high population growth, living standard of people became low. Most of the low income people have more children therefore they were not able to support them properly" While another one contrasted "Pakistan is among the larger market of youth in world. With increased availability & deployment of human resource would play positive & multiplier impact to the economy like china, and India etc. Third one gave a different view like "Population growth has impact on Health and Education and government is not doing much about it, Pakistan has very high young population that also causes population growth in the country so population growth is hard to decrease substantially in the present or near future. Young population would soon come into reproductive age and cause population growth in the country. So it could be taken from the above discussion that population growth could have a negative impact in terms of education, health and infrastructure but on the other hand, it could be beneficial for economic activity if it is used in an effective and efficient way. Below table information also suggests that even though the there is a huge budget and trade deficit but also there is a good increase in government revenue as well.

Table 2:

Year	Government Revenue(RS) Million	Government Expenditure(RS) Million	Budget Deficit(RS) Million	Trade Balance(RS) Million	Population Growth Rate	Total Fertility Rate(TFR)
1996-1997	3,88,246	5,43,106	-1,54,860	-1,39,688	2.5	5.2
1997-1998	4,29,454	6,34,014	-2,04,560	-63,178	2.5	5
1998-1999	4,68,601	6,47,778	-1,79,177	-75,622	2.4	4.9
1999-2000	5,12,500	7,09,100	-1,96,600	-90,114	2.4	4.7
2000-2001	5,53,000	7,17,900	-1,64,900	-87,930	2.3	4.5
2001-2002	6,24,100	8,26,250	-2,02,150	-73,683	2.2	4.3
2002-2003	7,20,800	8,98,200	-1,77,400	-62,078	2.1	4.1
2003-2004	7,93,700	9,55,800	-1,62,100	-1,88,789	2	4
2004-2005	9,000,14	11,16,981	-2,16,967	-3,68,991	2	3.9
2005-2006	107,600	14,01,900	-12,94,300	-7,26,317	2	3.8
2006-2007	12,97,957	17,99,968	-5,02,011	-8,22,494	2	3.8
2007-2008	14,99,380	22,76,549	-7,77,169	-13,15,434	2.1	3.7
2008-2009	18,50,901	25,31,308	-6,80,407	-13,39,852	2.1	3.6
2009-2010	20,78,165	30,07,226	-9,29,061	-12,93,517	2.1	3.5
2010-2011	22,52,854	34,47,263	-11,94,409	-13,34,439	2.1	3.4
2011-2012	25,66,514	39,36,218	-13,69,704	-18,98,488	2.1	3.3
2012-2013	29,82,436	48,16,300	-18,33,864	-19,83,401	2.1	3.3
2013-2014	36,37,297	50,26,016	-13,88,719	-20,47,058	2.1	3.3
2014-2015	26,82,647	37,31,587	-10,48,940	-16,25,143	2.1	3.2

Source: Pakistan Economic Survey (1997-2015)

It was also found during this research that 67% questionnaire participants were agreed on the impact of population growth on government expenditure and subsequently increase budget deficit, while 57% participants were agreed that current account deficit and lesser economic activity have a relationship with population growth in Pakistan.

Last question, what do you think if the government or society by its own understand and control population growth, will alone or combined endeavor contribute in rapid economic development of Pakistan in the future?

Unchecked and rapid population growth has been a major stumbling block in the way of socio-economic development in most of the developing countries. Usually the positive impact of development initiatives is cancelled out due to corresponding increase in the number of individuals added to the society. Unbridled growth in population needs unlimited resources to maintain and improve its living standards. Since, resources are limited therefore we have no option but to control the population to a manageable extent70.This last question was answered by all interviewers almost in a similar way as the first one argued that "Government and society should jointly control population growth and can contribute in rapid economic development of Pakistan by introducing awareness sessions/ seminars and also by providing old age benefits as people may not feel insecure in their old ages. The second one mentioned "Not alone, this can be served. This is a combined effort of govt. as well as society. Where govt. to provide awareness & resource, while society to understand national concerns and pay its duty towards wellbeing of the nation". So, it could be a valid assertion to make that combined efforts are necessary to force the ghost of population growth inside the bottle.

CONCLUSION

The research was carried out in order to understand the population phenomena and its impact on future economic development of Pakistan. The research was quantitative in nature so therefore questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data of different kinds. It was found during this research that there is relationship between old age security and future economic development, women empowerment and future economic development of Pakistan with the exception of cultural pressure factor. Most of the participants of questionnaires and interviewees were agreed on the notion that population growth is quite high in Pakistan and it is not contributing positively in the economic development of Pakistan as it impacts on GDP, GDP per capita and government expenditure. It was observed during the data collection that generally participants were aware of the high population growth problem and considers it as an obstacle for future economic development of Pakistan. It was also unearthed during this study that as a combined factor population growth and economic development has a very weak connection statistically but qualitatively the connection found was strong.

RECOMMENDATION

The research at the end asked a question from interviews about the possible solution of this problem and all are agreed on this point that no single stakeholders can solve this issue. It could only be solved when society understand its importance and takes preventive measures while on the other hand government initiate some policy measures like introducing informative and educational sessions. But in case, if this all is not sufficient, government can merge its population control policy with other policies like Benazir income support program and provide poverty funds to those having fewer children. The government of Pakistan can introduce some new policies like providing scholarships and free admission in government schools and colleges to poor families having two children. It can also give preference to those having fewer children in government jobs and grant income tax incentives as well. This all and more is possible but until and unless people of Pakistan don't consider it as an issue, it could not be possible to control anyway.

References

1. Pakistan is World's Sixth most Populous Country (2013, December 23), Retrieved from(http://www.pakistantoday.com.pk/2013/12/23/national/pakistan-is-worlds-sixth-most-populous-country/)
2. Mahsud-Dornan S. (2007), Pakistan, Population Programmes and Progress, Ulster Medical Society, UK.

3. Pakistan Welfare Department (Punjab), Pakistan Population Clock (2015.November 01), Retrieved from (http://www.pwd.punjab.gov.pk/).
4. Afzal & Awais(2014), Population and Poverty Nexus in Pakistan, Journal of Independent Studies and Research-Management, Social Sciences and Economics, 12(2), 63-76
5. Wazir M.A(2013), Population Dynamics in Pakistan, Past, Present and Future, Sustainable Development Policy Institute, Policy Brief 35, First Edition, Islamabad, Pakistan.
6. Pakistan Economic Survey (2013-14), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan
7. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2015). World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision, Key Findings and Advance Tables. Working Paper No. ESA/P/WP.241.
8. Pakistan Annual Plan(2015-16), Chapter 3, Ministry of Planning, Development and Reform, Pakistan
9. Mustaq (2006), Population Growth and Economic Development: Test for Causality The Lahore Journal of Economics 11: 2 (Winter 2006) pp. 71-77.
10. G. Miller & Spoolman S (2012), Sustaining the Earth, Cengage Advantage Books
11. ISBN-10: 143904984X
12. Malthus, T. R (1992), An Essay on the Principles of Population, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992).
13. Brezis E.S & Young W (2003), the new views on demographic transition: a of Malthus's and Marx's approach to population, Euro. J. History of Economic Thought, 10:1 25–45 Spring 2003, Routledge, UK.
14. Stewart, M. B. "The Employment Effects of the National Minimum Wage". Economic Journal 114 (2004): Cl 10-16.
15. Rama, M. "The Consequences of Doubling the Minimum Wage: The case of Indonesia". Industrial and Labour Relations Review 54, no. 4 (2001): 864-81.
16. Warr, P. "Globalization, Growth, and Poverty Reduction in Thailand". ASEAN Economic Bulletin 21, no. 1 (2004): 1-18.
17. Meier, G. M.(1995), Leading Issues in Economic Development. 6th Ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1995.
18. Thirlwall, A.P., 1972, A Cross Section Study of Population Growth and the Growth of Output and Per Capita Income in a Production Function Framework, The Manchester School 40(4):339-356.
19. Becker, G. S., E\. L. Glaeser, and K. M. Murphy. "Population and Economic Growth". American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings 89, no. 2 (1999): 145-149.
20. Savas B. (2008), The Relationship between population and economic growth: The Empirical evidence from the central Asian economies, The International Strategic Research Organization Journal, pp 161-183, 2008, Turkey
21. Pakistan Economic Survey (2011-12), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan
22. OECD (2008), OECD Insights Sustainable Development Linking Economy, Society, Environment, OECD Rights and Translation unit (PAC) 2 rue André-Pascal, 75116 Paris, France.
23. Strange T. & Bayley A. (2008), OECD Insights Sustainable Development Linking Economy, Society, Environment, OECD Report, 2008, Geneva, Switzerland
24. Furuoka F. & Munir Q.(2010), Is Population Growth Beneficial or Detrimental to Economic Development, A New Evidence from Pakistan, Journal of Population and Social Studies Volume 18 Number 2 January 2010.
25. Dawson, D.J. & Tiffin R. 1998. Is There a Long-Run Relationship between Population Growth and Living Standard? The Case of India. Journal of Development Studies. 34(5): 149-156.
26. Dao M.Q(2012), Population and Economic Growth in Developing Countries, International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences January 2012, Vol. 2, No. 1 ISSN: 2222-6990.

27. Bloom, D. and D. Canning (2001), "Cumulative causality, economic growth, and the Demographic transition", in N. Birdsall, A.C. Kelley and S. Sinding (eds), Population Matters: Demographic Change, Economic Growth, and Poverty in the Developing World, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

28. Dyson, T. (2010) Population and Development: The Demographic Transition, New York, NY: Zed Books

29. Kalemli-Ozcan, S. (2002), "Does mortality decline promote economic growth?", Journal Of Economic Growth, 7(4): 411-39.

30. Pakistan Economic Survey (2010-11), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan.

31. Pakistan Economic Survey (2012-13), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan.

32. Pakistan Economic Survey (2014-15), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan.

33. Pakistan Economic Survey (2009-10), Chapter 12, Population, Labour Force and Employment, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad, Pakistan.

34. The World Bank, Fertility Rate (1996-2014) accessed on 20th October 2015, Retrieved From http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.TFRT.IN

35. Real GDP growth rate, Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, Handbook of Statistics on Pakistan Economy 2010 accessed on 20th October 2015, Retrieved From www.sbp.org.pk/departments/stats/pakEconomy.../Chap-1.3.pdf

36. GDP growth rates, Pakistan Data accessed on 20th October 2015 Retrieved from http://knoema.com/tbocwag/gdp-by-country-1980-2015?country=Pakistan

37. The World Bank, GDP per capita current PPP (US) (1981-2014) accessed on 20th October 2015, Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD?page=6

38. GDP per capita, Pakistan Data accessed on 20th October 2015 Retrieved from http://knoema.com/tbocwag/gdp-by-country-1980-2015?country=Pakistan

39. United Nations Documents, Our Common Future, Chapter 4: Population and Human Resources from A/42/427, Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development accessed on 20th October 2015 http://www.un-documents.net/ocf-04.htm

40. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2014). World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, Highlights (ST/ESA/SER.A/352).

41. Becker G.S. (1960), an economic analysis of fertility. Demographic and economic change in Developed Countries. Princeton University Press. 1960:209–231.

42. Becker GS, Lewis H.G. (1973). On the interaction between the quantity and quality of Children. Journal of Political Economy. 1973; 81(2, Part II):S279–S288.

43. Willis R.J (1979), the old age security hypothesis and population growth, NBER working Paper series 372, National Bureau of Economic Research 1050 Massachusetts Avenue Cambridge MA 02138

44. Benjamin B (1989), "The Old Age Security Hypothesis and Optimal Population Growth," Journal of Population Economics, vol. 1, p. 285-301.

45. Knodel, J.A. Chamratrithirong & N. Debavalya (987), Thailand's Reproductive Revolution: Rapid Decline in a Third-World Setting. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

46. Family Support Networks and Population Ageing Report (2009), the Doha International Institute for Family Studies and Development and United Nation Fund on Population in collaboration with Northwestern University, June 2009.

47. Khan M.M, Zhang J.,Hashmi M.S & Bashir M(2009), International Journal of Business and Social Science Vol. 1 No. 2; November 2010 Cultural Values and Economic Growth in Asia: An Empirical Analysis.

48. Chamlee-Wrights, E. (1997), the Cultural Foundations of Economic Development: Urban Female Entrepreneurship in Ghana. New York: Routledge.

49. Grier, R. (1997). The Effect of Religion on Economic Development: A Cross-National Study of Sixty-Three Former Colonies, Kyklos, 50(1): 47–62.
50. Knack, S. and P. Keefer. (1997). Does Social Capital Have an Economic Payoff? The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 112(4): 1251–1288.
51. Duff, D. and J. Stubben. (1998), an Assessment of Native American Economic Development: Putting Culture and Sovereignty Back in the Models, Studies in Comparative International Development 32(4):52-78.
52. Barro, Robert J. and R. McCleary.(2003), Religion and Economic Growth across Countries, American Sociological Review, 68(5): 760–781.
53. Guiso, L., P. Sapienza & L. Zingales. (2006), Does Culture Affect Economic Outcomes? Journal of Economic Perspectives, 20(2): 23–48.
54. Licht, A.N., G. Chanan, and S.H. Schwartz. (2007). Culture Rules: The Foundations of the rule of Law and Other Norms of Governance, Journal of Comparative Economics,35: 659–688.
55. Leeson, P.T. (2007a), Better Off Stateless: Somalia Before and After Government Collapse, Journal of Comparative Economics, 35(4): 689–710.
56. Leeson, P.T. (2007b), Trading with Bandits, Journal of Law and Economics, 50(2):303–321.
57. Leeson, P.T. (2007c), Efficient Anarchy, Public Choice, 130(1-2): 41–53.
58. Williamson, C. R. (2009), Informal Institutions Rule: Institutional Arrangements and Economic Performance, Public Choice, 139(3): 371–387.
59. Inglehart, R. & W.E. Baker (2000), Modernization, Cultural Change, and the Persistence Of traditional Values‟. American Sociological Review 65(1): 19- 51.
60. Population, Education and Development (2003), Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division, United Nations, Newyork 2003.
61. Caldwell, J. C. (1980). Mass education as a determinant of the timing of fertility decline. Population and Development Review (New York), vol. 6, No. 2 (June), pp. 225-255.
62. Population and Education -Social and Economic Factors, Conclusions accessed on 25th October 2015, Retrieved from http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/2327/Population-Education.html#ixzz3qLmaQEu0
63. Women's Empowerment & Family Planning Research Paper (Key to Global Development), (2012), Center for environment and population, New Canaan, United States.
64. EFA Global Monitoring Report (2015), Education for all (2000-2015), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris, France.
65. Cleland, J., S. Bernstein, et. al., 2006, "Family planning: the unfinished agenda," The Lancet 368 (9549).
66. Durand, John D. (1977) 'Historical estimates of world population: an evaluation', Population and Development Review, 3 (3): 253–96.
67. Cincotta R.P & Engelman R(1997), Economics and Rapid Change, The influence of Population Growth, Occasional Paper, Population International, October 1997.
68. Kelley A. & Schmidt R. (1994), "Population and income change: Recent Evidence, "World Bank Discussion Paper 249. World Bank: Washington DC.
69. King R. & Levine R (1994), "Capital fundamentalism economic development, and Economic growth," Carnegie-Rochester Series on Public Policy, 40.
70. Kling J.& Pritchett L(1995), "Where in the World is Population Growth Bad?" World Bank Policy Research Paper #1391. Washington, DC.
71. Chaudhary A.R(2000), An Economic Analysis of Pakistan's Investment in Population Control, Pakistan Economic and Social Review, Volume XXXVIII, No. 2 (Winter 2000), pp. 167-192.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1818.

Wang, D. (2016). Research on Internet Insurance Performance Efficiency of Life Insurande Company in China Using Data Envelopment Analysis. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 58-69.

Research on Internet Insurance Performance Efficiency of Life Insurance Company in China Using Data Envelopment Analysis

Da Wang
School of Insurance
Central University of Finance and Economics

Abstract

In these years, the revenue of premium from the Internet is increasing constantly and the Internet Insurance is developing at an amazing speed. However, how about the operation efficiency of Internet Insurance? Basing on the situation of revenue of premium from the Internet, this paper selects the top 10 Life Insurance Companies in China as the research samples. Using Data Envelopment Analysis and choosing both financial and non-financial variables, this paper makes a research on the Internet Insurance performance efficiency of Life Insurance Companies. The results show that in the early development period, the performance efficiency of Internet Insurance is normally low and the input of fixed assets does less to the performance efficiency than other two inputs. And this paper put forwards that insurance companies should take use of the official website to improve the performance efficiency of the Internet.

Key words: Internet Insurance；DEA；Performance Efficiency

INTRODUCTION

With the further development of Internet technology, people have cultivated the habit of shopping online. The Internet is influencing people's lifestyle at an unprecedented speed. Since the concept "Internet Plus" is came up with, industries in different areas start to combine the Internet with the traditional industry to promote the innovation. Furthermore, Internet Finance is the most popular topic in China recently.

From the E-business of insurance in the past to Internet Insurance nowadays, research and application of Internet about insurance has a more than 20 years' process. Until recently, with the promotion and the development of the macro environment, Internet Insurance in China has made a great progress. According to the statistics from Insurance Association of China, there are 28 insurance companies operating the business of Internet Insurance in 2011 and the total amount of the Internet premium is 3.199 billion Yuan; In 2012 there are 34 insurers having this business and the Internet premium arrives to 10.624 billion Yuan which is 2.3 times more than previous year; In 2013, the number of the insurers is 60 and the Internet premium is 29.115 billion Yuan; As for the year of 2014, the total Internet premium is 85.89 billion Yuan coming from 85 insurance companies. In the short 4 years, the growth of the Internet premium is up to 2585%.

In the early period, insurance companies just regarded the Internet as a distribution channel. Recently, with the founding of Internet Insurance companies (Zhong'an Online and Taikang Online), the Internet is no longer just a way selling insurance products. The Internet plays an important role on the whole chain of the insurance industry.

The low cost and transparent information are the advantages of the Internet, which bring wide development space to the traditional insurance industry. However, how about the Internet performance efficiency of the insurances? Which factors are the primary factors that will improve the Internet performance efficiency? Basing on the thought to questions above, this paper uses the model of DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis) to study the Internet performance efficiency of the insurance companies in China. This paper analyzes the influence factors to the performance efficiency and comes up with the operation strategies to the development of the Internet Insurance.

The arrangement of other parts of this paper is as follows: the second part is the Literature Review. This part introduces some research methods about operation efficiency and the research situations of the scholars in the operation efficiency of the traditional insurance companies. The third part introduces the DEA as well as the input and output indexes this paper selects. The fourth part is the analysis of the empirical results. This analysis includes two sections: one is about the result of the DEA and the other is the principal component analysis basing on the calculation of DEA. The last part is the conclusion of this paper and the further research in this area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The research methods of the operation efficiency are as follows: （1） the Data Envelopment Analysis represented by Sherman and Gold (1985); (2) the Free Disposal Hull represented by Berger and Humphrey; (3) the Stochastic Frontier represented by Hasan and Marton; (4) the Thick Frontier represented by Berge and Humphrey (1997); (5) the Distribution Free Method represented by Berger (1993) and Weil (2004).

Basing on the research above, scholars in the area of insurers' operation efficiency make a large amount of research. Sun (2008) uses the DEA to analyze the operation efficiency of life insurance companies in China and aboard. The author calculates the technical efficiency as well as pure technical efficiency and then reckons the scale efficiency. According to the results, the paper makes a comparison about the operation efficiency of China's life insurance companies and foreign life insurance. The conclusion is that the operation efficiency of China's life insurance companies ranks in front of the foreign life insurance companies because of the large scale of China's insurers. He and Yan (2010) estimate the production efficiency of gross premium, standard premium as well as premium from different distribution channels respectively using the DEA and SFA. They consider that the operation efficiency of the branch companies in some large and middle-sized cities is not optimistic. It is apparent that these companies facilitate the development of their business through the capital and they should improve their business performance. Ye and Chen (2012) use the SFA to make a research about the operation efficiency of China's listed insurers. They think that executive compensation has a negative influence on the profit efficiency and no effect on the cost efficiency. Zhang (2009) uses the DEA to make an empirical research about the property insurance companies in China. The paper focuses on the effect of the micro factors and makes liner analysis as well as summarizes the factors of macro economic. It turns out to be that the scale of the companies and the qualities of the staff are referred as the most important endogenous factors.

There are also some papers related to the operation efficiency of Internet finance (bank and insurance). Guan, Zhang and Yang（2014） use the DEA to calculate the operation efficiency of 11 listed commercial banks. It analyzes the influence of the Internet finance on the overall efficiency，scale efficiency as well as pure technical efficiency. It turns out to be that the Internet finance has a positive influence on the overall efficiency and pure technical efficiency.

Liu (2015) selects 7 property insurance companies and 7 life insurance companies as the research sample basing on the $w \geq 0, \mu \geq 0$ rank of the Internet business. The paper uses the SFA to analyze the influence of the Internet Insurance on the operation efficiency of insurance industry. The result turns to be out that the development of the Internet Insurance has a positive effect on the cost efficiency and profit efficiency，meanwhile this influence is of direction.

As for this paper, it uses the DEA to make a research about 10 China's life insurance companies whose Internet insurance premiums rank top ten in the year of 2014. When it comes to the input and output variables，this paper selects both financial indexes and the indexes which can reflect the character of Internet such as the click rate of the insurers' websites.

RESEARCH METHOD AND DATA SELECTION

Research Method

This paper uses the DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis), which was first came up with by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes in the year of 1978, to study the operation efficiency of the Internet Insurance companies in China. This method utilizes the model of linear programming to build the frontier of Pareto Optimal, which is the classic non-parametric approach. In the method of DEA, the mathematical function relationship is not a necessity between input index and output index, which is useful to avoid the subjective factors. Moreover, it is flexible to select the input index and output index. At last, DEA does better in dealing with the problem of multiple input indexes and output indexes. Basing on the advantages referring to above as well as the purpose of this paper, the methodology of DEA is selected as the research method.

In the model of DEA, let's assume there are n units, which are referred as Decision Making Units (DMU) and every unit has m input factors and s output factors. The index of input is represented by $X_j = \left(x_{1j},\ldots,x_{mj}\right)^T$ (j=1,..., n) in which x_{ij} represents the input "i" of DMU "j". Likewise, the index of output is represented by $Y_j = \left(y_{1j},\ldots,y_{sj}\right)^T$ (j=1,...,n) in which y_{rj} represents the output "r" of DMU "j". Furthermore, the weights of input and output are represented by $u = \left(u_1,\ldots,u_s\right)^T$ and $u = \left(u_1,\ldots,u_s\right)^T$ respectively. As for every DMU, the index of the efficiency is $h_j = \frac{u^T Y_j}{v^T X_j}$ j=1,2…n. And we have the following mathematical programming problem:

$$\max h_0 = \frac{u^T Y_0}{v^T X_0}$$

$$h_j = \frac{u^T Y_j}{v^T X_j} \leq 1, j = 1,2,\ldots n \qquad (1)$$

$$v \geq 0, u \geq 0$$

The model above is not a linear programming, and we use the transfer of Charnes-Cooper to adjust it. We impose the constraint $t = 1/v^T X_0$ and w=tv, μ=tu, then we get the following model:

$$\max \mu^T Y_0$$

$$w^T X_j - \mu^T Y_j \geq 0, j = 1,2,\ldots n \qquad (2)$$

$$w^T X_0 = 1$$

We add two slack variables s^+ and s^- into the formula (2), then we get the dual linear programming model:

$$\min h_j = \theta$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} X_j \lambda_j + s^- = \theta X_0 \tag{3}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} Y_j \lambda_j + s^+ = Y_0$$

$$\lambda_j \geq 0, j = 1,2,\ldots n; s^+ \geq 0; s^- \geq 0$$

In the model, h_j is the efficiency index of the DMU, representing the value of technical efficiency. And λ_j is the weight of the DMU.

Selection of Samples and the Indexes

Selection of Samples

As for the research objectives, this paper selects 10 life insurance companies which are the top 10 in the rank of Internet Insurance Premium in 2014. The 10 life insurance companies are Sun Life Everbright Life, ICBC-AXA，Foresea Life，Funde Sino Life，Pr Life, Kunlun Health，CCB-Life，Guohua Life，Sunshine Life and Taikang Life. 10 companies' Internet Insurance premium and the market shares are in the following table.

Table 1: Related Data of Top Ten Life Insurance Companies' Internet Insurance Business

Rank	Life Insurance Company	Number of Internet Insurance Policy（Thousand）	Premium of Internet Insurance（Billion Yuan）	Share of Internet Life Insurance Market（%）
1	Everbright Life	163.1	6.101	17.27
2	ICBC-AXA	144	4.594	13.01
3	Foresea Life	219.3	3.946	11.17
4	Funde Sino Life	309.8	3.287	9.31
5	Pr Life	164.7	3.207	9.08
6	Kunlun Health	261.8	2.465	6.98
7	CCB-Life	64.4	2.32	6.57
8	Guohua Life	1282.4	1.793	5.08
9	Sunshine Life	34297.3	1.344	3.81
10	Taikang Life	18630.4	1.071	3.03
	Sum	55537.2	30.128	85.30

Data Resource:《Report of the Industry of Internet Insurance in 2014》

The total revenue of the Internet Insurance premium of the 10 life insurance companies occupies 85.3% of the whole Internet life insurance market, so the research samples are representative.

Although the 10 life insurance companies are of small size in China compared to other life insurance companies like China Life and so on, the 10 life insurance companies do well in the Internet insurance business. Making a research in their operation efficiency of Internet Insurance will be meaningful to development of the whole Internet Insurance market.

Selection of the Indexes of Input and Output

Referring to the scholars' research in the operation efficiency of insurance companies, they choose "capital", "operation cost", "population of staff", "fixed asset" and so on as the input indexes. Also, they choose "revenue of premium", "compensation expenses", "profit of investment" and so on as the output indexes. We summarize these indexes in the following table.

Table 2 Input and Output Indexes Selected by Scholars in Recent Researches

Author	Input Index	Output Index	Research Object	Time of Publication
Yuanxian Liu	Labor Force， Financial Capital， Physical Capital	Payment of Insurance Claims	Property &Life Insurance	2015
Ran Zhang	Labor Force， Equity Capital， Expenses	Payment of Insurance Claims, Profit of Investment, Net Profit	Property Insurance	2012
Jiadong Zhang	Population of Staff, Operation Cost, Equity Capital	Payment， Reserve Fund, Profit of Investment	Life Insurance	2014
Xufeng Sun	Population of Staff, Operation Cost, Fixed Assets	Expenses of Payment, Reserve Fund, Profit of Investment	Life Insurance	2008
Chunhai Zhang	Fixed Assets, Operation Cost, Population of Staff	Revenue of Premium, Profit of Investment	Property Insurance	2011
Qiang Bai	Financial Capital, Population of Staff, Expenses	Revenue of Premium, Profit of Investment	Group of Insurance	2014

Theory of Production is the paper's foundation in selecting input and output indexes，for instance, the life insurance companies input human resources, material resources as well as financial capacity to create the revenue of premium and profit of investment. This paper aims at the research of Internet operation efficiency of life insurance companies, when it comes to the selection of the indexes, we consider both financial indexes and Internet indexes.

Basing on the summarization and the analysis above, this paper selects the "fixed asset", "operation cost" as well as "population of the staff" as the input indexes. Also, we select "revenue of premium from Internet" and "click rate of the official website" as the output indexes.

The fixed asset, which is referred as the index of input of capital, represents the input in the area of material input of life insurance company; Operation cost represents the financial input of life insurance company in the real operation; The population of staff stands for the input of labor force of life insurance company. Since this paper studies the Internet operation efficiency of life insurance company, we select premium from the Internet which reflects the character of

Internet Insurance and the click rate which is a proper output index especially in estimating the appearance of operation efficiency of Internet Insurance business (Floros, 2008).

Data of fixed asset and operation cost can be got from "Annual report of 2014". The data of revenue of premium from Internet can be got from "Report of the Industry of Internet Insurance in 2014";.The population of staff can be got from"Insurance Yearbook of 2014".And the click rate of official website can be got from the database of Alexa.com.

Table 3 Data of Input and Output Indexes of 10 Life Insurance Companies

Life Insurance Company	Fixed Asset (Million Yuan)	Operation Cost (Million Yuan)	Population of Staff (people)	Premium from Internet (Million Yuan)	Click Rate (%)
Everbright Life	57.674	1048.456	2824	6101	0.00006
ICBC-AXA	40.524	855.609	7538	4594	0.00005
Foresea Life	1019.627	1815.62	5694	3946	0.00015
Funde Sino	1680.038	5417.522	94827	3287	0.00024
Pr Life	11.007	306.317	1043	3207	0.00008
Kunlun Health	7.91	177.649	1160	2465	0.000007
CCB-Life	354.303	1146.756	3014	2320	0.00009
Guohua Life	210.51	918.429	7067	1793	0.00011
Sunshine Life	1410.194	3081.01	17145	1344	0.0023
Taikang Life	1708.449	10349.124	10743	1071	0.0461

We use "Input 1", "Input 2" and "Input 3" to represent the "fixed asset", "operation cost" and "population of staff" respectively. Also, we use "Output 1" and "Output 2" to represent the "premium from Internet" and "click rate". Therefore, we can use ABC12 to represent the model. Since the model used in our paper includes three inputs and two outputs, this particular model will have 21 possible combinations and generates 21 results based on the DEA such as A1, AB2, BC12, ABC12 and so on. Testing all possible 21 combinations will help us to better identify the weak and strong aspects of the analyzed life insurance companies. This methodology has been used by Ovidiu Stoica when he made a research in the effect of the Internet Banks on the operation efficiency of Romania's banks in 2013.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Results of DEA

Using the software of DEAP 2.1 and the data in Table3, we get the results of DEA in the following table.

Table 4 Results of Model ABC12

	A1	B1	C1	AB1	AC1	BC1	ABC1
Everbright Life	0.339	0.419	0.703	0.419	0.703	0.703	0.703
ICBC-AXA	0.364	0.387	0.198	0.387	0.364	0.387	0.387
Foresea Life	0.012	0.157	0.225	0.157	0.225	0.225	0.225
Funde Sino	0.006	0.044	0.011	0.044	0.011	0.044	0.044
Pr Life	0.935	0.755	1.000	0.935	1.000	1.000	1.000
Kunlun Health	1.000	1.000	0.691	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
CCB-Life	0.021	0.146	0.250	0.146	0.025	0.250	0.250
Guohua Life	0.027	0.141	0.083	0.141	0.083	0.141	0.141

Sunshine Life	0.003	0.031	0.025	0.031	0.025	0.034	0.034
Taikang Life	0.002	0.007	0.032	0.007	0.032	0.032	0.032
Mean	0.271	0.309	0.322	0.327	0.347	0.382	0.382
	A2	B2	C2	AB2	AC2	BC2	ABC2
Everbright Life	0.039	0.013	0.005	0.039	0.039	0.013	0.039
ICBC-AXA	0.046	0.013	0.002	0.046	0.046	0.013	0.046
Foresea Life	0.005	0.019	0.006	0.019	0.006	0.019	0.019
Funde Sino	0.005	0.010	0.001	0.010	0.005	0.010	0.010
Pr Life	0.269	0.059	0.018	0.269	0.269	0.059	0.269
Kunlun Health	0.033	0.009	0.001	0.033	0.033	0.009	0.033
CCB-Life	0.009	0.018	0.007	0.018	0.009	0.018	0.018
Guohua Life	0.019	0.027	0.004	0.027	0.019	0.027	0.027
Sunshine Life	0.060	0.168	0.031	0.168	0.060	0.168	0.168
Taikang Life	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Mean	0.149	0.134	0.108	0.163	0.149	0.134	0.163
	A12	B12	C12	AB12	AC12	BC12	ABC12
Everbright Life	0.347	0.428	0.703	0.428	0.703	0.703	0.703
ICBC-AXA	0.373	0.397	0.198	0.397	0.373	0.397	0.397
Foresea Life	0.015	0.174	0.227	0.174	0.227	0.227	0.227
Funde Sino	0.010	0.053	0.012	0.053	0.012	0.053	0.053
Pr Life	1.000	0.806	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Kunlun Health	1.000	1.000	0.691	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
CCB-Life	0.026	0.162	0.253	0.162	0.253	0.253	0.253
Guohua Life	0.041	0.166	0.085	0.166	0.085	0.166	0.166
Sunshine Life	0.063	0.198	0.055	0.198	0.063	0.198	0.198
Taikang Life	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Mean	0.388	0.438	0.422	0.458	0.472	0.500	0.500

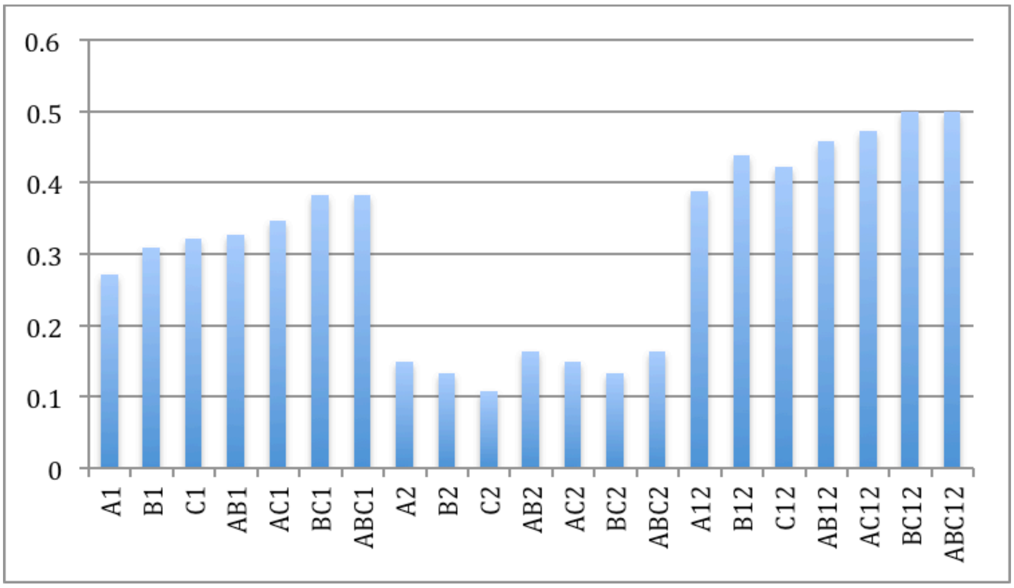


Chart 1 Mean Value of the 21 Combinations

According to the results of DEA above, we have the following analyses:

1. Through observation, we can see that the mean values of these 21 combinations are not high universally even if the ABC12 (the score is only 50%) which has all inputs and

outputs. The low mean values state that the Internet operation efficiency of the 10 life insurance companies is not high. On one side, the Internet Insurance is in the early period of its development, so the low efficiency conforms to the law of nature. On the other side, this paper selects the premium from the Internet instead of the whole premium as one of the outputs. The Internet is one of premium channels, which is far less than the whole premium.

2. The combination BC12 and combination ABC12 have the highest scores, which are both 50%. The combination ABC12 includes all the inputs and outputs while the combination BC12 doesn't have the input A. This states that the input A, that is the fixed asset, has less effect on the Internet operation efficiency comparing to other two inputs. We can consider that operation cost and population of staff play an important role on the Internet operation efficiency of these 10 life insurance companies and insurers should input more of these two factors.
3. In the combination ABC12 which includes all inputs and outputs，Pr Life, Kunlun Health and Taikang Life all get the score of 100% followed by Everlight Life whose score is 70.3%. The high efficiency of these four life insurance companies states that these companies have high input-output ratio and the inputs of material capital, human resources and financial capacity have been transferred into to outputs successfully.
4. In the chart 1, the 21 combinations are divided into 3 parts according to their mean values. The left part is the combination, which only includes output 1, the middle part, is the combination, which only includes output 2, and the right part is the combination includes both output 1 and output 2. The combinations including both output 1 and output 2 have higher score and the combinations only including the output 2 have lower score. The deep implication will be explained in the Principal Component Analysis later.
5. We can also see from the table 4 that some life insurance companies may get high scores in some combinations while getting low scores in other combinations. Taking Taikang Life as an example, in the combinations of A2, B2, C2, AB2, BC2, AB2, ABC2, A12, B12, AB12, BC12, A12 and ABC12, the scores are all 100%. However, in the combinations of A1, B1, C1, AB1, BC1, AC1 and ABC1, the scores are low universally even the highest score is just 38.2%. Likewise，this phenomenon exits in other life insurance companies which is related to the different channels of Internet insurance premium. Also this phenomenon will be explained in the later part of this paper.

The Principal Component Analysis

In order to take use of the results of DEA and explain some analyses above, this paper uses the Principal Component Analysis to analyze the results of the 21 combinations. PCA is a multidimensional reduction process that facilitates the analysis and simplification of data. Comparing with other linear transformation techniques, PCA has the advantage of not having a fix set of base vectors that depend on what is similar and what is different in various models. In addition, PCA compounds all possible combinations and the entirety of decision-making unites in a robust way in order to identify the similarities, the differences and the inconsistent components. There are four steps in this process: Step 1: we calculate the sample mean vector X and covariance matrix S. Step 2: we estimate the sample correlation matrix R. Step 3: we solve the following equaition:

$$|R - \lambda I_2| = 0 \tag{4}$$

Therefore, we obtain the ordered 2 characteristic roots $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2$ with $\sum \lambda_k = 2$ （ k=1

，2）and the related 2 characteristic vectors（l_{m1} , l_{m2} ）（m=1,2）.These characteristic vectors compose the principal components Y_m . The components in eigenvectors are, respectively, the coefficients in each corresponding Y_m :

$$Y_m = \sum_{m=1}^{2} l_m \lambda_n \text{，} \quad m=1,2 \ n=1,2,\ldots,N \tag{5}$$

Step 4: we compute the weights (w_k) of the principal components and PCA scores (z_n) for each model（n=1，2，...,N）:

$$z_n = \sum_{k=1}^{2} w_k Y_k \ ,n=1,2,\ldots,N \tag{6}$$

We use principal components analysis to extract relevant data and eliminate redundant information to make a deeper analysis of the Internet operation efficiency of the 10 life insurance companies.

Using the software of spss 20.0 and the data in the table 4, we get the total variance of PCA. The accumulated total variance of the first principal component is 57.364% and the accumulated total variance of the second principal component is 40.099%. So the total number is 97.463%, which is high enough. We just consider the first and second principal component. The results of PCA are in the following table.

Table 5 The PCA results of DEA

Component	PC1	PC2	Component	PC1	PC2	Component	PC1	PC2
A1	.745	-.632	A2	.579	.808	A12	.982	.061
B1	.681	-.707	B2	.417	.906	B12	.971	.116
C1	.682	-.651	C2	.441	.890	C12	.954	.116
AB1	.704	-.693	AB2	.544	.832	AB12	.987	.064
AC1	.729	-.668	AC2	.579	.809	AC12	.991	.001
BC1	.698	-.711	BC2	.417	.906	BC12	.995	0.13
ABC1	.698	-.711	ABC2	.544	.832	ABC12	.995	0.14

According to the results above, we have the analyses as follows:

1. In the table 5, the first principal components of all the 21 combinations are positive. Meanwhile, combinations of ABC12 (0.995), BC12 (0.995) and AC12 (0.991) have the highest scores. Since combination BC12 and combination ABC12 have the same score, we can consider that input A (fixed asset) makes less contribution to the Internet operation efficiency, which is in accordance with the conclusion in the early analysis of this paper.
2. The results of the second principle components can explain the meaning of the model better. Combinations can be divided into two categories according to the results whether they are positive or negative. There are 7 combinations (A1, B1, C1, AB1, AC1, BC1, and ABC1) having the negative results and the other 14 combinations have the positive scores. The 7 combinations with negative scores all have the output 1 (premium from the Internet). Then we can put the other 14 combinations into 2 parts. Scores of combinations (A2, B2, C2, AB2, AC2, BC2, and ABC2) are much higher than the other 7 combinations. These 7 combinations all include output 2 (click rate of the

official website). The 21 combinations are divided into 3 areas, which is in accordance with the results of DEA.

3. Combining the results of the second principle components and the results of DEA, we analyze the combinations just including one output (either output 1 or output 2). The combinations only including output 2 (the click rate of official website) have higher scores while the combinations only including output 1 (premium from the Internet) have lower scores. We can consider that life insurances with high score in the combination only including the output 2 get premium mainly from the official websites. While the others get the premium from the third parties' platform.

Through calculating the total scores of the ten life insurance companies in the 7 combinations, which only include output 2, we can see that Taikang Life has the highest score which is much higher than the other 9 life insurance companies. According to the conclusion above, we can consider that Internet premium of Taikang Life mainly comes from its own official website while Internet premium of the other 9 come mainly from the third parties' Internet platform. This conclusion is in accordance with the information published by the Insurance Association of China that Internet premium of life insurance companies mainly come from the third parties' Internet platform, however, Internet premium of property insurance companies mainly come from the official websites. And Taikang Life has the most insurance policies from the official website. Although, the market share of Taikang Life is the last one in the 10 companies, it takes use of the advantages of official website to attract consumers and improve the Internet operation efficiency.

CONCLUSIONS

Basing on the real situation of the market of Internet Insurance, this paper focuses on the empirical research of Internet operation efficiency. According to the situation of the Internet premium in the year of 2014 and the availability of other data, this paper selects the top 10 life insurance companies in the business of Internet Insurance as the research objectives. Using the model of DEA and selecting the inputs and outputs, this paper calculates the Internet operation efficiency of the 10 life insurance companies. On the basis of the results of DEA, we use PCA to make a deeper analysis, and get the conclusions as follows:

1. The low Internet operation efficiency of the Internet Insurance is related to the period of the development of Internet Insurance. Although Internet Insurance in China is in the early period of the development, the Internet operation efficiency will improve faster and faster according to the high speed of the Internet premium as well as the attention industry and government pays to.
2. As for the 10 life insurance companies in this paper, input "fixed asset" makes less contribution to the Internet operation efficiency comparing to the other two inputs (operation cost and population of staff). The life insurance companies should input more in the factors of operation cost and population of staff, that is to enhance the ability of management.
3. The results of this paper verify that Internet premium of life insurance companies mainly come from the third parties' Internet platform while Taikang Life has the higher operation efficiency whose Internet premium comes mainly from its own official website. This conclusion states that improving the operation ability of the official website is useful to improve the Internet operation efficiency. The life insurance companies should pay more attention to the building and maintenance of the official websites to improve the loyalty of customers and the brand image.

The improvement of the operation efficiency of the Internet Insurance is useful to improve the operation efficiency of the whole insurance industry and has positive effect on the insurance industry. Researches in this area mainly focus the theory research such as the business model and marketing. However, there are fewer researches in the empirical analysis in the Internet Insurance. This paper is intended to offer some reference in the related area and more research will be made in the future to enrich the study.

Reference

1. Sheman, H. D. and Gold F., 1985. Bank Branch Operating Efficiency: Evaluation with Data Envelopment Analysis. Journal of Banking and Finance 9,2, pp.297-316.
2. Berger, A.N. and Humphrey, D.B., 1992. Measurement and Efficiency Issues in Commercial Banking. In: Griliches Z, editor. "Output measurement in the service sectors", NBER studies in income and wealth, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp.245-300.
3. Hasan, I. and Marton, K., 2003. Development and Efficiency of the Banking Sector in a Transition: an Application of Data Envelopment Analysis. IMF Working Paper 146,2.
4. Berger, A.N. and Humphrey, D.B., 1997. Efficiency of Financial Institution: International Survey and Directions for Future Research. European Journal of Operational Research 98,pp. 175-212.
5. Weill, L., 2004. The Evolution of Efficiency in Europe: with Special Reference to Kosovo. Working Paper 4, Central Bank of Kosovo.
6. Sun X F. Empirical Study about the Efficiency of Life Insurance Company Based DEA.[D] Shandong：Ocean University of China, 2008
7. He H，Yan B. Empirical Study on the Efficiency of Life Insurance Company Based on DEA and SFA. [J] Shanghai Finance. 2009(2): 17-24.
8. Ye C H, Chen X A. The impact of manager's payoff to the efficiency of China's Listed Insurance Companies—Basing on the SFA.[J] Insurance Studies. 2012(8): 23-33
9. Zhang R. Empirical Study on the Efficiency of China and Foreign Property Insurance Company Basing on the DEA [D]. Shanxi: Shanxi Normal University, 2012.
10. Guan R R, Zhang W S, Yang P J. A Study of Effects of Internet Finance on China's Banks Operation Efficiency and Possible Solution to Existing Problems [J]. Journal of Yunnan Normal University.2014 (11): 56-64.
11. Liu Y X. An Exponential Analysis of the Impacts of Internet Insurance Development on Operational Efficiency of Insurance Companies [J] Insurance Studies. 2015(9): 104-116.
12. Charnes A, Cooper WW, Rhodes EL. Measuring the Efficiency of Decision Making Units. European Journal of Operational Research 1978; 2(6): 429–44.
13. Zhang J D. Based on DEA Method to Assess the Efficiency of China's Life Insurance Companies [D]. Sichuan: Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, 2014.
14. Zhang C H. Empirical Study on the Efficiency of China's Property Insurance Company Basing on the Three-stage DEA [J]. Insurance Studies. 2011(10): 22-29.
15. Bai Q. Study on the Efficiency of China's Insurance Conglomerate: Based on the Three Stage DEA [D]. Shandong：Ocean University of China，2014.
16. Floros, C., 2008. Internet Banking Websites Performance in Greece. Journal of Internet Banking and Commerce 13, 3, pp. 1-8.
17. Ovidiu, S., 2013. The Impact of Internet Banking on the Performance of Romanian Banks: DEA and PCA Approach. Procedia Economics and Finance 20(2015): 610-622.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1797.
Lai C. N. (2016).Perspectives on Integrating Social Capiptal Resources and Networks into the Multiple Roles of Public Relations. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3(2) 70-74.

Perspectives on Integrating Social Capital Resources and Networks into the Multiple Roles of Public Relations

Cheng-Neng Lai
Associate Professor, Department of Public Relations & Advertising
Shih Hsin University, Taiwan

Abstract

While the concept of social capital is widely applied in studies relating to politics, economics, and sociology it is rarely adopted in connection with public relations. Social capital underlies the stimulation of individuals' behaviors and so relates to the establishment of good relationships that public relations also emphasizes. This study explores the connections between the multiple roles that public relation plays and social capital from the perspective of resources and networks. By doing this we anticipate extending research into the operation of public relations.

Keywords: Social Capital, Public Relations, Resources, Networks

PREFACE

Social capital, a popular research concept in recent decades, infuses a multitude of fields that include; sociology, economics, and politics. Due to the range of applications, however, different definitions and explanation about social capital have emerged. Frequently the concept of social capital can be understood as a social context with norms and a "closed" social structure (Coleman, 1988). Bourdieu (1986) explains social capital as classes and networks of relationships. Putnam (1993) explains it as trust, norms, and networks. What is common among these definitions is the integration of networks.

The subject of public relations could be individuals, organizations or the public. Public relations play a key role in forming and maintaining the networks between associating groups. This is particularly critical in a world with the rapid flow of information facilitated by information technology. Public relations plays a diverse set of roles that includes addressing staff in organizations, the public, customers, communities and sponsors. This study explores these multiple roles from the viewpoint of social capital.

THE LINK BETWEEN PUBLIC RELATIONS AND SOCIAL CAPITAL

Bourdieu (1986) considers social capital as the sum of actual or potential resources that accrue within a stable network. Such resources are a form of common capital that all members can exploit. From Bourdieu's point of view, the level of social capital is determined by two factors: first, the ability to effectively mobilize the network; and second the forms (e.g., economic, cultural and symbolic) and amount of capital amounts owned by members. In Coleman's (1988) terms, social capital infers different kinds of entities, all of which have two features in common: first, they all include some perspectives in social structure; second, they can help to achieve social acts. Coleman (1990) argues that social capital is a resource in the form of social structures. From this perspective, social capital is the social resource that exists in both individual and interpersonal relationships.

Bourdieu (1986) regards social capital as the maintenance of a network of relationships. From this position, social capital belongs to groups, and they can apply it to strengthen their reputation. Coleman (1988), by contrast, views takes a structural view on social capital. This positions social capital as a means of strengthening norms between members that act to establish and maintain order. Bourdieu's and Coleman's definitions are from the unit or organization points of view. The main purpose of public relation is to increase the unity within a group and thereby increase efficiency. This aligns with the goal of maintaining networks and complying with regulations under social capital.

Putnam (1995), drawing on Coleman (1988) extends social capital from a personal to a group perspective. This work anchors in the field of politics and emphasizes the relationship between systems' achievement and the quantity and quality of social capital that in an organization, a region, or even a country owns. The word, society, is used to refer to the characteristics of social lives. This notion of society helps participants to pursue mutually held goals more efficiently through networks based on norms, and trust. This indicates how social capital represents an element that accelerates cooperation and efficiency in social organization.

Social capital is interpreted from a political point of view in Putnam's (1995) theory. This work reveals how social capital accrues value from social efficiency and mutual cooperation. Public relations, from this point of view, is about social conscientiousness which develops through practice and facilities the creation of value within the group. Social awareness is the catalysis for the achievement of a democratic system as it leads governments, and organizations to place importance on social responsibilities and the public interest. All these perspectives indicate how social capital and public relations are closely related.

Lin (1982, 1999, 2001) believes that capital is an investment in the market which is predicted to create return values. Social capital is a resource that can be accrued or disposed of during planed activities. Social capital emphasizes the significance of achieving goals through social connections and social relations which facilitates the accomplishment of individuals', groups' and communities' goals.

From the viewpoint of resource, Lin analyzes social capital as an investment that creates return value. Normally, organizations consider public relations as a bridge of communication, Marston (1979) brings up the concept of RACE (research, action, communication and, evaluation) for the successful practice of public relations. From plans to activities, public relations is regarded as an important resource. Through public relations, favorable impressions or trust develops and results in preferable responses such as positive behaviors.

THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL RESOURCE ON PUBLIC RELATIONS

Lin (2001) asserts that social capital is a resource from social networks that can help strengthen the result of actions. This assertion rests on four premises. First, information movements become easier. Generally, most markets are imperfect. However, if individuals (and particularly those in senior positions) share information this can be valuable. Second, some degree of social solidarity empowers decision makers to access more valuable resources and these associates with greater influence in their positions. Third, by revealing social credentials, this reveals that resources are not confined to particular individuals. Fourth, social capital anticipates a greater degree of identification and perception. Individuals, as group members, enhance their value when others admit that they own a particular resource in public.

The link between social capital and action reflects the need to remain within a particular position that can provide useful information, to relate valuable resource and power, and to obtain public recognition and trust. Grunig and Grunig (1991) believe that the purpose of public relation operations differs from that of advertisement or marketing. The later mainly focuses on the fulfillment of consumers' and clients' demands in order to make a profit. The purpose, however, of public relations is to stimulate mutual understanding and to develop relationships with different publics, and so does the purpose of social capital.

There are two kinds of acquirable and usable resources, personal and social resources (Lin, 1982). Personal resource, owned by individuals, includes ownership of materials and symbolic items; such as, certificates of technical proficiency or academic degrees. Social resources derive from individuals' social connections and so are determined by the diversity and richness of their connections with society.

Lin (2001) explores two resources that stem from social solidarity. First, the permanent or temporary resources owned by members. Second, the resources individuals control by dint of their position. The position resource of social solidarity is generally more useful than personal resources in terms of power, wealth, and reputation. Individuals extend their personal capital by connecting with organizations. .

The value of public relations as a resource is commonly realized through development of an organization's image. Public relations utilize communication tools; such as, commercials, blogs and interactive Internet media to facilitate interaction within the community. The aim of public relations is not to communicate in one direction (e.g., through attempts to convince an audience through advertisement) but rather to activate communication that encourages integration between individuals. This involves focusing on conversations and communication between organizations and certain group of subjects. Enterprises must keep in touch with changes in their external environmental and judge the impact of these changes. This enables them to adapt their image to reflect the fit between their own resources and environmental circumstances. This reveals how public relations engage with a range of social connections.

Social capital resources exist in two different formats, available resource and unavailable resource. Available resources are preserved through expressive action. In order to preserve the existing resources, it is necessary to approach the one who is in control of resources by making empathetic expressions of support to obtain the embedded resources. This allows claims on resource to be recognized, legalized and shared. Unavailable resources, in contrast, are obtained through instrumental actions that reflect the search for additional resources. The main goal is to stimulate others' reactions and behavior in order that they bring additional resources (Lin, 2001).

Public relations activities reveal various viewpoints about the use of resources. These resources are designed to trigger both emotions and associating instrumental behaviors. Community public relations is a good example of how emotional behaviors can be stimulated. There is a close interrelationship between communities and organizations. It is important for organizations to develop friendly interactions and communications with their publics. In terms of the instrumental behaviors of public relations, organizations mainly focus on marketing and broadcasting (e.g., through product advertisements). When launching new products creative public relations activities are used to heighten brand awareness and to stimulate sales. This is an example of instrumental behaviors in public relations.

SOCIAL CAPITAL NETWORKS AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Networks are usually represented as pyramids with few occupiers at the top (Lin, 1982). These structures can be understood horizontally or vertically. In vertical structures the higher levels generally have more power. Roles in the horizontal position utilize each others' relations to exchange different resources and information. Lin (2001) argues that the development of social networks reflects the interests, and different interests lead nodes to different positions in the networks. The nodes in the networks provide possibilities for others in the networks to access resources.

In most organizations the public relations department interacts with other organizations through horizontal links. In organizations, public relations, as compared with other departments; such as, manufacturing or research and development, generally have better resources to communicate and transit information with other organizations. Public relation departments usually report directly to presidents or vice-presidents. In international organizations, reporting systems are dual-tracked, which mean reports are filed directly to local supervisors and indirectly to public relation managers. This reveals how public relation departments have a high position vertically in organizations that gives them extensive access to information.

In public relations employing a spokesman is common practice. Schiffman & Kanuk (2004) divide spokesmen into several different categories: celebrities, specialists, publics, and executives. Celebrities refer to well-known people; such as, entertainers or sports players. Specialists are those in a profession or with special experience that gives them a unique social status.

Over half a century ago, Homans (1950) pointed out that the frequency of individuals' interactions determines their behaviors and the extent to which they share emotions. Homans' main point is that emotion and interaction are positively related. The basis of interactions is emotion, which includes love, respect, and sympathy. Spokesmen utilize their social links to target the public with events because of their high social capital. Spokesmen facilitate interactions that develop networks which, in turn, associate with increases in the sales volume of products.

CONCLUSION

Social capital has been widely applied in studies of economics, politics and sociology. However, exploration of social capital in public relations remains limited. Public relations emphasize the development of relationships with different publics and therefore the notion of efficient development of networks is important. The success of public relations is judged by whether relationships are well developed or not. Social capital is defined by whether specific intentions and certain behaviors have effects or not. If certain object in a social structure is helpful for individual's intentional action, then is defined as social capital (Coleman, 1990). Social capital and the success of actions are positively correlated. This means that obtaining and using better social capital can bring about more successful actions.

There are many different perspectives on public relations. For organizations there are internal and external public relations. Publics can be divided into categories; such as, government, consumers, employees, and communities. There are three kinds of measures of social capital: wealth, power, and reputation (Lin, 2001). Wealth symbolizes economic assets and when applied to public relations in non-profit organizations, refers to the solicitation of donations.

Power represents political assets, which generally apply to political public relations. Reputation refers to social assets. The similarity between social capital and public relations reflects the achievement of a certain purpose. Therefore, by integrating the notion of social capital into public relations we can effectively broaden the field.

References

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The Forms of Capital (R. Nice, Trans.). In L. C. Richardson (Ed.), Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education (pp. 241-258). New York: Greenwood Press.

Burt, R. S. (1992). Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition. Cambridge, M. A.: Harvard University Press.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. American Journal of Sociology, 94 Supplement: 595-5120.

Coleman, J. S. (1990). Foundations of Social Theory, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Grunig, J. E. & Grunig, L. A., (1991). Conceptual Differences in Public Relations and Marketing: The Case of Health-Care Organizations. Public Relations Review, 17(3): 257-278.

Grunig, J. E. & Hunt, T. (1984). Managing Public Relations, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishing.

Homans, G. C. (1950). Human Behavior as Exchange. American Journal of Sociology. 63(6): 597-606.

Lin, N. (1982). Social Resources and Instrumental Action, In Marsden, P., & Lin, N. (Eds.), Social Structure and Network Analysis, Beverly Hill: Sage Publications.

Lin, N. (1999). Building a Network Theory of Social Capital. Connections, 22(1): 28-51.

Lin, N. (2001). Social Capital: A Theory of Social Structure and Action, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marston, J. (1979). Modern Public Relations, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill.

Putnam, R. D. (1993). Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Putnam, R. D. (1995). Turning In, Turning Out: The strange Disappearance of Social Capital in America. Political Science and Politics 28(4), 664-665.

Schiffman, L. G. & Kanuk, L. L. (2004). Consumer Behavior. Pearson Education International Press.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1805.
Rafiq, M., Aajiz, N. M., Wahid, F. E., Rahman, A, Mand, R., & Khan, A. (2016). The Impact of School Environment on the Performance of Students of Public High Schools at Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 75-84.

The Impact of School Environment on The Performance of Students of Public High Schools at Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan

Muhammad Rafiq, Dr. Niaz Muhammad Aajiz, Fazl-e-Wahid, Atta-ur Rahman, Rahat Mand and **Asadullah Khan**

Abstract

The Study explores the impact of school environment on the performance of students. The objectives of the study were to assess the existing environment of government Schools, to explore the impact of conducive school environment on the performance of students and to suggest some remedial measures for establishing conducive school climate. The study was carried out in the context of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. The population of the study was 374 public sector High Schools the same number of Principals and teachers were selected as sample from 6 districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (Abbottabad, Charsadda, Kohat, Mardan, Nowshera and Peshawar). 1870 students were also included in the sample questionnaire as research instrument was developed for the data collection. Data analysis was handled with SPSS using algorithms for means, frequencies, averages and percentages. Overall analysis was carried out with the help of SPSS for applying various statistical process, tests and procedures. The key findings of the study were: majority schools were lacking the basic infrastructure like boundary walls, safety measure like gate and safety wire on the walls, clean drinking water, electricity, furniture and proper ventilation was missing, some suggestions were given at the end that the government should build proper boundary walls with enough height, electricity and fans may be may be provided to schools. Clean drinking water may be ensured and enough furniture may be provided to schools.

Keywords: Secondary School climate, School goals, Constructive competition, behavior, principals

INTRODUCTION

The world environment encompasses all the factors and elements inside and around one entity, be it the school, market, city or any bigger unit. The environment has a long lasting effect on the inhabitants on the unit and thus the environment plays a vital role in the development or otherwise of the population. An educational institution or a school in particular is not an exception to this fact.

Any schools primary goal is the promotion of the students' academic and psycho-social development. Parents sends their children to the school to be equipped with skills and knowledge to live up to the expectation of the society and to be a useful member of the society, either on macro level, miso or micro level of the society. In fulfilling these expectations of the parents and the society the school has a very important role. And subsequently, of utmost importance in the school environment.

School climate reflects learning atmosphere, tone, ideology, or milieu of a school. It is the sum of academic values, cultures, safety practices, and organizational structures within a school that cause it to function and react in particular ways. Teaching practices, diversity, and relationships among administrators, teachers, parents, and students all contribute to school climate. All these factors have both individual and collective impact on the achievement of the pupils. This paper studies the dynamics of school environment and its various elements with the view to their impact on the students' achievement. Principals' opinion in this regard is analyzed and presented in shape of tables and graphs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

National Education Policy of 2009 stresses upon the provision of conducive learning environment for children in all levels of schools. The factors of conducive learning environment are ranges from physical environment to social environment and behavioral environment of the institute. All these factors have a different degree of effect on the learning climate.

The periodic review of school social, physical, and behavioral environments, as well as student and staff expectations and supports enable school leaders and personnel to play a key role in establishing and sustaining school norms that foster a positive culture and climate in which all students can thrive. (Elias et al. 2006).

Effectively implementing an Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) program requires changing teacher behavior, the classroom climate, and the school environment (Greenberg, Weisberg, et al. 2003). For example, effective SEL programming also involves creating school, family, and community environments that reinforce the lessons of the classroom. Methods of building such environments include infusing SEL concepts throughout the regular academic curriculum, actively engaging students in the learning process, providing opportunities for participation, collaboration, and service, creating a supportive learning community with respectful relationships and trust, and involving families and the community in schools. (Elias et al. 2009).

Making the change in human behavior is not an easy task. As in general with the change process, the human psychology opposes change unless it is driven by a certain stimulus, which in turn drives the thinking towards a positive attitude towards change. Children of age group 10-16 are in the development stage where their psychological state is not mature enough for a change process to begin according to the needs of society. To open the gates of change in a child's mind, the school has to provide a perfect environment.

There is a great impact of climate on performance of students, teachers, administrators, and even major stakeholders (Deal & Peterson, 2009). Majorly school climate can impact teacher efficiency, performance, teamwork, communication and satisfaction. (DuFour, 2007; Grayson & Alvarez, 2008). Parents and community are also the most effected ones by school climate, it can either re-energize them or make them dull and inactive (Deal & Peterson, 2009).
More specifically, school climate is influenced by the extent to which members of the school community feel socially, emotionally and physically safe. Research proved that a sustainable, positive school climate has great impact on students' academic achievement, mental health, graduation rates, school connectedness, teacher retention and risk prevention (Cohen & Geier, 2010).

The need for a vigorous school climate is mostly important in secondary school settings where student behavior and regulation problems are often more tough than in elementary classrooms (Briggs, 2009; Langdon & Preble, 2008; Sugai et al., 2000). For pattern, bullying and discrimination are much more likely to occur in secondary schools (Bradshaw, Sawyer, & O'Brennan, 2007; Langdon & Preble, 2008).

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted on pre-designed interview questionnaires for Principals, Teachers and Students of public sector High/Higher Secondary Schools. Schools were selected randomly to eradicate any pre-condition. Sample schools included 374 schools form 6 districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Evidently 374 principals and an equal number of teachers were included. The questionnaires asked similar questions from all the three target groups, but with different perspective for each group. A 5-point rating scale was used for responses to the questions. In this paper though, the rating scale is projected as a collective rating points, from 1 to 5 where 1 represents the lowest score, or 'total dis-agreement' and 5 represents a highest score or 'total agreement' of the respondent.

Research Question

The research tried to report on the validity of the following questions:

1. What are the indicators that determine school climate conducive to both teaching learning process?
2. What is the impact of school climate on students' achievements based on school results?
3. What type of remedial measures can improve school climate for students' achievements?

Analysis of the Responses

A society's first expectation from schools is to provide a learning conducive environment to the pupils. The learning conducive environment is a combination of all the necessary factors in a right mix, so that the children inside the school are psychologically in such a state that the teachers' efforts are at a maximum comprehended and adopted by the students.

Mc. Evoy & Welker (2000) describes School climate in terms of three aspects of the school environment:

- A physical environment that is welcoming and conducive to learning,
- A social environment that promotes communication and interaction
- An academic and behavioral environment that promotes learning, Self-fulfillment and self-esteem

These three aspects of the school environment combine to provide the students and teachers with a right mix of enabling conditions, which opens the students mind for gaining new knowledge from the teacher and from the environment in the surroundings. Human minds are designed such that it works best when scale is happiness and motivation is high.

In light of the above, the opinion of the principles was sought to investigate the factors of 'learn-able' environment of a secondary school. We will discuss the three factors in separate paras, focusing on the opinion of respondents to the questions groups of the each enabling environment factor.

Physical Factors

According to Adeboyeje (2000) and Emetarom (2004), school facilities are the physical and spatial enablers of teaching and learning which will increase the production of results. School facilities serve as pillars of support for effective teaching and learning. Akinsolu (2004) asserted that educational curriculum cannot be sound and well operated with poor and badly managed school facilities. From all indication, school facilities are physical resources that facilitate effective teaching and learning. They include blocks of classrooms, laboratories, workshops, libraries, equipment, consumables, electricity, water, visual and audio-visual aids, tables, desks, chairs, playground, storage space and toilets.

The process of learning is at its best when he mind is at peace. Physical facilities provide the peace of mind for teachers and students that are needed for the learning to be at its peak.

A study of working conditions in urban schools concluded that "physical conditions have direct positive and negative effects on teacher morale, sense of personal safety, feelings of effectiveness in the classroom, and on the general learning environment." Building renovations in one district led teachers to feel "a renewed sense of hope, of commitment, a belief that the district cared about what went on that building." In dilapidated buildings in another district, the atmosphere was punctuated more by despair and frustration, with teachers reporting that leaking roofs, burned out lights, and broken toilets were the typical backdrop for teaching and learning." (Corcoran et al., 1988).

When principals in the sample High schools where asked about the physical facilities, they responded in the following manner:

Table 1: Availability of physical facilities:

Availability of:	Abbottabad	Charsadda	Kohat	Mardan	Nowshera	Peshawar
Drinking water	4.1	4.5	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.8
Lavatories	4.1	4.6	4.6	4.3	4.5	4.9
High boundary walls	4.3	4.6	4.9	4.4	4.2	4.8
Adequate staff room	4.1	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.5	4.3
Enough furniture	4.2	4.7	4.5	4.4	4.3	4.1
Ventilated classrooms	3.9	4.2	4.1	4.6	4.8	4.5
Laboratories	3.9	4.6	4.8	4.5	4.8	4.6
Equipment	3.9	4.3	4.9	4.6	4.7	4.6
Firstaid facility	3.9	4.2	4.8	4.6	4.8	4.6
Collective mean	4.0	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.6

Principals from all districts think that the availability of physical facility is very important factor of the enabling learning climate of the school. Overall, all the districts except Abbottabad are on the same wavelength (4.5 – 4.6). Which means that the principals' opinion are similar on providing adequate physical facilities to enable the children to learn better.

If we take the factors individually, the principals from Abbottabad are up to the level of 'Agreement' only in the analysis. The rest of the districts are more inclined to towards "Total agreement' and consider the availability of drinking water as the key factor in physical facilities. The reason relative low rating for Abbottabad could be the fact that Abbottabad is a hilly area, where summers are not as hot as in other areas of the province, and water is abundantly available in the surrounding environments in shape of springs, streams and rain water.

In the current wave of weak security situations an in the wake of some high grade acts of insurgence and attack, the provision of boundary walls is considered as important for providing the school security from external threats. Principals from all the districts opined in "Total Agreement" to provision of the boundary wall for giving peace of mind to students and children to make them teach and learn better.

Again, all the district except, Abbottabad pointed that adequate staff room is important for a learnable climate of school, so that the teachers can sit together and discuss professional issues in their free time.

Peshawar principals responded in terms of lowest sore among the group in response to the question on importance of availability of furniture for a better school climate.

Kohat and Abbottabad principal scored at the level of "Agreement" for provision of ventilated classrooms for better learning climate in the school. All the other districts think that fresh air is important for mental growth of the children and will enable them in getting more ready for learning. Laboratory and equipment are used for experiments in 9th and 10th grades. All the districts agreed to its importance and provision in school for enabling the teachers to teach according to the curriculum and motivating the students to learn better. Similar is the case of first aid facilities. The responses are following the overall pattern is this category as well.

Factors of Social Climate

A happy working environment is the most productive environment. For teachers feel motivated and encouraged in a situation when they are supported by the principal and given due respect and opportunity to perform optimally.

According to Freiberg and Stein (1999) school climate is the heart and soul of the school and the essences of the school that draws teachers and students to love the school and to want to be a part of it. This renewed emphasis on the importance of school climate was further reinforced by a meta-analysis study performed by Wang et al. (1997), which found that school culture and climate were among the top influences in affecting improved students success. Their studies also establish that state and local policies, school organization and student demographics exerted the least influence on students learning.

The first major purpose of a school is to create and provide a culture that is hospitable to human learning (Barth 2001). School culture depends a lot on the leadership, its style and personality of the leader. The more supportive the leader, the more motivated and willing are the teachers. Resultantly the impact is transferred from teachers to the students.

Principals were asked about their opinion regarding factors for social climate and their impact on the students' performance. The responses are summarized in table 2.

Principals from all the districts agree that social climate is very important for the enabling learning environment and the resulting students' performance. Principals from Abbottabad responded at the level of "Agreed" (4.1), those from Kohat responded close to "Strongly Agree" (4.8). Other districts scored in the same level at 4.4-4.6.

Table 2: Impact of social climate

Factors of social climate	Abbottabad	Charsadda	Kohat	Mardan	Nowshera	Peshawar
Encouraging teachers	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.6
Teachers are praised	3.9	4.5	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.8
Good cooperation with teachers/staff	4.2	4.3	4.9	4.6	4.3	4.7
Friendly relations with teachers	4.2	4.2	4.9	4.5	4.6	4.7
Seek guidance from management/officers	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.5	4.5	4.5
Teachers are aware of developmental goals.	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.4	4.3	4.6
School development plan is discussed with teachers.	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.6
New ideas implemented for attractive school climate	4.2	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.1	4.8
Arrangement for classroom activities.	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.5	4.8
Cooperative towards students	4.2	4.6	4.9	4.6	4.2	4.1
Social environment/cooperation in the school	4.1	4.5	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.6

Principals from districts Kohat, Mardan, Nowshera and Peshawar scored at almost the same level (4.6-4.7) on the factor of encouraging teachers for better performance. Principals from Charsadda and Abbottabad responded at the level "Agree" in response to the same question. It shows that almost all the respondents are in favor of encouraging teachers to focus on their task and perform in a better way.

A work conducive environment is developed with the mutual cooperation and good relation among the stake holders. Encouraging teachers, cooperation with them and praising their work should create a very pleasant working environment. Principals from all the districts responded at the level of Agreement to Strong Agreement to the questions regarding encouraging, cooperation and praising teachers with respect to improving students' achievement. The principals are strongly in favor of these factors if improvement in the students' achievement is desired. The scores for 4 factors (Encouraging, cooperation, praising, and friendly relations) range from 3.9 to 4.9. Abbottabad scored 2 scores of 3.9 (encouraging, praising) while highest scales (4.9) were also returned 2 times by Kohat (cooperation, friendly relations). The remaining 20 scores ranged from 4.2 to 4.8, which is again strongly in favor of the 4 factors.

Seeking guidance from management/ officers seems to be a common practice in schools and thus is regarded as a positive factor on students' achievement. The lowest rating being 4.2 (Abbottabad) and the highest being 4.9 (Kohat). The remaining 4 districts scored 4.5 unanimously.

The approach of holistic school development is very rarely implemented in the public sector schools in Pakistan. But an in-formal approach can be traced in the school addressing various areas of development. The teachers are generally aware of the development goals for their school. Highest rating was returned by Kohat (4.9) while the lowest was returned by Abbottabad (4.2). The remaining 4 districts scored between 4.3 and 4.6, meaning strong agreement to the involvement of teacher in school development and innovation in school.

The principals are also strongly of the opinion that they are responsible for providing materials and facilities for classroom activities. Abbottabad, again, is at the lowest in opinion at 4.2 while Peshawar has taken the lead in strongly agreeing at 4.8. The remaining 4 districts are also closely following up and scoring in the range of 4.4 to 4.7.

The principals attitude towards students also supports the students motivation to participate in learning and ultimate show good results. The principals also agreed to this fact. Peshawar respondents replied at the level close to agreement (4.1), while the principals from Kohat responded close to strong agreement. Abbottabad and Nowshera scored 4.2 and Mardan and Charsadda scored 4.6 to this question.

Factors of Social Climate

The focus of all efforts, facilities and investments is in the classroom. The ultimate result of students achievement is achieved through the environment of classroom, that's why the climate within the classroom plays a pivotal role in the improvement of students performance. Facilities provided to the students inside the classroom, coupled with the right climate can do wonders in any particular classroom, because the student majority of time is spent inside the class. The center of all efforts and initiatives should be the climate within the class.

One of the first areas that make a noticeable impact on student success is the physical environment of the classroom. This can pertain to a variety of details. It can be structure, resources, color. All of these can play a role in determining whether the classroom will be conducive for learning. Each may not have a large effect individually, however together they can work to strengthen a student's ability to learn. (Hannah, Ryan 2013)

Table 3: Learning Facilities and Climate

Learning facilities and climate	Abbottabad	Charsadda	Kohat	Mardan	Nowshera	Peshawar
AV aids	3.8	4.6	4.8	4.5	4.8	4.6
Spaces and facilities in classroom	4.0	4.3	4.9	4.6	4.7	4.6
space of co-curricular activities	4.2	4.3	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.6
scheme of work	4.1	4.6	3.8	4.6	4.6	4.7
inform teacher on new methods	4.2	4.3	4.9	4.2	4.4	4.8
Healthy competition among teachers	4.2	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.1	4.8
Teachers behave friendly with students	4.2	4.5	4.9	4.7	4.1	4.6
Learning facilities and climate	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.7

Learning facilities and climate is a key to improving students' performance. Principals from 5 out of 6 districts tend to agree strongly to the importance of learning facilities and climate for better performance of students. They rating being 4.5/4.7. The lowest scorers, Abbottabad, score 4.1, which in its self is above the level of agreement but still is the lowest of the lot.

Principals form Abbottabad scored lower than the level of "Agreement" (3.8) for provision and use of AV aids in classroom as a means of improving students' achievement. In the same category other districts scores between 4.5 and 4.8. The response of Abbottabad is really an alarm. AV aids are considered as a key factor in active learning and the school managers' ignorance to this factor to some extent shows the lack of awareness about active learning methodology.

Abbottabad and Charsadda returned the score of 4.0 i.e. level of agreement in response to a question on provision of space and facilities for improved students' performance. Principals from other districts scored at 4.6 and above on the importance of providing space and facilities to improve students' performance.

All the principals agreed to the fact that those co-curricular activities are important for students' development. When question was asked about the importance of space for co-curricular activities, they all scored above the level of agreement. Lowest score was reported by Abbottabad (4.2) and the highest by Nowshera (4.8).

Principals from Kohat scored lower than the level (3.8) of agreement on the need of scheme of studies or a schedule for completion of their course work in the allocated time for a full year. The school management needs to understand that it is necessary for the teachers to develop the required skills in students to be able to proceed further to higher classes and to be able to perform at an optimum level, Principals from the remaining 5 districts scored between 4.1 and 4.7, Peshawar being the highest at 4.7.

Informing teachers on new methodologies and their professional grooming seems to be a favorable area for principals. All scored above the level of agreement and which highlights the need for teachers' development for improved learning achievements. Abbottabad and Mardan scored lowest at 4.2 while Kohat scored highest i.e. 4.9.

Healthy competition among teachers has a direct impact on students' performance, because that is the teachers' ultimate performance tester. Nowshera scored the lowest in this category (4.1) while Kohat scored the highest (4.9).

Principals are aware of the role of teacher's attitude in preparing students learning. Nowshera principals scored at 4.1, slightly above the level "Agree", while principals from Kohat scored 4.9, the highest, almost at the level of "Strongly Agree". The remaining 4 districts scored between 4.2 and 4.7.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of all the efforts, both inside and out the school is to make the schools more effective, in terms of students achievement, both in formative and summative assessments. School climate plays a vital role in achieving this goal and all the 3 types of climate, as mentioned above, within the school have an equal stake in this matter.

Multiple factors of school climate (physical, social and learning) were discussed and all have proved to be important for the school effectiveness. It has been seen in the analysis in the previous parts that apart from some very few areas of climate most of the factors are agreed to be playing major role in enhancing students understanding and their achievements. For example, according to the opinion of principals from Abbottabad, factors like, ventilated classroom, laboratories, equipment and first aid facilities have a lesser impact on students' achievement. All the other factors are regarded as important. Principals from the remaining districts graded all the factors including these 4 factors and necessary for school effectiveness.

Factors of social climate or inter-personal relations are also rated as important for achieving the school goals. The majority of principals form all the sample districts and school strongly agreed to this factor. Inter-personal relations between principal–teacher, teacher-student, teachers-management and principal-student have an inevitable role in improving students' performance. Good and positive relations promote a culture of mutual trust and understanding and eliminated the element of fear from all the parties, ultimately promoting a learning friendly environment in the school. The more the students are relaxed and free from fear, the more they are willing to learn and are able to learn new things.

Learning climate undoubtedly has far reaching and long lasting impact on students' performance. Factors like availability of AV aids, space for classroom and co-curricular activities, availability of professional guidance and support to teachers are all regarded as important by the principals from all sample schools. Healthy competition among teachers helps in providing students with better teaching practices and modern methods, which motivate them to participate in learning process.

It is hereby recommended to the authorities responsible for development and improvement of schools that the school administration is encouraged and facilitated to provide all the factors of a learning conducive climate to the students. On part of the principals, it is recommended that they need to keep a very good working relation with teacher and to make sure that they provide the necessary learning environment to the students. The principals in the study have strongly agreed to the impact of supporting teachers professionally. They should provide support to the teachers in teaching methodologies, availability of resources, materials and perfect environment for them to teach.

The principals should keep a very close relation with teachers and to give them confidence. The principal should also have a close contact with students to have a cross check on the teachers and to motivate them to put their best efforts in learning. Parents and community should also be involved in the whole school development. They have a huge stake in school and needs to play their due part.

References

Adeboyeje,R.A.(2000). Management of School Physical facilities. Ibadan: Foundation Publications.

Akinsolu,R.A.(2004). Provision and Management of Facilities in Nigerian Primary Schools. In E.O. Fagbemiye, J.B.Babalola, M. Fabunmi and Ayeni (eds). Management of Primary and Secondary Education in Nigeria. NAEAP publications

Corcoran, Thomas B., Lisa J. Walker, and J. Lynne White (1988). Working in Urban Schools. Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership

Emetarom, U.C. (2004). Provision and Management of Facilities in Primary Schools in Nigeria: Implication for Policy Formulation. In E.O. fagbemiye, J.B. Babalola . Management of Primary and Secondary Education in Nigeria. NAEAP publications

Mc. Evoy & Welker (2000)

Hannah, Ryan, "The Effect of Classroom Environment on Student learning" (2013). Honors Theses Paper 2375

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1806.
Ochepo, C. O., Okwoche, V. A., & Alfa, G. B. (2016). Seccess and Constraints of LEEMP Community Development Projection in Benue State, Nigeria. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 84-93.

Success and Constraints of LEEMP Community Development Projection in Benue State, Nigeria

Ochepo, C. O.
Department of Agricultural Extension and communication,
University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue state, Nigeria.

Okwoche, V. A.
Department of Agricultural Extension and communication,
University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue state, Nigeria.

Alfa, G. B.
Department of Agricultural Extension and communication,
University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue state, Nigeria.

Abstract

The study was conducted to evaluate the success and constraints of local empowerment and environmental management project (LEEMP) community development project in Benue state, Nigeria. The study focused on the socio economic characteristics of the beneficiaries in the target communities, compare the standard of living of LEEMP communities before and after LEEMP project, and identify the constraints in the implementation of LEEMP. Primary information was collected from 225 beneficiaries through a multistage sampling technique. Primary data was used for the study which was garnered through a well structured questionnaire and interview sections with LEEMP beneficiaries. The socioeconomic characteristics of respondents were analyzed descriptively, impact of LEEMP on target communities where presented in a tabular form, while five point likert type scales was used to analyze the awareness and participation level respectively. It was found that education, income, sex and household size influenced respondents level of participation and subsequently the success of the project. LEEMP used a strategy that enabled community members to participate and established projects that were prioritized by them which led to national and community development, contributing greatly to improvement in the standard of living of the targeted rural communities.

KEY WORDS: Success, Constraints, LEEMP, Community, Development, Project

INTRODUCTION

Most community development programme of the government in the past were not successful due largely to the approaches which failed to address the actual needs of the target beneficiaries, these programmes were sectoral in nature and poorly targeted and were imposed from above without consultation with the target beneficiaries (Federal Project Support Unit, 2006). Kiwanuka (1994) stated that unless there is full participation of the rural people in the whole process of rural development, there will not be any sustainable development. Participation should be coupled with democratization of the rural masses and transfer of power to the grassroots level. Fear of transparency and other vested self- interests on the part of government officials are some of the reasons responsible for low participation of the targeted beneficiaries (Kiwanuka, 1994).

The beneficiaries of projects or programme should be involved in the decision making process. Community-Driven Development, which is the approach adopted by Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project (LEEMP), empowers communities to take responsibility for needs identification, prioritization and implementation. Furthermore, responsibility for mobilizing and managing entire resources is vested with the community. This has stimulated good governance, transparency and accountability at the community level. The Community-Driven Development is anchored on a vision of prosperity through empowerment of local communities and seeks to put communities in the driver's seat, recognizing their powers, rights and obligations. The multiple aim of Community-Driven Development is geared toward empowerment, improved governance, improved service delivery and ultimately poverty reduction. To achieve these, community-driven development is premised on five pillars, viz: community empowerment, realigning the centre, improving accountability and transparency and capacity building.

Rural communities have witnessed neglect for a long time in Nigeria and many Third World countries (Agama, 2007). This is attributed to sectoral approaches employed by Government and other development agencies as reflected in inadequate funding of projects, corruption, lack of accountability, inarticulate development and policies (Omenka, 1991). As a consequence, the gap between the rural and urban communities is widening continually (Omenka, 1991).

Historically, demographic, economic and ecological dynamics have acted in combination to produce intense activities in community-based programmes or projects to improve the living conditions of the people (Awua, 2007). It is important that planning and implementation of social development programmes at the community level should be a global venture with multiple but interrelated dimensions encompassing partnership among the people of the community and other stakeholders. In order for social development to succeed, Ihejiamaizu (2002) observed that it must be people-centered with focus on the fulfillment of the human potentials at the grassroots, poverty alleviation and making the community level human capital more productive to overall national development. To this effect the Nigerian government in partnership with World Bank established LEEMP. However, it cannot be said with precision that level in the social status of the people has transformed as expected.

Since the inception of LEEMP in Benue State in 2004, no in-depth study has been carried out to evaluate LEEMP as a community development programme in the State. It is necessary to ascertain the extent to which the programme has been used to achieve the objectives of LEEMP. Therefore, a critical evaluation of LEEMP in Benue State as far as community development, poverty alleviation is concerned is intended in this study: determine the socio economic characteristics of the respondents in the target communities, compare the standard of living of LEEMP communities before and after LEEMP project, determine the effect of the socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries on the success of implementation of the project, identify the constraints in the implementation of LEEMP.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in Benue State, Nigeria. The population of the study comprises of all LEEMP beneficiaries in Benue State. A total of 225 respondents were selected through multi-stage sampling techniques. In stage one, three local government areas were selected from the nine participating local government areas in the state through simple random sampling. Stage two involved the selection of five communities from each of the three local government areas, giving a total of 15 communities. Stage three involved the selection of 2% of the population of the communities, giving a total number of 225 respondents as shown in the table below.

Zone	LGA	Targeted Community	Population of Community	Sample Size 2% of Population
A	Tarka	Twar	756	15
		Uyoarako	1021	20
		Salem	503	10
		Anchiha	1018	20
		Konkyar	762	15
B	Katsina-Ala	Aba Mbahav	766	15
		Ushosambe	1021	20
		Achough	516	10
		Virgir	500	10
		Turan	751	15
C	Apa	Alifeti	767	15
		Akpete	753	15
		Oladoga	761	15
		Auke	773	15
		Oiji-Jos	755	15
		Total		225

Primary data was used for the study which was garnered through a well structured questionnaire and interview sections with LEEMP beneficiaries. The socioeconomic characteristics of respondents were analyzed descriptively, impact of LEEMP on target communities where presented in a tabular form, while five point likert type scales was used to analyze the awareness and participation level respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Findings of the study are as presented below;

Socio-economic Characteristics of Respondents

The results in Table 1 shows that 72.9 percent of the respondents were males and the other 28 percent were females. Large proportions of the respondents (65.6%) were within the age bracket of 31-50 and were mainly farmers (62%). Majority of the respondents (61% above) were educated which shows that the people in the study area are quite young and expected to be productive.

The finding in this study agrees with that of Nwachukwu and Ezeh (2007) who reported that people within this age group formed the bulk of the productive work force. The relatively youthful age composition of the people in the study area suggests a high tendency for dynamism and innovativeness and 76% of the respondents were married, with about 56% having a household size of 8-10 persons per household.

Standard of Living of Beneficiaries

The results in Table 4 indicate that respondents strongly agreed that they had access to education (about 43.7%), there had been increase in girl-child education (57.2%), increased number of teachers employed in the various schools (50.9%), and increase in the number of people attending the P.T.A meetings (49.1%). The respondents attributed this to the provision of school buildings, furniture and the VIP toilets that were provided by LEEMP. This finding corroborates with that of Okopi (2007) who reported that there has been an improvement in the educational sector in Benue State as a result of renovation and building of new structures in rural areas .

Characteristic	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Sex		
Male	163	72.9
Female	62	27.9
Total	225	100.0
Age		
20-29	29	13.1
30-39	93	41.9
40-49	97	43.7
50-59	6	1.4
Total	225	100.00
Sex		
Male	160	72.1
Female	62	27.9
Total	222	100.0
Marital status		
Single	52	23.4
Married	169	76.1
Divorced	4	.5
Total	225	100.00
Occupation		
Farming	108	48.6
Civil servant	69	31.1
Self employed	43	19.4
Others	5	.9
Total	225	100%
Educational attainment		
Non-formal education	19	7.2
Primary	61	27.5
Secondary	73	32.9
Tertiary	72	32.4
Total	225	100%
Household size		
2-4	8	23.1
5-7	48	21.6
8-10	84	38.0
11 above	39	17.3
Total	225	100%
Social organization		
0	14	6.3
1-2	125	56.3
3-4	36	16.2
5 and above	47	21.2
Total	225	100%

The result in Table 4 also showed that there had been an increase in the social events such as community meetings in the LEEMP target communities as 51.8 percent of the respondents had attested to this fact. This finding is in agreement with Agwu (2005) who reported that 56.9% of the respondents, claimed to have attended meetings where issues concerning the community including community projects, were being discussed. About 46 percent (45.9%) of the respondents agreed that there has been improvement in economic activities followed by 50.9

percent of the respondents who agreed that they have acquired various skills (carpentry, masonry) as a result of the project.

Effects Of Leemp On Standard Of Living Indicators

Indicator/change	[1]members of target community Assessment					
	SA	A	D	SD	U	Total
Education						
- Increase access to Education.	[2]97	60	25	39	1	222
	[3]43.70	27.0	11.3	17.6	.5	100
- Increased in Girl-child	127	48	12	35	-	222
education.	57.2	21.6	5.4	15.8	-	100
- Increase in employment of	113	50	23	36	-	222
teachers.	50.9	22.5	10.4	16.2	-	100
- Increase in attendance of	109	57	19	37	-	22
P.T.A meeting	49.1	25.7	18.6	16.7	-	100
Socio-economic Sector						
- Increase in Social events e.g	115	90	6	8	3	222
meeting.	51.8	40.5	2.7	3.6	1.4	100
- Increase in economic	102	86	31	-	7	222
activities.	45.9	38.7	14.0	-	3.2	100
- Increase in acquisition of skills.	11.3	67	35	-	7	222
	50.9	30.2	15.8	-	3.2	100
- Reduction in rural-urban	100	69	45	-	8	222
migration.	45.0	31.1	20.3	-	3.6	100
- Increase in Income	100	73	45	2	2	222
	45.0	32.9	20.3	.9	.9	100
- Cleaner environment	94	98	18	7	4	222
	42.3	44.1	8.1	3.2	1.8	100
Health Sector						
- Reduction in child mortality.	125	31	28	36	2	222
	56.3	14.0	12.6	15.2	.9	100
- Increase in safe deliveries	132	29	27	33	1	222
	59.3	13.1	12.2	14.9	1.5	100
- Access to immunization	149	27	13	32	1	222
	67.1	12.2	5.9	14.4	.5	100
- Reduction in childhood	124	53	14	31	-	222
diseases	55.9	23.9	6.3	14.0	-	100
- Reduction in time/distance to	109	54	26	32	1	222
Health facilities.	41.1	24.3	11.7	14.4	.5	100
- Access to antenatal & post-	103	54	26	38	1	222
natal care.	46.4	24.3	11.7	17.1	.5	100
Transport Sector						
- Increase in numbers of	76	20	14	90	22	222
vehicles plying the road.	34.23	9.01	6.31	40.54	9.91	100
- Reduction in time to reach the	58	41	20	81	22	222
communities.	26.1	18.5	9.0	j36.5	9.91	100
- Reduction in average cost of	42	33	31	94	22	222
transport.	18.92	14.86	13.96	42.34	9.91	100
Water Sector						
- Access to safe drinking water	94	29	39	52	8	222
	42.34	13.06	17.57	23.42	3.60	100
- Reduction in time/distance to	86	29	44	55	8	222
access safe drinking water.	38.74	13.06	19.82	24.77	3.60	100
- Reduction in average cost of	67	40	46	60	9	222
portable water.	30.18	18.02	20.72	27.03	4.05	100
- Average time taken to access	> 1hr	1- 2 hrs	2.1 – 3hrs	3.1 – 4hrs	<4 hrs	
water.	138	36	42	-	.6	222
	62.15	16.23	18.92	-	2.7	100
- Source of drinking water.	Stream/	Stream	Well	Borehole	Rain	
	well	/river	3	96	-	222
	44	79	1.3	43.24	-	100
	19.82	35.59				

NOTE

1. Assessment criteria mean: SA = strongly agree, A = agree; D = Disagree SD = strongly disagree U = Undecided
2. Number represents: frequencies
3. Number represents: percentages.

The result also shows that 45.0% agreed that there have been reduction in the number of youths migrating to the urban areas, and 45.0% agreed that there have been increase in annual income after LEEMP intervention. The result of this study agrees with that of Nwachukwu and Ezeh (2007) who reported an improvement in the area of productivity and income as a result of poverty alleviation program.

The finding of this study is in agreement with that of Okafor (2000) who reported that there is a need to identify and encourage the various factors that enhance citizen's participation in community projects so as to ensure the citizen continuous participation in community development projects. This will aid the development of our various communities which will consequently reduce the rural-urban migration to the barest minimum in Nigeria. The report of the study further collaborated with Olaleye (2010) who reported that there was a significant relationship between the community's ability to develop income strategies and their participation in community development projects. According to the result 44.1 percent agreed that the LEEMP intervention had resulted in a cleaner environment. The respondents attributed this to the provision of VIP toilets, incinerator at the health clinics, landscaping of all projects and the general awareness that was created by LEEMP staff on environmental issues.

The results in Table 4 show that majority (56.3%) strongly agreed that there was a reduction in child mortality since the LEEMP intervention thus fulfilling the millennium development goals; 55.9 percent of the respondents agreed that there has been reduction in childhood diseases, whereas 67.1% agreed that they now have access to immunization. Similarly 49.1 percent agreed that there has been reduction in time and distance to access health care followed by 59.5 percent of the respondents who agreed that there have been an increase in the number of safe delivery since LEEMP intervention and 46.4 percent agreeing that they now have access to antenatal and post-natal care. This agrees with Okopi (2007) who reported that there has been a considerable improvement in the health sector in Benue State.

The results in Table 4 show that about 58 percent of the people still do not have access to safe drinking water. This underscores the need for more effort to be geared towards the provision of portable water in the rural areas. The finding in this study disagrees with that of Okopi (2007) in his study of the Appraisal of the Benue Advance plan 1999 – 2003; he reported that the Akume regime had not done anything to improve the water situation in the state. Results in Table 4 show that the majority (62.15%) takes less than one hour to access water, this could be because majority uses well which is located within the community. Table 4 shows a negative response in improvement in the transport sector with about 60 percent agreed that there have been no improvement in the transport sector.

The results of the survey revealed that 72.97 percent of the respondents were always able to satisfy their food needs. This is a great improvement over the 12.89 percent recorded in the baseline survey (LEEMP, 2006). The results further indicate that only 9.91 percent never could satisfy their food needs. This is an improvement over the 22.19 percent recorded in the baseline survey, (LEEMP 2006).

LEEMP intervention has resulted in the provision of school buildings, health facilities, generated employment through the provision of income-generating activities and about 73 percent of the respondents were always able to satisfy their food needs. This findings agrees with that of Okopi(2007) who reported that availability and quality of certain indices such as health, education, employment and food security determines the living standard of the people.

Factors that Affected the Successful Implementation of the LEEMP Programme

The results in Table 6 showed that at 5 percent level of significance, the hypothesis that the selected socio-economic characteristics variables have no significant influence on the probability of successful implementation of the project is rejected by wald test of joint significance of parameter. This implies that there is a significant causal relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable that is between successful implementation and the selected socio-economic characterized variables.

Factors Affecting The Probability Of Participation Among The Respondents

Variables	Maximum likelihood estimate	Standard error	Wald Statistics	eβ
Age	-0.01	0.04	0.06	-101
Income	0.00	0.00	0.58	1.00
Education	0.09	0.04	4.93*	1.10
Sex	0.94	0.41	5.29*	2.56
Family Size	0.12	0.05	5.34*	1.12
Constant	0.90	1.45	0.00	-2.45
Log likelihood:	-86.49			
Wald test of joint significance of coefficients	: $X^2_{cal} = 11.58$; $X^2_{5\%cv} = 11.07$			

Specifically, the results revealed that income of the participants as well as their level of education influence the probability of successful implementation of the programme. However, age, family size, and sex of the participant had no influence on the probability of successful implementation of the programme. Participant's increase in income marginally increases the probability of successful implementation of the program. On the other hand increase in level of education of the participant significantly and positively increases the probability of successful implementation of the programme.

The finding here is consistent with that of Ekong (1988) who reported that the higher the income level, the higher the capacity for adoption decisions. Community driven development strategy are innovations that require adoption by the respondents and consequently their participation and eventual success of the programme for which income is a key determining factor. Todaro et al., (2003) further reported that individual's desire for change is greatly affected by the level of income of that individual higher income status can instill courage on the individuals' when faced with the decision as to which type and or how programmes can be run to obtain optimum result. Experience of formal education can give an unparallel advantage to the people of an area in terms of quick understanding of new strategies (Ejembi, 2005). This finding corroborates UNDP (1997) report that level of education may be able to positively modify people's behaviour, therefore in this case their level of education helped in the understanding of the program and therefore it's successful implementation.

Level of Participation of Beneficiaries and Success of LEEMP

The correlation analysis of participation and success of LEEMP programme shows that there is significant relationship between participation and successful implementation at 5% level of significance ($r = 0.95$; $p \leq 0.05$). Consequently the null hypothesis that there is no significance relationship between the beneficiaries' level of participation and the success of the project is therefore rejected. This result indicates that the more the people participate in the programme the greater the success of the programme. The success of the programme increases with increase in the participation of the beneficiaries in the programme. This findings is in agreement with Idachaba (1985) who reported that in a country like Nigeria where over 70 percent of its citizens are rural based, no meaningful development can take place without involving the silent majority who have long suffered neglect and deprivation by successive government. Olaleye (2010) reported that participation implies that the workers have to supply the necessary and needed stimulus needed for the project's success. Olaleye (2010) further reported that there is a significant relationship between participation and community development. The result also conforms with Anyanwu's (1999) view that participation implies that the workers have to supply the necessary and needed stimulus needed for project's success.

Factors Affecting The Probability Of Successful Implementation Of The Programme Among The Respondents.

Variables	Maximum likelihood estimate	Standard error	Wald Statistics	eβ
Age	0.06	0.10	0.31	1.06
Income	0.06	0.00	8.29*	1.00
Education	0.25	0.12	4.75*	1.28
Sex	0.63	1.04	0.3	1.88
Family Size	0.01	0.11	0.00	1.01
Constant	-0.62	3.95	-0.03	-1.85
Log likelihood value	-17.93			
Wald test of joint significance of coefficients	$X^2_{cal} = 11.76$; $X^2_{5\%cv} = 11.07$			

Constrains to Effective Performance of LEEMP

Table 7 shows factors that constrained LEEMP projects in the communities; paramount among these was bad terrain (x = 3.8507) which made it impossible to assess most of the communities especially during the raining season. Others include delay in disbursement (x = 3.5766) this is as a result of the World Bank's requirement that expects communities' counterpart fund of 5% cash of the total cost of project which the communities found it difficult to raise. Retirement process (x = 3.4279) sometimes the items bought by communities could not be receipted for but World Bank insists that every money must be retired before further fund can be given. Lack of technical staff (x = 3.3694). Illiteracy level (x = 29459); despite their level of education they needed training and retraining on procurement and book keeping. Those that were not regarded as major constraints include poor supervision (x = 2.9685); inadequate funding (x = 3.0766); lack of incentive (x = 2.1306); social influence (x = 2.6486); elite capture; level of conflict (x = 1.8694); lack of interest (x = 2.8108) and lack of cooperation (x = 2.7568).

Means And Standard Deviation Responses Of Beneficiaries Perceived Constraints In The Implementation Of Leemp Programme.

Variable constraints	Means	Standard deviation
Bad terrain	3.85*	0.99
Delay in disbursement	3.58*	0.96
Retirement process of funds	3.43*	0.99
Lack of technical staff	3.37*	0.90
Poor supervision	2.97	0.75
Inadequate funding	3.08*	0.89
Lack of interest by Communities members	2.81	0.82
Lack of cooperation	2.76	0.83
Illiteracy level	2.95	0.96
Lack of incentive	2.13	0.62
Social influence	2.65	0.95
Elite capture	2.52	0.91
Level conflict	1.87	0.38

> 3.05 = significant; 2.95 not signficiant ' significant* major constraints

CONCLUSION

It was found that education, income, sex and household size influenced respondents level of participation and subsequently the success of the project. LEEMP used a strategy that enabled community members to participate and established projects that were priotized by themselves which lead to national and community development, contributing greatly to improvement in the standard of living of the targeted rural communities.

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that for every government programme targeted at community development, there is a need to embark on intensive awareness creation of the existence of the programme through the use of the staff, town criers, village meetings, radio and televisions jingles in local dialects. Policy makers should de-emphasize the top-down flow of information. This approach has the great disadvantage of reducing interaction between policy makers and the rural dwellers as well as participation. Community Driven Development Approach (CDD) should rather be used as this medium offers the rural people the opportunity to be actively involved in the entire process of conception, identification, and execution of any poverty alleviation programme that will benefit them.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of this study;

i. Considering the project's good achievements, the evaluation supports the second phase, but with greater involvement in project supervision and implementation support.
ii. To ensure that the poorest, most marginalized and vulnerable among the active rural population fully participate in project interventions and derive benefits from the next phase, it would be useful to:
    1. improve the project's understanding of the mechanisms of social and economic exclusion affecting the most vulnerable social groups
    2. develop approaches for local planning and monitoring and evaluation that ensure full participation by vulnerable or marginalized groups and assign unequivocal priority to reducing vulnerability among such groups; and
    3. provide incentives and earmark resources for specific subprojects aimed at reducing the vulnerability and exclusion of the rural poor
iii. To ensure wider sustainability of project investments, the next project phase should contribute to:

iv. developing appropriate and equitable mechanisms for cost-sharing in the construction and O&M costs of community infrastructure; and

v. promoting rural people's access to the means (inputs, technical advice, etc.) of maximizing returns on investments. The community driven development approach should be adjusted to accommodate community natural resource management subprojects at go beyond the geographic boundaries of one village or one rural commune, and take longer than one year to implement.

Reference

Agama, M. I. (2007): The Role of Community Organizations in Rural Development. A Case Study of Otukpo Community Development Association in Otukpo LGA of Benue State. Unpublished Undergraduate Project Submitted to the Department of Sociology, Benue State University, Makurdi.

Agwu, A. E. (2005): Rural People's Attitude Towards participation in Development projects – A Study of NGWO Community in Enugu State, Nigeria . Journal of Rural Development Vol. 24. (20; PP. 271 – 286.

Anyanwu, A. C. (1999): In Euro journals publishing. Inc: 2010

http://www.eurojournals.com/ejsr.htm. Accessed 7/6/2010.

Awua, E. (2007): The Role of Community Development Association in Rural Development: A case study of Yonou Community Development Association Gwer LGA of Benue State. Unpublished Project Submitted to the Department of Sociology, Benue State University, Makurdi.

Ekong, E. E. (1988): An Introduction to Rural Sociology Ibadan Junak Publishers limited Ibadan.

Ejembi, E. P. and Ejembi S. A. (2005). "The Status of the Nigerian family Implications for Agricultural Development". Journal of the family, Benue State University, Makurdi. 2 (1): 30-38.

Federal Project Support Unit (2006): Federal Project Support Unit Community Driven Development Strategy: Tool for Poverty Reduction. Federal Ministry of Environment, Housing and Urban Development 38 Gnassingbe Eyadema Street Asokoro, Abuja. Pp 2.

Ihejamaizu, E. C. (2002): The Planning and Implementation of Social Development Programmes at the Community Level: Being a paper presented at a 2-Day Workshop for LGAs at Pyranid Hotels Enugu, 10th – 11th October.

Kiwanuka, A. (1994): Sustainable Rural Development: An opening address presented on the Review and of Rural Development programmes in Africa. Proceedings of an International Workshop 17-21 January 1994, AICC Arusha-Tanzania.

LEEMP (2006): Project Implementation Manual Pp 6-10.

Nwachukwu, I. N, and Ezeh, C. I. (2007): Impact of Selected Rural Development Programmees on Poverty Alleviation in Ikwuano LGA, Abia State. African Journal of Food Agriculture Nutrition and Development. Vol 7, No 5, pp 1-18.

Okafor, E. (2000): In European Journal of Scientific Research ISSN 1450 – 21 6X Vol. 41 No. 1. Pp. 32 – 38.

Okopi, S. B. (2007): A Critical appraisal of the Benue State Advance Plan (BAP) 1999 – 2003. Unpublished Thesis submitted to the Post Graduate School, Benue State University, Makurdi.

Olaleye, Y. L. (2010): The contributions of the Doctrine of citizens' participation in Organization and Implementation of Community Development Projects. European Journal of Scientific Research ISSN 1450 – 21 6X Vol. 41 No. 1 (2010). Pp. 32 – 38.

Omenka, J. I. (1991): NGOs and Socio-Economic Devlopment in Oju Local Government Area of Benue State, Unpublished MPA Thesis.

Todaro M. P. and Smith, S. C. (2003): Economic Development. Papaganj, Delhi: Pearson Education (Singapore) Pte Ltd.

United Nations Development Programme (1997): Human Development Report, New York Oxford University Press.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1813.

Ajum, R. Y. (2016). An Evaluation of Intelligibilit Debate in Pakistan. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 94-111.

An Evaluation of Intelligibility Debate in Pakistan

Rehana Yasmin Anjum
Asst Prof. of English
Govt College Women University, Sialkot.
Siakot, Pakistan.

Abstract

The English language came to the subcontinent through the British who ruled it for more than 100 years in the 17th century. Now the people of Pakistan and India are sandwiched between a more formal, sophisticated and literal English Language of the British and informal and casual English Language of the Americans. English is a lingua Franca which is acknowledged as a store house of knowledge and window onto world. At the start of the 21st century, most applied linguists were familiar with the fact that English is now spoken by a considerably greater number of non-native speakers than the native speakers. This incipient change in the status of English as an International language has opened a new vista of debate, namely, the intelligibility debate. It is assumed that English as an International Language has attained such a niche that its ownership by some group or some nation cannot be accepted as an authority, as it is connecting people across the globe through its mutual intelligibility trait. Those who can use it proficiently and even have command over its idiomatic use, whatever accent they may have must be acknowledged. The idea of following RP has been challenged by linguists like Jennifer Jenkins, Barbra Sieldhofer, Jonna Przedlacka, Katerzyna, etc and defended by Peter Trudgill and others of his school insist on the importance of a standard accent to be followed. This school says that every language has its own peculiar patterns which should be maintained while acquiring it otherwise that particular language will lose its peculiar flavor and identity and would gradually be lost like many other languages which could not resist simplification campaigns and eventually lost their originality. The current study explores this issue in Pakistani academic and professional situation among Pakistani Language practitioners with a survey based on the views of students and teachers through a questionnaire. The results show that all groups are in favor of an eclectic approach as is approved by Jenkins in her LFC proposal to NNS of English worldwide to facilitate convenience and ease. This study will initiate debates about an alternative way to teach and learn English as lingua franca.

Key words: Lingua franca, Intelligibility Debate, Pakistani English as a NN variety.

INTRODUCTION

English is a Lingua Franca. A lingua Franca is a language that comes from an entirely different cultural background and is taken over by the people whose first language is some other but they use it as a language of contact and utility. A definition of ELF in its purest form is by Firth, ‘a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication’,cited in Siedlhofer.[14]. It has become a very popular term ELF, along with EIL(English as an International Language) . In today’s globalized world English has become a symbol of immense political, social, and economic power, as Kachru[10],[11], reminds us, it is ‘a communicative tool of immense power’. Pakir raises the important question, How this tool is used in the Outer Circle is a concern.[12].

English is heavily used as an international as well as an intra-national lingua franca. We focus on international English (IE), world Englishes (WE), and English as a lingua franca(ELF) as constructs, paradigms, or movements, and their implications. This paper , based on the theory and research in different paradigms begins with the notion that these three forms currently hold sway in the study of English throughout the world. The learners in Pakistan study English mainly for two reasons:

a) To acquire higher education in different fields.
b) To get good jobs.

English as a Lingua Franca possesses a vast geography, a compressed history, and enjoying progress at an accelerative speed. Crystal[6] realized the fact that English as a worldwide presence is not the same phenomenon everywhere as Crystal [6]. Jenkins[8],[9], has proposed a solution for the ever agonizing problem of those who are learning English as a second language and finding English pronunciation a herculean job to master. In her proposal, which is called Lingua Franca Core (LFC), Jenkins [8],[9], has redefined and classified pronunciation errors covering sociolinguistic and regional variations. This allows NNS to speak in their own regional accents without being regarded as error. Which presented a great solution to the frustration and futility of attempts to gain native or near-native like ability of learning all of the features of English pronunciation. Our Pakistani students are also lacking in oral proficiency due to confusion caused by difference in orthographic and pronunciation systems of English. A Simplified version of pronunciation offered by Jenifer Jenkins can be great help.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to check the response of the seasoned Pakistani teachers and students towards current global trends in English language teaching and learning experiences especially concerning importance of local accents along with RP standard to relieve the students' burden of mastering difficult sounds and accents that are unfamiliar to the non native ear.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Language teaching has been observed to be almost the same everywhere in Pakistan. There might be serious flaws in methodology, but language teachers are made to adopt them due to organizational difficulties, limited resources or time pressure to complete syllabus before exams, and an examination system which is focussed on written exams.These are the conditions which are beyond our control. The current study has tried to look for some other ways for the benefit of the students to combat with current challenges of communication in this globalized world of widening horizons by presenting intelligibility debate going on worldwide for the consideration of our worthy teachers and students.

Hypothesis

It is assumed that simplification in pronunciation will create ease in oral proficiency .

Objectives

To help the teachers and students in creating a new perception about acquiring proficiency in communicative skills

To help the teachers to understand the importance of teaching integrated skills

To draw the attention of the teachers towards some positives points of an alternative pronunciation system.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Questions

1. How far a change in the pronunciation system(LFC Model) is effective in increasing proficiency among student's language skills?
2. What is the opinion of the PE users about LFC as an alternative pronunciation system?

Delimitations of the Study

1. This research is delimited to the teachers of English teaching at graduation level and the students studying in BA and BS.
2. The focus of this research will be on the students of Discipline of English in three Colleges at Sialkot.
3. Only pronunciation and difficulty in mastering oral skills is focused.
4. Response towards simplification of the pronunciation model as proposed by LFC model has been evaluated.

What is Evaluation?

Evaluation may be defined as a process of collecting information about the worth and standard of a particular project, individual, institution or book [2]. The process of evaluation can take place either during a project or after the completion of a project. Best [2]has, very aptly, remarked that evaluation is a process used to determine what has happened during a given activity or in an institution. The purpose of evaluation is to see if a given program is working, an institution is successful according to the goals set for it, or the original intent is being successfully carried out.

The Current Study

The researcher was convinced that there is a need to reform and reconstruct English Language Teaching in Pakistan to keep ourselves abreast of the modern trends in TEFL, TESOL and to make it more rewarding and relevant for the students to enhance their communicative skills. This can be done by simplifying the corpus of English pronunciation .On the basis of extensive data collected in multilingual EFL classes, Jennifer Jenkins modified the Common Core so as to take the reality of fully EIL into account. The resulting Lingua Franca Core identifies 7 areas in which it is essential to eliminate errors in our students' pronunciation: Vowel quantity, Consonant conflations, Phonetic realisations, Consonant cluster simplification, Prominence and weak forms, Tone groups, Nuclear/contrastive stress but not tone. The researcher wanted to know the difficulties of Pakistani students and the opinion of the Pakistani teachers and students about this debate regarding simplification on phonological level to create better intelligibility level and proficiency by accepting local accents .

RESEARCH DESIGN

As the purpose of this study is to evaluate the Intelligibility Debate from the perspectives of teachers and students. A self-reported questionnaire consisting of items in different sections has been used to illicit information from the students and teachers. Descriptive and inferential statistics were collecte through the questionnaire and document survey. On the basis of purpose, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. The researcher herself is teaching at GCWU, Sialkot so her observations as participant observer were also there. The participants' responses are coded and tabulated on the basis of frequency of occurrence and mean value which are graphically presented with help of bar graphs.

METHOD

CIPP Model

The CIPP model of evaluation was developed by Daniel Stufflebeam[8],[9],and colleagues in the1960s then improved and applied to educational studies. This evaluation model requires the evaluation of context, input, process and product in judging a program's value.

Population and Sample

The whole teaching faculty of English Language at graduate level and students studying at this level are the population but due to the constraints of time and resources researcher has delimited it to her own institution. The researcher will use random sampling method. Sample will be the teachers and students teaching and studying at Government Post Graduate College For Woman, Sialkot. Two Samples, Teachers sample and students sample will be used.

General background of the students:

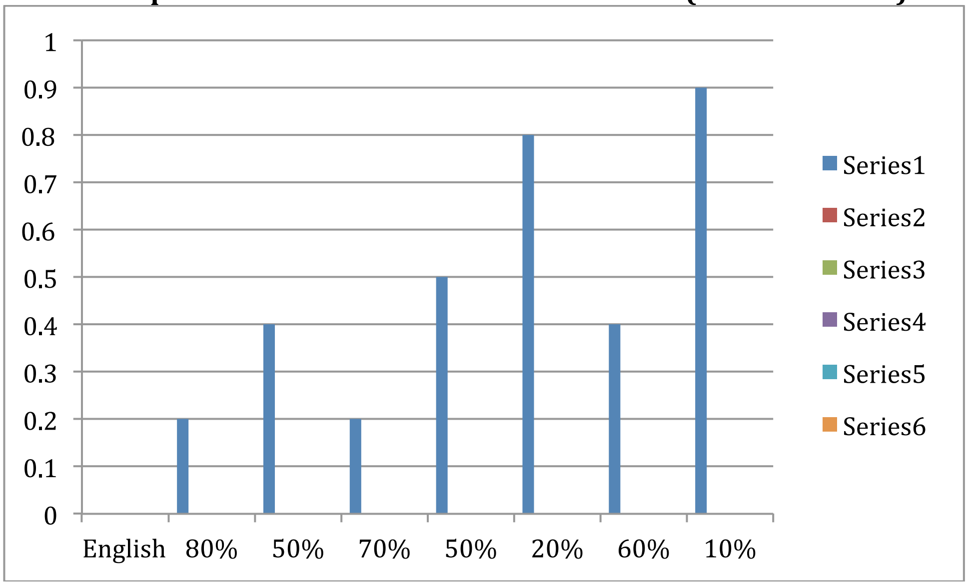
The students who were given this questionnaire to fill were 19 to 21 year old. They have been studying English for the 8 to 9 years. These were divided into three groups:

1. Bachelor' of Arts (BA) Arts Group:
   Their medium of instruction at learning at school was mixed both Urdu and English; those coming from English medium schools and those coming from Urdu medium schools were studying the same syllabi at college. Most of the students were studying subjects like Political Science , Education , Islamic studies , Psychology ,Urdu Literature, Home Economics at intermediate level ,comprised Arts Group and their need to use the English at this level was to pass the Exam by obtaining good marks in BA.
2. Bachelors' of Science (B.Sc.) Science Group:
   They were studying Science subjects like Zoology, Botany, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and Statistics in B.Sc. comprising Science Group.
3. BS FYDP Group:
   They were studying In BS FYDP in both arts and science subjects from semester 1 to semester 4. The researcher had included the students of four batches because they had completed their two years of education in this new system and were equivalent to BA two years' students. The target population that the researcher aimed at to gather data for the questionnaire consisted of all the students taking BS classes in 2009-2010 academic years at Govt. Post Graduate College for Women, Sialkot.
4. General background of the teachers
   Teachers' age was in between 35 to 50 years. They were all well experienced in teaching at both BA and BS level. They have been teaching English for last ten to twenty or so years. They had gone through both the systems right from teaching phase to evaluation phase so could easily compare and contrast pros and cons of the two syllabi and systems overall.

Table1 shows the details about Parental Educational Background (per 10 participants)

Level	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Masters	80%	50%	70%	40%	10%	60%	10%
bachelor	20%	40%	20%	40%	10%	40%	10%
HSS	00%	10%	10%	20%	40%	00%	30%
SS	00%	00%	00%	00%	50%	00%	50%
Below	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%

Participants' Previous Medium of instructions (at SS.HSS Level)



Data Collection Method

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in this evaluation study. Quantitative research is one of the research methodologies relying heavily on numbers in reporting results, sampling and provision of estimated instrument, reliability and validity [2]. Similarly, quantitative researchers seek to establish relationships between variables and look for and sometimes explain the causes of such relationships [13].As for qualitative source of data, along with written documents, the instructors were interviewed individually to comprehend their perceptions on the effectiveness of the program implemented. Qualitative data are collected mainly in the form of words or pictures and seldom involve numbers. Content analysis is a primary method of data analysis [2]. The quantitative data was presented and analyzed by tabulation of percentages, means and frequency of occurrences. The qualitative data was analyzed through content analysis. This data was presented in Graphic form.

Data Collection Tools/Instrument

1. The Questionnaire(Students)
2. The Questionnaire (Teachers)
3. Interview Method

Detail of the Questionnaire

Part 1- Context- (Demographic Information)

This part of the questionnaire aimed to obtain information on the students' age, gender, department enrolled, educational background of parents and type of high school graduated to know the medium of instructions previously taken.

Part 2 – Context- (Overall perceptions of emphasis on skills)

This part was designed in order to find out the participants' perceptions on the frequency of emphasis put on four skills. Part 3- Input – (Participants' perceived competencies in four skills)

The teaching of pronunciation in the classes and amount of time deputed to practice.

Part-4- Process and Product- (Grading the problems of the participants)

This part was designed to know the problems in acquiring proper fluency in speaking skills.

Data Collection Procedure

Before conducting the questionnaire, the researcher explained the details of the study to the administration of the institution to get necessary permission for conducting the study.

Moreover, 20 teachers were interviewed to fill in the gapes left in the questionnaire. The schedules were set up in convenience of the interviewees. After giving the respondents background information about the study, the researcher assured the interviewee of confidentiality as no unauthorized persons would have access to their answers. The researcher was fully aware of the importance of enabling the informant to be at ease to obtain a high rate of participation. As a technique to record the answers, the interviewer chose to write down the responses immediately. Each interview approximately took 20 minutes and at the end of the interview, the researcher thanked the interviewees earnestly for their cordial cooperation.

Treatment of Data Collected

The collected data was processed properly to get reliable results data was processed. By sifting editing, coding, classifying and Tabulating the raw data before final analysis. This was done in order to avoid any inconvenience after wards in interpreting responses of the participants.

VII DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Context

Participants' Characteristics, Their Demographic Information .

The participants of the study were regular students and other professionals of GPGC/W Sialkot. The other participants were also form Sialkot They belonged to almost all classes and have mixed background whose parents have educational level mostly between HSS to Masters.

Participants' Parents' educational background

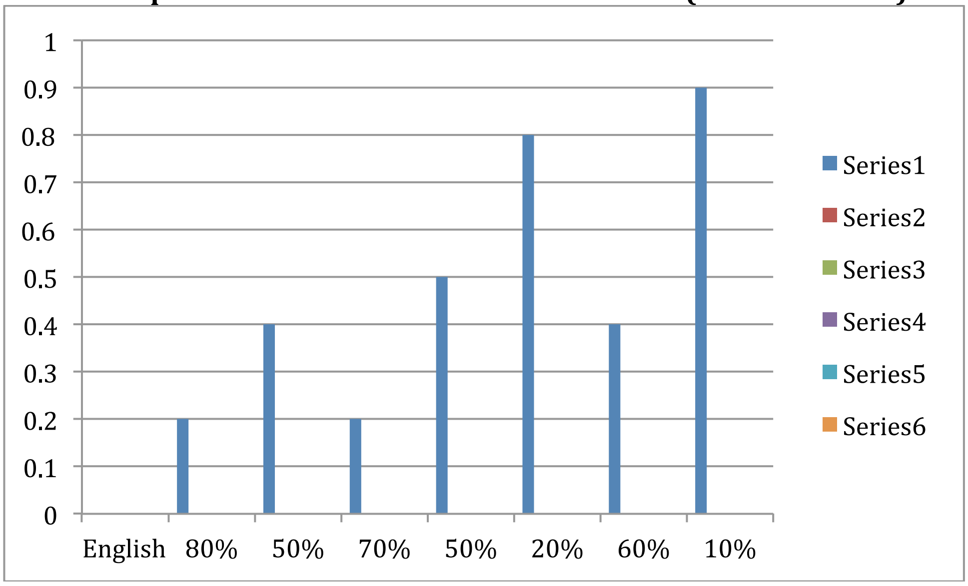
The teachers, judges, lawyers, doctors, businessmen and bankers who participated in the study also belong to a mixed background with a mixed parental educational background the participants were asked to provide information about their parents' educational background in order to know the amount of help in studies at home and the frequency of use of English language at home as their communicative language.

Table 1 shows the details about this.

Parental Educational Background (per 10 participants)

Level	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Masters	80%	50%	70%	40%	10%	60%	10%
bachelor	20%	40%	20%	40%	10%	40%	10%
HSS	00%	10%	10%	20%	40%	00%	30%
SS	00%	00%	00%	00%	50%	00%	50%
Below	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%

Participants' Previous Medium of instructions (at SS.HSS Level)



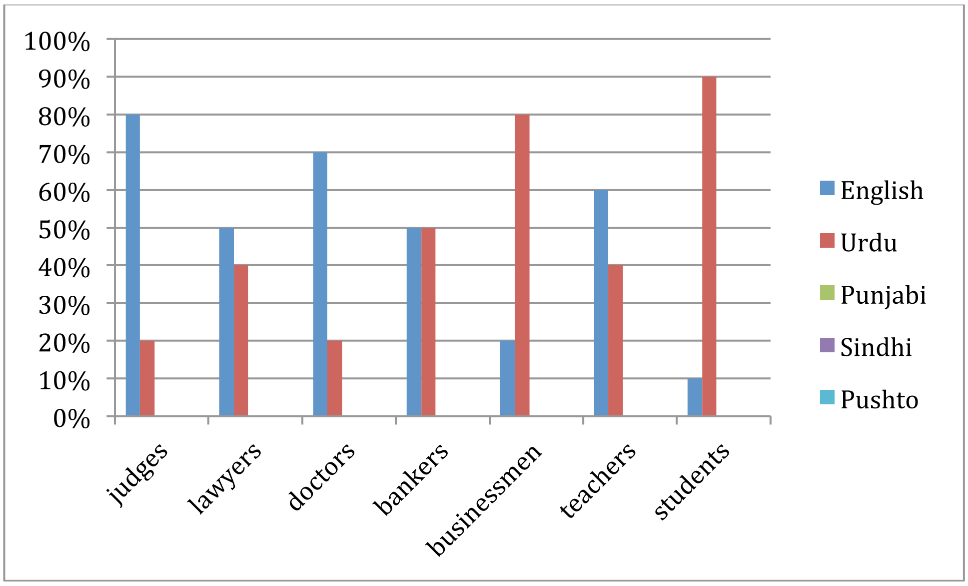
The above graph shows that the education level of the participants of the study is between Intermediate and Graduation. The Parents of very few has Master level qualification.

The Participants who are participating in the study are students and professionals.
Students are studying at the college are of bachelor's level, have passed their HSS exams (Intermediate) with Arts and Science both in Urdu and English medium. All the students are at secondary or tertiary level of English Language usage so it is expected that they can understand reading and writing in English along with listening to and speaking to their teacher in this foreign language. All the professionals have read it at higher level studies and are using it practically in all their official and professional communication.

The professional group has basic proficiency level of English language. Table 2 presents this detail.

Table 2 Medium of Instructions.(at SS.HSS Level)

Level	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
English	80%	50%	70%	50%	20%	60%	10%
Urdu	20%	40%	20%	50%	80%	40%	90%
Punjabi	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%
Sindhi	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%
Pushto	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%



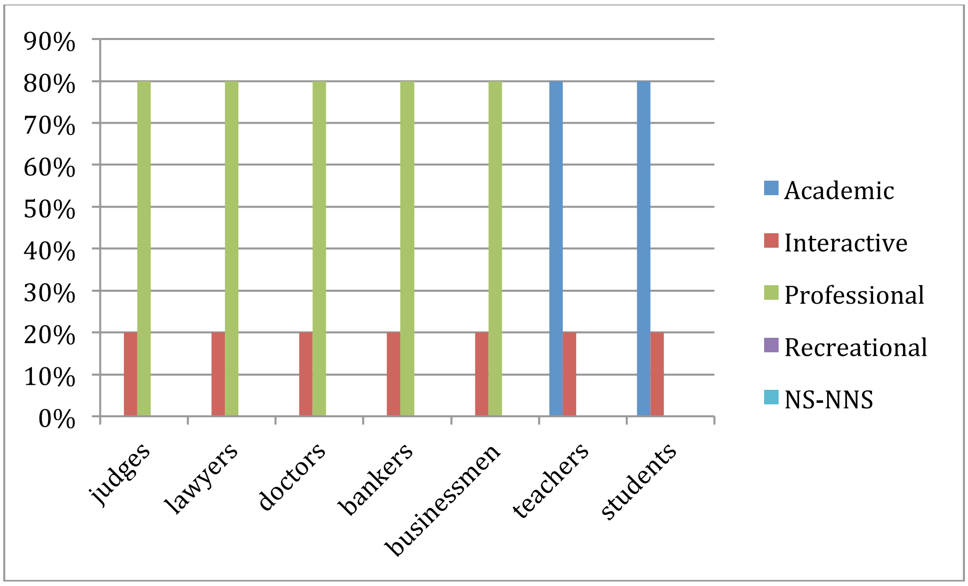
The above graph shows that mostly the medium of instruction of the participants is Urdu and Punjabi . This is why the phonological patterns of these two languages effect participants Pronunciation of L2 e.g. English.

Participants' L1 (Mother Tongue)

This part shows the information about the first language of the participants because it is expected that L1 interferes in acquiring L2.Features of Urdu, Punjabi, Pushto and Sindhi were studied. The phonology of all these languages was compared to detect the problematic sounds, patterns, and articulatory problems which hinder proficiency in English.

Table 3: Participant's L1 (Mother Tongue)

level	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
English	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%
Urdu	20%	20%	20%	50%	20%	20%	20%
Punjabi	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%
Sindhi	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%
Pushto	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%



The above graph shows that mostly the Mother Tongue-L1 of the participants is Urdu and Punjbi. This is why The phonological patterns of these two languages affect participants Pronunciation of L2 e.g. English.2) Input

Current Situation of the Participants, their needs and Provisions

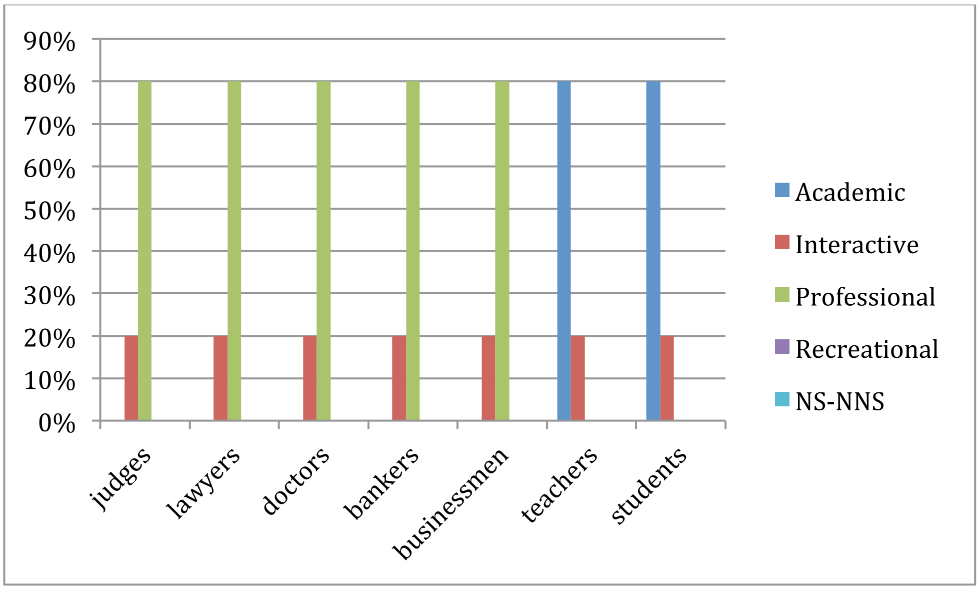
This section aims at the investigations of the human and material side of the study. The students and the other practitioners who were targeted population were studied on the one hand and the opportunities provided to them for getting proficiency in oral-aural skills were studied in detail on the other.

At this stage of the evaluative study, the researcher's own observations as a participant observer were of a great help, as she has been the student as well as part of the teaching faculty for the last 18 years at the site of research (GPGC/W,Sialkot).

Need Analysis was performed by asking all the participants to mark the purpose of their learning English language. Table 4 reports the types of purpose of each group.

Table 4 Need Analysis For English Language Communication

Purpose	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Academic	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	80%	80%
Interactive	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%
Professional	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	00%	00%
Recreational	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%
NS-NNS	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%



The above graph shows that mostly the participants need English for academic, interactive and professional purposes for . This is why they want fluency and ease in communication skills. They want to be intelligible to all other NNS and NS of English.

PROCESS

Current Situation of the Participants, their Problems

Problems in getting mastery over Oral- Aural Skills in students and professionals were studied. The data was collected from the students, teachers and other professional language practitioners through a self reported questionnaire to know the background, needs, existing level of competencies, their problems and suggested remedial measures.

Part1: Shows personal information of the respondents, (Table 1)
Part2: Shows participant' overall Perception of Emphasis on Skills ,(Table 8)
Part3: Shows participants' problems in speaking and listening English.,(Table 5)
.(Table 4.9)
Part4: Explores problematic areas in Pronunciation (Table 5)
,**Part5:** Suggests remedies, (Table 7)
Part6: Settling the responsibility Table (9)
Part 7: Seeks information about Simplification Compagain -LFC model.(Table-10)

The typical language learning experience in Pakistan has no or little space for the improvement of the four communication skills, especially listening and speaking skills. Our educational system is not geared to teach and test the oral skills of the learners. For our students syllabus content is one of the main causes for the neglect of speaking skills. They are not provided with the situations which can trigger their creativity. English is not treated as a language; it is taken as a subject. In the textbooks there are prose lessons for which translation method is used and rote learning is done from guide books

The above graph below shows that mostly the participants have problems of Fluency, Rhythm of RP, Accent,L1 interference and lack of confidence while using English for academic, interactive and professional purposes. This is why they want fluency and ease in communication skills. They want to be intelligible to all other NNS and NS of English.

Table 5: Problems while Speaking English

type	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Pronunciation	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	20%	70%
vocabulary	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	10%
Accent	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	40%	90%
Rhythm ofRP	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	40%	90%
Fluency	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
hesitation	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	40%	100%
L1 effect(PE)	70%	70%	50%	60%	90%	40%	80%
Grammar	00%	80%	70%	60%	90%	10%	50%
Confience	00%	00%	00%	00%	10%	70%	90%

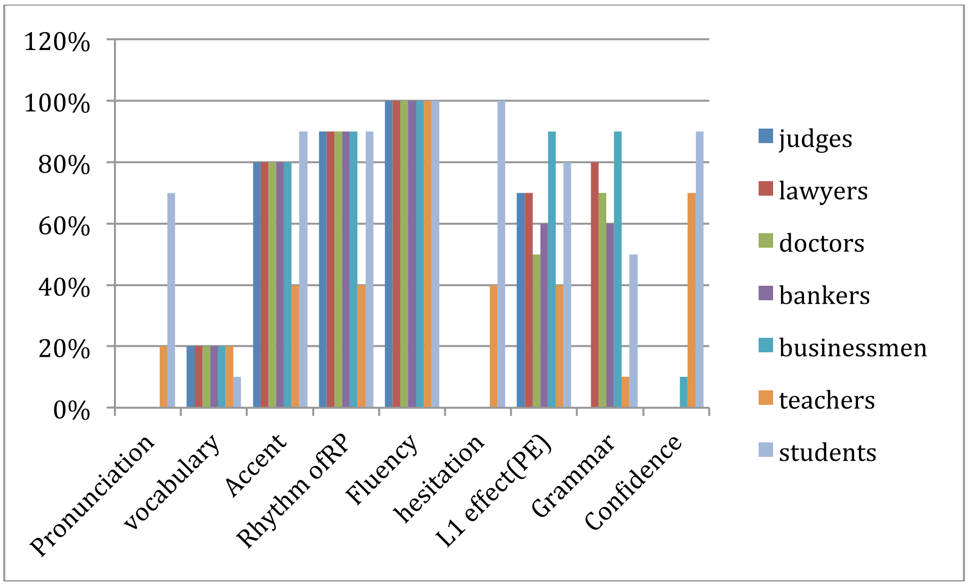
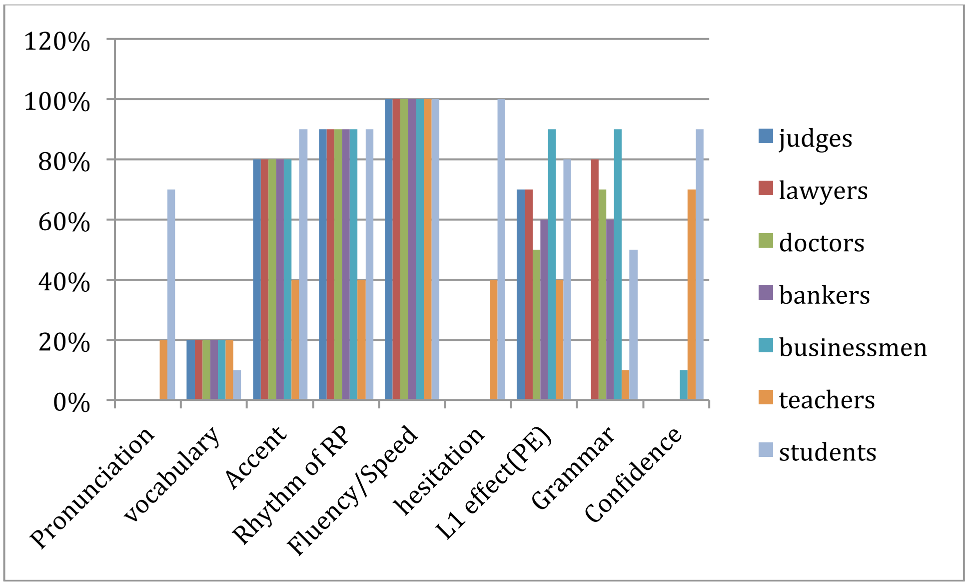


Table 6Problems while Listening English

type	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Pronunciation	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	20%	70%
vocabulary	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	10%
Accent	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	40%	90%
Rhythm of RP	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	40%	90%
Fluency/Speed	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
hesitation	00%	00%	00%	00%	00%	40%	100%
L1 effect(PE)	70%	70%	50%	60%	90%	40%	80%
Grammar	00%	80%	70%	60%	90%	10%	50%
Confidence	00%	00%	00%	00%	10%	70%	90%



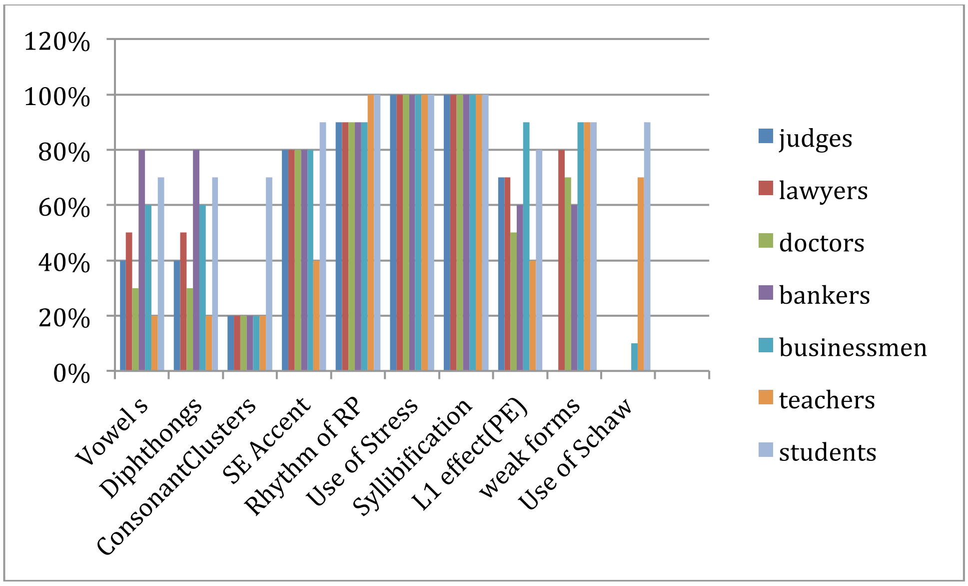
The above graph shows that mostly the participants have problems of Fluency, Rhythm of RP, Accent, L1 interference and lack of confidence while listening to English for academic, interactive and professional purposes . This is why they want fluency and ease in communication skills in both oral and aural .They want to be intelligible to all other NNS and NS of English.

PRODUCT- CRUX OF THE PROBLEM

Reviewing the questionnaires of all the participants the researcher got following information the researcher reached at Crux of the problem-Pronunciation.

Table 7

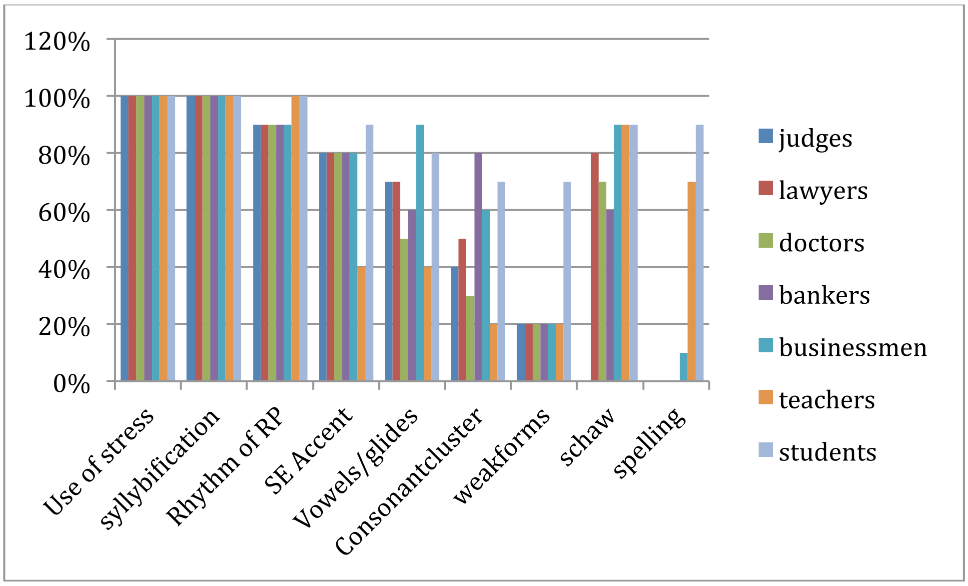
type	judges	L the awyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Vowel s	40%	50%	30%	80%	60%	20%	70%
Diphthongs	40%	50%	30%	80%	60%	20%	70%
ConsonantClusters	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	70%
SE Accent	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	40%	90%
Rhythm of RP	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	100%	100%
Use of Stress	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Syllibification	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
L1 effect(PE)	70%	70%	50%	60%	90%	40%	80%
weak forms	00%	80%	70%	60%	90%	90%	90%
Use of Schaw	00%	00%	00%	00%	10%	70%	90%



that mostly the participants have problems of Syllabification, Rhythm, Use of stress, SE accent, Use of Weak forms ,Use of schwa, L1 interference and use of simple vowels and glides especially while listening to English for academic, interactive and professional purposes . This is why they want fluency and ease in communication skills in both oral and aural .They want to be intelligible to all other NNS and NS of English.

Table 8: Grading of the Problems of PE Practitioners

type	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	students
Use of stress	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
syllybification	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Rhythm of RP	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	100%	100%
SE Accent	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	40%	90%
Vowels/glides	70%	70%	50%	60%	90%	40%	80%
Consonantcluster	40%	50%	30%	80%	60%	20%	70%
weakforms	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	70%
schaw	00%	80%	70%	60%	90%	90%	90%
spelling	00%	00%	00%	00%	10%	70%	90%



The above graph shows that mostly the participants have problems of Syllabification, Rhythm, Use of stress, SE accent, Use of Weak forms ,Use of schwa, L1 interference and use of simple vowels and glides especially while listening to English for academic, interactive and professional purposes . This is why they want fluency and ease .

Determining the Responsibility of the Problem

Who is responsible? (Table 9)

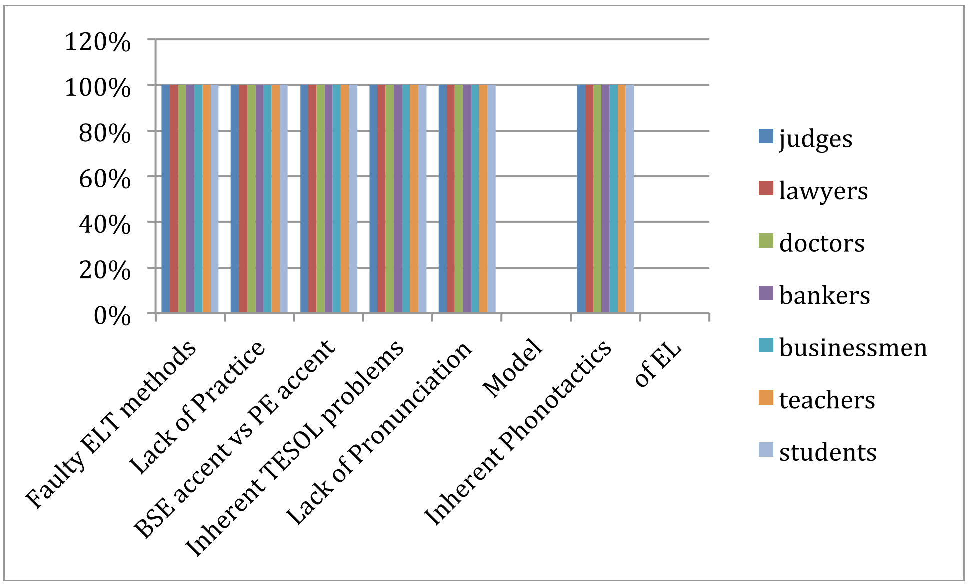
The respondents put responsibility on teachers.

The teachers accepted that not enough time is being allocated towards teaching of integrated skills and they welcomed this intelligibility debate. A new thought put forward by intelligibility debate. They showed mixed response as they were exam oriented which do not allow new experiments.

Table 9: Who is responsible?

Type	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	Students
Faulty ELT methods	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Lack of Practice	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
BSE accent vs PE accent	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Inherent TESOL problems	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Lack of Pronunciation Model	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Inherent Phonotactics of EL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The above table shows that mostly the participants have blamed Faulty ELT methods, Lack of Practice, BSE accent vs PE accent, Inherent TESOL problems, Lack of Pronunciation Model, Inherent Phonotactics of EL causing problem in academic, interactive and professional use of English. . This is why they want some change.



Some Possible Solutions were discussed.

Table 10 Some Possible Solutions

Type	judges	lawyers	doctors	bankers	businessmen	teachers	Students
PEaccent	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
LFC-model	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
ELTRTraining Courses	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
AIOU Reformed	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Simplification	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The above table shows that mostly the participants have favored PEaccent , LFC-model, ELTR Training Courses, AIOU Reformed courses, Simplification in academic, interactive and professional use of English. This is why they want some change.

CONCLUSION

This study was performed in order to present Intelligibility Debate and to evaluate the effectiveness of this LFC model as compared to RP for the consideration of PE language Practitioner. It was very warmly welcomed by all the groups of the participants. Everyone was facing problems of pronunciation of one sort or other and wanted some solution.Findings of the study show that the teachers want significant variations across corpora but are reluctant to accept the diachronic change. Mostly the participants considered the teaching of native-like accent to be very important. They attached a social prestige with acquiring native like accent (acrolect) as a reminder of colonial thought. The educated variety of Pakistani English, has evolved over a period of prolonged use in the academic, administrative, legal, commercial and diplomatic spheres of national life in Pakistan.(Haque,R,A:2003). Some unwritten, indistinct norms regarding pronunciation existed, but were never explicitly stated (Saleemi,A,P: 1985).

This fact usually became obvious at the time of interviews and selection tests when a basic expectation was conformity not to the RP standards, but to the locally accepted norms; those not conforming to 'the norms' were marginalized. Baumgardner (1989) maintains that Pakistani English has developed its own linguistic identity and culture that does not make it inferior to British Standard English. Rahman (1990) who investigated the sociolinguistic variation in Pakistani English with a focus on phonology, syntax, morphology and lexis, called for the need for a published and easily available description of Pakistani English as an institutionalized non-native variety. Pakistani English has now established its own linguistic identity and justification with its distinct phonological features, syntactic differences and culture-specific lexicon.

As far as some model accents is concerned most of the teachers favored British English as the main model accent taught in textbooks, followed by American and Australian English and considered Jennifer Jenkin s' LFC proposal is unusual in an academic publication. In the final conclusion we can say that it is not easy to have full command over all the macro skills, because it needs a number of requirements. If we talk to a native speaker of English, we should have much broader competency in pronunciation. We should be able to perceive all such sounds and words which are there in the native's active vocabulary, intuitively. So LFC simplified features in the following areas should be used in the interactive communication So a revised and simplified plan is needed. The language practitioners expressed discontentment about following RP or GA and want SPEA (Standard Pakistani English Accent) to some extent which can be improved by following Jenkins' proposal of LFC.

In-service training opportunities can help teachers to update their knowledge This can be done through AIOU's distant learning programmes, especially computer assisted language learning programmes (CALL, TEFL, TESOL, M.Ed., M. Phil, etc.)

Computer links and sites could be designed so as to help teachers find sufficient amount of materials, especially conversations with native speakers on line can be helpful.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to improve speaking skills in Pakistan, it is necessary that students ought to be trained in such a way that they could utilize these communication skills in their real life situation. This can be done only when they overcome their hesitation in the use of English language in the class. All the interaction between S-S And S-Teacher should be in English. In this way they will be corrected on the spot and encouraged to use it proficiently afterwards.

The teachers should be able to recognize the difference between the structural and functional use of English and teaching it as a subject. The instructional discourse in the class should be in very simple and easy English based on Jenifer Jenkins' highlighted points to provide the students an easy model of pronunciation to follow .

The teachers should be able to know and discriminate between sounds of English and their students' mother tongue, and solve the problem of unintelligibility if there comes any overlapping of sounds or omission of sounds. it is said that good listeners are good speaker; and good readers are good writers so the more teachers will use the simple English language in the class the more their students become comfortable in pronunciation. This will improve intelligibility level among them.

Language teachers should be especially trained in all the four macro skills ,Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing. When this topic was discussed with the teachers trainers and their syllabi selectors they agreed that it should be included in the training plan of the English Language teachers. The worthy Chairman of AIOU ,the largest available body who trains teachers with its programmers of ELT. TEFL,B Ed etc, was optimistic in introducing LFC as a new leaf turned in ELT training programmes.

Modern teaching methods should be applied in the classroom. The use of recordings of the common everyday talk played in the class can be of a great help in getting familiar with English Language rhythm. In this regard Communicative language teaching has proved to be an effective method.

In language teaching special emphasis must be given to speaking skills, because the more the learners speak, the more they pronounce correctly. Jenifer Jenkins wanted to use her model in the pedagogical area for the improvement of interactive skills of those students who have to go abroad for their higher studies. There they do not have to stick to any one accent but need to be intelligible to all of their class fellows who would have belonged to all around the world.

Our syllabus should be revised thoroughly. It should be divided into structural and functional part, where there is also some space for situational syllabus. In this kind of syllabus, the teachers will be forced to teach the skills and students will be compelled to learn all this. The students will also be aware of the fact that they are going to be tested in this regard. Our examination system should be developed in such a way as to test all the four skills, not only Reading and Writing.

References

1. Baumgardener, R. J. Ed.(1993) The English Language in Pakistan. Karachi. Oxford University Press.
2. Best, J.W., and Kahn, J.V. (2003). Research in education (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education Company.
3. Brazil,D.(1994).Pronunciation for Advanced Learners of English, Cambridge Univ. Press,
4. Crystal,D.(1995). The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Cambridge Univ. Press.
5. Crystal D. (2003) English as a global language 2nd edition. Cambridge . Cambridge.
6. Haque, A,R, (1993).The Position and Status of English in Pakistan.In Baumgardener,R,J (Ed.) The English Language in Pakistan.Karachi.Oxford University Press.
7. Jenkins, J. (2000).The Phonology of English as an International Language.Oxford: Oxford University Press.
8. Jenkins,J.(2004). 'Misinterpretation, Bias, and Resistance to Change', In Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna; Przedlacka, Joanna (Eds.).(2008). English Pronunciation Models: A Changing Scene. (2nd ed.). Beatrice Szczepek Reed, Centre for English Language Education, University of Nottingham, UK: Peter Lang AG
9. Kachru,B.B.(1982) The Indianization of English: The English Language in India, Oxford University Press, New Delhi
10. Kachru, Y (1999) Culture, Context and Writing, in eds. Michael H Long and Jack C Richards, The Cambridge Applied Series 1999, Cambridge University Press.
11. Pakir, A(2003). English as Lingua Franca and Its Implications for Lexicography. Paper presented at ASIALEX 2003, 27-29 August 2003, Meikei University, Tokyo, Japan. (Keynote Paper).
12. Rahman, T. (1990). Pakistani English: The linguistic description of a non-native variety of English.
13. Seidlhofer,B.(2004). 'Language Variation and Change: The Case of English as a Lingua Franca' . In Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna; Przedlacka, Joanna (Eds.).(2008). English Pronunciation Models: A Changing Scene. (2nd ed.). Beatrice Szczepek Reed, Centre for English Language Education, University of Nottingham, UK: Peter Lang AG[

14. Stufflebeam, D.L. (2000). The CIPP model for evaluation. In T.Kellaghan and D.L Stufflebeam (Eds). International handbook of educational evaluation, Part 1 (pp.31-62). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
15. Trudgill, P. (2002).Sociolinguistic Variation and Change. Edinburgh:Edinburgh University Press.
16. Trudgill,P.(2004). 'Native-speaker Segmental Phonological Models and the
17. English Lingua Franca Core'. In Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna; Przedlacka, Joanna (Eds.).(2008). English Pronunciation Models: A Changing Scene. (2nd ed.). Beatrice Szczepek Reed, Centre for English Language Education, University of Nottingham, UK: Peter Lang AG
18. Wells,V, J.(1999). Which pronunciation do you prefer? IAFTEFL Issues149, IATEFL,.
19. Włodzimierz Sobkowiak.(2004). 'Why Not LFC?' . In Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna; Przedlacka, Joanna (Eds.).(2008). English Pronunciation Models: A Changing Scene. (2nd ed.). Beatrice Szczepek Reed, Centre for English Language Education, University of Nottingham, UK: Peter Lang AG

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1837.
Classen, A. (2016). Royal Figures as Nation Builders: Muth Formation in the European Early Middle Ages and in Eighteenth-and Nineteenth-Century Polynesian Hawai'i. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 112-115.

Royal Figures as Nation Builders: Myth Formation in the European Early Middle Ages and in Eighteenth-and Nineteenth-Century Polynesian Hawai'i

Albrecht Classen
The University of Arizona

INTORDUCTION

On September 8, 2015, the police of the County of the Big Island of Hawai'i reported that the top section of the royal spear held in the hand of the sculpture depicting King Kamehameha the Great in the Wailoa State Park of Hilo had been stolen. This splendid sculpture shows, in double life size, the figure of the unifier and founder of the Kingdom of Hawai'i, Kamehameha. The following Tuesday, officers found the broken-off piece in the channel behind the statue. It was covered by vegetation along the banks. Soon after, the criminal, 31-year-old William Roy Carroll III, was arrested and charged with this crime. The theft simply occurred because he wanted to enrich himself because the tip of the spear, or ihe, was made of bronze covered with gold leaf. The 18-foot sculpture displays the mighty king with helmet, cape, and sandals, all also covered with gold leaf. Ever since that theft, great efforts were made to repair the spear and to reattach it to the sculpture. A national figure of great significance had been publicly shamed, so the public strove hard to remedy this situation.

A festive ceremony of placing the restored spear into King Kamehameha's hand organized by Kamehameha Schools East Hawai'i Alumni Association, Mamalahoa Chapter and presided over by kumu Kahookele Crabbe, took place on December 19, 2015. The re-installation was made possible with the assistance from a Hawai'i County Fire Department ladder truck. Repair work on the 22-foot long ihe weighing more than 100 pounds was performed by the Puna metal artist Wes Hammond.1

While both the theft and the restoration of the ihe, along with the public ceremony, might have been only of local interest in east Hawai'i, we face here a fascinating phenomenon that directly connects the myth of Emperor Charlemagne, or Charles the Great (d. 814), with the myth of this Polynesian ruler, which is very much alive and well in the U.S. state of Hawai'i today. We can draw significant parallels from the modern worship and admiration of this charismatic figure of King Kamehameha for our analysis of the long-term impact of the Carolingian ruler on those countries that emerged from his empire and thus gain insights into the reasons for and actual working of that myth surrounding the Frankish king and subsequent emperor (since 800).2 Of course, all over the world and throughout time mighty rulers have promoted the creation of their own auratic status or that of their predecessors and in that process relied heavily on the common tools used for the establishment of myths. The case of King Kamehameha, in particular, proves to be so useful for the investigation of the myth surrounding Charlemagne because in modern-day Hawai'i the myth of the founder is very much well and alive, which can be conveniently compared with the efforts by Charles's posterity to glorify and even canonize that mighty Frankish ruler. In other words, we can draw from the current workings of that Hawai'ian myth for the explanation of the myth surrounding Charlemagne.

Every year, the state of Hawai'i celebrates the memory of Kamehameha on June 11 and thus continues to embrace the ideology created by this founding father. The state seal shows an image of Kamehameha at the left-hand bearer on the official seals of the Territory of Hawai'i and the U.S. State of Hawai'i. Twice during the twentieth century, the statue appeared on a postage stamp (1937 and 1959).3 Kamehameha's accomplishments are particularly noteworthy because he was the only ruler in the entire Pacific to achieve that goal of unifying the various parts of the archipelago of Hawai'i as one kingdom (with the exception of Kauai, which later, however, voluntarily joined the kingdom under his rule). There were numerous external factors that made this possible, but above all we can affirm "that the most important factor of all was the personality of Kamehameha, which completely dominated the period of Hawaiian history . . . ."4

Kamehameha, with his full Hawaiian name Kalani Pai'a Wohi o Kaleikini Keali'ikui Kamehameha o 'Iolani i Kaiwikapu kau'i Ka Liholiho Kunuiakea, was born ca. 1736 and died on May 8 or 14, 1819. His greatest military and political achievement was, to some extent, quite parallel to Charlemagne, that is, to establish the Hawaiian kingdom in 1810. Developing good working relationships with all other major Pacific powers, he secured the continued independence of his kingdom, although in the relatively near future the kingdom was taken over by the United States in a coup by a group of American sugar planters under Sanford Ballard Dole who overthrew Queen Liliuokalani, the Hawaiian monarch, and established a new provincial government with Dole as president.5

One of the founding myths surrounding King Kamehameha was that he was able, at the age of fourteen, to lift and even overturn the famous Naha stone after several attempts (today outside of the Public Library in Hilo, HI), a feat similar to King Arthur's alleged ability to pull the sword Excalibur out of a rock, thus publicly demonstrating his predetermination as the future king. "The fulfilling of the Prophecy, by lifting the NAHA Stone, sealed Kamehameha as the fulfiller of the Prophecy, but other ruling Chiefs, Keawe Mauhili, the Mahoe (twins) Keoua and other Chiefs were defiant of the Prophecy of Ka Poukahi and the High Chiefs of Kauai and supported Kiwala`o even after knowing about the Prophecy."6 According to ancient Hawaii legend, the Naha Stone was originally used to identify who belonged to the ruling Naha clan. After a baby was born, it was placed on top of this stone. If it remained calm, the baby was Naha. If it cried, it wasn't. That massive, 7000 pound rock was transported by canoe from Kauai to Hawai'i.

Without going into numerous historical and biographical details which have already been discussed by scores of historians, suffices it here to summarize once again that Kamehameha unified all the Hawaiian islands and accomplished thus a feat similar to other founding heroes, such as Charlemagne, irrespective of some slight differences in practical terms. As Paul Bailey underscores, "He held his widespread kingdom together by constant vigilance, and an internal strength that no dissenter dared assault."7

In his honor, various massive statutes of him were erected, the first in front of the Ali'iolani Hale, the Hawaii State judiciary building, across historic Iolani Palace. in Honolulu, and all other ones modeled after the original bronze created by Thomas R. Gould in 1880 in Paris. This project had been initiated by Walter Gibson, member of the Hawai'i government, who had first proposed the idea of creating a statue of King Kamehameha in 1878 as part of a commemoration of the 100-year arrival of the famous British explorer, Captain Cook, to the Hawaiian Islands.

Although King Kamehameha had been a Polynesian, Gould, deeply influenced by his studies in Italy, ignored all the photos sent to him and shaped the sculpture in close semblance with Roman and Greek figures, which underscored, however, the figure's aura as his people's leader even further. However, the ship transporting the sculpture was wrecked near the Falkland Island near the tip of South America, so a replica was ordered, which is now standing outside of the Ali'iolani Hale in Honolulu, characterized by a strongly dark skin color. In the meantime, the presumably lost sculpture was recovered by Falkland Islanders, who sold it to the captain, who in turn sold it to Walter M. Gibson. This one was then placed at King Kamehameha's birthplace in Kapa'au in Kohala in the northwest of the Big Island.

A third replica was commissioned in 1959 when Hawai'i gained statehood (49th state of the USA), and was unveiled in the United States Capitol in Washington, D.C. The Princeville Corporation commissioned the fourth copy from R. Sandrin, then working for the Fracaro Foundry in Vicenza, Italy, for their resort hotel in Kauai in 1963. The residents of Kauai, however, rejected that sculpture because Kamehameha had never conquered that island, despite his otherwise glorious military successes in the Hawaiian archipelago. Consequently, that sculpture ended up in the Wailoa State Park of Hilo, where the theft of the spear occurred recently. A fifth sculpture was created by Herb Kawainui Kane (1928-2011) in 1990 on behalf of the Grand Wailea Resort Hotel & Spa on Maui.8

Finally, on Kamehameha Day, June 11, first established in 1871, all the statues are ceremoniously draped in fresh leis fashioned in Hawai'i. All over the Hawaiian islands, there are streets, schools, hotels, parks, buildings, and other sites bearing the name of the first King of Hawai'i, so his myth strongly lives on and signals how much this figure represents, for the present population of Hawai'i, irrespective of their ethnic background, today highly mixed and originating from all over the world, a source of strength and identity, if not culture for all residents of that state. Kamehameha song contests are just as much part of modern-day life in Hawai'i as are parades and festivals. The fact that Hawai'i is a democratic state of the United States does not change anything with regard to the mythical admiration and celebration of the unifying founder of the Hawaiian kingdom.

As much as King Kamehameha enjoyed enormous charisma and was widely recognized everywhere in the Hawaiian islands, as much do we also have to recognize the strategic operations by individuals, groups, parties, and the government itself to promote his memory and to elevate him to a mythical status.

In a very similar fashion, Charlemagne was a mighty ruler who established the first fully-fledged empire north of the Alps long after the fall of the Roman empire in the West and thus gained the charismatic status which has kept his name and fame alive until today. While Kamehameha the Great is memorialized especially through those five sculptures of him, we know of Charles the Great through Einhard's biography, the chapel built for the emperor in Aachen, which includes his throne and shrine, and then through countless chronicles and literary narratives in most European languages. Four times Charlemagne was disinterred, first by Emperor Otto III in the year 1000, then by Emperor Frederick I Barbarossa in 1165, and by Emperor Frederick II in 1215, all trying their best to associate themselves with that mythical figure, displaying his bones as relics and having him canonized, at least once through Antipope Paschal III. In 1349, Emperor Charles IV had some of the bones brought out again to pass them on to individual reliquaries, thereby expanding the myth surrounding the founder of the Carolingian Empire ever more widely. In modern times, the grave was opened again twice, first in 1861, then in 1988 in order to verify that the remains were really those of Charlemagne. On

Wednesday, January 28th, 2014, on the 1200th anniversary of Charlemagne's death, the results of the research were announced, presenting to us an image of the emperor as a strong, tall, yet slim person:

> *At 1.84 metres (six feet), he was unusually tall for his time. The team also estimated his weight at around 78 kilograms, giving him a slim body mass index of around 23. The average height for an adult male in the 9th century was 1.69 meters or 5'6?, which put Charlemagne in the 99th percentile. Einhard's description of him fits the results of the study even in some of the smaller details, like the limp that struck him in his later years. Researchers found that the kneecap and heel bone had deposits consistent with an injury.9*

Many of the reasons why Charlemagne has gained such a reputation throughout the centuries thus prove to be the same as in the case of Kamehameha I, also called 'the Great.' By analogy, we are thus in an ideal situation studying formation of the myth of Charlemagne by way of analyzing how the myth of the Hawaiian king came about, developed, and spread all over the islands. Most importantly, the myth of Kamehameha I is a living one, being supported and promoted today, bringing together, more or less at least, the entire population of the state of Hawai'i which appears to recognize in him a figure of identification. Little wonder then, that the myth of Charlemagne also continues to function very well all over Europe until the present. Both the mechanisms and strategies making the development and spreading of that royal myth prove to be strikingly similar, although neither myth was related with or predicated on the other.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1859.
Shoham, E. (2016). "Like a Mosquito Attacking an Elephant": Perceptions among Israeli talkbackers Regarding Female Violence. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 116-131.

"Like A Mosquito Attacking An Elephant": Perceptions Among Israeli Talkbackers Regarding Female Violence

Efrat Shoham
shoham@netzer.org.il

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine what are the perceptions among Israeli "Talkbackers" towards female violence against their partners. For this purpose we sampled twenty online articles regarding female violence. The study analyses the main themes that arises from the talkbacks appearing at the bottom of those articles. In now days of technological era, the internet forms a stage for many debates in general and controversial debates in particular, such as the issue of female violence towards men. The talkback, due to its unique characteristics, e.g. comment spontaneity and the ability to maintain anonymity, has made the commenters' perceptions and positions more authentic even in such a "sensitive" matter, especially in the Israeli society, in which many still harbor patriarchal familial perceptions. The study shows that Israeli talkbackers maintain traditional opinions and stereotypical positions towards female violence against men, and the further the case got from the common prototype of domestic violence – i.e. a man beating his female partner – talkbackers expressed more stereotypical responses regarding gender roles. In addition, the study found a lenient and forgiving attitude towards the women's violent behavior towards men, as well as a sense of gender inequality in the law enforcement system and the media and misogyny towards feminism in particular.

INTRODUCTION

The academic discussion about female violence has significantly advanced in recent years. In Israel, 25.9% of the women who were arrested or detained during the year of 2010, were kept in prison for domestic violence (Chen & Einat, 2010). A study that investigated female crimes in Israel between the years 2000-2010 found that female crimes during this decade form 11% of all crimes committed in those years, where domestic violence was 31% of all crimes that involved women (Rothchild, 2012). Different studies found that in case of violence between partners, women were as violent as men or even more violent than them (Ben-David, 2014). The feminist movements that brought the issue of domestic violence into the public sphere focused the attention on male violence towards women, and simultaneously somewhat rejected any discourse regarding the existence of female violence and male victimization (Wilchek-Aviad & Mazeh, 2014). Female violence in relationships undermines the common perception and social expectations from both women and men (Zaltsman & Baum 2014). Unlike the behavior expected from boys during early socialization processes, aggressive behavior by girls is considered selfish and inappropriate (Zaltsman & Baum 2014). Furthermore, the social expectation from victims is having difficulties with seeing a man as a victim of domestic violence, thus forms another obstacle in the recognition of female violence in relationships as a phenomenon (Kelly, 2003; Neftov, 2014).

Until the last two decades, professional literature mainly revolved around male criminals while the interest in female violence was very limited and marginal. If female violence did get any attention, the criminal women would be portrayed as women who suffers from a certain pathology, sexual and biological dysfunctions, mental illness or other various deviations

(Ajzenstadt, Soffer & Steinberg, 2010). In addition, a great deal of the explanations for female crimes were based on misogynist views which presented the criminals as evil, cunning, passive, immoral and easily receding back to crime. They were perceived as victims of the feminine, pathological body, which tends to moral destruction. None of the theories considered the criminal woman as an individual with rational thinking and judgment abilities (Ajzenstadt, Soffer & Steinberg, 2010). One additional claim that accompanied the public discussion was that the law enforcement system exhibited a "chivalrous" attitude towards women: policemen avoided from arresting them and even if they did get arrested, their penalty was very short-term incarceration (Gur, 2002). Even in the legal system, women were treated more gently than men. The State's paternalism, which is expressed by the court's verdicts, is explained as the need to be considerate towards women in order to maintain family unity, and so women who care for children are treated more forgivingly than single ones (Hod, 2002). However, Ajzenstadt, Soffer and Steinberg (2010) argue that in certain cases, when the crime is a violent crime that is perceived as "unladylike" and breaches social expectations of the feminine model, the woman will suffer a harsher, sterner attitude. The feminist approaches claim that the biological determinism places the woman in a framework of stereotypes that referred to the criminal woman as a bad, motherly or unmotherly and insane individual (Rimmlet, 2001; Leonard, 1982; Heidenson, 1987). Another criticism was that traditional criminology presents the woman's character in a drastic dichotomy, between the ideal woman who is motherly, caring and busy with the housework and the criminal-monsterous woman who is so deviant she is presented as more masculine than feminine (Brown, 1986).

A criminal woman is perceived as a double deviation: once because she has acted against the law, and again because she deviated from her traditional feminine role (Kimmel. 2002). Gur (2002) adds that the perception of the double deviation is dangerous since it may lead to paternalism, as well as, defensiveness and excessive punishment towards women. In addition, studies shows that most female offender consider themselves as "spoiled good" due to the double stigma. Female offenders feel stigmatization far stronger than male offenders, because their crimes are rarer and are even treated as bigger sensations in the media (Carlen, 1983; Kimmel, 2002).

The common definition when studying female aggressiveness describes it as "any form of behavior performed by a woman and aimed to induce damage or injury" (Conradi & Geffner, 2009). Aggressive women are divided in the literature to one of two categories: the generally aggressive women and those who are aggressive only towards their partners. Generally aggressive women will characteristically have a criminal record, most of them comes from an abusive childhood background or experienced an abusive relationship. Their motives may be instrumental such as gaining acceptance or control over another (Neftov, 2014). Women, who are aggressive towards their partner only, are not perceived as ones who experienced extensive and harsh violence in their past but as women who learned as adults, via prior or current relationships, that violence is an acceptable and efficient means to handle a conflict and to express anger in a relationship (Kelly, 2003).

The purpose of this paper is to examine the main perceptions among Israeli talkbackers regarding female violence towards their partners, as reflected in the talkbackers' comments to online articles covering news in this subject. Our working assumption is that as farther as the domestic violence case in question will be, in nature and characteristics, from the traditional prototype of domestic violence, we will find more gender-stereotypical expressions, less empathy towards the victim and a more forgiving attitude towards the violent woman. Violent women will be perceived as "masculine" or suffering from a mental pathology, while the male victim will be considered "unmanly".

Female Violence towards Partners

Violence in relationships is one of the most controversial study topics, but so far the myriad of studies did not manage to assist in solving the conflicts and controversy. Too often, as mentioned above, the issue of men as victims in domestic violence is either denied or disregarded (Ben-David, 2012).

Archer (2000) performed a meta-analysis of over 80 studies conducted around the world regarding spouse violence, he concluded that women do use physical violence against their spouses. The common reasons that the study has found for women's use of physical violence in their relationships were: anger, revenge, a dominance over the spouse (Hines & Asudino, 2003; Neftov, 2014) and an attempt to gain his attention or improve the communication with him (Fiebert & Gonzalez, 1997). Buchbinder, Sherer and Eisikovits (1997) examined the gaps in men and women's reports on the level of their intimate violence, and found that women were more violent both verbally and physically. They claim that the gap stems from different socialization of men and women in relation to power, morality and world views. In addition, they claim that women's reports on the use of violent tactics to solve conflicts stems from the fact that women call certain behaviors violent even if men do not refer to them as such. The differences in men and women's reports as well as the results of surveys conducted in the United States have pointed to the fact that women can be as violent as men, if not more so (Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 2006; Straus & Gelles, 1986 Whitaker, Haileyesus, Swahn & Saltzman, 2007). Although many studies pointed to equilibrium and reciprocal balance in masculine vs. feminine violence, the idea of a "reciprocal violence" has given rise to a great many criticism (Ben-David, 2014). Protesters argue that usually there are physical and social differences in strength that benefit the man. Moreover, a woman has less experience in physical fights and a much greater economic dependency, which puts her at a greater risk (Saunders, 1988). Furthermore, male violence towards women generates greater fear in the victim than female violence towards men (Belknap & Melton, 2005). A study by Perilla, Frndak, Lillard and East (2003), which focused on women who abuse their partners, found a three-component model: learning, opportunity and choice. "Learning" means that the abusive / violent woman has turned to one through learning, by experiencing intimate or any other kind of violence in her past. Indeed, many studies who studied women who were convicted of domestic violence offences found that the majority of the women in the study reported being victims in their childhood (Swan & Snow, 2003 in Belknap & Melton, 2005). "Opportunity": Perilla et al. (2003) suggest opportunity as an act of vengeance or punishment towards an abusive partner. Nevertheless others may interpret the violent act as self-defense. For example, when an abusive partner drinks until he loses consciousness, the victim decides to take advantage of her assailant's sensitive state and uses violence against him. In such cases, Perilla et al. (2003) argue that the victim became the assailant because she believes that if she will not act violently towards him now, her life will be at risk. Thus the "opportunity" component can be interpreted as self-defense better than as an act of vengeance.

Neftov (2014) emphasizes that there is a significant gap between the common social perception regarding the phenomenon of male victims and their actual feeling and state. This gap was formed because of the social attitude that was molded by stereotypes and myths regarding sex and gender roles as well as the characters of a victim vs. that of an assailant.

Gender and Stereotypes

The word gender is used to describe the differences between men and women that stem from their society and culture and not their biology. Gender defines social perceptions regarding femininity and masculinity in a given society (Rubenstein, 2012). According to Gilad (2007), accepted gender masculine characteristics include decisiveness, dominance, aggressiveness, belligerence, and competitiveness. The common feminine characteristics mainly include lenience, interpersonal sensitivity and empathy, pleasantness, naivety and gentleness. The gender characteristics express the cultural perception of a specific time and location. The study about gender-beliefs shows that people's response to others is based on the masculine / feminine dichotomy. According to this approach, people expect their environment to coordinate itself in a steady system of gender roles, which includes psychological and physiological features. An individual who is feminine or masculine in one aspect of that person's behavior should maintain feminine or masculine behavior in other aspects as well (Rubenstein, 2012). The stereotypical description of the domestic violence victim as relatively powerless, weak and helpless, and as an individual who needs protection, is in agreement with the woman's stereotypical description and completely contradicts the masculine features. This is why when men are the victims of female aggression, the victim's image is often rapidly feminized and his masculinity is being deprived from him (Neftov, 2014).

As mentioned above, society's expectations of women emphasize traits of softness, warmth and affection, consideration and care for others (Caroletta, 2010). These expectations set normative boundaries for women's behavior which define it in terms of "worthy" sexual and moral behavior, teaching moral values to their children and maintaining appropriate family lives. Female offenders are perceived as deviants from those normative boundaries, and are considered as challenging the male hegemony in everything regarding violent behavior (Ajzenstadt & Steinberg, 1997).

Talkbacks and the Online Sphere

The internet is an infrastructure for creating a new kind of public discourse. The high availability of the network, the relatively low costs, the versatile contents one may consume and their authentic, unmediated, unsupervised nature alongside the myriad of variety offered through it have turned the internet into a dominance sphere for discussion and discourse (Cavaglion & Shoham, 2016). The talkback exists in the entire online sphere, but in Israel it holds unique properties. The scope of journalistic websites that enable talkback comments, as well as the talkbacks' connection to the actual article do not exist in online journalism of many Western countries (e.g. England, France, Germany and the United States). In addition, most news websites in Western countries have completely disabled talkbacks in their articles due to the scope of offensive comments (Dror, 2003). The immediate and anonymous nature of talkbacks that appear next to news articles enable a unique freedom of speech that affect the talkbacks' high popularity. Hecht (2003) argues that these properties promote a brutal and rude style of expression. Alongside those who consider talkbacks the arena of a democratic public discourse or a sphere to relieve pressure and frustration, exist others who other consider it a violent rink where the freedom of expression has turned into the freedom of incitement (Negbi, 2012). Rosenthal (2007) claims that talkback serve as the "forum" in the classic-roman sense of the word, and that men are more active there because of their tendency to consider themselves as those in charge. Furthermore, talkbacks have a very competitive and macho foundation, and he argues that there is a phenomenon of feminine self-exclusion and that women prefer not to enter the atmosphere of verbal violence, that is characteristic of talkbacks. Women's talkbacks will usually appear in articles with a "distinctive feminine characteristic".

Online Misogyny

Misogyny is the longest hatred in history. Simone de Beauvoir explained misogyny by claiming that women in our culture is the "other", and otherness is threatening and frightening; otherness is equal to invalidation (Preminger, 2001). Patriarchal societies tend to encourage socialization and education for obsessive masculinity (Haj-Yahia, 2005). Men are taught, from a young age, to maintain their masculinity, to internalize and be ashamed of any behavior perceived by society as a feminine one (Gerber, 1995). According to Haj-Yahia (2005), this education leads boys to develop hostility towards girls and women. Rosenthal (2010) discusses the online hatred discourse and emphasizes that talkbacks expresses feelings towards the subject of one's hatred – such as contempt, generalization, deligitimization and demonization. The hatred discourse usually refers to a group that is considered an enemy or otherwise hostile, as part of some cultural war. The expressions of hostility towards women are everywhere in the online sphere. The nature of the online network provides a high level of prominence as well as greater legitimacy to expressions of misogyny. Negbi (2010) claims that the online network provoke the rise of prejudice, hostile positions and discriminating attitudes towards women, as well as of the positions regarding gender, that seemed to have disappeared from today's reality, especially in the West, has returned via the internet. As mentioned above, the purpose of this paper is to examine the way Israeli talkbackers refer to domestic violence incidents in which the assailant was a woman and the victim was the man.

METHOD

The qualitative research method selected for this study deals with a reality that manifest a myriad of points of view alongside the inability to eliminate single variables from the general context. By doing that it allows one to follow the complexity from a holistic point of view (Ben-Yehoshua, 2001). The qualitative method searches for a social and cultural connection between the phenomena and revolves around the subjective process within the studied reality (Shkedi, 2003). In order to examine the common public perspectives regarding the studied phenomenon, the study was based on direct online talkbacks comments aimed for twenty articles addressing female violence towards men. The articles were retrieved from Israeli online news and journalism websites, e.g. YNET, Walla!, Nana, and NRG between 2013 and 2015. Each sampled article included at least ten talkbacks (some included far more than that). The search for the articles was done using Google search engine, with keywords and phrases [in Hebrew] e.g. "woman beating her husband", "my wife is beating me", "a woman hit her partner", "men as victims", etc. Articles that did not include a single talkback were excluded from the sample. In addition, articles about women who hurt their children or another woman were also excluded. The various collected talkbacks (380 talkbacks of news articles online) were sorted into six main themes: stereotypes and myths regarding the domestic violence offence, which revolves, among other things, around the societal roles expected from men and women; men as victims; women and pathology; forgiving attitude towards the aggressors; the sense of inequality and misogyny.

FINDINGS

Gender Myths Revolving Domestic Violence

This theme is divided into three groups. The first refers to talkbacks that generally revolve domestic violence offences, as they are perceived by the talkbackers. The other two groups describe stereotypical comments regarding masculine and feminine gender roles.

Societal attitudes towards domestic violence:
The domestic violence offences are considered as reflecting the eternally lasting societal order, according to which a man owns all the power while the woman who is a weak and sensitive creature in nature, cannot withstand the violence used against her. The surfers clarify that as long as the man is the beater and the woman is the beaten, the primal order is maintained.

> *"A man can withstand a woman's beating. A woman can't withstand a man's beating. She is no longer a woman – she turns into a shadow of her former self. Physically and mentally. And in general, her life is at risk… he proved himself not only as a man but also as a human being who belongs to the human society, because he managed to control himself."*
> *"A beaten man loses his masculinity. A beaten woman is still a woman."*
> *"I guess you don't know that men are physically stronger than women, and have a much easier time using physical strength against a woman than a woman against a man. Naturally, the law defends the weak from the stronger one…"*

However, when the order is reversed, the violence is undergoing a reduction process and even renewed interpretation:

> *"Such nonsense. A normal man who is sane in his mind and healthy in body will enjoy any sexual 'harassment' by a woman…"*

FEMININE ROLES

Talkbackers find it hard to see violent women as feminine characters, they attribute the level of female violence to the characteristics of a society which is constantly under a state of war, such as the Israeli society. The description of the violent woman undergoes ridicule and de-familiarization and is based on animal figures or scary creatures presented in movies:

> *"A disgrace, only in Israel women are so unfeminine, not to say brutal on the verse of masculine."*
> *"A mare. I bet she'll end up in prison riding a steed. LOL."*
> *"Wow, that's not a woman, that's ferocious King Kong."*

The ridiculing and de-familiarization of the woman is also based on her characterization as a masculine, homosexual and senseless woman:

> *"Way to go, YNET, publish more articles about dumb lesbians. We're tired of your garbage."*

In one case where a woman slit the throat of her husband, who raped her, and got an alternative punishment of community service, a variety of stereotypical talkbacks was found regarding women's roles in society in general, and her roles as a man's wife in particular:

> *"Where does it say exactly that she suffered violence?... the husband demanded she will have sex with him, as is expected of a married woman, and these intercourse even yielded children…"*

> *"Have the murderer rot in jail! Children should not be allowed to grow in the shadow of such a violent woman… take her children away from her immediately."*

An article that describes the killing of an abusive husband leads to a dual attitude, where on one hand there is great fury against women who use their feminine traits in order to affect the law enforcement system and get a lenient punishment, while on the other hand they wonder how a mother can hurt the father of her children:

> *"Come over to the courts and see the cries of women. Come over to the Knesset and the various committees, come wherever you like and you will see women use their ability to cry, scream and bring up a show just to gain pity, benefits and whatnot…"*
>
> *"How can a mother do such a thing right next to her baby girl?..." "How cruel can a woman be, damn it that is the father of your children."*

MASCULINE ROLES

The descriptions of female violence towards the women's partners have led talkbackers to repeatedly state the traditional perception of the strong, dominant man, and as a result they expressed a great deal of anger towards men who did not behave as society expects them to. Talkkbackers often use metaphors of reversed balance of power from the natural scenes, in order to illustrate the level of defamiliarization and lack of trust attributed to incidents of violence towards men. The common talkbacks included expressions of ridicule, anger and distrust:

> *"… slap her silly… what are you, a wimp?"*
> *"She is a stupid violent woman and you are a woos – you cannot stay!..."*
> *"expected a man, got a kitten, go ahead and beat her up…"*
> *"If she is so tiny next to you it doesn't count as beating, just divorce and do it fast. I bet you're driving her mad."*
> *"It sounds a little… Come in! surreal… how can it be that he, an athlete with a fairly large body… will let this thing go quietly and not hit her back…"*
> *"Come on, you call that a beating? It's like a mosquito attacking an elephant…"*
> *"I just do not understand why is this idiot keeps on bending… get her out of your sight and go on… what are you, some miserable soul who just stands there and waits to get slapped again? Can't comprehend…"*
> *"What is the deal with this guy? Have him stand up. With a girl so aggressive, no wonder he will cheat."*
> *"A man is a stronger creature than a woman!!"*

MEN AS VICTIMS

Among the different talkbacks commented on the various incidents of violence towards men, as surveyed on the news websites, we could distinguish a unique group of comments. These talkbacks were (allegedly) written by men who identify as victims of female violence and found a "stage" to share their feelings and emotions regarding this issue. These talkbackers in fact fight for self-construction of a victim's identity despite of society's expectation that they would adopt a masculine identity, of an assailant and not an assaulted individual. These men describe the system's distrust towards their being victims, their sense of humiliation and helplessness alongside the attempt to undermine the ridicule that accompanies the various talkbacks of the article:

> *"My wife usually slaps me when I disagree with her about something. I went to the police several times and they did nothing. They just laughed at me…"*

"…by the way, I know a divorcee whose ex-wife is legally abusing him through false complaints about violence. The guy married a witch who pretended to be an angel… she makes his life miserable even still…"
"I was a beaten husband, and it is a shame you people mock this issue. And I'm a thug. I used to get slapped and beaten even in my sleep… due to my case I have helped many beaten women because I knew what is humiliation!... this really isn't something to laugh about, this article."

Other men who commented the articles adopted the societal identity attributed to the beaten man and evaluate themselves as not true men:

"Beaten and humiliated and still a greater man than I am. I married one just like that, with a psychiatric history, because I have a feeble character and an invertebrate's spine… my character's weakness… all I can do is weep for my miserable destiny… I'm a chicken, a coward…"

PATHOLOGY AS AN EXCUSE FOR VIOLENCE

One of the most common claims when a woman is beating her husband is that "something is wrong" with her. The talkbackers attributed the beating woman described in the articles with mental disorders such as mental illnesses or personality disorders. Such talkbacks were in fact less frequent when the woman ended up murdering her spouse.

"Have him send his wife for psychiatric assessment ASAP!!"
"They get this from home. Her mother beat her father as well. Your wife is not entirely mentally balanced. You should talk to a professional expert."
"Diagnosis: she suffers from clinical depression and should get medications + psychotherapy."
"… I hope she finds a different framework after she will get the mental treatment she so desperately needs."
"This kind of woman you should kick out of your life. No point staying with a basket case, she'll eventually end up alone, everyone will eventually realize she is messed up, and you, man of all men, go out there and celebrate and enjoy every moment of it…"
"If the advisor was a little bit more professional she would have realized she is dealing with a mental disorder… you should have no mercy, people with personality disorders are nothing but misery to themselves…"
In one case where a man complained that his wife beats him, a large part of the talkbacks were "recommendations" by talkbackers to document all the incidents in which the woman acted violently against him. According to them, that is the only way anyone will ever believe him – "her sick state will not improve, it will only get worse as she nears menopause or maybe even a few years earlier. Stop, think, consult and plan: record and videotape, use technological means and keep a backup…" "record everything because later you won't be able to prove anything. If she complains, you're in a jam…"

FORGIVING ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE ASSAULTING WOMAN

It seems that when articles revolved incidents of the murder of a spouse, something about the talkbackers' attitude to the murdering woman changes. Their distrust and ridicule towards the woman and as of anger towards the man, who does not properly fulfill his masculine roles, are now replaced with semi-empathetic responses towards the women who murder their abusive husband. Where women murdered an abusive husband, talkbakcers transferred the victim's identity from the murdered to the murderer and presented the male spouse as one who deserves his punishment. This group includes talkbacks that "explain" that the woman's behavior stems from helplessness, severe mental distress, continued abuse by her spouse, etc.

> *"A woman who suffers for so many years ends up in a state of insanity, how much can one person take… you can't always press charges… so a man like her husband who threw things at her and beat her up for years deserves a punishment…"*
> *"Have men learn that our blood is not forfeited… men who beat women should not come crying afterwards…"*
> *"The man beats her – what did you expect her to do? Wait until he murders her?"*
> *"She should be released immediately..!! I think he deserved it… and this without even knowing all the details. There are many like him and I wish them all to meet a similar ending..!!"*
> *"You are not evil. You have suffered… there is no justification for a misery-filled life. Sometimes women think that if they act against the violence it is as if they act against their husbands, and that allegedly makes them into bad or unworthy wives because they were raised to be good and obedient wives…"*

"IF IT WAS THE OTHER WAY AROUND" – THE SENSE OF INEQUALITY

This group of talkbacks expresses the sense of inequality and injustice that is attributed by them to the law enforcement system's actions. It should be noted that despite of the forgiving attitude found in this study to murderous women, these comments that express the sense of discrimination in favor of women and the injustice in the actions of the law enforcement system, appeared in each of the twenty articles reviewed in this study.

> *"The judges are also insane. They will end up pitying her because she has a baby girl, and maybe even give her house arrest at home, with the parents of the murdered victim, and maybe she will simply walk away with an insanity claim…"*
> *"I'm just shocked. Why does women have this privilege? Where do we live? Under the regiment of a feminist of feminine dictatorship? Where is the equality?"*
> *"Court's equality, humiliation of the dead. Should a man murder his wife he will pay the full punishment for his action. And he should pay, no one will question that or accept a claim that the wife hurt him during many year. Should a woman murder her husband she will only pay half her duty, because she is a woman… she will be asked what happened, and they will accept [arguments] such as look here, this whole story is very difficult… after all, the deceased will have a hard time proving otherwise… this is lawlessness on the judges' part. But they are not those who suffer [the consequences], they are those who repeatedly inflict harm in the name of so-called gender equality…"*
> *'I bet she will not get a severe penalty… the countries of the West, including Israel, have long lost their equality between men and women, law always stands by the woman's side… they constantly write about women who suffer in their families, but they will never write about those who reign their houses like tyrants… they forget about female verbal violence which is very common, and men have no legal defense while the women get full defense…"*
> *"Classic example of the crazy differences in this country's penalty between men and women: men will be haunted and put to misery while the women – oh no, she is the 'poor victim' every time."*

ONLINE MISOGYNY

This group of talkbacks refers to the expressions of anger and hostility towards the female gender as a rule and feminists in particular. These responses were mostly found in articles discussing the nature of the penalty decided for women who hurt their spouses. In order to illustrate the monstrosity and dangerousness attributed to these women, the talkbackers referred to use of metaphors borrowed from wars against diseases and plagues:

> *"Women can murder, here in Israel… a result of the wild feminism that's been roaming freely in the Western world in general and in Israel in particular…"*
> *"Until the feminist germ will not leave the Supreme [court]… the lives of men will be left forfeited [in the eyes of the law]… it's horrifying, what the feminist demon is doing to the Supreme [court]."*
> *The Israeli society is mostly traditional in its religious views, and so there was a high frequency of religious terminology in use, dividing characters to good and evil and the use of metaphors which are more familiar and create instinctive associations.*
> *"Some women are beautiful, with a beautiful body but a demon's soul. Next time you see a pretty woman… and tell yourself how you would have liked to have a similar one for yourself… to have her as my wife, the mother of my children, you should finish the sentence and ask yourself "but what if she has the soul of the devil?..."*
> *"Women are the devil's messengers in this world."*

In one incident in which a woman has slit her husband's throat after he raped her and was sentenced for community service, the misogynist comments were even more prominent, while most female talkbackers were in favor of the woman and wrote comments such as "Way to go… neuter him…", "too bad he's not dead," etc., the men's talkbacks had a more misogynist nature, e.g. "no doubt you are a crazy feminist, and I will use a word that lots of you really likes, you are no more than a sl*t, it's scary to see in your picture that you have a baby who is under the care of a wacko like you."

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The purpose of this paper was to inspect the social perceptions among Israeli talkbackers regarding female violence against their spouses. The findings of the study show that among the talkbackers community we can find high prominence of stereotypical attitudes towards domestic violence offences in general and to men and women who breach the traditional gender roles in particular (Rubenstein, 2012). One of the most common talkback was the ridiculing reference to the assaulted man. The disparagement is mostly directed at the foundation of his "masculinity". The most common, stereotypical assumption regarding male victimhood to female aggressiveness is that even if a woman should indeed attack a man, he will not be significantly physically harmed (Neftov, 2014). In addition, Ben-David (2014) argues that male victims refrain from complaining about their female spouses' violence as they fear they will be ridiculed and taunted, and will have to deal with derogatory names e.g. "wimp" and "pussy". On the other hand, the violent woman is perceived as masculine and brutal and the talkbackers attribute her with traits that most societies perceive as attributed to males, such as brutality and aggression. The attitude to this phenomenon is molded by stereotypes and myths that On the one hand, revolves around sex and gender roles (Davies & Rogers, 2006) and on the other hand, constructing the societal images of assailants and victims. As we observed in previous studies, in cases where the man becomes the victims, his image is undergoing rapid feminization and, as far as his surrounding community is concerned, he is also deprived of his masculinity as well (Neftov, 2014). In addition, when the woman was the attacker, we found a high talkback reference to feminine traits and the woman's expected gender role, e.g. talkbackers reference to that assaulting woman's role as a mother. Ajzenstadt and Steinberg (1997) found, in their study, that when female offenders are involved, feminization of the criminal women went through the entire spectrum of offences, even the most severe ones such as assault and homicide. The gender division between masculine and feminine stereotypes created another theme that was uniquely prominent and refers to men as victims. This category included responses by men who presented themselves as victims of feminine violence by their spouses, shared their experiences and sympathized with the cases presented in the articles. Unlike the main characteristic of the feminine aggression's male victim (Neftov, 2014), i.e. to avoid reporting the assault to either the police or the health institutions up to the point of hiding it from family and friends, the internet – which defends the writer's anonymity and allows the beaten man to expose his condition and to share his emotions with the public without risking being labelled as a man dominated by a woman, including all the social derivative that accompany such an image in Israeli society.

The talkbacks demonstrate a patronizing and paternal attitude towards the assaulting women, which are allegedly expressed by two different responses emerging from a single source: the first type justifies or excuses the woman's behavior based on the perception of women as poor individuals who are incapable of rational thinking, thus they act with expressive violence; the other type of comments, which allegedly reflect a more positive approach, one that express forgiveness and understanding of the woman based on the perception that this person is unbalanced and suffers different mental disorders. The talkbackers repeatedly argued that the assaulting women suffer mental illnesses, personality disorders and even needed immediate psychiatric therapy. Attributing female violence to mental pathology is explained by researchers as an expression of the public fear of crimes and criminals, which are perceived as threats to social order and the individual's welfare (Goode & Ben-Yehuda, 1994). This fear increases when discussing female offenders, which are considered to deviate from their gender roles (Ajzenstadt & Steinberg, 1997). Throughout history, criminal women were described differently than criminal men: crime and deviant behavior employed by women was diagnosed as pathological symptoms and illness. During medieval age, women suspected of deviant behavior were persecuted, locked up and burned as witches. As a rule, women who were considered to deviate from social norms were hospitalized in mental institutions (Shoham, 2010). Barnett (2005) found, in her study of the media and public's attitude towards murdering mothers, that the public's use of some kind of mental pathology as an excuse for female / maternal violence actually presents a comforting myth that allows the public to maintain the illusion of the "Good Mother" and reinforces the stereotype that women must feel love towards all creatures. The myth also serves as a defense mechanism of separation and expulsion, by positioning the attacking women as different, others, not-normal and non-feminine. In continuation to this perception, another theme was found. This theme reflected a more forgiving attitude towards the assaulting woman and includes comments that "forgive" or "excuse" the woman's violent behavior. The talkbacks describe the attacking woman as someone who had no other choice but to act violently against the man. Talkbackers expressed empathy and understanding towards the woman, and the harmed man was described as someone who deserved his punishment, one who is guilty of his own destiny and is not a victim at all. The woman's violent behavior arose as a response to a prolonged abuse from the man's part. Indeed, we can see in Mazeh's study (2014) of women who kill their husbands that these women are consistently presented in the verdicts as victims. He argues that feminist approaches that present the problem of domestic violence as a symptom of women's abuse by men draw a "pretty" picture according to which physical violence is applied solely by men. According to this approach, a woman killing her spouse necessarily means that he was violent to her and victimized her to the breaking point where she could no longer barred her state (Mazeh. 2014). Furthermore, studies show that in many cases where men murder their wives, the trigger for the act of murder was jealousy or depression. Women, on the other hand, usually hurt their spouses as a response to violence initiated by the spouse (Brown, 1987; Jewkes, 2004), which can perhaps explain the sympathy and understanding arising from the public of talkbackers in this study. Moreover, Swan and Snow (2002) argue that female violent behavior can be understood only through examination of the violence their spouse shows them, i.e. women act violently only after their experienced violence from abusive partners. Jewkes (2004) found that there are two female executed crimes in which women will manage to evade the "malice" descriptions and not lose their humanity – the murder of a partner, in which the woman can be depicted as protecting herself from an abusive spouse, and the murder of children, where the woman is seen as one acting out of sadness and madness. In each of these cases the woman is treated as a victim who is not responsible for her own actions. Indeed, researchers who studied public myths and stereotypes along their influence on social attitudes towards the male victim phenomenon, found that the general public's main tendency was to attribute lesser responsibility for the act when the assailant was a woman, and assign greater guilt and reduced vulnerability when the victim was a man. This trend was most prominent with scenarios in which men were presented as victims of female assault (Davies & Rogers, 2006).

The category that included the most common arguments was the one regarding the system's inequality. This group of talkbacks included expressions of a sense of inequality by the system (both in the media and the law enforcement system, in general) where according to the talkbackers the system will always favor the women and be particularly severe with the men. This theme is the most prominent one, and appeared consistently in all of the abovementioned papers – the argument "what if it were the other way around" seem to shade over the entire issue of female violence towards men. Mazeh's study (2014) examined the legal attitude in Israel – and that of the courts towards violent women, particularly women who kill their partners. It found that the attitude of the state attorney (as well as the courts') towards these women was characterized with lenient approach. In the verdicts, the assaulting women are consistently described as victims, the courts attribute great importance to the woman's harsh life circumstances, being a mother, etc. In almost all examined incidents (except for one) the courts refrained from convicting the women with murder. This might suggest that the legal system usually refuses to label cases of women who murder their husbands as homicides.

The last theme found regarded online misogyny. This group of talkbacks was characterized with high levels of hostility and anger towards the female species and feminism in particular. Violent women – and particularly murderous women – were described by a myriad of mythical metaphors e.g. demons, the devil, monsters, witches, etc. the descriptions serves society's need to reduce their femininity and increase their monstrosity (Jewkes, 2004). Rosenthal (2010) claims that the hatred discourse took it up a notch when the hatred target, usually a certain group, is presented as a demon or part of the evil forces. The dichotomous view of women's perception as good or evil, according to many feminist attitudes, is used as means of supervising and drafting limitations for proper feminine behavior. According to Jewkes (2004), the response of the media and the public towards female offenders is far more negatively exaggerated than the response towards men. Negbi (2012) shows that the internet provides greater conspicuousness to female hatred and that feminism, as an equalize theory, has become the target of murderous virtual attacks.

The feminist movements’ great work began in the 1970’s and has greatly contributed to establishing the fact that women are the victims and men are the attackers. This activity reinforced the perception according to which domestic violence is a collective phenomenon related to preserving the patriarchal, social structure of today and woman’s low social status in society (Gur, 2006). This “culture package” which has contributed in the past three decades to the construction of a social reality (female victim vs. male attacker) arouses a “counter-package” which responses are expressed as inequality arguments, where the woman will always be considered as the victim – even if she was the one employing violence against her spouse physically or via ignoring and/or ridiculing the issue of other men being victims of female violence.

Despite the great disadvantages of an online study which is based on anonymous answers, and therefore may gain a low “inclusion validity”, those exact features, such as: spontaneous, authentic or unsupervised responsiveness are the ones that allows us to learn more about the perceptions among Israeli public, by addressing the “gut feeling responses” represented by the talkbacks as an authentic and genuine perspective regarding the way different parts of the Israeli public, who is still partly characterized by inclusion of masculine and militant attitudes, perceive violent crimes of women towards their partners.

References

Ajzenstadt, M., Soffer, M. & Steinberg, O. (2010). I’ll Rest Behind Bars: Female prosoners beyond the walls. Tel-Aviv – Hakibbutz Hameuchad Publishing.

Ajzenstadt, M. & Steinberg, O. (1997). The Feminization of the Female Offender: Israeli newspaper reports of crime committed by women. Women and Criminal Justice, 8(4), 57-77.

Amir, M. (1981). Basic Terminology and Main Aspects of Violence. In: R. Argaman & D. Tykocinski (Eds.), Improving School Atmosphere to Prevent Violence. Ministry of Culture and Education, Jerusalem.

Archer, J. (2000). Sex differences in Physically Aggressive Acts Between Heterosexual Partners: A meta-analytic review. Psychological Bulletin 126, 651-680.

Barnett, B. (2005). Perfect Mother or Artist of Obscenity? Narrative and myth in a qualitative analysis of press coverage of the Andrea Yates murders. Journal of Communication Inquiry, 29 (1), 9-29.

Belknap, J. & Melton, H. (2005). Are Heterosexual Men Also Victims of Intimate Partner Abuse?. National Electronic Network on Violence Against Women, 1-12. Retrieved from http://www.vawnet.org/Assoc_Files_VAWnet/AR_MaleVictims.pdf

Ben-David, S. (1991). Female Violence. Criminology and Social Deviation, 18, 31-42.

Ben-David, S. (2012). Feminization of Domestic Violence. The Israeli Criminology Association Newsletter, 6, 3-6.

Ben-David, S. (2014). Male Domestic Victims – Is There Such a Phenomenon? In: Y. Wilchek-Aviad & Y. Mazeh (Eds.), Silent Violence – Men as Victims, 13-34, Ariel: Ariel University.

Brown, B. (1986). Women and Crime: The dark figure of criminology. Economy and society, 15 (3), 355-402

Buchbinder, E., Sherer, M. & Eisikovits, Z. (1997). Report Differences Between Men and Women Regarding Intimate Violence Level. Society and Welfare, 17(2), 145-166.

Cavaglion, G. & Shoham, E. (2016). Network of Deviations: Structuring and denying social deviance in Israel. Tel-Aviv: Resling Publishing.

Caroletta, A.S. (2010). Male victimis of intimate partner violence in the United States: An Examination of the Review of Literature through the Critical Theoretical Perspective. International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences, 5(1), 163-173

Carlen, P. (1983). Women's Imprisonment. Routledge and Kegan: London.

Chen, G. & Einat, T. (2010). Women Penitentiary: The backyard of Israeli society. Tel-Aviv: Resling Publishing

Chodorow, N. J. (1978). The Reproduction of Mothering. University of California press: California

Davies, M., & Rogers, P. (2006). Perceptions of Male Victims in Depicted Sexual Assaults: A review of the literature. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 11(4), 367-377

Dror, Y. (2003). There is No Place Like the Internet. Retrieved from: http://www.haaretz.co.il/misc/1.901188, May 2015.

Gilad, E. (2007). Gender in Teachers' Qualification. In: L. Baratz & E. Gilad, My Voice Your Voice: Gender, Education and Society, 47-57, Ministry of Education: Achva College.

Goode, E. & Ben-Yehuda, N. (1994). Moral Panics: Culture, politics and social construction. Annual Review of Sociology,20, 149-171

Gur, A. (2002). The Criminal Woman – Unique Characteristics and Adapted Therapy and Rehabilitation Methods. Retrieved from: http://wtc-anatgur.co.il/%D7%94%D7%90%D7%99%D7%A9%D7%94-%D7%94%D7%A2%D7%91%D7%A8%D7%99%D7%99%D7%A0%D7%99%D7%AA/

Haj-Yahia, M. (2005). About the Patriarchal Nature of Society, the Inequality between Women and Men, and Domestic Violence Against Women: The Palestinian Society Case. Online Adalah magazine, 20, 1-7. http://www.adalah.org/uploads/oldfiles/newsletter/heb/nov05/fet.pdf

Hecht, Y. (2003). The Struggle for the Hegemony in the Online Content Market – The Talkback Case. BaReshet Digital Culture magazine. Retrieved from: https://www.isoc.org.il/magazine/magazine4_3.html, May 2015.

Hod, E. (2002). Female Crimes. Visions of the Police, 180, Israel Police Department.

Heidensohn, F.M. (1987). Models of justice: Portia or Persephone? Some thoughts on equality, fairness and gender in the field of criminal justice. International Journal of the Sociology of Law, 14, 287-298

Fiebert, M.S., & Gonzalez, D.M. (1997). College Women Who Initiate Assaults on Their Male Partners and the Reasons Offered For Such Behavior. Psychological Reports, 80, 583-590

Gerber, G.L. (1995). Gender Stereotypes and the Problem of Marital Violence. In: L.L. Adler & F.L Dennark (Eds). Violence and the prevention of violence (pp.145-155). Westport: Praeger.

Jewkes, Y. (2004). Media misogyny: Monstrous women. Media & Crime, 109-138.

Kelly, L. (2003). Disabusing the Definition of Domestic Abuse: How women batter men and the role of the feminist state. Florida State University Law Review, 30, 791-855

Kimmel, M.S. (2002). "Gender Symmetry" in Domestic Violence: A substantive and methodological research review. Violence Against Women, 8 (11), 1332-1363

Leonard, E.B. (1982). Women, Crime and Society: A critique of theoretical criminology. Longman: New-York

Lombroso, C. & Ferrero, W. (1894). The female offender. Dr. Appleton Company: New-York

Mazeh, Y. (2014). Women Who Kill Their Spouses: Does the law system's dismiss of the phenomenon teaches of a wider discrimination in law enforcement? In: Y. Wilchek-Aviad & Y. Mazeh (Eds.), Silent Violence – Men as Victims, 13-34, Ariel: Ariel University.

Negbi, I. (2012). The Internet, Misogyny and Freedom of Speech. Law and Government, 15, 499-532.

Neftov, Y. (2014). Men As Victims of Female Aggression. In: Y Wilchek-Aviad & Y Mazeh (Eds.), Silent Violence – Men as Victims, 13-34, Ariel: Ariel University.

Perilla, J.L., Frndak, K., Lillard, D. & East, C. (2003). A Working Analysis of Women's Use of Violence in the Context of Learning, Opportunity, and Choice. Violence Against Women, 9(1), 10-46

Preminger, S. (2001). Simone de Beauvoir: The Second Sex – Facts and Myths. Babylon Publishing: Tel-Aviv.

Rimalt, N. (2001). When Women Become Violent. Plilim, 10, 277-326.

Rosenthal, R. (2010). For Hatred, Press Here. Retrieved from: NRG website http://www.nrg.co.il/online/1/ART2/134/871.html, September 2015.

Rosenthal, R. (2007). The Israeli Talkback: In the virtual "Town's Square" the weak feel mighty. Adkan, 45, 35-37. The Open University. Retrieved from: http://www.openu.ac.il/Adcan/adcan45/p35-37.pdf

Rothschild, T. (2012). Women, Men and the Crimes Between Them. HaIkar BaMech'kar 2010-2011: Studies regarding Israeli Police Activities, 131-143.

Rubinstein, G. (2012). Men-Hatred or Women-Hatred? Retrieved from: http://www.hebpsy.net/articles.asp?id=2881, July 2015.

Straus, M.A. & Gelles, R.J. (1986). Societal Change and Change in Family violence from 1975 to 1985 as revealed bt ywo national surveys. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48(3), 465-479

Straus, M.A., Gelles, R.J., & Steinmetz, S.K. (2006). Behind closed doors: Violence in the American family. Transaction publishers (electronic version).

Swan, S.C., & Snow, D.L. (2002). A typology of womens use of violence in intimate relationships. Violence against Women ,8, 286-319.

Shkedi, A. (2003). Words Which Try to Touch: Qualitative research-theory and practice. Ramot: Tel-Aviv University.

Shoham, E. (2010). The Dark Side of the Sun. Beer-Sheva: Ben-Gurion University Publishing.

Tzabar Ben-Yehoshua, N. (2001). Tradition and Currents in Qualitative Research. Tel-Aviv: Dvir Publishing.

Whitaker, D. J., Haileyesus, T., Swahn, M., & Saltzman, L. S. (2007). Differences in Frequency of Violence and Reported Injury between Relationships with Reciprocal and Nonreciprocal Intimate Partner Violence. American Journal of Public Health, 97 (5), 941-947.

Wilchek-Aviad, Y. & Mazeh, Y. (Eds.) (2014). Silent Violence – Men as Victims, 13-34, Ariel: Ariel University.

Zaltzman, A. & Baum, N. (2014). To Verbalize Female Violence: Group therapy for treating female violence. In: Y Wilchek-Aviad & Y Mazeh (Eds.), Silent Violence – Men as Victims, 13-34, Ariel: Ariel University.

APPENDICES

1. A woman hit her husband and complained, he was arrested: http://news.nana10.co.il/Article/?ArticleID=942252
2. Restriction order to a woman who assaulted her husband: http://www.nrg.co.il/online/1/ART1/941/476.html
3. Thought her husband was cheating on her, so she beat him: http://www.mako.co.il/news-law/crime/Article-58290fb72cf6a31004.htm
4. The beaten husband won, the woman was forced to divorce him: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-4504467,00.html
5. Hit her husband with a vase on the head and acquitted from manslaughter charges: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3502491,00.html.
6. Slit her husband's throat due to sexual coercion – will only do six months of community service: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-4574546,00.html
7. This woman does not just bug her husband, she abuses him: http://www.mako.co.il/women-magazine/diva/Article-cbeb79dbd9eba41006.htm
8. Wide female violence against men: http://www.inn.co.il/News/News.aspx/288200
9. Accusation: the murderer abused her spouse for many hours: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-2739616,00.html
10. The Supreme Court reduced the punishment of a beaten woman who killed her husband: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3658847,00.html
11. Life time in prison for "Pippi Longstocking" who murdered her boyfriend with a skewer: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3030388,00.html
12. Suspicion in Eilat: A security woman murdered her husband: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3951387,00.html
13. Sixteen years to the woman who stabbed her husband to death at the Kineret: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3726095,00.html
14. The woman who caused her husband's death: this is a disaster: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3522995,00.html
15. My wife beats me and then starts crying: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-4621970,00.html
16. A woman can also rape: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3569053,00.html
17. Boris Becker: "My wife beat me when I was cheating": http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-4433655,00.html
18. Supreme Court: Stabbed her spouse to death and will not be convicted for murder: http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3672353,00.html
19. Real men do not complain: http://www.haaretz.co.il/opinions/1.1616335#article-comments
20. Why do abused men keep taking it and keep quiet? http://www.nrg.co.il/online/55/ART2/589/561.html

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1832.
Strother, S., Brendefur, J. L., Thiede, K., & Appletion, S. (2016). Five Key Ideas to Teach Fractions and Decimals with Understanding. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 132-137.

Five Key Ideas to Teach Fractions and Decimals with Understanding

Sam Strother
Boise State University

Jonathan L. Brendefur
Boise State University

Keith Thiede
Boise State University

Sarah Appleton, MAE
West Ada School District

Abstract

The teaching of fractions and decimals is a significant challenge for many teachers due to the inherent difficulty of the topic for students as well as the lack of high-quality, modernized curricular materials. This article examines the key ideas of teaching fractions and decimals for understanding that are evident in the current research literature and the curricular materials and teaching strategies from high-achieving nations.

Keywords: Fractions; Decimals; DMT

INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning of fractions and decimals, with understanding, requires significant effort from teachers and students. These early rational number topics are often students' first experiences with levels of mathematical content that do not align well with students' intuitive notions of mathematics. For example, the very idea that as the denominator of a fraction *increases* the relative size of the unit fraction the denominator it is describing *decreases* is not a natural understanding for young learners. Similarly, it would seem that because decimal numbers are an extension of the base-10 whole numbers these new number should be described in ways that align directly with what students already know about whole numbers. However, as any teacher who has taught decimals to elementary students can attest, the concept of naming decimals by the smallest unit (e.g. .4 is said as "four tenths" but .40 is named "forty hundredths") is quite unusual for students who have spent most of their early years in school examining whole numbers. Unlike decimals, whole numbers are always named by the quantity of units of one that compose them. It is widely agreed that because of these unique and counter-intuitive aspects of fraction and decimal topics, students in upper-elementary grades and early middle-grades must be given significant time to learn the concepts and teachers need materials to implement effective instructional practices (NMAP 2008). Given that secondary level algebra classes require a substantial foundational understanding of fractions, decimals, and ratio and proportion concepts it is reasonable to assume that students leaving elementary school with this foundational knowledge are more likely to find success in their remaining school years.

With the adoption of the Common Core Standards in many states, the need for high quality curricular materials that better embody the standards' learning progression for fractions and decimals are necessary. There has also been much research completed in the area of fractions and decimals within the last decade that could influence the teaching of them. Teachers will also be expected to use instructional strategies in the classroom that are effective in presenting fraction and decimal concepts to culturally and linguistically diverse learners as well as students with special needs.

At the [Center] we have been engaged in providing professional development, conducting research and supporting teachers in the classroom on the topic of fractions and decimals for several years. Based on our experiences and findings, we have determined there are five key ideas that help teachers promote student understanding and proficiency with fractions and decimals. Here we present the five ideas we have determined will help educators make informed decisions about new curricular materials that may be adopted in their school systems as well as the day to day practice of teaching fractions and decimals for understanding.

EMPHASIZE THE CONCEPT OF UNITS

Fractions and decimals, being a subset of the larger set of rational numbers, are structured on an essential concept of units. The term *unit* is often assumed to mean the whole number "one" but in the case of fractions the unit is actually defined by the denominator and can change as we count or measure with different fractions. In decimal numbers the unit is any decimal place value that is created by partitioning (equally splitting) the previous place value units into ten equivalent parts. This is much the same way all fractions are constructed but decimals are unique in that they follow our base-10 number system and are always partitions or iterations (copies) of ten of the previous smaller or larger unit.

Asking students to name fractions and decimals as collections of specific units can support their learning of *unit fractions* (any fraction with a numerator of 1 and a denominator that is a natural number, e.g. $\frac{1}{n}$ where *n* is a whole number greater than 0). When students see the number $\frac{3}{10}$ or .3, they should initially name these numbers as, "three one-tenth units." To help students communicate their descriptions symbolically this description can be notated as $3(\frac{1}{10} - \text{units})$ or *3(.1-units)* (Lamon 2012). The emphasis on unit fractions and units of decimal place value occurs most thoroughly in the Grade 3 Core Standards, but this emphasis on units is a key aspect of what students in later grades are expected to learn about equivalent fractions and operations with fractions and decimals (NGA 2010).

Use Precise Definitions of the Numerator and Denominator

A common definition in U.S. textbooks for the numerator and denominator is that the *denominator* is the parts to make a whole and the *numerator* is the number parts being counted (Lamon 2012). However, these definitions do not adequately represent the way fractions must be understood to extend students' learning beyond the simplest examples of these numbers nor are these definitions sufficient to apply to learning fraction and decimal operations (Wu 2011). Reviewing the history of these concepts reveals that the *denominator* is intended to identify, or name the unit being counted and therefore the size of this unit. For example, when examining the fraction $\frac{2}{3}$, the denominator of 3 tells us that each whole unit of 1 (not exclusively the unit length from 0 to 1, but all whole unit lengths of 1) must be partitioned into three equivalent units. In a related way, the term *numerator* comes from the word "enumerate" which means to count. Therefore, in $\frac{2}{3}$ the denominator has defined the unit we are counting in by partitioning each whole unit of 1 into three equal parts and we have then counted, or "enumerated" two of these parts according to the numerator. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, when students learn the less accurate definitions of numerators and denominators as simply parts of a whole, confusion can occur when encountering fractions greater than one as well as when adding fractions using visual diagrams. Thinking of fractions as parts of a whole is very confusing if the numerator is greater than the denominator as students reasonably ask, "How can there be more parts than there are in the whole?" Students will often look at a model or context for an improper fraction such as $\frac{6}{4}$ and incorrectly name it as $\frac{6}{8}$. Likewise, adding fractions without clearly understanding the denominator indicates the size of the unit being counted and is always referencing the partitions of whole units of one can often lead early learners to incorrectly assume $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{6}$. These potential confusions are lessened when students learn the more appropriate definitions we have described as there is no reason why counting 6 ($\frac{1}{4}$- units) is conceptually different than 3 ($\frac{1}{4}$- units) when the numerator is understood as a counting part of the fraction. Nor will students be compelled to add denominators when they understand that the denominator is the part of a fraction that determines the unit being counted and is always referring to the partitions of every whole unit of one, not the entire collection of units evident in the model or context.

Figure 1. Models of $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{6}{4}$.

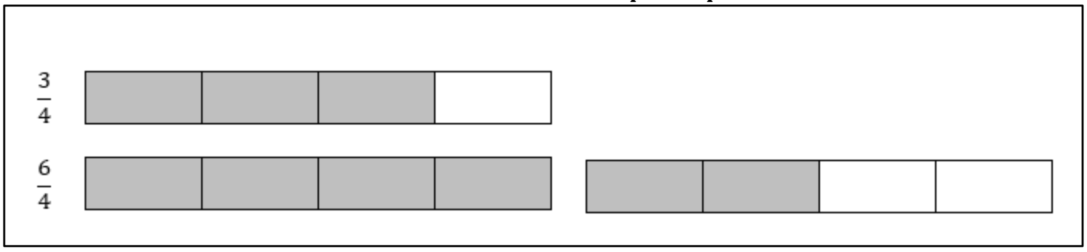
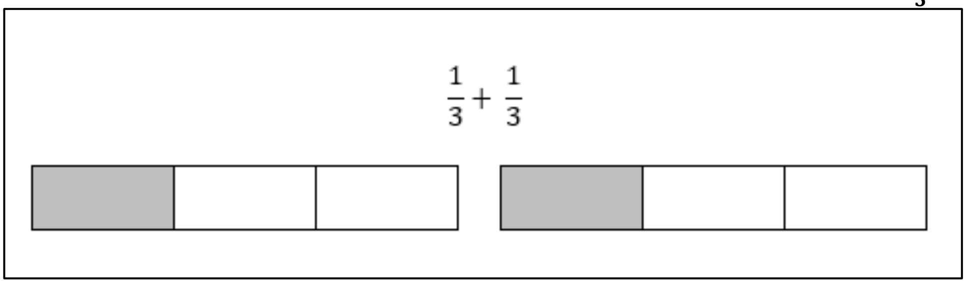


Figure 2. Example of Students' Common Fraction Addition Misconception: $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{6}$.

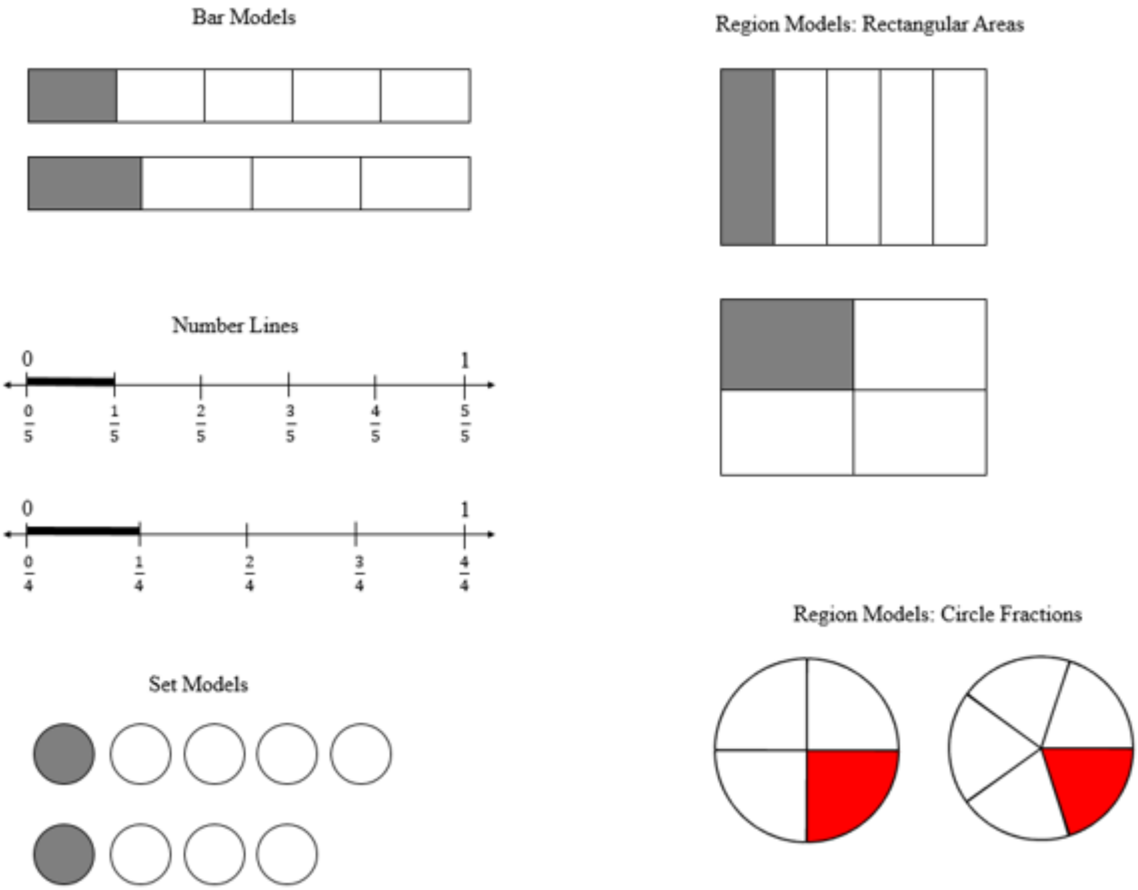


Introduce bar models and number lines as initial representations of fraction and decimals To examine the sophisticated concepts associated with fractions and decimals, a well-established and time honored instructional technique is to use visual models and diagrams to support students' learning (Lamon 2012). Unfortunately, there are many potential confusions that certain fraction models may create for early learners (Watanabe 2002). Specifically, models such as set models (e.g. collections of discrete objects) and region models (e.g. rectangular areas and circles) shown in Figure 3 should be utilized as instructional tools much later in the students' learning process because of their tendency to convolute the intended knowledge and skills to be acquired. In the case of set models, examining a collection objects can lead students to believe that fractions with greater denominators are larger as the set used to create these fractions is indeed greater than the sets to model fractions with smaller denominators. When describing set models as fractions, the fraction name is actually describing a conceptually abstract ratio of part to whole that is not directly observable to many students.

When asking students to use region models to learn fraction and decimal concepts, there is ample risk of confusion as two-dimensional space is often difficult to compare directly. A rectangle or circle may be partitioned into two equal parts in multiple ways, but as shown in Figure 3, the portions of area meant to be unit fractions are often very different in shape and therefore difficult to compare without further understanding of area formulas.

When bar models and number lines are used to compare fractions or model fraction concepts, the unit lengths are more easily compared than two-dimensional regions and the whole unit of one is more easily established than when using set models. Therefore, early fraction and decimal learning should likely afford students more time to become proficient with creating, describing and examining bar models and number lines. This is an approach that is common in many high-achieving nations' curricular materials for fractions and decimals (Alajmi 2012, Leinwand and Ginsburg 2007, Watanabe 2002).

Figure 3. Models Used to Compare $\frac{1}{5}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$.



Assign tasks that require students to reason about the correctness of another student's thinking

An under-utilized but extremely informative assessment technique found in many highly regarded assessment instruments is to present students with another student's reasoning on a non-routine problem. This fictional student's reasoning may often contain flaws and misconceptions that arise from deep conceptual misunderstandings (de Lange 1999, Webb 2002). By asking students to first determine why a fictional peer might reasonably determine $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{3}=\frac{2}{6}$ or that .4 + .8 = .12, teachers create an opportunity to alleviate potential misconceptions and misunderstandings before they become solidified in students' thought processes. This strategy also allows learners to more clearly articulate the error in understanding and then provide a justification to support the fictional student in correcting the error, thus building a foundation for self-reflection and individual error-analysis approaches when new information is encountered. There is also a view that this approach is part of what it means to engage in the practice of mathematical thinking. The Core Standards include this approach as one of the eight mathematical practices,"…construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others." (NGA 2010).

Support Student Discussion With Structured Language Guides

Students learn a great deal by discussing their own ideas with a partner, small group, or entire class (Kazemi 1998). However, given the sophistication of fraction and decimal content it is probably unwise to presume students will have the necessary academic vocabulary and technical language skills to engage in meaningful discussions about the content. Therefore, providing students with linguistic supports to help guide their discourse is a highly effective technique with ample supporting evidence from the field of English language development (Gersten et al. 2007). By including word walls (posters of key academic vocabulary terms) as part of the classroom environment and by providing students with examples of high-quality mathematical discussions in the form of sentence starters (brief, partial phrases that model how to begin expressing an idea or ask meaningful questions) teachers structure their students' peer-to-peer conversations. In this way, students from diverse linguistic backgrounds as well as fluent English speakers are given the necessary assistance in communicating their ideas as they learn very difficult fraction and decimal content (Gersten et al. 2007).

Do These Five Ideas Change How Well Students Understand Fractions And Decimals?

To establish these five key ideas actually do have an effect on student learning of fractions and decimals, the [Center] developed a module consisting of 10 lessons and a pre/post-test that included many of the important fraction concepts found in the 3rd-4th grade Core Standards and built around the elements of developing mathematical thinking (Brendefur et al, 2013). The entire module, including the pre and post-tests took approximately 3 weeks to complete. The module was built with these five key ideas as the foundation and was then provided to 3-4th grade teachers. Other teachers in grades 3 and 4 gave the pre and post-tests for comparative purposes and taught fractions during the same time period using their already available curricular materials, which based on a review from [Center] staff, did not adequately embody the five key ideas. The results shown in Table 1 indicate that students learning fractions from the module constructed with these five key elements significantly outperformed students who learned fractions and decimals during the same time period from materials that did not exemplify these five ideas.

Table 1. Mean Test Performance by Group across Time

Group	Pretest	Pottest
Modules	3.68 (.39)	8.83 (.39)
No Modules	5.69 (.39)	7.91 (.39)

Note. The numbers in parentheses are the standard error of the mean.

CONCLUSION

It is our intent to provide these five recommendations as guidance for teachers and administrators who will be charged with examining new curricular materials and then implementing instructional strategies to fulfill the intended learning of these materials. If new materials aligned to the Core Standards do indeed contain these five key ideas it is likely they will afford teachers an opportunity to engage in effective instructional practices when teaching fractions and decimals. In the meantime, these five key ideas can serve as a guide for modifying or supplementing currently available curricular materials so that students can learn fractions and decimals with understanding.

References

Alajmi, Amal Hussain. 2012. "How do elementary textbooks address fractions? A review of mathematics textbooks in the USA, Japan, and Kuwait." Educational Studies in Mathematics 79 (2):239-261.

Brendefur, J. L., Thiede, K., Strother, S., Bunning, K., & Peck, D. (2013). Developing mathematical thinking: Changing teachers' knowledge and instruction. Journal of Curriculum and Teaching, 2(2).

de Lange, Jan. 1999. Framework for classroom assessment in mathematics. Unpublished Manuscript. Madison, WI.

Gersten, R., S. K. Baker, P. Collins, S. Linan-Thompson, and T. Shanahan. 2007. Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades. Washington, D.C.: Institute of Education Sciences.

Kazemi, Elham. 1998. "Discourse that promotes conceptual understanding." Teaching Children Mathematics 4 (7):410-414.

Lamon, Susan J. 2012. Teaching fractions and ratios for understanding: Essential content knowledge and instructional strategies for teachers: Routledge.

Leinwand, Steven, and Alan L Ginsburg. 2007. "Learning from Singapore math." Educational Leadership 65 (3):32-36.

NGA. 2010. Common core state standards for mathematics. Washington DC: National Governors Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers.

NMAP. 2008. Foundations for success: The final report of the National Mathematics Advisory Panel. Edited by National Mathematics Advisory Panel. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development.

Watanabe, T. 2002. "Representations in teaching and learning fractions." Teaching Children Mathematics 8 (8):457-563.

Webb, Norman L. 2002. "Depth-of-knowledge levels for four content areas." Language Arts.

Wu, H. 2011. "The mis-education of mathematics teachers." Notices of the AMS 58 (3):372-384.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1589.
Adetoye, D., & Osunrayi, F. (2016). The Challenges of Security Agencies on Jos North Crisis: Interrogating the Nigerian Security Architecture and Capacity for Conflict Mangement nad Peace Enforcement. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 138-145.

The Challenges of Security Agencies on Jos North Crisis: Interrogating the Nigerian Security Architecture and Capacity for Conflict Management and Peace Enforcement.

Dele Adetoye PhD.
Department of Political Science
Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti.

Folorunso Osunrayi
The Presidency, Abuja.

Abstract

This study interrogates the causes and course of the protracted conflicts among the various sub-ethnic and lingua-cultural groups in Jos North Local Government area of Plateau State in Nigeria. It examines the interplay of ethnic composition and configuration of settlement pattern[s], migration dynamics, colonial policies, psychological issues that conflate in the region that eventuate in virulent, intermittent, and violent conflicts since 1994. The conflict actors in this area are the Hausa-Fulani, Fulani Herdsmen, popularly known as 'Bororo', Afizere, Anaguta, and the Berom. The study also examines the challenges posed to the nation's security community and the factors responsible for the failure in combating the intractable increasingly protracted conflict. The work is an explorative, micro and empirical study. It adopts the social survey design, as data were drawn from the people in respect of their beliefs, attitudes, and understanding of the conflict. Questionnaires were distributed to respondents in the study area. Other methods employed by the study are interactive methodologies, such as, Focus Group Discussion, Key Informants Interviews and Participatory Rural Assessment. The study identifies political exclusion, pervasive extreme poverty, fear of domination and deprivation of the indigenes by the settlers, that is, the [Hausa-Fulani], dissatisfaction of indigenes with the sociopolitical system, religion as a tool of mobilization for violence etc. as some of the factors responsible for the conflict. The study also finds out that the security agencies, particularly, the Department of State Security, is encumbered by inadequate numerical strength, ineffective deployment of security agents when the need arises, inadequate technical operations, emotional and sentimental attachment of security agencies and government officials in the ethno-religious crises, insufficient inter-agency collaboration and the failure of state actors to respond promptly and appropriately on early warning signs and intelligence reports at critical periods of the Jos North crisis. The study concludes that appropriate interventions in the areas of poverty alleviation/empowerment programmes through capacity building and skill acquisition for the residents, mass education and enlightenment, and dispassionate implementation of reports and recommendations of various investigative panels on the conflicts, would go a long way to resolve the lingering and destructive crisis. The security architecture of the country should also be reviewed with a view to making it more effective and proactive.

Keywords: Crises\Conflict, Internal Security, Intelligence, Indegeneity, Settler, Ethnicity.

BACKGROUND

What is now known as Nigeria today was, before the advent of colonialism, a multinational entity, if viewed against the backdrop of Ferdinand Tonnies' operationalization of the term 'Gesselschaft'. It consisted of several autonomous kingdoms and ethno-lingua-cultural groups with their own indigenous system of governments. However, with the coming of the British colonialists, the hitherto independent and autonomous groups were forcefully massed together for ease of administration, territorial demarcation occasioned by the process of scrambling and partitioning of Africa by the colonial powers and for the purpose of exploration and exploitation of the resources of the colonized. Consequent upon this, the pattern of inter-group relations which existed among these various groups was altered and this was the case before Nigeria attained political independence in 1960.

The amalgamation of 1914 equally created a forced union of unequal partners if viewed from economic standpoint, thus creating competitive and antagonistic constituents of a newly forged Nigeria. As Ayoade [1999:101] adumbrated, Nigeria, is "a politically arranged country… a product of a British experiment in political cloning". The administration foisted on the people could not and did not engender nor forge unity among these disparate groups, neither was national integration achieved among these various peoples before the British left. This lack of integration and covariance among these "nations" within the Nigerian nation eventuated in the various inter and intra-ethnic hostilities that characterize inter-group relations in the country today. It is also responsible for the various virulent and incessant demands for creation of states based on ethnic and lingua-cultural considerations within the Nigerian federation [Adetoye, 2010]. Hence, rather than integrating, the country was disaggregating towards ethnic divides owing to the various spurious geopolitical restructuring that had taken place between 1960, when the country was a three region structure and 1996 when it assumed a 36 states structure. The events that culminated in the intractable and seemingly interminable Jos North crisis can be situated within the conceptual scaffold of the foregoing.

Jos and its Neighbors: A Historical Exploration

The Jos North area, like other parts of what is geopolitically known today as Northern Nigeria, effectively came under the British colonial rule between 1900 and 1960, a development that terminated the Caliphate's suzerainty or a pretension of its suzerainty, in the pockets that remained unconquered by the Uthman Danfodio Jihadists and their successor rulers[Osunrayi, 2010:1]. The political administrative instrument of Indirect Rule adopted by Luggard, made it imperative for Jos and its immediate environs to be brought under the political and administrative control of Bauchi, probably being the proximate emirate and not because of military conquest. According to Best [2007:18], "it is not clear or acceptable to the indigenes that, Plateau was ever subdued by Bauchi or came under Bauchi Emirate before colonialism… all attempts made by the pre-colonial Bauchi Emirate to conquer and subjugate the area after the Danfodio Jihad were rebuffed or repelled .

The Indirect Rule policy relied on the emirate system more than the chieftaincy system on non Muslims, hence the exigency of ruling the Plateau via proximate emirate in Bauchi, between 1902 and 1926. The outcomes of the anthropological studies commissioned by the colonial administration informed the decision in 1926, to carve out a separate province for non-Muslim elements on the Plateau named the Pagan Administration [Best, 2007: 19]. According to Hugh Clifford, the newly created province was to cater exclusively for non-Muslims of Plateau Province and the subsequent abolition of Hausa Kingship in Jos in 1947 [Ballard, 1972]. The Berom, Anagata and, to a lesser extent, Afizere peoples were carved into this province, while the Hausa-Fulani and other non-indigenes in the province were considered settlers by this specious colonial arrangement. The implication of this is simply that groups outside the former three mentioned above, did not have certain rights and privileges accruable to the indigenes [Osunrayi, 2010:2].

Agitation for creation of states from the three regions after independence brought into fore the fragility of the federal arrangement adopted by the successors of the colonialists. At the forefront of the agitators were the minority groups who found themselves among majority ethnic groups that dominated the regions or states as the case may be. At every turn of state restructuring, new majorities and new minorities emerge. The new majorities in many instances became new minorities and these created new national problems that in many instances degenerated into violent conflicts. On many occasions, the violence was triggered by the fact that the various structural adjustments on the state configuration were pure gerrymandering with all its concomitant political and social consequences. For instance, new Local Government Areas were created in Modakeke, Ogbe-Ijoh, Jos North etc with violent outcomes. Thus the 1991 creation of Jos North, apart from being a major trigger in many crises of the area, was interpreted by the Berom as a way of consigning away their ethnic essence and identity. To the settler Hausa-Fulani group who now constitute the numerical majority in Jos North with its consequence on political office sharing and resource distribution amongst the perpetual competing ethnic groups in Jos North, this signified a victory.

THE PROBLEMATIQUE

The Jos North crises have been the most protracted crises in Nigeria. The crises unleashed immense human and material losses, thus posing serious internal security challenge to the country's security community. Intelligence gathering on these crises had been considered inadequate, poor and lagging, hence their repeated escalations. Another security challenge is the contradictory role of making State Governors, the chief security officer of their states without having full control of the troops in their domain. The President is the Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces and without his authorization; no troops could be deployed for any operations in any state of the federation. In fact, the governor does not have the power of deployment of either the police or armed forces. Given this contradiction, the security community is placed in a dilemma.

National development is predicated on peaceful coexistence of citizens. The diversity of Nigeria, ordinarily, should be a source of strength and not a destabilizing factor. In particular, Plateau State and Jos in particular, have been described as an oasis of peace and tourism. But with the broadening of democratic space in 1999, bottled emotions, pent up anger, and perceived acts of injustices of the military era found expression in liberalism and openness that often characterize liberal democracy. Majority rule gave rise to a new form of democratic leadership and the hitherto autocracy foisted on the people by the military rule became seriously challenged.

The Jos North crisis presents paradoxical but interwoven variables that continually confuse researchers and social observers. One, the crises could be seen as ethnic if viewed against the fact that it is a conflict between the Hausa-Fulani group and the indigenes, that is, Afizere, Anagata, Berom etc. Two, it could be viewed as a distributional conflict in the sense that the Hausa-Fulani are strategically placed in positions of authority than the indigenes,-an advantage that opens more window of opportunities for recruitment of their ethnic kiths and kin into government positions. To this extent, the settlers became more economically empowered than the indigenes. And finally, the conflicts also tend to have religious coloration because the Hausa –Fulani group are predominantly Muslims while the indigenes are mostly Christians. There seems to be a conflation of intractable variables attendant to the crises.

The crux of the crisis in Jos North is that of indigene/settler confrontation. Basically, an identity crisis has been rearing its ugly head. The problem of identity crisis and indigene/settler confrontation is not confined to Jos North but has found expression in the entire country. Within this context therefore, any successful and modest attempt at solving this problem in Jos North would not only bring a new lease of life to the citizens of this local government but to the entire nation where identity crisis and indigene/settler imbroglio subsists.

This study throws up some research questions. What is the nature of the Jos North Crisis? What had been the roles of security agencies in these crises? What are the challenges of these agencies in crises management? How could these roles be enhanced for maximum performance?

The Political Economy of Religion, Ethnicity and the Jos North Crisis.

Religion, according to the Oxford Dictionary means, "The belief in a super human controlling power that is entitled to obedience and worship". . . "a particular system of faith and worship that one is entitled to" Religiosity, in man, is a veritable source of conflict especially in a multi-religious and materially poor plural society like Nigeria. Incidentally, in Jos North, most of the Hausa Fulani settlers are Muslims by faith while the indigenous groups, already mentioned above, are mostly Christians by faith. The secular nature of the Nigerian republican constitution guarantees citizens the freedom of worship in any place of their choice without let of hindrance. This guarantee presupposes that any religious group can acquire or procure place of worship anywhere in the country without any discrimination or preferential treatment or patronage from any tiers of government be it local, state or federal. Religious insecurity or perceived religious insecurity, as it were, can and does provoke interminable conflicts; because religion has a high emotive content as a value [Elaigwu, 2005 quoted in Yakubu et al., 2005].

Historically, as Agbaje has noted, the colonial administration "underwrote Islam in the Northern part of colonial Nigeria, and used it as basis of political authority in local administration [Agbaje, 1990:28]. It also kept intact the emirate system of Administration with its strong religious content and bias. According to the late Premier of Northern Nigeria Alhaji Ahmadu Bello, the imposition of the indirect rule was an expression of the grace of Allah [Kuka, 1993].

Apart from this, the British colonial legacy of pandering to Islam at the expense of Christianity, and the trend of instrumental deployment of religion into politics increased regionalization of politics and as such, politicization of religion continued unabated. This development reached a crescendo in 1986 when the Babangida Administration secretly upgraded Nigeria's membership in the Organization of Islamic Conference [OIC] from an observer status to full membership. This action set the tone to mainstream intra and inter-religious antagonisms and violence on a national scale in Nigeria. Religion, just like ethnicity, had risen to the status of identity politics in Nigeria and these two had become the most critical identities in Nigeria [Osaghae and Suberu, 2005]. There is therefore a nexus between ethnicity and religion as both do rarely exists or operates in isolation, rather they interact with one another as well as with other variables in an often complex conflicting way and manner [Osunrayi, 2010].

The story was once told of one Alhaji Yahaya Kwande, a Christian from Kwande, Plateau State, who earlier converted to Islam and joined the then dominant party in the Northern Region, Northern People's Congress [NPC]. His reason for conversion, according to him, was to "fight for rights within the system". However, to his chagrin, something was still wrong" with him. At a party convention that held between 26th and 27th, April 1954, Kwande asked the question "why is the Emir of Wase, a Fulani, and a second class chief, while the chief of Shendam, a non-

Fulani is a third class chief? Wase is just one of the ten areas within Lowland Federation and Shendam is a much bigger and more populated Native Authority. Kwande was promptly accused of subversion and being a supporter of Northern Element Progressive Union [NEPU], the opposition party [Kukah, 1993:3].

Ethnicity on its own part suggests traits of language, culture, folktales etc, as defining a group. According to Rosel [1995], ethnicity is a group of collective perception of the selves as having a bond of common descent, religion, language, culture or history. These may be real or imagined. Jos, as it is known today, came into being around the early part of the 20th century through mining activities in the area [Best, 2007:21]. Hausa, Yoruba, Urhobo and other ethnic groups entered peacefully to work in the tin mines or associated occupations that fed into the mining

Meanwhile, a variety of ethnic groups such as the Afizere, Anaguta, Berom, Amo, Buyi, Jere, Irigwe etc had settled to the Northern zone while the Ngas, Nwaghavul, Mupun, Geomai, Montol, Kuleri, Doemak, Meryang, Fier etc settled in the central and south Zones [Best, 2007:11]. Most of these claim to be autochthons or at least preceded the Hausa and other Southern ethnic groups to the Jos area. The ethnic configuration of Jos area thus has set a stage for intense competition and rivalry. The Hausa-Fulani settlers, especially, are thus pitched again against such ethnic groups as Afizere, Anaguta, Irigwe and Berom. The latter groups, actively backed by other local indigenes in the state, feel that they have the inalienable right to control Jos and its environs, that is, the Local Government Area Council authorities at the expense and to the exclusion of the Hausa-Fulani group who they generally regard as interlopers. With all these, the stage was naturally set for conflicts arising from intense competition for political and other accruing economic and political perquisites. Because of its composition, it is not a surprise therefore that these ethnic groups are always in conflict and competition over resources. These conflicts and competitions are usually characterized by civil disturbances which had taken its tolls on human lives and properties with attendant security implications.

Civil disturbances can be classified into religious, ethnic and political conflicts. Experiences in Nigeria show that the conflicts are usually and most times between Muslims and Christians, and Muslims against Muslims, while ethnic disturbances involve one ethnic group against the other[s]. In some instances, there are intra-ethnic and even intra-religious clashes where some sects, clans/villages engage other[s] in contestation and violence. The third category involve the pursuit of common interests that cut across ethnic or religious boundaries such as clashes between two political parties or agitation to redress perceived marginalization. Experience from Nigeria shows that civil disturbances tend to revolve around politics of identity. These violent incidents are in the increase with the advent of democracy because it guarantees freer atmosphere and provides fertile ground for civil disturbances and the contestations for the broader issues of identity, participation and citizenship.

Jos North Crises in Perspective.

The interplay of ethnic configuration, settlement pattern[s], migration dynamics, colonial policies and politics and psychological needs have all conflated in Jos North to occasion intermittent and intractable violent conflicts since 1994. Given these variables, the Jos North conflict had been latent until 1994 when there was escalation. The conflict actors in this area are the Hausa-Fulani, Fulani Herdsmen [Bororo], Afizere, Anaguta, and the Berom and [with th exception of the Fulani Bororo who by their occupation are itinerants], have all been competing for political space both at the traditional rulership and the modern bureaucratic levels. In simple terms, the Hausa-Fulani want the control of the traditional stool of Jos and the control of the bureaucratic apparatus of the Local Government Council of Jos North. This position was antithetical to the collective aspiration of the Anaguta, Afizere and the Berom. Members of the latter group, that is, Berom, have always considered the Gbong Gwon Jos as the supreme ruler in the area since 1947, when the perceived historical error was deemed to have been corrected, whereas, the Hausa-Fulani consider supplanting the Sarkin Jos with Gbong Gwon Jos by the colonial authorities as a grand conspiracy that was not only discriminatory but aimed at excluding them from the local government administrative system [Osunrayi, 2010].

The 1991 Local Government creation exercise nationwide took place in 89 Local Government areas. This routine political action should ordinarily be viewed as one aimed at creating more development centers with wide political space for constituents and correcting structural injustices. However, the splitting of the erstwhile Jos Local Government into Jos South and North Local Government Areas came with obvious proximate conflict triggers [Best, 2005]. The excision of hitherto numerically preponderant Berom and Afizere mainly to Jos South, gave political advantage to the "new majority", the Hausa-Fulani. To the Berom, Anaguta and Afizere, this was an exercise in gerrymandering. The Gbong Gwon Jos subjects are more numerically in Jos South but less in Jos North thus grossly undermining his traditional power base and pedigree. To the Hausa-Fulani, this was a solution to their age long marginalization, particularly the control of the Local Government [Best, 2005]. The 1994 2001 manifest conflicts were a consequence of these setting and minor triggers were only needed as conflagrant.

Jos North Crises and the Security Architecture.

The intelligence Services of a nation have the major tasks of maintaining its security. When conflict progression is not well monitored and escalation ensues, this constitutes real threat to national security. Conflicts may be unnecessarily prolonged due to unprofessional management style by the state actors and when this happens, national security is also threatened and the integrity of the security community suffers. The intelligence community therefore owes it a duty to intervene in conflict situations such that unfavorable consequences are not experienced. We therefore dwell on the examination of the nation's security architecture and apparatus in this section of our paper.

By security architecture is meant the organizational structure of Nigeria's defense establishment. It also refers to the entire set-up of the country's armed forces and intelligence agencies. These include but not limited to the Army, Air force, Navy, the Department of State Security [SSS or DSS], and the Police. In totality, the phrase refers to the arrangement of the various units or manner they are synchronized to form an organic whole [Imobighe, 1985:1]. According to Imobighe, the key elements include the existence of many parts of and the coordination or bringing together of these parts to form an effective and efficient whole [Imobighe, 1985:1].

What this section of the paper will attempt to discuss is the question of collaboration, cooperation and inter-agency coordination among the various security agencies in the theater of the Jos North crises. What had been the roles of security agencies in these crises? What are the challenges of these agencies in crises management? How could these roles be enhanced for maximum performance?

The Intelligence Services, though created statutorily to carry out security functions as their primary assignment, are yet involved in intervention activities. The rationale for other involvement in conflict situations is the mastery of the trade craft as a result of training both locally and abroad so that operatives are kept abreast of developments and able to identify security threats. The nature of their training, the specialized skill they have acquired, the significant resources they maintain {personnel, equipment and supplies], the arsenal of acquired intelligence and communication capabilities, and other operational preparedness. The Intelligence Services' roles in conflict resolution are implicit in their respective enabling Acts. The State Security Service is primarily established to detect and prevent threats to Nigeria's internal security of a non-military nature. While National Intelligence Agency acquires intelligence on targets of interest to Nigeria abroad, Defence Military Intelligence detects and nips in the bud all threats of military nature, to the security of the country whether internal or external. The combined efforts of these Services in intervention strategies are meant to mitigate threat situations in the country. It should be noted however, that these roles are only implied in the Nigerian constitution but not explicitly in the documents. Their responsibilities are therefore very crucial to providing early warning signals [EWS] in detecting the sources of conflict and forwarding same to action agencies and policy makers.

Viewed against the backdrop of the foregoing, how have these security agencies fared in the conflict situations in Jos North? From the various investigations, this study found out the followings:

- The operation of the State Security Services, for example, was hampered by inadequate numerical strength of operatives, ineffectiveness of security agents when the need arises, as well as inadequate technical operations etc.
- Emotional involvement of state actors, government officials and personnel of security agencies in the ethno-religious crises. An incident was reported in which the identity card of army personnel was found in the morning in a village that was invaded by unknown assailants overnight. The ethno-religious group that dominates the central government in the country also determines to a large extent the direction and momentum of the crises. Most times, the Hausa-Fulani group was always in control of the central government and armed forces of the nation. The implication of this for the Jos North conflict between the Hausa-Fulani settlers and the indigenous groups is very apparent. And also further aggravates the already combustive situation.
- Insufficient inter-agency cooperation and liaisons, and the failure of state actors to act promptly and appropriately on early warning signals and intelligence reports at critical periods in the crises.
- It is evident that there existed a divergence between policy objectives in the state and the intelligence trajectory, thus creating a lacuna for analysts and the tendency for policy makers to downplay the role of intelligence or refuse the use of intelligence except for self-serving and dysfunctional purposes. This is a further demonstration of a major challenge facing the intelligence and security community in peace building and conflict resolution. We make this observation against the backdrop of the importance of the nexus between intelligence processing and the political environment.

CONCLUSION

This study opines that there is the need to sustain relationship across different political, religious and cultural divides so as to build peace and enhance development. Secondly, an emergent society with multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multi-religious peculiarities as a plural society needs to embark on aggressive integration in order to achieve covariance.

On the part of the security community, there is also the urgent need to divest personnel from primordial attachments while carrying out official duties in such critical sector of the national life. Inter-agency cooperation and collaboration had constituted a big challenge in the area of operation, there is the need therefore to synchronize the operations of the various security agencies involved in the management of the crises.

Also, appropriate interventions in the areas of poverty alleviation/empowerment programmes through capacity building and skills acquisition for the residents, mass education and enlightenment aimed at transforming issues and actors in conflicts are crucial to the crises. Religious organizations and their leaderships have been identified as stakeholders that were networked into positive role players for mitigating the spate of crises in the Jos North Local Government Area.

References

Adetoye, M.A [2010]: “The politics and contradictions of Ekiti State creation”, unpublished PhD dissertation, Department of Political Science, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Agbaje, A. [1990]: Travails of the secular state: Religion, politics and the outlook on Nigeria’s Third Republic. The Journal of Commonwealth and Comparative Politics [London], vol. 19.

Ayoade, J.A.A cited in Ojelade, S.O [2006]: “Use of intelligence as a tool for third party conflict Resolution in Nigeria 1999-2006”. An unpublished M.A Thesis of the Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan.

Ballard, [1972]: Cited in Ojelade, S.O: [2006] “Use of intelligence as a tool for third party conflict resolution in Nigeria. 1999-2006”. An unpublished M.A Thesis of the Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan.

Best, S.G [2007]: “Conflict and peace building in Plateau State, Nigeria”. International Centre for Reconciliation [Coventry Cathedral] Publication. Centre for Conflict Management and Peace Studies, University of Jos, Nigeria.

Elaigwu, J.I [2005]: “The shadow of religion on Nigerian federalism”. Abuja

Imobighe, T.A [1987]: “The organizational structure of Nigeria’s defense establishment” in Imobighe, T.A [ed]: Nigerian defense and security. ISSUES and OPTIONS. Kuru: National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies.

Kukah, M [1993]: Religion, politics and power in northern Nigeria. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.

Kukah, M [1994]: “Religion and the politics of national integration” in Mahadi, A. et al [eds] Nigeria: The state of the national and the way forward. Kaduna: Arewa House.

Osunrayi, F [2010]: The challenges of the state security services [SSS] on Jos North crises. M.A. in Peace and Development Studies, University of Ilorin.

Osaghae, E and Suberu, R.T [2005]: “Ethnicity and its management in Africa: The democratization link”. {CASS Occasional Monograph, No 2] Lagos, Malthouse Press

Rossell, S.A. [1995]: “Changing maps: Governing in a world of rapid change”. Ottawa: Carleton University Press.

Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal – Vol.3, No.2
Publication Date: Feb. 25, 2016
DoI:10.14738/assrj.32.1852.
Lambu, I. B. (2016). The Cultural Forces and Women Livelihood Options in Rural Areas of Kano State, Nigeria. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 3*(2)* 146-156.

The Cultural Forces and Women Livelihood Options in Rural Areas of Kano State, Nigeria

Dr. Ibrahim Badamasi Lambu
Department Of Geography, Faculty of Earth
Environmental Sciences, Bayero University Kano

Abstract

The paper explores the cultural issues surrounding buying and selling engaged by rural women to supplement their housewifery functions. The aim of the study is to evaluate the various livelihood options that are culturally permissible in the study area with a view to understand the variation of occupations in relation to the cultural norms of the people involved. Occupational clusters were identified; the reasons for adoption of occupations, risks and inconveniences as well as people responses were envisaged. It is cross sectional research that involves both quantitative and qualitative type of data. Demographic characteristics of women especially age and preferences were captured. Questionnaires and interviews were employed for the quantitative and qualitative data collection respectively. The study discovered that indoor occupations such as food and eatery items within matrimonial homes are the modal livelihood options due to cultural values. Problem of poverty affects women due to social inequality and the people who patronize such occupations in the rural environment are affected by poverty. Some respondents described the women's occupation as a 'last option' because the profit obtainable is too meager commensurate to the laboring nature of the occupations. Many people described the act as marginal due to hardship, burden and risk involve. Many women sustain injury; at times enter social trauma in the livelihood options. The women complain of poor economic backing and support from husbands, relatives and family members. High cost of materials in some of women's occupations affect the choice of the occupation to pursue. The study pathetically discovered that the women are marginalized due to lack of capital. The loitering under the sun and rain is affecting their health (mental and moral) hence at high risk of ailment. The study recommends for provision of financial and moral supports by both government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to reduce the burden on women who are for various cultural reasons made poor so that they are allow to earn living with minimum duress

KEYWORDS: Occupation, family, poverty, preference, value, rural, NGOs and livelihood.

BACKGROUND AND THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING

Males and females are shape by cultural process into different sex/gender specific roles by the environment. Most of the biological behaviours of males and females supplement the social role of men and women through social interaction within the society (Lambu 2015). These socialization processes have created the basis upon which males and females are ranked, and because males are held superior to females by culture (precisely religion), members of society preferred a son over daughters Musa (2012) as quoted by Lambu (2015). Variation among Nigerian social groups exist where there are wide differences on sex preferences and gender roles based on values attached to each sex.

It will be very important to lay the foundation of this paper with the theory of symbolic interactionism where, Blumer (1962) as quoted by Lambu (2015) opined that "Human beings act towards things on the basis of the meaning that things have for them" in an attempt to portray this in line with the scope of this study, women should be seen through the lenses of culture. The meaning culture attached to women made the society to handle them as precious assets that are kept under safe and lock. Even at the sharp-edge of poverty, males in the society agree to provide to their wives and regard their incapability in that direction, a shame and abomination. The cultural meaning escalate to the point that empowered women (by virtue of exposure or prestige) suffers some social stigma, exclusion and in some cases even to the extent of rejection where the husbands of the empowered women are call with names such as Mijin Hajiya, Auren Jari and so on. It is in line with this background that livelihood options of women in the rural areas (the culture preserving pot) despite the complementary roles of women in the society are at stake. Livelihood options for women can be helpful toward eradication of poverty among families due to the support woman gives to her children, husband or the entire family.

Poverty in the rural areas is very severe due to its effects on the already impacted poor quality shelter, foods and feeding as well as health care practices. Rural household in Nigeria usually cope with both poverty and increase fluctuation in income. Rural women partake in a number of strategies including agriculture, migration, and livelihood diversification which enable them to attain sustainable chores, women in rural areas contribute to increase their household income as well as sustain families by working at home and extra domestic domains. Scones (1998) in Gebru and Beyen (2012) as quoted by (Dalladi 2016) opined that the combinations of livelihood resources (different livelihood assets) are resulting in the ability of people to follow combination of strategies. Livelihood assets available to women represent the basic need in the society especially in the rural settings. It is a platform upon which the women livelihood may be built into livelihood goals, he further emphasize that everything that goes towards creating that livelihood can be thought of as a livelihood asset. Majority of women especially at the rural areas, to them life remain a drudgery with a host of problems and challenges in their various role as wives, mothers, care-givers, farmers, artisans and traders (ibid). The livelihood needs of the men and women are not always the same due to the culturally differentiated roles, responsibilities and resources available.

The fates of women in the rural setting need attention from every segment of the society because they play their biological roles as well as extra cultural obligations despite unfriendly environmental settings. it is evidently acknowledge and incorporated in the united national millennium goal (MDGs) (UN 2005) state that nation member states have pledge to promote gender disparity in primary and secondary education at all levels by 2015. The roles and contribution of women in development have never been given proper attention in the past. With recent uproar by women activist like the Feminists, gender studies and education are now attracting some priority. Research so far conducted have gone into detailed study of women livelihood strategies and options most especially their engagement in agriculture and more importantly in their participation to bring out their specific roles towards self-sufficiency for support of family needs. Maxwell (1992)

Majority if not all, the rural women have little opportunity to participate in intra household out-doors socio-economic and decision making processes even at domestic level as well as very limited interaction with people outside of their homes due to cultural reasons. Rural women suffer most in terms of hunger and food insecurity due to poverty and their over reliance on irregular and low paying laborious daily wages. The study if accomplished will try and provide solutions to what, why and when about women livelihood in the rural areas. The study will among other things identify the various occupations available in the study area. It will elucidate on the reasons women engage in some of the occupations and desert others. Lastly the paper will find out the major challenges facing women livelihood option in the area. The paper adopts Tofa LGA due to its proximity with the metropolitan city of Kano where livelihood options may be available due to dual marketability of the area (internally and the neighboring city). Secondly, Tofa town itself is a typical rural settlement where majority of the occupants engage in primary economic activities. The study is never interested in the matrimonial family issues pertaining relationship between couples, duration of stay or personal possession of either of the spouses.

THE STUDY AREA

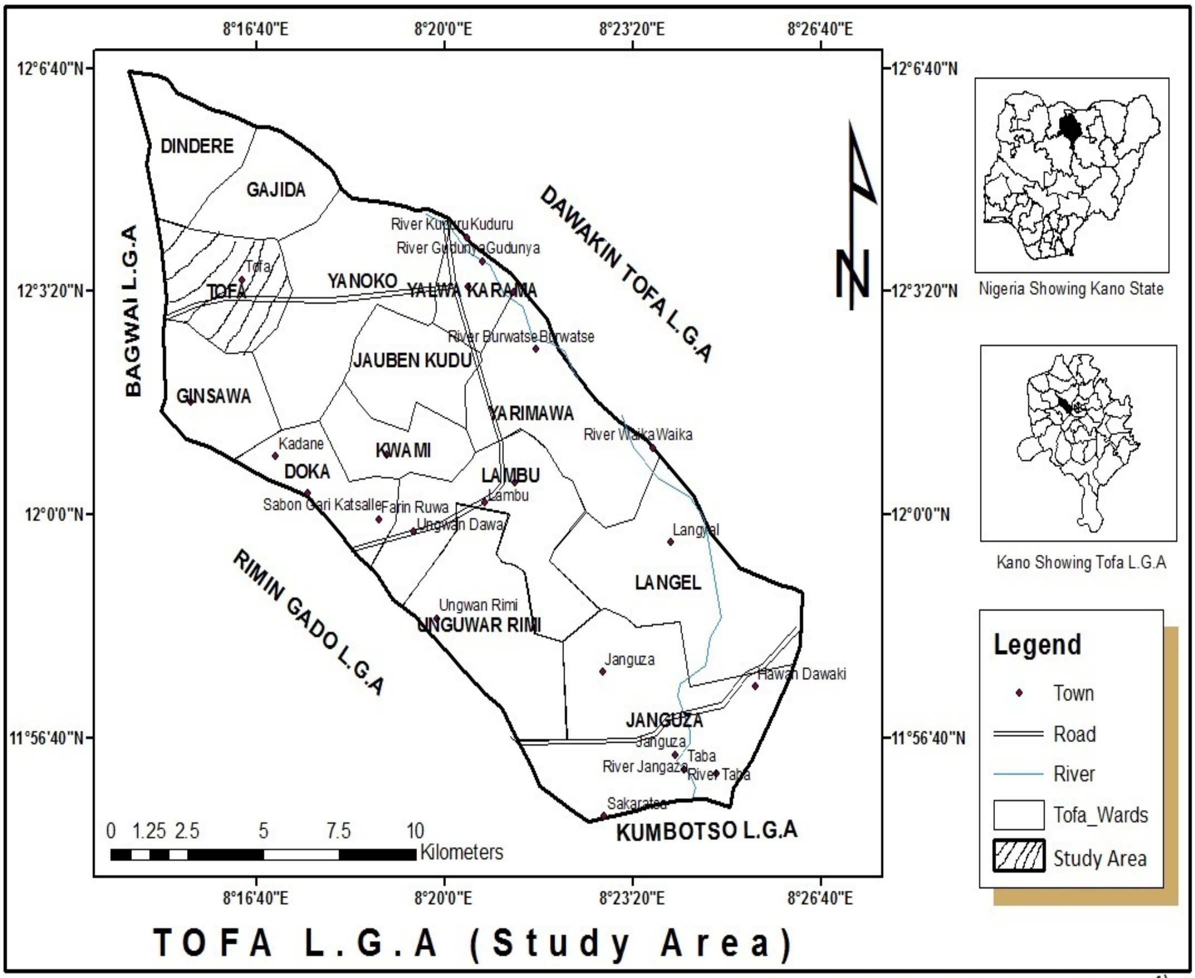
Tofa LGA is located around latitude 12o 17N and longitude 7052E in the north east wing of Kano state Nigeria. It lies 10 kilometer away from metropolitan Kano along Gworzo road. The total a land mass of the LGA is 210.8 KM2. The lGA is tangentially criss-crossed by Watari river a tributary to river Chalawa in Kano state. It is blessed by agricultural practices both rainy and dry seasons farming. It has one the fast growing market in the state the Janguza market that serve the western part of the metropolis. The Local Government is bordered by D/Tofa in the north, by Bagwai Local Government in the north-west and by Ungogo by the east.

The population of the area according to the 2006 census is 97,734 people (NPC 2006). Its Headquarter is in the town of Tofa. Majority of the people are Hausa/Fulani. It is dominated by Muslim belonging to Islamic faith. Some minority tribes and faiths core exist in the area such as Igbos, Yorubas and other southern tribes and their beliefs include Christianity and pagans in the area. It has 19 wards under the traditional rulership of District head the Dan Adala and wards are Tofa, Lambu, Doka, Janguza, Langyel, Yanoko, Gajida, Ginsawa, Yarimawa, Jaube, Kwami, Dansudu, Wangara, Unguwar rimi, Dindere and Yalwa karama each and the auspices of the Village heads.

Tofa local government area is under the climatic zone classified as tropical continental type, characterized by existing wet and dry seasons. The temperature could be described as high but not uniform throughout the year, mean annual rainfall experience in a normal year in Kano is about 800mm. Source: Olofin, (1987) in Dalladi (2016). The area is affected by effect of micro climate along the valley of Watari river due to vegetation and high water table along the river bank especially around Yasanya, Burwatse and Fadamar Kalebawa areas.

The natural vegetation of Tofa is mostly Sudan savannah, it consists of several scattered tress that are hardly taller than 20m. Olofin (1987) Grasses are the dominant vegetation, during rainy season and grow up 1.5m high at maturity. However the natural vegetation has been greatly modified as a recent of several years of human activities i.e. bush burning, bush clearing, over grazing, and extensive cultivation. Source: Olofin (1987). Economic trees such as Guava, citrus and Mongo trees are at high proportion. Irrigation farming along the river and Lambu Dam creates green carpets over large hectares of land in the area. There are three main different crops grown in the area such as Vegetable: which include Okro (Kubewa), pepper (Tattasai), onion (Albasa), tomato (Timatir), and some other leafy vegetable i.e. Salad (Salak). Then the grains: This include, maize, rice, and groundnut etc and lastly other crops include cassava, sweet potatoes (Dankali), cocoyam (makani)

Other land uses are also practicable in the area. It has a large expense of land area which favors a lot of activities ranging from economic to social activities. The land is also used for residential purpose and some serve as recreational center such as football field and also for economic activities such as market, Motor Park and educational purposes. Major towns in the Tofa LGA include Tofa, Lambu, Doka, Unguwar rimi, Janguza, Yanoko and Wangara towns.



Source: Cartography Lab Geography Department B.u.k (April 2014)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section explains the types, sources and stages in data collection activities. There are two types of data in the study which includes quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data included number of people employable by an occupation, incomes, number of occupation, number of people engage in each occupation etc. the qualitative data in this study involve the choices and women preferences, satisfaction and meanings by individuals and groups in the study area. The primary sources of data in this paper include the data from respodents during interviews and questionnaires in various households on their livelihood strategies and options which they involved in to earn a living. Record of occupations, jobs and services perform in the area as well as incentive and assistance from community services department of the LGA will be the secondary source. The instruments in the study include questionnaires, interviews, Digital Cameras, Recording Tape and writing materials.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

To ensure spatial coverage, all the 19 wards are covered through convenient sampling. Proportionate random samplings of 450 people were made according to the sizes of the wards. For administration of interviews and questionnaires, 250 and 200 were respectively delivered. A purposive approach to sampling was adopted in visiting the Department of Community services of the LGA to identify various occupations and record of assistance so far given to the rural women in the area. Similarly the same approach was adopted in each ward, the Village head was used in getting the name and address of women who engage in any occupation. This approach is considered for many reasons among which include an idea of getting approval and permission by community leaders as well as a way of getting introduction and acceptance to the community (Lambu 2013). For subsequent treatment of the samples, snowballing process of sampling is adopted. The snow ball can facilitate easier contact with relevant respondents because most people especially women are often aware of their co occupants due to bilateral relationship

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section is dedicated to presentation of various findings of the study from both interviews and questionnaires. Despite some hitches encountered in the field such as anticipation of respondents to receive some assistance, show of annoyance due to failed promises of assistance by Government and NGOs, the data collection was successful. The pathways described above greased and smoothed the entire exercise. The traditional rulers attached some guides who introduced the research team to the respondents. In some localities, announcement was made and mandating the cooperation of all and sundry.

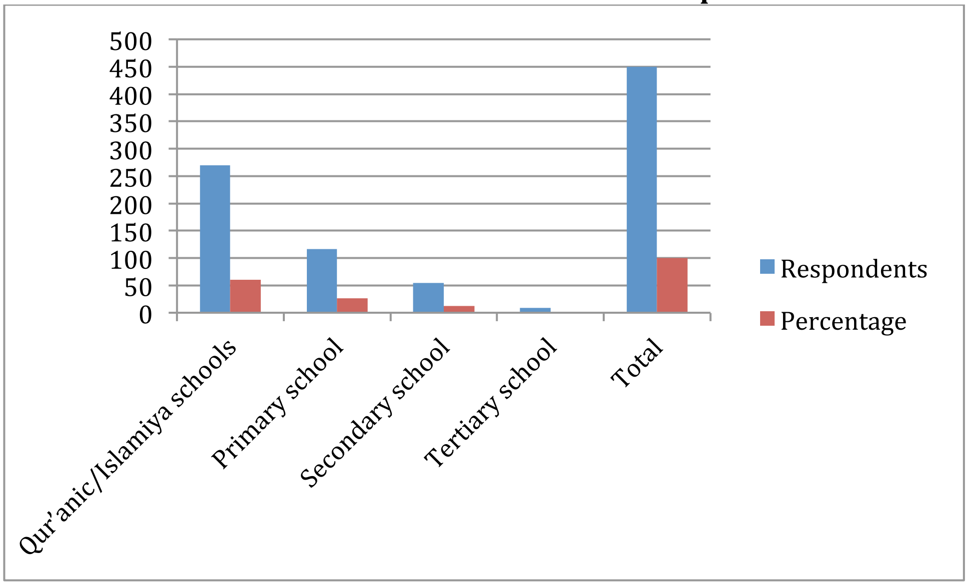
Level Of Educational Attainment

Attempt was made to look into the educational status of the respondents at least to ascertain the literacy level of the rural women. The study considers ability to read and write with comprehension in any language as literacy. Sizeable number of women attended primary education or Islamiya schools hence some can read and write either in Hausa or Arabic languages. Quite very few attended secondary level of education hence some are capable of reading and writing in English. From the table1 below it shows that educational background of the respondents are mostly primary school 26%, while Qur'anic Education with 60%, 12% passed through secondary school while 2% have higher institution certificate like H.I.S, Diploma and NCE. The implication of this educational status is an indication of the fact that 86% of the respondents are full time house wives who can only be supported by indoor means of livelihood or to live under the fate of their husband solely for living no matter how impoverished the husbands might be. In this type of population, the type of empowerment needed must small scale trading because due to low level of literacy, majority cannot manage heavy financial investment. The result is also a testimony for very poor market potentiality of the population. In other word, the people can only support lower level of goods and services. Any program meant for the people must be through the culture of the people using religious scholars, local dialects and through traditional institutions due break the conservative nature of the rural live. The type of schools attended by the respondents are presented in chat 1 below

Nature Of Income Of The Respondents

The study gathered the ways by which the respondents obtain their income in the area. From the table 2 below, it shows that based on the data collected nature of income of the respondents, which comprises of erratic income of 73.5% from the occupations which are used for other expenses to improve the wellbeing of the family or contribution during ceremonies (Gudmmawa), while regular daily income earners are 24% mostly wives of civil servants and business men who give the money on daily basis for upkeep of the family. Quite fewer women fall within Monthly regular income earners with just 2.5% these are category of women engage in domestic services in homes of rich individuals who pay them on monthly basis. Table 2 below is an indication of population characterized by irregular income with high probability of uncertainty. Almost ¾ of the women in the area are living under the fate of uncertainty by implication even their husbands are within the category of casual labourers who scout daily for jobs. Issues of feeding, health, and daily needs are at stake.

Chat 1: The educational attainment of respondents



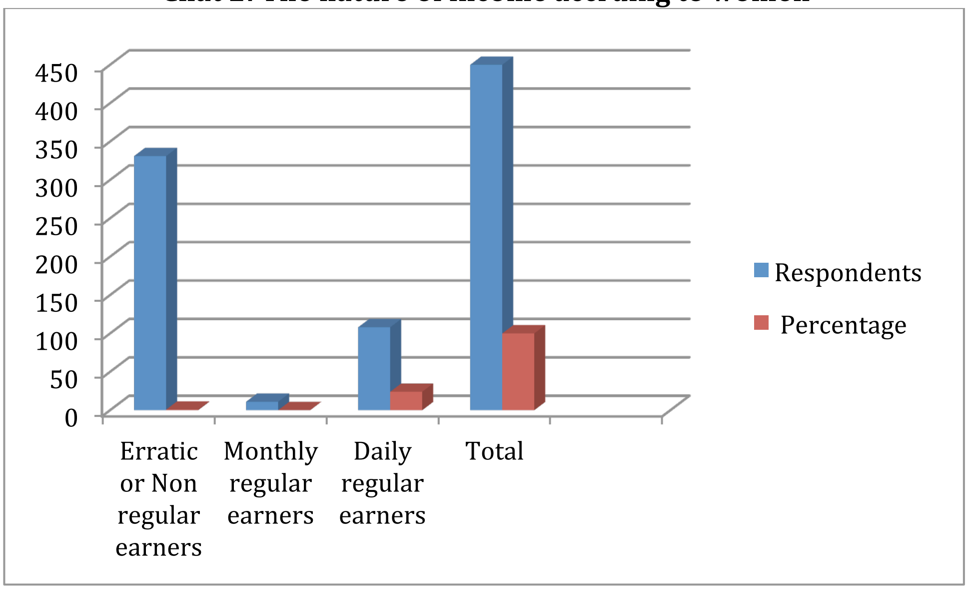
Source: Field work 2015

Table 2: Nature of income earning of Respondents

Sources of income	**Respondents**	**Percentage**
Erratic or Non regular earners	331	73.5%
Monthly regular earners	11	2.5%
Daily regular earners	108	24
Total	450	100

Source: Field Survey, 2015

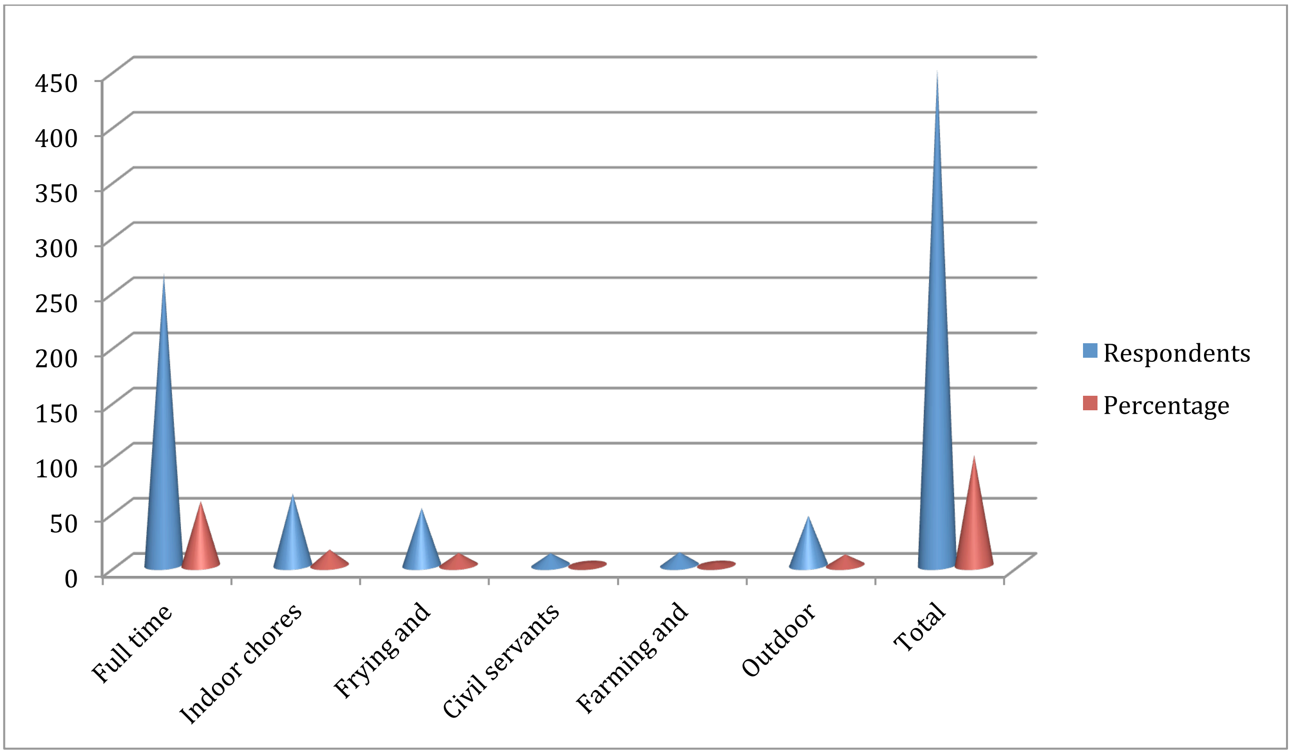
Chat 2: The nature of income accruing to women



Livelihood Status Of The Respondents

The study from both interviews and questionnaires depicted an amazing scenario. The data shows that the status of the respondents are mainly full time housewife with 58.4%, some are engage in the indoor chores at rich people homes with14.3%, while few are into domestic services like frying or cooking services 11%. This shows that majority of the women in this place are complete housewives of which all their livelihoods are from their husbands. Over half the populations of women in the rural areas are dependently supported by the income of their spouses who are or are not capable of satisfying their basic needs like food, clothing, health and a times shelter. It is an indication that over 50% of rural women in the area cannot make decision on what, when, where, why and how to buy even on the cases are exclusively theirs. This may worsen women occupations further as the potential buyers are males who may due to various reasons (including culture) choose to patronize their male counter parts. It means the only options available to females remain only the chores are males regarded too derogatory to participate and left to the women who have no other alternatives to take. Only 10% of the women are engaged in outdoor services and they are women that build age, have no husbands and no relatives to sustain their living. The outdoor activities usually constitute collection of fir woods in the bushes, dehusking and hawking of milk and butter (Nono da mai). Majority of women in this category are not happy with their situation because apart from the social stigma of being outpoured, the income is not commensurate with the daily trekking and hard laboring as well as the risks involved. Could they be supported, these category of women would choose to be camped at home no matter how meager the income. The civil servants in the area are so negligible and insignificance to create any impact. They are women at junior cadre in teaching job at primary schools and Midwiferies at village Dispensaries. Pathetically the area is just a second home to them because it marriage that brought them, they have no sense of belonging therefore share little or no regard with rural women's plights.

Chat 4: Livelihood status of rural women



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Women's Choice Of Livelihood Options

Most women in the study area are more contented with full time housewifery. They described earning income through other options as tedious, non-rewarding and stressful. 'If your husband realize that you are making #100 in a day, he can allow you to take of domestic problem of #150. It means your capital is declining by #50 and before you know it you already indebted' said a respondent in the area. From 250 respondent interviewed, over 200 are of the opinion that it is the responsibility of men to take of the family so they do not consider engaging on other occupation apart from husband support towards sustaining their livelihood. Even if I have money, my husband is responsible for the upkeep of the family, so I cannot trouble myself now added by another respondent. A bitter response from one that attended secondary school said' we cook for family, cater for the children and even the husband, so all these are not enough? If they tell that they tied of taking the responsibility, let them come and cook, the women can go to farm and work, is that what you mean?About 20 women (4%) shows desire to engage in other livelihood options but not for assisting in the upkeep of their homes rather to help them in solving personal problems like contribution during ceremonies (Gudunmawa or Ajo) or buying cosmetics, Jewelries and so on. I am trading at home but for my own benefit, since he (husband) has money to marry another woman, I cannot spare a naira for his sake, a polygamous wife responded. About22.5% responded that upkeep of their homes is collective responsibilities of all, so they are engage in other occupation to help their husbands. 'They take care of us, handling us like a precious asset and even denying themselves many things for our own sake; we need to show that we are grateful. We need them like they need us, women must assist their husbands in everything because without them we are nothing' contributed by another respondent.

An amazing finding on this regard is the response by some women (21.2%) describing their opinion that they prefer to have alternative options instead of depending on husbands. One responded said that 'one must prefer for rainy day, your husband can be sick, die or part with you! Remember you started living without him, you may also have to live one day without him so have an alternative before it is late!'

Table4:Choice of livelihood options by women in the area

Options	*respondents*	*Percentages*
Full time housewife	*111*	*44.4*
Indoor occupation	*56*	*22.5*
Outdoor occupation	*53*	*21.2%*
Total	*250*	*100*

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Demographic Variations And The Choice Of Livelihood

The theory of symbolic interaction applies overtly in this section more than in place within this paper. Women of lower age from 14 to 24 years are reluctant to show any desire or even appreciate the value for engaging in other occupation. The reason is just obvious, due to the conspicuous nature and tender age, the husbands put extra care in maintenance and upkeep of the homes and hence needing virtually nothing in life so that is why they remain fully housewife-ing the husbands. Around these ages, the number or size of the family is manageable hence the expenses are within the range a husband can satisfactorily discharge. Women at those ages are treated so goldly that 87% of the husbands refused giving approval for interview with their wives. It was when some realizes that the interview was holding in their presence before the allowed the wives to attain and respond to any questions. At some instances, a female research Assistant was used in interviewing the women especially in the Fulani areas like Yanoko, Gajida and Dindere. Tender aged ladies regarded some occupations as derogatory, show down or even a humiliation of personality. Cultural seasoning butter made from Shea nut (Daddawa) is one of the hated options among ladies. On their preferences, the New arrivals like light and fassionable indoor occupations like knitting, weaving or selling snacks to children who are frequently with them especially then new Brides. Occupations perform by medium-age class women who are within 25 to 46 ranges from selling of cooked food (like Rice and Beans) at home, Frying of Bean's cake (Kosai and Awara) or selling of cooking materials like salt, sugar, fresh vegetables etc. The mothers of higher ages who according this study are mostly widows aging 47 years above are easy-goers who are ready to take available rather than the desirable. Some are making Pap (Koko), Gruel (Kunu), Local Bread (Gurasa) and so on. Women of 60 years and above do pertake activities like Ground nut cake and oil (Kuli da mai) and Shea butter seasoning (daddawa). Some even trek outdoors to hawk and sell their materials by themselves especially if they don't have a girl to assist them in the sale.

Table 5 Variation of opinion on livelihood option

Age classes	Types of option	Respondents	Percentages
14 - 24	Light and fassionable	35	14%
25 - 35	Knitting and weaving	64	25.6%
36 - 46	Cook food	76	30.4%
47 - above	Available/affordable	75	30%

Pilot Or Parallel Study

It is not out of place to seek the indulgence of the reader that it was after some major findings were achieved, when the research concluded to involve some husbands in the study to serve as triangulation or something of that nature. About 50 husbands were interviewed especially those that were reluctant to allow their wives for interview. Interestingly, 60% are of the opinion that they want shoulder the responsibilities of their houses. Major described assistance of wife for home upkeep as a slap on their face. Only stupid husband can live his wife to buy the needed items at home, in fact that person is not a man and cannot control the house said one respondent. On the issue of allowing women to go for outdoor occupations many men declined negatively emphasizing the religious injunction on Purdah (seclusion) of married women. Exceptional instances were obtained at Janguza where 6 respondents agree to allow their wives to work out side homes. On close observation, the study learnt that the habit may not be unconnected to the effect of neighbourhood with a Military Barrack at Janguza who are culturally heterogeneous and their wives are hardly staying without outdoor occupations.

SUMMARY

The study is on the evaluation of occupations that women partake in their daily transactions. Both interviews and questionnaire were used in capturing various responses from the affected women in Tofa LGA of Kano state. There are many livelihood options in the rural area but due to conservative nature of rural areas and the poverty that get rooted in the area, the options are limited. The study also x-rayed the effect of age on the role of women in the society as well the application of a theory in order to explain human behaviour and relationship, and attempted a pilot study and captured males' opinion.

CONCLUSIONS

It can be concluded with emphases that poverty and cultural restrictions stare women livelihood options in rural areas especially Tofa LGA. The environment had conditioned the women to adopt and adapt themselves to live within culture-friendly occupations even if the options are not profitable

Age affects women socio-economic roles and responsibilities in the rural environment. Occupations are being patronized by women based on their age cadre due to cultural and personal choices and preferences in the rural domain.

Western education at rural environment is at infancy because majority of rural women only attend primary schools if at all, the study was not able to sight an indigenous women graduate that is a female with an academic degree.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- The study recommend on a strong term that Government should intensify effort toward provision of education to the rural women as well as enlightenment compaign should be vigorously given priority so that life of the poor rural women and the entire families become improve and meaningful
- Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) like WOFAN and its allied need to come to the aid of rural women in areas of education and as well as training them in hand crafts, small scale enterprises and so on. This can alleviate the suffering of many families especially women who are the natural care-giver to children and even to their husbands.
- The males need to relax some of the restrictions and allow their girls child to attend schools as well allow them partake in gainful business both indoors and beyond. Women successes are family success hence women lots need to be nurtured and uplifted so that happy families are cultured for better living.
- Women on their sides should try to understand their capabilities, potentialities and resourcefulness so that hard work, dedication and industry are incorporated in their life styles to face the challenges of the environment and break all barriers that impede development of rural life.

References

Ahmed, (2008): spatial poverty trap and the impact through improved accessibility.

Ahmed F. (2001) gender division of labor, step towards development

Ahmed N. WAHAB M.A and Thiested, SH (2007) the integrated aquaculture-agriculture system in Asia, potential for sustained livelihood and nutritional security of the rural poor

Ahmed N. (2009) the sustainable livelihood approach to the development of fish farming In rural Bangladesh

Ako-Nai R. I, Olagunde O.A., and Adekola O.G (2010): "Global integration, Household survival and economic empowerment of women in Osun state Nigeria. Via http//www.edu/Nigeria studies/article/issue/1-2article

Al-Amin S(2008) roles of women in maintaining sustainable livelihood of characters in selected area of Jabalpur district.

Ayodapo O.G (2010)" economic activities and coping strategies among female Agro-pastoralist in Ogun state Nigeria retrieved via http/www.ozelacdemy.com/ojssv3n2-1pdf

Dalladi, F.S (2016): Mapping of women strategies and livelihood in Tsanyawa LGA, a BSc project submitted to Department of Geography, Bayero University Kano

Ezra D.B (2009). Decision making for heterogeneity diversity in resources, farmers objectives and livelihood strategies and livelihood strategies in northern Nigeria (thesis) http:/www.nrc.no/arc/mg/929358/pdf

Fakir S.K (2008): women empowerment through participation of sable by Unna University.

Francis O. (2009). Conceptualizing livelihood diversity in developing countries: Evidence and policy implication. http://www.cifor.org/publication /pdf-files/book/household

Frank E. (1999). Rural livelihood diversity in developing countries: Evidence and policy implication. http://www.cifor.org/publication /pdf-files/book/household

Kandiyoti, D. (1988), women and rural development policies: the changing Agenda, institute development studies, Brighton, UK.

Lambu, I.B. (2013): A geographical analysis of religious landscapes in Kano metropolis, A PhD Thesis submitted to Department of Geography, Bayero University Kano

Lambu, I.B. (2015): Sensing birth preferences among spouses in Kano metropolis, Advance in social sciences research journal vol.2 No 12

M.S. F. Azim (2004) challenge of women livelihood strategies in a dry zone Peasant colonization scheme in rural sri-lank via http:/www.irsa world.org/prior/x1/paper/4-2pdf

Matin I. Suleiman. M and Rabbani, M. (2008), crafting a graduation pathway for ultra-poor Olofin E.A(1987) some aspect of physical geography of the Kano region and related human respond. (BUK).

NPC (2006) national population commission, 2006 census.

Parven. S. (2005), Empowerment of rural women in Bangladesh: Household level Analysis Germany Margrat publisher GMBH.

Prothero Migrant Labour from northwest Nigeria Africa

Quisumbung, AR and Mcclafferty, B, (2006), using gender research in developing food security practice. International food policy research Institute (IFPRI). Washington DC.

Sheikh MNI, (2003), micro finance and social change. A case study household finance, Bradford, England