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exploration **9** of
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Highlights

Internet and Journalism practice

Case study of vision school

Motivation in customer behaviour

Gender Poverty Alleviation



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Community Schools : Issues and Concerns

By Prof. Dr. Mohammad Iqbal, Wasal Khan PhD Scholar, Maqsood Ahmad

Sarhad University of Science and Information Technology, Peshawar, Pakistan

Abstract - The study made an analysis of the community schools established under the Ammal project in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan implemented with the donor agencies of UK. The analysis was made in terms of enrollment, quality, teachers, employment opportunities, public-private partnership as well as sustainability. The study examined 90 community schools established in Districts Dir, Dera Ismail Khan and Mardan. The following questions were examined: What prompted the sponsors to establish community schools under the Ammal Project? What different roles were assigned to different partners of the Project e.g. the FEF, DPE, DFID and NGOs for funding, coordinating, monitoring and implementing the project? What was the mechanism for sustainability and replication of community schools? What benefits the project brought to the population of the three districts in terms of access, quality and employment opportunities? What recommendations the study made to address future problems of sustainability for launching similar types of projects in collaboration with other partners? The purpose of education, at the primary level; is the acquisition of basic literacy and numeric skills, appreciation of surroundings, and socialization of learners to understand and appreciate the dignity and identity of national values, culture and community. The Primary Education Development Program of the Province involved private sector and communities in promotion of access and quality of primary education. Different donors including USAID, DFID, GTZ, NEDA, UNICEF, JICA, PEP-TAC, IDA, and WFP financed the different components of the program.

Keywords : *Community schools, Project, Sustainable development, primary education, donors, DFID, Ammal Project, NGOs.*

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“Community Schools : Issues and Concerns”

Prof. Dr. Mohammad Iqbal^a, Wasal Khan PhD Scholar^α, Maqsood Ahmad^β

Abstract - The study made an analysis of the community schools established under the Ammal project in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan implemented with the donor agencies of UK. The analysis was made in terms of enrollment, quality, teachers, employment opportunities, public-private partnership as well as sustainability. The study examined 90 community schools established in Districts Dir, Dera Ismail Khan and Mardan.

The following questions were examined:

What prompted the sponsors to establish community schools under the Ammal Project?

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What was the mechanism for sustainability and replication of community schools?

What benefits the project brought to the population of the three districts in terms of access, quality and employment opportunities?

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The purpose of education, at the primary level; is the acquisition of basic literacy and numeric skills, appreciation of surroundings, and socialization of learners to understand and appreciate the dignity and identity of national values, culture and community. The Primary Education Development Program of the Province involved private sector and communities in promotion of access and quality of primary education. Different donors including USAID, DFID, GTZ, NEDA, UNICEF, JICA, PEP-TAC, IDA, and WFP financed the different components of the program.

The universalization of primary education remained the corner stone of the National Education Policies of the Government of Pakistan. The first priority was to increase the learning of the children by retaining them in schools so that those enrolled completed the primary education cycle. The second priority was to provide access to all school age children. For retention of children in schools, efforts were needed to facilitate them to complete the cycle by such measures as checking of absenteeism of teachers particularly in remote areas; tightening supervision and monitoring of the delivery of services and making the curriculum relevant to local environment.

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The study was significant because public-private partnership was receiving high importance in education sector and issues of replication and sustainable development emerged, which were not timely addressed in the strategic plans of the government. This created administrative problems for the government, the NGOs and the donors whose stake was also involved in these development initiatives. The study took timely cognizance to help the stakeholders in education to be more careful and responsive to the solution of issues of sustainability arising from the joint initiatives of the public-private partnership

The study found that the projects of community schools provided best model of public-private partnership in the form of civil society versus community versus FEF versus DPE through DEOs and the donors, who provided financial and technical support. The interrelationship was also demonstrated in the form of interaction among the partners as well as among NGOs and communities, teachers, Village Education Committees and School Management Committees.

Sustainability of community schools remained burning issue till last and efforts were continued by sponsors of the project to resolve this issued at the belated stage. A number of problems emerged during implementation of the project. They included the certification of the academic achievements of students of community schools; the sectarian differences between two sects in district of Dera Ismail Khan; the opposition of the NGO culture in District Dir and lack of support from employers in Mardan city. The non-availability of local qualified teachers for community schools also remained a problem.

In all the community schools the quality aspect was taken care of by providing a number of the needed inputs of teachers, teaching material, evaluation of students etc and timely delivery of support services.

Keywords : Community schools, Project, Sustainable development, primary education, donors, DFID, Ammal Project, NGOs

I. INTRODUCTION

Ira Harkavy and Martin J. Blank (2002) stated, “A community school is not just another program being imposed on a school...Educating our children, yes, but also strengthening our families and communities so that, in turn, they can help make our schools even stronger and our children even more successful.”

Halsey (1972: 79) stated, “The community school seeks to obliterate the boundary between school and community, to turn the community into a school and the school into a community.”

The public sector’s responsibility in education begins with primary schools. The medium of instruction at this stage is the mother tongue, which is Urdu in Urdu-speaking areas and Pashto in Pashto speaking areas of the North-West Frontier Province. The

curriculum places great emphasis on the ideologies of Islam and Pakistan. In addition to the government schools, there are privately managed primary schools mostly in the thickly populated urban areas and some in rural areas of the country. In a country like Pakistan where population growth rate is about 3% annually and only about 50% of the existing primary group children are in schools, the private sector is most needed to share this huge burden. Government alone cannot build and run all the schools required for this purpose.

There is genuine need for establishment of quality schools for the poor in selected urban and rural areas. This requires the involvement of the NGOs through donors' driven programs of technical assistance. The sustainability of these initiatives largely depends on their good performance acceptable to the local communities as well as support and political will of the government.

There are financial and social constraints to access and quality of primary education such as low allocation of resources for education; which remained up to 2.4% and is far less as compared to 6.6% in Malaysia, 4.9% in Korea, 4.4% in Singapore, 3.7% in India and 3.9% in Thailand.; population explosion at the rate of 2.9%, which has increased almost two-fold in Pakistan since 1947. Poverty and cultural taboos do hamper government's efforts for expanding coverage. Poverty produces a sub-culture of ignorance, crime, drug abuse and early marriages. All these issues drastically affect the quality of life indicators. Due to cultural taboos illiteracy is endemic among rural girls. The overall literacy rate is approximately 39% in the North-West Frontier Province, which is a manifestation of the social factors hampering accessibility.

The quality of primary education plays a great role in determining the quality of secondary, tertiary and higher education. Poor quality in primary education is a serious matter because it is only the formal education that most of the Pakistani children have an access to acquire. The current public policy lays emphasis on quantitative expansion and uses primary education as a vehicle for universalization and promotion of literacy. In a country, where education standards have deteriorated the most, there is no longer an either-or choice between expansions and quality. Without some minimum package of basic inputs of adequately qualified and trained teachers; textbooks and other instructional materials, virtually no learning occurs. Thus, ensuring the availability of essential inputs is a prerequisite both for quality improvement and expansions.

The past efforts of the government and different agencies involved in financing and supporting the primary education did not achieve the desired outcomes and both access and quality issues remained unresolved in successive educational policies and plans of the government. There was no doubt some expansion in primary education but the efforts of the public sector did not meet total success because of the population

growth and bad governance in the past. The quality of primary education did not improve due to disregard of merit in appointments of teachers; induction of undeserving persons in training programs without merit and poor delivery of educational services.

Keeping in view all that was described, the National Education Policy, 1998 recommended decentralization of primary education and community mobilization and suggested that the provision of education is a public responsibility and this role to be assigned to every one including private sector, NGOs, CBOs and other allied organizations to ensure the basic human rights. The policy also considered that there was need for great alliance between and among the government, private sector and donors.

This policy shift recognized the need for the intervention of DFID and other donors as well as NGOs for financial and technical support. The initiative recognized the need for social mobilization of communities to address the issues of motivation; community support and better delivery of service for improving access and quality of education particularly in the rural sector of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.. The community support was also needed in order to make projects a success and to escape defeat at the stage of implementation. The social linkages in educational planning and policy-making have recently given birth to the concept of community participation in the whole process. This was done through the DFID supported Ammal Project, which was virtually implemented by the NGOs in collaboration with the district officers of the primary education and the Frontier Education Foundation.

II. METHODOLOGY

The study examined two different experimental models of community schools: one implemented in Dir and Dera Ismail Khan Districts, where 80 community schools were established in all, and the other in Mardan City, where 10 community schools were established for the basic education of employed indigent children in the urban-based localities of the city.

Interviews with stakeholders and study of relevant documents provided the data. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The elements of establishing rapport, validity of data and pilot study type of things were also made part of the study. A vast literature was reviewed in global perspective, which included almost all the reports and national education policies and the five-year plans of the government. The review also included past and ongoing activities for improving access and quality of primary education.

III. THE FOCUS AREAS

The absence of adequate supervision of primary schools located in far-flung areas; lack of commitment of teachers to the profession; their improper training; lack of motivation; mismanagement

and the shortfalls in the delivery of services; absence of involvement of parents in school management activities due lack of awareness of communities about the importance of education in rural areas were some of the deficient areas, which came under focus of the Ammal Community Project, and addressed in this study.

The NWFP- Primary Education Program (1955-2000) had recognized the need for making the community-based approaches as a part of the program and considered it necessary to improve enrolment in and quality of primary education with emphasis on increasing access for girls. The DFID was one of the eight international agencies that contributed to this goal through financial assistance of the Primary Education Program.

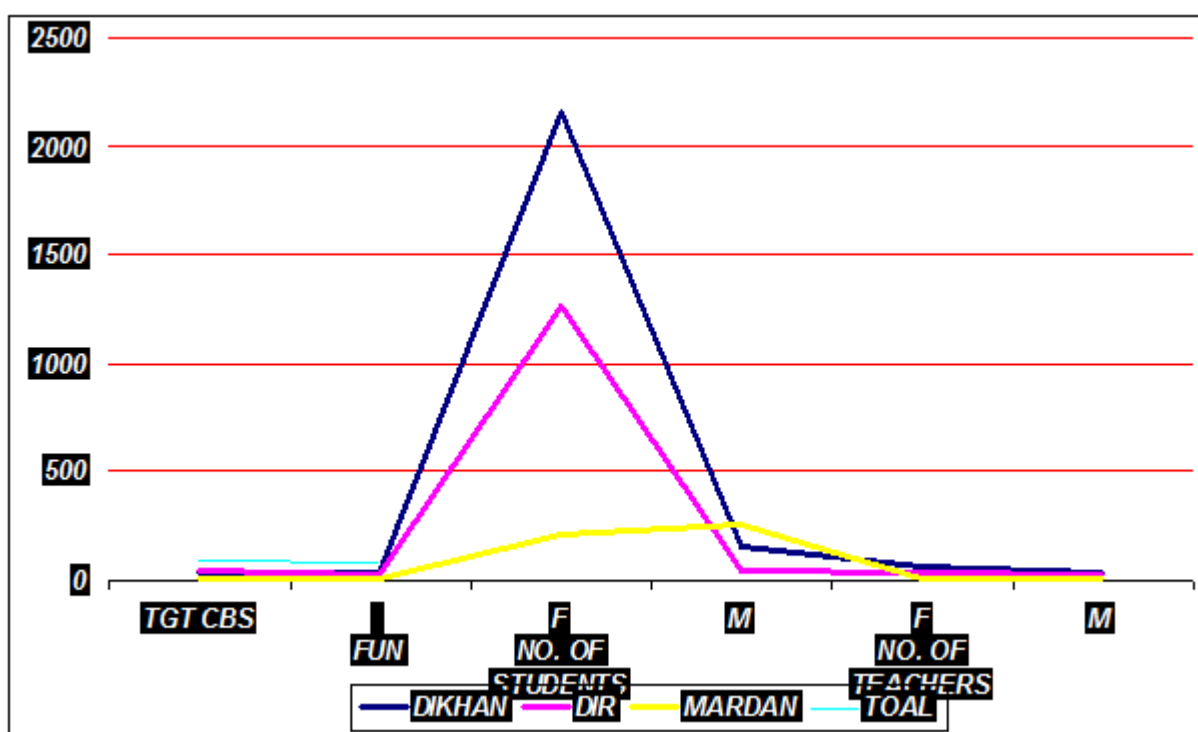
The Ammal Project was initially considered as a joint initiative of the Frontier Education Foundation and DFID within the Community Participation Component of the Primary Education Development Program. Its main

focus was to develop 90 community-based schools, targeting girls in two rural areas of Dir and Dera Ismail Khan as well as the urban working indigent children of Mardan city. The implementing partners (NGOs) in the rural areas were Khwendo Kor (KK) and Strengthening Participatory Organization (SPO) established 40 community-based primary schools each in Dir and D.I.Khan districts. The Swabi Women Welfare Society, (SWWS) established 10 CBS for urban working children in Mardan district

Status Of Ammal Project Community Based Schools For Girls

DISTRICT	TGT CBS	FUN	No.of Students		No.of Teachers		No. of VECs OR Urban SMCs		Membership of VECs	
			F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
D.I.Khan by SPO NGO	40	38	2167	155	61	40	40	40	1116	852
DIR by K.K NGO	43	31	1262	49	41	29	28	28	590	390
Mardan by SWWS NGO	10	10	208	256	06	08	03	07	60	89
Total	93	79	3637	460	108	77	71	75	1766	1321

Graphic Presentation Of Districtwise Number Of Teachers And Students



The study revealed that the Department for International Development (DFID) provided support of staff and maintenance of an office of NGO at the district level. The salaries of teachers and expenditures on equipment and scholarship for the PTC/CT training of the project teachers were also met out of the grant assistance.

The role of Frontier Education Foundation (FEF) was restricted to the chairmanship of the Steering Committee, which was mandated to accord approval to the selected community schools on the basis of prescribed criteria and clear the project proposals. The FEF provided space for office and administrative support to DFID Advisor and her staff. The FEF was also made responsible for in-service training of teachers after completion of the project. The NGOs were responsible for implementation of the field activities and operationalization of the community schools.

IV. SUCCESSES

The project provided a model to educate the working indigent children who were otherwise deprived from the basic right of education and to make them capable of learning various life skills of their choice and to subsequently bring them into the mainstream of education. This approach also served the purpose of public sector policy of 'Education for All' and universalization of primary education.

The Ammal Community Project provided best model of public-private partnership. The activities of the project were coordinated in such a manner that provided a model for healthy and durable relationship.

The Village Education Committees (both male and female) also facilitated the project to provide suitable places for the schools; identify local females for selection and training as teachers; enroll out of school girls into the community-based schools; manage and support these schools and release as well as maintain school funds.

The community schools provided access to basic education to the deprived population of rural areas with a total enrolment of 3469 girls and 204 boys in the two districts of Dir and D.I.Khan. These schools provided employment to 1102 local female teachers. Similarly in Mardan city the ten established community schools provided access to basic education to 464 working children including 208 females and provided employment to ten teachers including 03 females.

Quality improvement of schools is based on offering a coherent package of all inputs. The study revealed that in these schools all the necessary inputs of teachers, effective teaching methods, and proper evaluation of students, environment and management as well as timely delivery of support services were provided, which improved the quality of education in these schools.

V. ISSUES AND CONCERNS

The Steering Committee headed by the Managing Director, FEF, a joint partner, did not know about the details of expenditures made on different items. Both the MD and DEP as well other members of the community were to be kept posted about the details of the expenditures on different items but they did not have the needed information.

The project was faced with a number of problems including lack of cooperation from the employees of indigent and locally employed children in Mardan city; unhealthy environment in which the children were working and non-availability of suitable places for locating the schools.

A number of issues remained unresolved, which included certification of students and their future prospects with regard to their integration into the main stream of education

The issue of sustainability of the community schools in two rural based districts of Dir and D.I.Khan till onger, which caused embarrassment to all the stakeholders.

The activities of the project were also affected by the sectarian differences between two sects in district D.I.Khan.

In Dir district, the NGO culture received opposition from the religious persons. The project also received a set back due to non-availability of local teachers in far-flung area, lack of support from the local administration, local Maliks and the adversarial behaviour of the un-educated people, who did not value the services of the NGO for the cause of education.

VI. LESSONS LEARNT FOR FUTURE PLANNING

1. In order to solve the problem of sustainability, the government may prefer a community partnership model, which suits the environment and culture of local rural areas and that can be feasibly replicated with minimum charge on public exchequer and that could be easily acceptable to community for subsequent management.
2. The advocacy and publicity of innovative activities are also needed to further support such projects and repose confidence of the public in this type of initiatives. This would also help negate the baseless propaganda against the NGO culture, which caused problems to the project.
3. The public policy should bring about attitudinal change in society for support and encouragement of girls' education by curbing the negative propaganda against the NGO culture.
4. The issue of sustainability of community schools should also be linked to income generating skills to be introduced in these schools.

5. The Foundation (s) should be encouraged to initiate and implement community-based schools.

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Economic Valuation of Poor Road Infrastructure Lagos: A Focus on Urban Households

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Abstract - The inefficiency and lack of urban transport services and infrastructure is a major impediment to economic growth and urban productivity in cities of developing countries like Nigeria. This study is aimed at assessing the impact of poor road infrastructure on urban households using environmental valuation techniques. The study is based on a survey research carried out with the distribution of structured questionnaires to 1040 households in eight metropolitan local government areas (namely;, Alimosho, Apapa, Eti-osa, Ikeja, Kosofe, Mushin, Shomolu and Surulere) in Lagos State to elicit information on current condition of infrastructure in the area, household consequential cost due to poor road condition, willingness to pay for improved road condition preferred service option for road infrastructure. Analysis was carried out using descriptive statistical tools. Results from the study shows that urban roads in Lagos are in a deplorable condition and households suffer a lot of consequential damages arising from it. The results also show that households are willing to pay for improved road conditions. The paper recommends that the government should formulate a good infrastructure policy that will enhance the sustainability of infrastructure over time and should also encourage public participation in urban infrastructure provision and maintenance.

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ECONOMIC VALUATION OF POOR ROAD INFRASTRUCTURE LAGOS A FOCUS ON URBAN HOUSEHOLDS

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I. INTRODUCTION

A major and integral part of sustainable development is efficient provision of environmentally sound infrastructure such as road and transportation, water supply and sanitation, power and telecommunications. Urban transport infrastructure in developing country mega-cities such as Cairo, Lagos, Mexico-city and Bangkok, is so deficient that traffic-jam related economic losses of several hundreds of million US dollars is not uncommon, not counting pollution related damages. (Panayotou1998). With population growth, urbanization, and income growth, the demand on infrastructure is growing and the gap between demand and supply is ever widening. The inefficiency and lack of urban transport services and infrastructure is a major impediment to economic growth and urban productivity in cities of developing countries. Increased motorization, public operating transport

services, inadequate road maintenance, insufficient bikeways and walkways poor traffic management and lack of enforcement of road rules are contributory factors to congestion, road accidents and air pollution. In many cities, traffic congestion leads to lost in work and leisure time, increased fuel consumption and emission, and high accident rates. The cost of road accidents in developing countries two-thirds of which occur in urban areas, is as high 1-2 percent of GDP, taking into account high fatality and injury rates and property damage (WHO 1989) cited in (Bartone, Bernestein, Leitmann and Eigen 1995, Odeck & Brathen 2000). In Nigeria urban centers, the state of infrastructure is poor. Similarly in the city of Lagos most part of the road network are filled with pot holes leading to traffic congestion, delay in travel time, damage to vehicles and accidents (Otegbulu 2010, Lagos State central Office of Statistics 2006). Congestion undermines the major advantage of accessibility which motor transport affords. Harvey and Jowsey (2004) suggested six main ways of tackling the problem of congestion resulting from poor road condition and inadequate road capacity. These are;

- Do nothing
- Invest in the construction of more roads
- Improve physical controls to improve traffic laws.
- Restrict parking
- Use the price system to allocate existing road space.
- Use the existing road system more efficiently through a better distribution of the roads of travel as be free the car and public transport or even cycling.

The impact of the poor road condition on Lagos households is enormous as most roads lack adequate drainage which escalates the flooding and damage to roads.

Roads like any other environmental good and service cannot be fully priced in the market place due to consumer and producer surpluses hence the resort to economic/environmental valuation.

The basic strategy of environmental valuation is the co-modification of the service that the environment provides. It serves to assess individual and group priorities and trade-off in the case of unpaid scarce commodities. It has been used to rank the seriousness of environmental problems in order to provide guidance to relevant agencies as they decide on how to focus

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their efforts. In its simplest forms economic valuation is the process of identifying the relevant changes in consumer demand and product supply arising from a change in environmental quality, or the change in the provision of environmental resources. (Garrod and Willis (2002), Liptons, Wellman, Thieffer and Weiter (1995), Mihra 1998, Darmatne and Strand 1999).

The Environmental Valuation Technique to be applied in this study is Contingent Valuation Model (CVM). It entails asking people for either their maximum willingness to pay (WTP) for an improvement in environmental quality, or their minimum willingness to accept compensation (WTAC) to forego such an improvement. It is also described as **stated preference method**. The method is interested in estimating how much an individual or society's well being will change (Hanley and Splash 1999). Willingness to pay is a measure of individuals' or a society's preference for a particular good or service; the higher the preference, the more the willingness to pay. Contingent valuation model is based on a hypothetical market situation which elicits the prices of those goods and services which cannot be priced in the market place. It is known as contingent valuation model because the results are dependent or contingent upon the hypothetical market devised. (Thomas, 1996; Field and Field, 2002).

This study is therefore aimed at assessing the impact of poor road infrastructure on urban households using environmental valuation techniques.

This will be achieved through the following objectives;

- ✚ To examine the condition of road infrastructure in the study area
- ✚ To determine the impact of poor road infrastructure on travel time of households in the study area
- ✚ To ascertain the extent of averting expenditure/ameliorating cost incurred by households due to the current state of road infrastructure in the study area
- ✚ To find out households preferences in terms of service options for road improvement in the study area
- ✚ To determine households' willingness (WTP) for improved road and their preferred payment vehicle (mode of payment)

II. ECONOMIC IMPACT

Poor road conditions and transportation system hinder movement of goods and people in the urban areas. Lack of adequate infrastructure could also be a disincentive to both local and foreign investors in our urban areas. Constraints to productivity at the city level, such as infrastructure deficiencies presented below reduced the productivity of firms and households and this affected the aggregate productivity of the economy (World Bank, 1992).

Cities have played a key role in the evolution of the global economy. Cities are generators of enormous

wealth and act as the powerhouse of the national economy. There is a clear link between the performances of urban areas and the performance of the economy as a whole (Oatley, 1998; 3-20). The strength of the nation's economy, the contact point of international economics, the health of our democracy and the vitality of the humanistic endeavours all are dependent on whether the city works (Ciceros cited in Lawless, 1996; 28).

Transportation plays a major role in economic development both urban and national. It also has a broader role in shaping development and the environment. The interface between transportation investment and economic development has broad ramifications that goes beyond the basic purpose of moving goods and people. Transportation facilities are located in a specific place, they provide services to businesses (and households) within a specific geographic area, and their use is directly related to moving goods and people between two points. It is essential in the operation of a market economy (Eberts, undated). It should be noted that road infrastructure is fundamental to urban transportation, as it provides access to land and determines whether it is ripe for development or not. It is a determinant of where people can live or not live and constitutes a catalyst to urban development.

According to Eberts (undated), four factors are important in examining the relationship between transportation and economic development. These comprise relevant types of transportation investment, data necessary to analyze the economic effect of the investment, appropriate methodology to analyze the economic effect and the proper dissemination of the result and evaluation of professionals as to the economic effect of transportation investment.

The dispersed spatial distribution of residential, employment, shopping and leisure facilities in the modern city, frequently predicts walking as a means of getting from one place to another. This and the fact that peoples' time is a scarce resource on which they often but not always wish to economize with respect to travelling, means that some sort of efficient mechanized transport system is required to transport people to their destination in urban areas. (ESRC, 1996).

III. NEIGHBOURHOOD ROAD DESIGN

Better transportation services that reduce commuting costs and time can allow households the opportunity to devote more time to income-earning activities. They also can be essential to maintaining an acceptable quality of life as well (Fox, 1995).

Transportation infrastructure is an important element of neighbourhood design. It is a major determinant of neighbourhood form. Within the context of sustainable neighbourhood design, transportation infrastructure should be designed to encourage the use of more sustainable modes of transportation, including,

walking, cycling and public transit (Engel-Yen, Kenedy, Saiz and Pressnail 2005). Research by Handy (1993) found that residents in traditional neighbourhoods make more non-work trips by walking and cycling within the neighbourhood than those in auto-oriented neighbourhoods.

Designing pedestrian, cyclist, and transit friendly neighbourhood will encourage intra-neighbourhood travel by non-auto mode. (Engel-Yen et.al, 2005). This will require providing for pedestrian and cyclist paths in neighbourhood road design. This in addition to the provision of streetlights will enhance security and visibility at night.

Road space requirement increases with vehicle size and speed. Faster vehicles need more safe distance that is, the traffic zone between them and other objects. A person typically requires 0.929 square metres feet while standing, and 1.858 square metres while walking. A bicycle requires about 50 square metres when ridden at 16 kph. An automobile occupies 13.93 – 26.91 square metres when parked, 139.35 square metres when travelling at a moderate speed of (30-mph, assuming 50 vehicles per lane-mile), and more than 464.51 metres when travelling at high speed. A bus requires about 2 - 3 times as much parking and road space as an automobile.

Walking and cycling facilities such as sidewalks and paths often constitute 10-20% of roadway right of way, although this space is often shared with utilities (telephone poles, signposts, electric poles etc), and side walk exist in part to support automobile travel. www.vtpi.org/landuse.polf.2007..

IV. DEMAND PREFERENCES AND USER CHARGES

The first problem with project selection pertains to how projects and problems interact. There is a lack of attention to strategic success (Whether a project's objectives are consistent with needs and priorities in society and has long term benefit which could reasonably be expected to be produced). If projects are developed in response to societal problem it will lead to generation of public trust (Bruzeluis, Flyvbjerg, Rottengatter 2009, Premius, Flyvbjerg and Wee 2008) infrastructure policy decision involve four set of actors. The first are policy makers, who created the basic environment in which decisions are made and in many cases establish policies to determine overall spending, what type agencies deliver services and so forth. Second, infrastructure manages determine policy within service delivery organizations and make major decisions in areas such as technology. Third, operational staff are responsible for undertaking a daily provision of services. Finally users are the major client for infrastructure service. Each set of actors is an integral component of good decisions and must be confronted with appropriate incentive in order to make the correct decisions (Fox 1995, Cotton and Franceys 1993).

The poor performance and mismanagement characterizing most public-owned and operated utilities gave the impetus for considering private sector participation. Unsustainable levels of budget deficits and external debts, and the need to maintain fiscal discipline to control inflation and spur economic growth has convinced governments to seek private sector resources (Panayotou 1998). Involvement of road users and other stakeholders in the road network planning has been found in some countries to provide the key to effective and efficient and financing measures particularly since governments are usually reluctant to increase taxes and user charges. There is therefore a need to consider involving urban road users on how to manage the road. If members of the community are to be made stakeholders they may be willing to pay more for roads, but only if the money is seen to be judiciously utilized which is not the case in the present situation. According to Adewunmi (undated) involvement of stakeholders in urban road network can create a surrogate market discipline which will encourage road administration to use resources efficiently.

V. METHODOLOGY

The research approach employed in this study is the basic survey design. It is designed to answer questions about road infrastructure condition including; amelioration costs and willingness to pay for improved road infrastructure in different local government areas of Lagos metropolis (8). The study goes further to find out the amount respondents are willing to pay for improved road conditions. The contingent valuation surveys usually value goods which respondents have experience on. Secondly, contingent valuation uses hypothetical market which must be believed and understood by respondents. Structured questionnaires were distributed to 1040 households in the study area and 774 were returned in useful state. The local government areas are; Alimosho, Apapa, Eti-osa, Ikeja, Kosofe, Mushin, Shomolu and Surulere. The questionnaires were framed in such a manner that the grey areas are made explicit to respondents so that they could give valid responses. The questions were based on the likert scale format. Analysis was carried out with the use of descriptive statistical tools such as mean frequency tables and relative impact index (RII). The respondents are of varied income levels and most of them have lived in the area for more than 5years.

VI. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Table 1 : Ranking of types of road problem

	Ranking Problems of Road															
	Alimosho		Apapa		Eti-Osa		Ikeja		Kosofe		Shomolu		Mushin		Surulere	
	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk	Rll	Rk
Are not wide enough	0.83	8	0.87	1	0.84	2	0.86	1	0.87	2	0.94	3	0.88	2	0.8	2
Lack pedestral walk	0.83	7	0.72	6	0.77	6	0.81	3	0.8	6	0.93	5	0.84	4	0.8	4
Full of pot holes	0.94	1	0.87	2	0.83	4	0.77	4	0.83	3	0.98	1	0.85	3	0.8	5
Not paved	0.86	5	0.63	8	0.71	8	0.72	8	0.78	7	0.93	6	0.77	8	0.7	8
Lack safety	0.84	6	0.76	5	0.71	7	0.72	7	0.72	8	0.91	7	0.80	7	0.7	7
Poor traffic management	0.86	4	0.68	7	0.81	5	0.75	6	0.80	5	0.94	4	0.83	5	0.7	6
Poor drainage	0.91	2	1.33	4	0.83	3	0.77	5	0.82	4	0.98	2	0.83	6	0.8	3
Lack street light	0.89	3	1.33	3	0.84	1	0.82	2	0.88	1	0.91	8	0.89	1	0.9	1

Source : Field survey 2010.

Table 2 : Difficulties arising from poor road condition

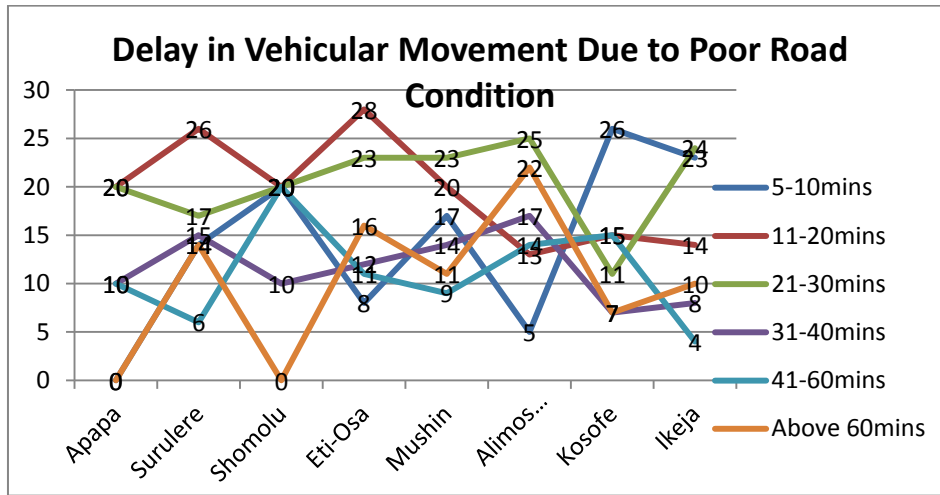
	What difficulties have you encountered as a result of bad road?					
	Damage to car	Delay in movement	Robbery	Air pollution	Car accident	Total
Alimosho	67	28	1	0	0	96
	69.8	29.2	1.0	0.0	0.0	100%
Apapa	30	20	0	0	0	50
	60.0	40.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Eti-osa	50	43	2	1	1	97
	51.5	44.3	2.1	1.1	1.1	100%
Ikeja	44	31	3	4	2	84
	52.4	36.9	3.6	4.8	2.4	100%
Kosofe	34	42	3	1	3	83
	41.0	50.6	3.6	1.2	3.6	100%
Shomolu	90	10	0	0	0	100
	90.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100%
Mushin	25	39	10	9	15	98
	25.5	39.8	10.2	9.2	15.3	100%
Surulere	19	40	12	14	13	98
	19.4	40.8	12.2	14.3	13.3	100%

Source: Field survey 2010.

Based on data from table 1 & 2 a lot of problems emanate from poor road condition. The nature of road problems varies from local government to local government. In Apapa and Ikeja local government, the greatest problem is narrow roads. In Alimosho and Shomolu, the major problem is potholes. In Eti-Osa, Kosofe and Mushin it is lack of street light. The problem of street light in the study area creates insecurity at night. Potholes had been causing accidents and damage to cars, delay in traffic movement and robbery at hold-ups. This problem can also influence WTP. The loss in man hours and air pollution arising from poor

road condition is enormous and this calls for increased budget allocation for road maintenance and rehabilitation

Figure 1: Delay in vehicular movement due to poor road condition

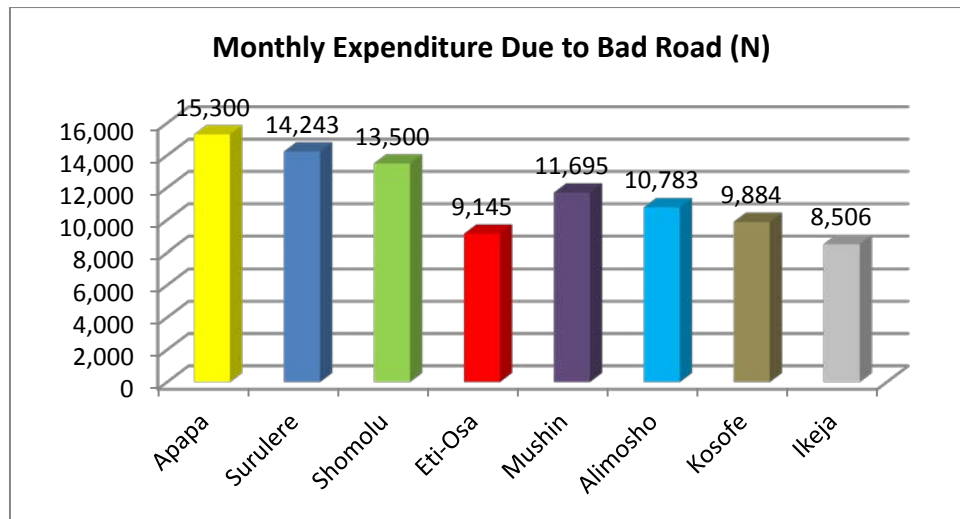


Source : Field survey 2010.

Data from figure 1 shows that households in the study area suffer delay in travel time due to bad road. Most of them are delayed for periods of between 20 minutes to 60 minutes. This could cause engine overheating and also expose commuters to being attached

by hoodlums and street vertices, it will also increase energy cost in addition to air pollution. The implication of this is that productive hours are wasted in traffic, more fuel is consumed and vehicle engines are stressed

Figure 2



Source: Field survey 2010.

Data from figure 2 above shows cost incurred by car owning households due to damages to their car arising from plying bad roads. Residents of Apapa local government incur the highest cost of ₦15,300.00 per month while Ikeja local government area have the least mean cost of ₦8,506. The residents are also serious that the conditions of roads in their area be improved and are willing to pay of ₦13,750. The implication of this is that the residents have displayed a sense of commitment for infrastructural sustainability in the study area. The mean expenditure for a particular area is dependent on the condition of road and type of cars used. The level averting cost can influence demand preference and WTP.



Table 3 : Mean WTP for improved road conditions

	Mean	Rank
Apapa	₦13,750	1
Surulere	₦13,594	2
Shomolu	₦13,437	3
Alimoso	₦11,151	4
Mushin	₦9,660	5
Eti-osa	₦9,695	6
Kosofe	₦8,020	7
Ikeja	₦7,979	8

Source: Field survey 2009.

From Table 3 above, Apapa has the highest mean WTP of ₦13,750.00 followed by Shomolu's ₦13,594.2. The least is Ikeja with mean WTP of ₦7,979.20 for improved road condition. The high WTP is an indication that households in the study area want less damage to their car, and less delay in their travel time.

Table 4 : Preferred mode of payment for improved road condition

	How would you want to pay?								
	Payment at once	Monthly	Yearly	Included in income tax	Included in tenement rate	Included in rent	Toll fee	Others	Total
Alimosho	22	21	23	10	5	1	9	0	93
	24.2	23.1	25.3	11.0	5.5	1.1	9.9	0.0	100%
Apapa	20	10	0	30	0	0	0	0	60
	33.3	16.7	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100%
Eti-osa	18	15	8	29	4	6	10	0	90
	20.0	16.7	8.9	32.2	4.4	6.7	11.1	0.0	100%
Ikeja	14	16	5	9	14	5	14	0	77
	18.2	20.8	6.5	11.7	18.2	6.5	18.2	0.0	100%
Kosofe	20	17	7	7	12	5	5	1	74
	27.0	23.0	9.5	9.5	16.2	6.8	6.8	1.4	100%
Shomolu	50	0	10	0	0	0	20	0	80
	62.5	0.0	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	100%
Mushin	15	14	10	8	13	4	8	4	76
	19.7	18.4	13.2	10.5	17.1	5.3	10.5	5.3	100%
Surulere	10	7	7	10	10	0	6	10	60
	16.7	11.7	11.7	10.2	10.2	0.0	10.0	16.7	100%

Data from table 4 shows the preferred manner of payment by various households. 50% of households in Apapa local government prefer to pay through income tax. 24.2% of households in Alimosho local government prefer to pay through lump sum payment. In Eti – Osa local government area, majority (32.4%) prefer payment through income tax. The bottom line is that residents have expressed their desire for sustainable urban infrastructure through their WTP and expressed payment vehicle for improved road infrastructure.

Table 5 : Preferred service option for Roads

	What kind of road do you prefer?					
	Road with side walk	Road with cyclist path	Road with drainage	Road with street light	Just motorable road	Total
Alimosho	43	5	31	8	6	93
	46.2	5.4	33.3	8.6	6.5	100%
Apapa	20	10	20	0	10	60
	33.3	16.7	33.3	0.0	16.7	100%
Eti-osa	25	3	26	26	18	98
	25.5	3.1	26.5	26.5	18.4	100%
Ikeja	43	1	15	17	11	87
	49.4	1.1	17.2	19.5	12.6	100%
Kosofe	36	3	14	24	8	85
	42.4	3.5	16.5	28.2	9.4	100%



Shomolu	60	0	20	10	10	100
	60.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	10.0	100%
Mushin	15	8	29	39	7	98
	15.3	8.2	29.6	39.8	7.1	100%
Surulere	17	6	18	50	7	98
	17.3	6.1	18.4	51.0	7.1	100%

Source : Field survey 2009.

Data from table 5 shows the different service options for road in the study area. This include road with side walk, cyclist path, drainage, traffic light and just motorable. The preferred road type for Ikeja, Kosofe, Shomolu and Alimosho is road with side walk. This option will increase safety in the study area. Households in Mushin local government prefer road with street light probably because of the high crime rate in the area. The peculiar situation in an area will influence their preferred service option for road infrastructure

VII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

- Road Infrastructure provisions in the study area are grossly inadequate and households suffer consequential costs and damage to property
- In addition to inadequacy, the conditions of available ones are quite deplorable in most of the local government areas under study. Most households experience traffic congestion, car damage and robbery at hold ups due to deplorable road and traffic conditions.
- In consideration of the importance of road infrastructure to households in the study area, majority of them are already incurring heavy expenditure due to its poor condition and in consequence are willing to pay for improved service in all the infrastructure under study within the study area. The level of willingness to pay however varied from one local government area to another.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

- There should be a radical change in infrastructure provision policy in the country as the current top-bottom approach does not achieve the desired result and fails to meet public expectations. The bottom-top or demand driven approach should be embraced as this will make residents and urban households more committed to its funding where cost recovery is of essence.
- Government can promote public private partnership through introduction of subsidy in infrastructure. For example, if the WTP of the people cannot sustain private investment in infrastructure, governments can provide subsidy by being responsible for part of the Capital Cost, while the extent of cost that can be sustained by households WTP is provided by the private investor. This will help when high standard of infrastructure is of essence. Subsidy can also hold when government has a limited budget and urban

households want a higher specification or standard of infrastructure. Households will then be asked to pay the difference between the expected standard and the budgeted sum. This situation is most relevant in areas of water, sanitation and road projects. Inadequate infrastructure can have multiple effects on health, and thereby on individual labour and productivity as well as quality of life.

- Proper pricing is a veritable tool for efficient and sustainable infrastructure provision. It is necessary for financing of service delivery, rationing of consumption to an economically efficient level, and also to provide an indicator for demand. Providers should ensure that prices should be able to recover cost for all infrastructure services except those with significant positive externalities and for very few services, to ensure that poor households have access. Payment of fee must be associated or linked to service delivery and any significant fee increase must result from service enhancement or improvement.

Imposing user fees to recover cost may be politically difficult in the short run as urban households are used to receiving under priced services. In spite of this difficulty, pricing is central to improved service delivery system. On the contrary, failure to properly price services could be politically dangerous because inadequate services will lead to dissatisfied urban residents and poor business, resulting in poor economic growth.

- Infrastructure reforms cannot be achieved in the absence of an efficient regulatory system. Governments all over the world are transforming their infrastructure sector to better meet the needs of consumers and regulatory reform is an essential part of this process. A good regulatory system must serve the interest of consumers. In this respect, the need to separate operation of facilities and regulation of service quality is very central. The regulatory authorities must be able to regulate the reliability and output of infrastructure providers.

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The Internet And Journalism Practice In Nigeria

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Abstract - This paper looks at the implication of new technology on the practice of journalism especially the use of internet to produce, disseminate and receive information. The theoretical method adopted here is on the basis of McLuhan's theory of technological determinism to justify the work that more emphasize will be on the medium as technology advances in the global village. The interactive nature of internet is a crucial factor while some believe its role of citizen journalism is unethical in journalism profession others opine it is sacrosanct to participatory democracy. Library research method was used to generate secondary data for this paper. However no new medium can send an old one to oblivion, it will only be an extension of the old medium. It is pertinent that online journalism ought to provide more information and in some cases provide video clips and series of pictures to back up their stories. The paper recommends that media houses should train their staff on online journalism while government should provide enabling environment in the rural areas so information can get to them.

Keywords : *Internet, Journalism Practice, Citizen Journalism, Conventional Journalism.*

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I. INTRODUCTION

As the internet changes the face of communication journalists are beginning to have a new way of packaging and disseminating news to the public. Though few journalists in Nigeria have access to the internet and most of them do that in their respective places of work (without personal internet access) because internet connection is limited to senior people especially managing editors and senior staff notwithstanding, they are not left out of the global village. So, journalists access internet from cyber cafes, libraries and media resource centres and most of them still use the internet to send e-mail. Beyond sending e-mail to headquarters and receiving instructions from the same internet has created new opportunities for journalists to sell stories not only to other media houses locally but across the globe. The internet has made the world smaller for journalists to explore. This wonderful technology has also made research on various subject matters available via chatting and exchange of messages. This has created new markets and form of journalism where journalists specialize and work as online journalists, content managers or editors for particular websites. The internet is pushing journalists to learn new skills on how to add content to a web site, blog and create hyper text links the coming of the internet is also leading journalists to basically know

photographic skills such as how to take digital pictures and upload them to a computer or add them to a blog and website. Internet has made it easy for journalists to research on any subject as it is one of the biggest resources – it makes it easy to find out what acronyms stand and also research a certain subject matter. No doubt, the internet is also changing the way we write for newspapers as we now have to learn how to strictly write for online newspapers. However, most of the online newspapers still carry the same material which was produced by the print version without creating hypertext links to help the visitor stay with the page.

II. PURPOSE OF THE PAPER

The purpose of this paper is to appraise the impact of internet on journalism practice in Nigeria with the aim of bringing to limelight what underlines the underutilization of the new communication technology in Nigeria journalism profession. It also looks at the power of latest technology and how it changes the traditional journalism.

III. METHODOLOGY

Library research was used to generate secondary data for this paper.

IV. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Technological Determination is the basis (theory) upon which this work is anchored. The theory states that media technologies shape how we as individuals in a society think, feel act and how a society operates as we move from one technology age to another (Tribal – literate -print -electronic). Griffin (2000, pp.313-325) elaborate McLuhan's theory of 1963 that we learn, feel and think the way we do because of the message we receive through the current technology that is available. McLuhan (1962), *The Gutenberg Galaxy: the making of typographic man*, explains that the radio required us to only listen and develop our sense of warning. On the other hand, television engages both our hearing and visual senses. We then transfer those developed senses into our everyday lives and we want to use them again. The medium is then our message.

With the development of technology the profession of journalism after test running the effects of latest medium then explores its potentials to reach the audience. Today internet is the latest through which journalism thrives.

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V. NEW ERA OF JOURNALISM

The internet is the fastest growing medium in history. The digitalisations, convergence of computer and telephony technologies - which are the linchpin of the internet, have greatly influenced the way news and information are produced and disseminated. Times and things have indeed changed, globalization has since become a buzz word, and has brought with it change and competition. People's lives have been variously affected either for the better or for worse, depending on the side of the divide one finds himself.

The rapid adoption of internet by journalist is a nationwide phenomenon. The process by which computerization or digitalization impacted upon the media of the 21st Century has moved on many fronts and at different speeds. Agba (2007, p.83) notes that "with desktop publishing and word processing packages, particularly the page maker, the production of newspapers, magazines, journals etc has become an interesting business more so with the use of video display terminals (VDTs)"

Desktop publishing which is the use of a computer and specialized software to combine text and graphics to create a document that can be printed on either a laser printer or a typesetting machine has lessened the burden of typesetting on the old manual typewriter. The use of computer in layout and printing enhances accuracy, helping to control newspaper and magazine costs. Electronic editing; proofreading, formatting, spellchecking tools, calculator and other software tools now facilitate the speed and ease of news gathering and dissemination. Also, the use of electronic publishing which involves the process through which print media disseminate printed messages using electronic media has closed the wide gap between print and electronic media as a result of convergence in technology. Bittner, (1989,p.277) merely mentions the power of teletext but today, teletext transmits text between teleprinters and teleprompter via computer with a television transmission system sending data to various media houses as well as home receivers equipped with compatible decoder. A good example of this is being demonstrated the way *The Nation Newspaper* in Nigeria typesets in Lagos but prints its hardcopy simultaneously in Lagos, Port Harcourt and Abuja; no doubt a new era in the history of media technology is here with us. Electronic editions of newspapers have also been delivered to various homes through this system.

Another landmark in the era of internet journalism has been the ability of the media to harness the potentials of World Wide Web (www) among other services provided by the net. The www which is a system for accessing, manipulating, and downloading a very large set of hypertext-linked documents and other files located on computers connected through the internet has afforded both the source and receiver to send and receive messages as well as advertise goods and services.

VI. CITIZEN JOURNALISM VERSUS CONVENTIONAL JOURNALISM

It is now clear that the advent of internet has made everybody a journalist just as Gutenberg made everybody a printer with the invention of printing press and Marconi made everybody a broadcaster by giving us radio, everyone is now a journalist. Citizen journalism has made it a reality for everybody to be media creator, owner and actor instead of passive user (Ezeibe and Nwagwu; 2009, pp.65-66). They add that citizen journalism gradually debases the conventional journalism hence information role that professional journalism does dissolve into public domain. It appears that there is no clear distinction between the role of conventional journalism and citizen journalism. Conventional journalism which is the mainstream profession of journalism requires one form of training or the other, either through education or on the job training for them to discharge their social responsibility role. However, citizen journalism is usurping the role of conventional journalism. Looking at the issue, citizen journalism spells negative effects to the trend of journalism because most times journalists feel threatened by the increase in participation in news gathering and dissemination despite the society approval which is described such as plus to participatory democracy. With the use of internet and the involvement of citizen journalism journalists have tips available to them in which further investigation can be carried out. Internet has removed the barriers of space and time on human interactions hence information can easily be obtained at a relatively low cost. Nwajinka (2003, p.118) contends that journalists in the digital age have no excuse but to make use of online libraries to enrich their performance. It cannot be an overstatement to describe the convergence of computer and telecommunications as the material forces in the new technology of mass communication. The internet has virtually revolutionised the process of news and information gathering, processing, publishing, distribution of products and services.

Traditionally, news is information about events that are currently happening or that have happened recently, new technologies now allow news to be more current as audiences are virtually transported to the scene of the event. Rodman (2009, p.37) explains that the presence of goggle news, twitter, facebook and other social networking media are also changing the phase of journalism. Now it is possible to build customized news reports from all the articles being read in the morning to the reader's social network. For instance, Digg is a network site devoted to such news stories, Digg's web site provides content that has been selected by other users from prominent news sources according to the votes of Digg's members to give highlights. This is changing radically the concept of professional journalist as gatekeeper hence, changes in the concept of traditional news values come to debate

VII. NEWS VALUE

At a time, journalists could attach news to more of politics; public affairs and government activities and consider these as topics required to keep the audience informed about democracy which is believed to be the best form of governance since it is participatory. However people define news differently: to a business person it may be financial information while team scores may be for sport lovers but one thing is sure; news is about information that is timely, important and interesting to its audience (known as news values) and all these have changed the definition of news as it goes online.

Timeliness : News is information traditionally about current events happening or that have just happened. With the latest technology news is now immediate that audience begin to expect eventually every minute in this country. It is now an habit in Nigeria that audience go to the internet to post, know and read the latest any time there is crucial issue - only those with less media literacy (at the level of this country) wait for traditional news or relax till the following day before they are up-to-dated. Good examples of this were demonstrated during the controversial return of late President Yar'Adua from his Jedda Hospital in S'Audi Arabia and when he finally gave-up the ghost. Hence, today's 24-hour news environment is kept fresh and the implication is that an hour ago news becomes absolutes the following hour.

VIII. UBIQUITOUS NATURE OF NEW FORM OF JOURNALISM

Looking at the way internet and journalism influence each other it is obvious that the new form of journalism is ubiquitous in structure. Though not everybody in a society has access to the internet to assess the news (because of digital divide), the presence of mobile phones has made it possible for journalist to gather news anywhere especially those who use their phones as mobile internet and send stories which in turn readers have access. The groups in turn have influence on their environment having been opinion leaders to their peers or even those in their vicinity.

IX. INTERACTIVITY OF THE NEW MEDIUM

Lievrouw and Livingstone (2006, p.25) posit that interactivity is a switching pivotal that allows audience more selectivity in their choices of information sources and interactions with other people. Audience of mass media over the decades are known to perceiving information differently and retaining information selectively. The new media give users the means to generate, seek and share content selectively and to interact with other individuals and groups, on a scale that was impractical with traditional mass media. Lievrouw and Livingstone in their argument submit.

Selectivity accounts for much of the sense of interactivity of social presence associated with new

media... in turn, the user proliferation and diversity of content and sources now available have raised concerns about the quality of the content - authenticity, reliability, anonymity, identity of participation on online interaction.(p 25)

X. ETHICAL DISCOURSE

Going by the above submission question of pertinent issues can be raised such as the issue of professionalism. How does professionalism affect the practice of online journalism? The former Abuja Bureau Chief of the *Tide Newspaper*, Alloys Nweke at the 2008 *Nigeria Union of Journalists (NUJ) Submit* in Port Harcourt frowned at the numerous untrained people bestriding the streets with pen and paper claiming to be journalists. Nweke's speech reveals that the number of fake journalists in Nigeria society is higher than the real practitioners. Now if professionals are not happy with the *conventional* quacks in this job what will they say about the current trend (internet) which has made everybody a journalist? Does or can professionalism still be attained in this jet age? Akinfeleye (1990, p.6) quotes an American critic; Dean Rosco Pound who writes that every profession is governed by certain roles: hence if the role of bringing news to the audience is the role of professional journalist then citizen journalism is on the right track. However it goes beyond that to the issue of gatekeeping chain - where a lot of other factors (editors, reporters, advertiser etc) are taken into consideration before the news gets to final consumer. If extended to cover wider areas then traditional journalists may have course to frown at internet journalism for usurping their role or rightly put debasing the profession.

Professionalism cannot stand without attaching on its apron, ethical codes. The early and the nationalist press were not governed by formal ethics and code of conduct in the case of Nigeria. Responsible regulation later came with the ethical code of the Nigeria Union of Journalists in 1967. Surlin (1987, p.88) in his study of values of journalism practitioners before and after undergoing various courses and trainings in media ethics opines that the media ethics course has a noticeable and ethically positive effect upon the student value system. All forms of balancing a story and reporting without prejudice which traditional journalists consider as ethical may not be followed in today era of internet as journalists compete to hit the air wave first.

So many factors influence journalism practice although, the magnitude of the effect depends on the environment where the professional calling is carried out cum the background of the source involved (the reporter). It is now paramount that journalists give to the society what the society is interested in. Obscenity was ones a time a taboo in journalism but it is not absent these days in online journalism and the society does not see it as evil anymore. Even if the media refuse to carry such publications podcast will readily project it. Hence the society influences the media while in turn after the

media discover the taste of those in their environment they better amplify it to the society. Therefore, what constitutes ethical discourse in the era of internet journalism is subject to debate.

XI. ECONOMIC, SOCIO-POLITICAL AND CULTURAL INTRINSIC

Media production is capital intensive and they rely on advertisement for revenue. It costs a lot of money to print and distribute newspapers and this is responsible for most slums and small towns not having much newspaper establishment and circulation in their immediate environment. With only few newspapers serving a community's information needs, basic law of supply and demand dictates the price of advertisement to communities. It is a huge profit industry that has become increasingly concentrated in the hands of few elites who own and control the media production and content. However, the greed to break even within a year or less coupled with wrongful focus to use media for political ambition of the proprietor is lumbered with associated debt. For most publishers the reaction has been to implement efficiency whenever they can - moving out of city centre offices, publishing less frequently and laying off enormous numbers of staff. Now that advertisers create their sites independently print media cannot but move online if they still want to break even. The effects of online advertisement may not have been conspicuous in Nigeria for now but such cannot be dismissed.

Political economy asserts that the production of media products are structurally constrained by economic and political factors, especially the private ownership of media industries (Williams, 2003, p 26). Murdock and Golding (as quoted in Williams, 2003, p.227) believe the mass media are first and foremost industrial and commercial organizations which produce and distribute commodities. Media owners are striving to answer the call to uphold the tenet of journalism and preserve it. However, the attempts to resist the changes that are coming as a result of internet may not be favourable to journalism in this digital era. The web has the advantage of allowing individual to distribute news without the need to buy printing press thus, requiring less revenue to an outfit. Meanwhile, whoever sees reason in democratic society and freedom of the press won't see any reason to look at citizen journalism and dismiss it because it is the most democratic system of publishing ever.

XII. ISSUES OF REGULATION

The most widely noted potential consequence for the media institution is the "convergence" between all existing media forms in terms of their organization, distribution, reception and regulation (McQuail, 2005, pp.137-552). There is a general agreement that convergence occurs at the technological level (European commission, 1997). Digital technology allows

both traditional and new communication services - whether voices, data, sound or pictures - to be provided over many different networks. Internet incorporates all media and distributes them through push (button) technologies. Now it can be said that digitalization means technologies for the processing and transmission of information having begun to use the same language. Though each medium started and developed fairly independently, rapidly merging into digital stream of zeros and ones in the global communication network pose a serious challenge for the regulatory bodies. For instance the body that regulates electronic media in Nigeria (National Broadcasting Commission -NBC) is different from that of print media. Though telecommunications and the press (both print and electronic media) are now in Nigeria under the same ministry called Ministry of Information and Communication but are regulated differently. Nigeria press council regulates print media. In the era of internet journalism who regulates the contents of online print and electronic by the way of convergence? Now, who controls the internet or internet journalism, the telecommunication or the press, the broadcast regulatory bodies or the print regulatory bodies; involvement of internet in journalism practice now press challenges for journalism regulatory bodies.

XIII. VULNERABLE PROFESSION OF JOURNALISM

Journalism today finds itself at a rare moment in history where, for the first time, its hegemony as gatekeeper of the news is threatened by not just new technology and competitors but potentially, by the audience it serves. Armed with easy-to-use web publishing tools, always-on connections and increasingly powerful mobile devices, the online audience has the means to become an active participant in the creation and dissemination of news and information; and it's doing just that on the internet. The internet as a medium for news, is maturing with every major news event, online media evolve. While news sites have become more responsive and better, able to handle the growing demands of readers and viewers, online communities and personal news and information sites are particularly in an increasingly diverse and playing important role that, until recently, has operated without significant notice from mainstream media. A very good thing about internet journalism is that it introduces fresh voices into national discourse on various topics and help build communities of interest through their collections of links.

XIV. CONCLUSION

When people are online they are looking for much more information and that makes journalists provide more information on the subject matter. An online version can provide more information and in some cases provide video clips and a series of pictures

unlike the print version which has limited pages. The internet is much more interesting as it provides journalists with multimedia platform where journalism can provide data, video and voice as Geshner (2002, p.176) believes that online newspaper is meant to capture wider audience internationally. As technology advances more change will continue to occur. Williams (2003, p.227) sums it up:

Early in the next millennium your right or left cufflinks or earrings may communicate with each other by low-orbiting satellites and have more computer power than your present PC. Your telephone won't ring indiscriminately; it will receive and perhaps respond to your incoming calls like a well-trained English butler. Mass media will be re-defined by systems for transmitting and receiving personalized information and entertainment.

On this note it is important to emphasize that the internet in comparison with other media institutions displays the followings as discussed by McQuail (2005, p.141):

- i. The internet is not only or even mainly concerned with the production and distribution of messages. It is at least equally concerned with processing exchange and storage of information.
- ii. The internet is as much as institution of private as well as of public communication.
- iii. The operation is not typically professional or bureaucratically organized in the same degree as mass media.

However, the lack of political will among the national leaders should be addressed. Most governments in developing countries do not help matters as they show lackadaisical attitudes towards investing on their media to make them functional towards serving the people hence, the media audience turn to the internet to get the best they think is better for them. Popular belief has it that news coming from official, mainstream channels is superior in quality and readability than news reported by a blogger or someone with a shaky camcorder. Traditional media keep on being preached as the source of truth, but what they lack is exactly the essence of truth - validation. Through the internet journalism on the contrary, finds its strength in the continuous, ongoing validation process operated by large community. Anybody can easily share his/her opinion; agree or disagree with what is being said by taking the advantages of new technologies and the web. The kind of high-technology interaction journalism is a resemblance of real life conversation again, much like the original journalism occurring in the public houses and coffee houses four hundred years ago. Seen in this light, journalism's function is not fundamentally changed by the digital age. The techniques may be different, but the underlying principles are the same.

What is emerging is a new media ecosystem, where online communities discuss and extend the stories created by mainstream media. These

communities also produce participatory journalism, grassroots reporting, annotative reporting, commentary and fact-checking which the mainstream media feed upon, develop as pool of tips, sources and story ideas.

XV. RECOMMENDATIONS

- (1) Media houses that are yet to train their staff should do so as soon as possible.
- (2) Media houses that are having online site should provide avenue for citizen journalism.
- (3) Government should provide enabling infrastructure in rural areas so journalists can access such areas in order to send and get report in such areas.
- (4) An online version should provide more information and in most cases provide video clips and series of pictures unlike the print version which has limited pages.
- (5) Media houses should make provisions for internet facilities in all their offices for the members of staff in order to compete with their counterpart the world over.

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Multiethnicity In Southeast Asia And Education : Case Study Of Vision Schools In Malaysia

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Abstract - Education is marked as one of the most important factors in the process of achieving sustainable development in any society. For this purpose, the United Nations has declared 2005-2014 as the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD). However, the notion of a sustainable education system may confront several different challenges depending on the society in which it needs to be implemented in. The role of education in multiracial/ethnic societies is vital to guarantee a sustainable and steady process of development. Simultaneously, because of the diverse nature of such societies and communities, designing and implementing an educational system capable of fulfilling the needs of each minority based on tolerance, respect and understanding is a challenging task. This concept seems extremely important in a region such as ASEAN with its rich socio-ethnic diversity. This paper examines and analyzes some of the mechanisms (curriculum designing, co-curriculum activities, administrative structures, etc.) necessary to be addressed in the educational system of a multiracial society to achieve social harmony and sustainability. At the same time, this paper tries to explore the challenges these mechanisms might face by referring to the case study of Vision Schools (Sekolah Wawasan) in a multiethnic society like Malaysia.

Keywords : education, sustainable development, multiethnic, mechanisms, vision schools.

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Abstract - Education is marked as one of the most important factors in the process of achieving sustainable development in any society. For this purpose, the United Nations has declared 2005-2014 as the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNDESD). However, the notion of a sustainable education system may confront several different challenges depending on the society in which it needs to be implemented in.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Education has almost always been a key factor in the existence and development of societies throughout humankind's history and the same still holds true for contemporary society. As a matter of fact, this very important factor has a central role to play toward achieving a sustainably developed society.

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Before proceeding with further discussions however, the definition of a sustainable society and the relationship it has with education should first be clearly defined.

Based on conventional definitions, a sustainable society is usually defined as one that provides a high quality of life for all its members without harming the integrity and efficiency of natural systems and resources upon which all life depends. It is important to note that nature should act as the limit of human desires with humanity designing its dreams without overstepping the borders of nature. In a manner of speaking, Sustainability can therefore be defined as the ability to achieve a pleasing existence for everyone within the means of nature - both for populations today and in the future.

In more widely accepted parlance, the United Nations (1987) defines sustainable development as a form of development which "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

That being said, it is vital to bear in mind the important fact that a sustainable society is not solely concerned with the environment and nature. It also encompasses a wider range of issues and phenomena. A sustainable society must also be able to provide opportunities for each member of its community to reach his/her full potentials. Ideally, issues such as cultural diversity, adequate nutrition, clothing, shelter and a dignified life for all should also be included in the concept of a sustainable society.

Diversity is one of the most important issues that a sustainable society should recognize and promote, as both the strength and flexibility of human communities are born out of diverse strengths. The recognition and celebration of diversity however, cannot be achieved without an education system that is specifically designed to address this issue. An education system constructed for a sustainable society must strike a balance between the needs of people and those of the natural systems.

As was mentioned earlier, a suitable education system is the key toward achieving a sustainable society. This approach is best mirrored through the umbrella term of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) which is defined by UNESCO (2005) as an effort "to help people to develop the attitudes, skills and knowledge to make informed decisions for the benefit of

themselves and others, now and in the future, and to act upon these decisions.”

In order to achieve this suitable education system, a number of elements should be taken into consideration such as a society's geographical location, population texture, socio-economic background, etc. That being said, it is understood that designing and running a suitable system of education in societies with diverse ethnic backgrounds is quite different from that of a homogenous society. Nonetheless mastering such a concept is certainly very important in regions such as ASEAN which contains a high degree of cultural and ethnic diversity.

II. MALAYSIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

ESD in the ASEAN region will inevitably lead us to the issue of multiethnic societies and the challenges that education systems in these societies face to address the needs of different ethnic groups. According to Welsh (1993), “A multiethnic society is in contrast to mono-ethnic societies; integrate different ethnic groups irrespective of differences in culture, race, and history under a common social identity larger than one “nation” in the conventional sense.”

The issue of ethnic diversity does indeed complicate things somewhat. This is especially true in areas such as governance, political systems, economic strategies and of course the education system. The backbone to dealing with these complexities is to determine how best to address the needs and wills of each ethnicity equally within the frame work of national identity and solidarity.

Malaysia is a fine example of a multiethnic country situated within the ASEAN region. Malaysia does in fact, represent the true meaning of what constitutes a diverse society in many ways - including ethnically, linguistically and religion-wise. Population wise, Malaysian society is made up of the Malays 50.4%, Chinese 23.7%, Indigenous 11%, Indians 7.1% and others ethnicities 7.8% (2004 est.). Languages that are spoken by these ethnicities include Bahasa Malaysia (official), English, Chinese (Cantonese, Mandarin, Hokkien, Hakka, Hainan, Foochow), Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Punjabi among the Indians and even Thai. Several indigenous languages also exist with some of the most widely spoken being Iban and Kadazan. This pattern of diversity lends itself to the nation's religions as well with Islam, Buddhism, Daoism, Hinduism, Christianity, Sikhism, Baha'ism and also Shamanism practiced all over Malaysia.

The information above indicates just how difficult it can be to keep such a diverse society in harmony while providing an education system that is both fair and equal based on mutual understanding and respect. In such a diverse society, the education system must be capable of adopting certain guidelines that address the cultural and ethnic needs of each group while simultaneously keeping the society within the frame of national community.

The Malaysian education system consists of three different kinds of schools. Most common are government-sponsored schools (national Schools). Next are private schools and thirdly, home-schooling. A point worth noting is that the Malaysian education system is extremely centralized especially with regard to primary and secondary schools.

It is the mandate of the Malaysian constitution that the Ministry of Education prepares the National Education Policy based on the National Ideology or as it called in Malay, the “Rukunegara.” The principles of the National Ideology are, Belief in God, Loyalty to the King and the Country, Upholding the Constitution, Sovereignty of the Rule of Law and Good Behavior and Morality.

As Adam (1995) explains, the main aims of the Government's Educational Policy are to 1) Equip students with the skills needed in a holistic and integrated manner in order to produce individuals that are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced as well as functionally literate 2) Inculcate and nurture national consciousness by promoting common ideals, values, aspirations and loyalties to foster national unity and national identity 3) Produce skilled manpower for economic and national development and 4) Instill desired moral values in students so they contribute effectively toward nation building.

Curriculum-wise, there are several different types of primary and secondary schools available in the Malaysian education system. The main difference between them is the language used. All these schools form their educational activities and lesson plans based on the national curriculum. In conducting the classes however, they utilize their respective vernaculars as the medium of instruction. Chinese and Tamil vernacular school students have to undergo a year in “Remove Class” prior to their promotion to Form 1 to enable them to effectively handle the national curriculum in Bahasa Malaysia. Based on the factors mentioned above, there are four types of governmental schools in Malaysia; 1) National Schools (Malay), 2) National Chinese Schools, 3) National Tamil Schools and 4) National Arabic Schools (These are few in number).

In January 2003, a brand of mixed mode instruction was introduced in schools which required Science and Mathematics to be taught in English from Standard 1 onward while other subjects continued being taught in Malay. The same applied to Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools which conduct classes in Mandarin and Tamil respectively.

Issues of ethnicity and language have always been a challenge in the face of the Malaysian education system since the founding of Malaysia in 1957. There have always been arguments on how best to make policies and run the country while enabling equal opportunities and rights for all members of this diverse society.

The idea of vernacular schools often comes under criticism by different sectors of society as a barrier

in the fostering of inter-ethnic relations. On the other hand, supporters of the system claim that this grants students from different ethnic backgrounds the opportunity to preserve their respective cultures within the frame of national unity.

III. VISION SCHOOLS

In order to tackle such issues, the Malaysian government made the decision to introduce a new kind of primary school in 2004 which was called the Vision School (Sekolah Wawasan). According to the Malaysian Bar (2007), "Vision schools are primary schools with the concept of children learning together within an area without regard for race or religion." Under this concept, two or three primary schools from different vernaculars are placed within the same area. Each school will then have its own building connected to those of other schools via a link-way.

This system is still in its testing phase and there are just five of them throughout the country. As mentioned earlier, the three main types of schools (National, National Chinese and National Tamil) are placed at the same location under the name Vision School Complex. Each school is separate from the other and acts independently in all regards ranging from its administrative system to its curriculum. Thus, in effect, each school follows its respective national curriculum without interfering with those of the others.

The most important factor which differentiates this school from ordinary schools is the notion of enabling students from different ethnic backgrounds to interact with each other during break time and other joint co-curriculum activities. This plan is considered an innovative option to address the main concerns of preserving ethnic cultures and supporting inter-ethnic integration toward sustaining the nation's national unity. Some of this schooling system's main objectives as defined by the Malaysian Ministry of Education are fostering solidarity among pupils of different races and backgrounds, instilling the spirit of integration among pupils of different streams, producing a generation that is tolerant and understanding so as to realize a nation that is united and encouraging maximum interaction among pupils through the sharing of school facilities and implementation of other activities at school.

Certain questions and concerns do arise resulting from the implementation of Vision Schools. Can this pattern of schooling truly fulfill the principles of education in a diverse multiethnic society like Malaysia? What are the challenges, advantages and disadvantage of this plan? How successful has this plan been in achieving its goals and objectives? In order to answer these questions, it is first necessary to look at some of the fundamental characters and principles of multiethnic education systems and then proceed to evaluate the output of Vision Schools based on these findings.

At this point in education's progress, there still exist some arguments on how best to define a multiethnic education system. Some experts believe that

a multiethnic education system can be achieved by adding certain special courses to the existing curriculum in order to make it possible for each ethnic group to have a say in mainstream curriculum. On the other hand, there are some who believe that change should happen in the classrooms and that it is only in the school setting that students from different ethnic backgrounds can interact and integrate with one another more constructively.

It is clear to see that Malaysian Vision Schools follow the second school of thought in which the climate of classrooms and social interactions among students from different ethnic backgrounds are given priority as opposed to a change in curriculum. As mentioned earlier, Vision Schools do still adhere to the national curriculum which was designed for them based on their respective vernaculars with student interaction occurring outside of official curriculum and classroom settings.

It should be noted that although these schools are referred to as vernacular schools, they (National (Malay), Chinese and Tamil schools) are still not completely homogenous schools. There are a large number of students from different ethnic backgrounds in each school and referring to these schools as either Chinese or Tamil should not imply that there are no other ethnicities present in those schools. The terminologies were based on the ethnic majority of students attending these schools. This additional characteristic makes addressing the needs of each individual student in terms of his/her identity harder and more complicated.

IV. BASIC PRINCIPLES OF MULTIETHNIC EDUCATION SYSTEMS

There are certain academically-recognized principles in the preparation of curriculum for multiethnic education systems which should be addressed in multiethnic societies like Malaysia.

The first important principle is that ethnic and cultural diversity should be advocated in the entire school environment. The idea of celebrating, accepting, understanding and respecting different cultures and ethnicities should be well reflected not only in the subjects and the official curriculum of the school but the setting, atmosphere and climate of the school as well. It goes without saying that the unofficial curriculum of the school is as important as the official one when it comes to recognizing and equally addressing society's ethnic diversity.

To promote the understanding of ethnic diversity within the school environment, students should be able to have first-hand access to updated materials such as books, notes, audio-video resources, magazines, newspapers and the Internet which can provide accurate, reliable information for different ethnic groups on their society, beliefs, traditions, etc. This can be easily achieved through at-school libraries or media centers.

This issue was well understood by Vision Schools in Malaysia, with all five Vision Schools in the country equipped with libraries that provide relevant information to students in order to increase their level of understanding about the different ethnic groups that exist at their school and in society. These libraries contain a large range of materials such as literature, music, history, etc. from different ethnic groups.

The setting of classes, gathering halls, corridors, cafeterias and offices at schools should also reflect multiethnic and multicultural notions. Decorative spaces that are available at schools also provide an important avenue for students to deepen their comprehension of other cultures.

Although the administrative offices and classes of each Vision School are separated, all students still share many common areas such as the cafeteria, school yard and gathering halls. Bearing in mind the decorative spaces mentioned in the previous paragraph, all these common areas should be decorated with the cultural heritage and art of the different ethnic groups in the country. In a Bornean Vision School which is located in the eastern half of Malaysia, cultural signs of indigenous cultures were emphasized in compare alongside those of mainstream cultures.

Co-curricular activities occupy an important position in the manner through which they advocate and raise the awareness of students on the cultural diversity of Malaysia. For this purpose, participation of students from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds should always be promoted. Such activities can provide priceless opportunities not only for the development of the students' self-esteem, but for students from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds to learn to work and play together.

Because Vision Schools utilize the same curriculum as those used by national schools, co-curricular activities also exist as a part of their learning experience. Co-curricular activities are the most important ways to encourage students to mix together and work toward common goals. As a multicultural society, Malaysia celebrates many different cultural events from different ethnicities and cultures. These celebrations provide a unique firsthand opportunity for students to experience the cultural diversity of their society.

Vision Schools also communally celebrate certain national cultural festivals such as Hari Raya (Islamic festival marking the end of the fasting month), Diwali (Hindu festival), Chinese New Year and Malaysia's National Day by eliciting the participation of students from different backgrounds to fully comprehend national unity and promote understanding and respect for other cultures. The students participate in different activities like drawing and singing competitions, among others in order to celebrate these events together.

Activities such as mosque, temples and church visits are provided by school officials to familiarize

students with each other's cultural and traditional backgrounds.

The second important factor or principle in the multiethnic education system is the issue of school rules, regulations and policies. These rules and regulations should serve the purpose of promoting cultural understanding among different student ethnic groups.

Any school that attempts to maintain order and discipline recognizes the need for certain rules and regulations. The implementation of these rules can be challenging at some schools - especially those with diverse ethnic and religious students. This is a challenge most multiethnic schools face every day. This issue reveals the important roles that equality and fairness play in a multiethnic society and provides valuable lessons on how to ensure that the harmony and sustainability of an ethnically diverse school is maintained.

The issue of fairness in a multiethnic school is quite different from that of a school which is homogenous in nature. It is rather difficult to apply the same rule and logic to address every student's issue. Something that looks fair to one ethnic group may seem unjust to another. For this reason, the administration of a multiethnic school has to adopt a policy to attend to the needs of each ethnic group on a specific manner based on a healthy respect for their respective cultural identity and beliefs.

This concept can be translated into the school's everyday rules and regulations. School cafeterias at Vision Schools are one such example. As these schools have many Muslim students, the food sold in these cafeterias should be Halal (prepared in accordance with Islamic regulations) while at the same time respecting the Hindus, by eliminating beef from the menu.

On the other hand, discriminatory policies or regulations that are based on ethnic, religious or cultural stereotyping should be removed from schools and classrooms. Cases where the academic achievements of students were tied to stereotypical interpretations of their ethnicities have been recorded and this matter must be carefully monitored in multiethnic schools to prevent any kind of tension or discrimination.

The third important principle that must be addressed is the ethnic texture of the academic and non-academic staffs of the school. It is vital that a multiethnic school has teachers, administrators and other complementary staff from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. It is also important to note that students at the primary school level tend to view their teachers and school staff as role models. At this stage, teachers and school officials can greatly influence the molding of a student's personality and character. Such a crucial period undoubtedly validates careful observation. A multiethnic texture of teachers and officials will help the student to experience firsthand the constructive interaction among different members of society from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

As Arora (2005) mentions in her book, "A mono-ethnic schooling system within a multiethnic society can seriously decrease the level of interracial understanding, integration and sympathy among students." In order to reduce such difficulties and problems at Vision Schools, attempts have been made to choose students and administrative staff from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds in order to maintain stability and provide maximum interaction among different ethnicities at schools. At Vision Schools, teachers from different ethnicities are responsible for teaching different courses. This policy provides a trusting and positive environment for students to enjoy interethnic interactions. The role of teachers in navigating interethnic interactions via proper channels is central to this issue.

The fourth imperative principle that must be addressed in a multiethnic education system is the idea of raising awareness among students on their respective ethnic identities against the framework of society's ethnic and cultural pluralism. Curricular and co-curricular activities at schools should be designed in such a way as to help students discover their respective ethnic identity and feel positive about it.

School activities should be planned to enable students from different ethnic backgrounds to learn more about his/her ethnic history. In other words, students should be celebrated and positively encouraged for who they are. Establishing a consciously positive ethnic identity can help students form solid personalities for themselves in preparation for future life. Students should also feel safe and proud to express their ethnic identity and history. They have to be assured that in a pluralistic society, everyone would still be treated equally regardless of his/her ethnicity.

At the same time, this multiethnic education system must be made aware that the student's sense of self identity has to be defined within the framework of a pluralist society. Students should be taught that pluralism is the opposite of polarization. Students should also understand that belonging to a unique identity or ethnic background should not cause any kind of superiority or inferiority complexes in their social lives. That being said, students should nonetheless be informed on the realities of life as well. They must understand that it is possible for conflicts in society to arise from ethnic issues. Many of these issues however, can be avoided by facilitating greater understanding and respect for other cultures and ethnicities. As of such, students should be made privy to this understanding in order to minimize the occurrence of ethnic friction. They must view the harmony that exists at their schools as a sample of their larger multiethnic societies.

In order to realize these concepts, Vision Schools teach the vernacular languages of students from different ethnic backgrounds as a tool to increase student awareness of their roots and ethnic backgrounds. Language can be used as a very powerful

means by which to facilitate student awareness on their respective cultural identities. Apart from this, there are many co-curricular activities provided by Vision Schools which enables each ethnicity to celebrate its identity through avenues such as art and cultural classes. At the same time, all students regardless of ethnic background are obliged to learn Bahasa Malaysia as the country's official and national language in order to enable communication with other ethnicities and to facilitate the notion of national unity. During curricular and co-curricular activities, students are also educated on their ethnic and national heroes to ensure balance between self and national identities. Attitudes and corresponding values of living in a multiethnic society must always be promoted by the curriculum and co-curricular activities at Vision Schools.

The fifth major element that has to be considered in a multiethnic education system is the promotion of personal cross-ethnic communication among students. This is one of the most vital elements in ensuring a sustainable multiethnic society for the future. Students from different ethnic backgrounds should be educated on how to communicate with each other without the influence of religious or ethnic prejudice. Personal interactions between students should also be constantly promoted by the education system.

Close interactions such as those mentioned above will enable greater understanding between students from different ethnic backgrounds while preventing any kind of cultural and ethnic stereotyping or misunderstandings in the future. Such cross-ethnic personal interaction should be endorsed from an early age at primary schools where the basis of social identity and the student's individual personality is still under construction. Students should be knowledgeable enough to understand that ethnicity is just one of the many aspects of human life and there is so much more that we have in common with each other as opposed to our differences. Promoting common aspects among human beings can play a big role in preventing many ethnic disputes and clashes in the future.

In working toward these goals, Vision Schools encourage students to mingle during class and particularly during break time. Students from different ethnic backgrounds are encouraged to play together, to eat together at school cafeterias, participate in group games and also be involved in the decision-making processes at school such as student committee elections. Such active participation will help students have a better understanding of each other's cultures, traditions, beliefs and ways of thinking.

The above principles are some of the key factors which must be considered in every multiethnic education system. With regard to Malaysia's Vision Schools (as has been reflected in this paper), there have been tremendous efforts carried out to ensure fair and efficient education patterns (from designing these

schools to running them) in order to address the needs of each student group as espoused in the main principles of a multiethnic education system.

V. DEFICIENCIES

However, as was mentioned earlier, Vision Schools (established in 2004) are still relatively new to the Malaysian education system and therefore still have a long way to go before reaching their ideal goals. There are however, certain urgent deficiencies that must be addressed if sustainable multiethnic education systems at these schools are to be maintained.

The first important deficiency is the lack of cooperative teaching. According to Cook (2004), "Co-teaching is a service delivery model in which two (or more) educators or other certified staff, contract to share instructional responsibility, for a single group of students, primarily in a single classroom workspace, for specific content (objectives), with mutual ownership, pooled resources, and joint accountability." This style of teaching will give students the opportunity to learn subjects from different points of view (in this case different ethnic points of view) and will enable them to better comprehend social and ethnic issues.

The second deficiency to be seriously considered is the lack in special training for Vision School teachers. Although all Vision School teachers are trained in Teacher Training Centers or universities, most of these trainings focus mostly on the academic aspects of their careers. The teachers of such schools should also be specially trained on certain vital issues such as intercultural communication skills, history of different ethnic groups in society, cultural sensitivities, etc. A teacher who is well-trained on these issues can end up being very helpful in maintaining harmony among the different ethnicities at schools. Such training can be easily obtained in short term courses, programs or workshops organized by the Ministry of Education with the help of different ethnic societies and/ or associations.

The third issue which should be addressed by Vision Schools is the social background of the teacher. It is extremely important to strike a balance between the social background of the students and teachers in order to facilitate understanding between the two groups. For instance, students from society's lower-income group tend to be more sensitive to ethnic values and attitudes than those from the upper classes. These students may find the regulations and value systems of their multiethnic school to be more difficult to adapt to. This is caused primarily because of their stronger sense of belonging to their respective ethnicity and ethnic values. In such a setting, teachers who are familiar with related ideas and thinking can be of great help in maintaining the school's harmony while mitigating conflicts.

VI. CHALLENGES

Apart from the positive aspects and deficiencies of this endeavor, Vision Schools face also face certain challenges from the public sector and the community. An example of this being the case of the Tasik Permai Vision School Complex in Penang, Malaysia, whereby the Chinese school refused to join the Vision School plan due to the belief that participating in such a complex will result in the erosion of culture and identity among Chinese students. Their argument was that having different ethnicities in one school will damage the sense of ethnic patriotism and in the long run produce students that are apt to forget their roots and culture. This is the reason as to why the Tasik Permai Vision School Complex consists of just one National School (Malay) and one National Tamil (Indian) School.

In another incident, there were complaints from the parents of some of the Muslim students at Vision Schools who did not agree with a number of cross-cultural activities carried out at the schools. They argued that an intercultural activity such as visiting a Hindu or Chinese temple and introducing other religions and traditions to Muslim students is no different from proselytizing.

However, a study on the social background of these parents revealed that they tend to belong to rural parts of society and that this problem would be easier handled had the school involved the participation of teachers or staff from surrounding rural areas. On the other hand, the role of local communities and their constructive relationship with Vision Schools should not be underestimated. Local communities with different ethnic backgrounds have key roles to play in managing such conflicts between the public and Vision Schools.

VII. CONCLUSION

The idea of Vision Schools was introduced to the Malaysian Education System in order to increase and promote a sense of understanding and respect among students from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. The long term goal of this endeavor is to educate and inculcate students with a deeper degree of respect toward one another and members of society who are ethnically and culturally distinct from them. Although Vision Schools follow the National Curriculum with regard to academic syllabus, what differentiates them from other schools is their multiethnic environment. This environment gives students the unique opportunity to foster a sense of solidarity with other ethnicities through special co-curricular activities. To be certain, there are always deficiencies and challenges ahead of any endeavor. It is also important to note however, that over time, most of them can be solved through careful planning and evaluation.

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Preliminary Study on Pre-Class Speaking In Chinese Korean Education

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Abstract - In the process of learning a foreign language, it is necessary to have adequate opportunities to use the foreign language in order to master the language skills, especially the oral expression skills. In order to provide more opportunities for Chinese students when teaching them Korean, the method of pre-class speaking is put into practice, the objective is to encourage the students to have the confidence and interest in their study, and also to offer a platform of exchanging the information and enhance their presentation skills in Korean. The instructors using the method need to understand the relevance knowhow of public speaking education and to know the processes of public speaking education. In addition to drawing on the best teaching practices, instructors also need continuous support for professional and instructional development in the new teaching area.

Keywords : pre-class speaking, public speaking, Korean education, output, effect analysis.

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Preliminary Study on Pre-Class Speaking In Chinese Korean Education

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Abstract - In the process of learning a foreign language, it is necessary to have adequate opportunities to use the foreign language in order to master the language skills, especially the oral expression skills. In order to provide more opportunities for Chinese students when teaching them Korean, the method of pre-class speaking is put into practice, the objective is to encourage the students to have the confidence and interest in their study, and also to offer a platform of exchanging the information and enhance their presentation skills in Korean. The instructors using the method need to understand the relevance knowhow of public speaking education and to know the processes of public speaking education. In addition to drawing on the best teaching practices, instructors also need continuous support for professional and instructional development in the new teaching area.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Listening, speaking, reading, writing, translating and other language skills is an interrelated unity of studying a foreign language. The target of teaching a foreign language is to develop the students' comprehensive skills which are mentioned above. In the procedure of teaching Korean in China's university, an phenomenon can be found easily, that is, many of the students can not understand what they hear in Korean, but can understand easily when reading it. And the most difficult thing for them is to speak in Korean. Because there is a change process of verbal form. However, if students are able to speak something in Korean, they can get the meaning without any difficulties when reading it due to the omission of the process of mental translation, as mentioned by Meimei, Chen(2004, P27), and also can write it down correctly in Korean.

When learning a foreign language, it is necessary to have adequate opportunities to use the foreign language in order to improve the language skills, especially the oral expression skills. During the process of teaching Korean, or the communication with Korean scholars and friends, the author find that at present the majority of Korean learners are pretty good at Korean listening, reading and writing, but there are some problems in their speaking ability of Korean, in particular, to speak Korean accurately and fluently. And

the lack of speaking ability will also largely affect the quality of translation in the future. Currently, most Korean students are studying hard to prepare for the middle and senior levels of the Korean Language Proficiency Test. It costs them a lot of time and efforts to prepare, but very few students take the time to practice their oral expression. Most of the students rely mainly on classroom teaching to practice speaking, only a small number of students looking for the opportunities to practice speaking Korean after-school.

On the other hand, there are various speech contests for the students of Korean department every year in China. At the time of recommending students to participate in the competition, the author felt that the training of normal oral presentation skills is very necessary. According to the investigation for the graduates of Korean department of our university, it is also found that most of them were not hired when they went to look for a job, because their Korean were not fluent or they lack of immediate response at the interview. It also made the author recognize how important for the students of Korean department to improve their listening and speaking abilities in practice. In order to provide more opportunities for students, the method of pre-class speaking is put into practice, and it plays a good role in stimulating the students' enthusiasm and achieving the teaching objectives.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF PRE-CLASS SPEAKING

The traditional foreign language teaching model focuses on the correct form of language. The comprehensive teaching theory of Wilkins (1976) stressed that the teaching activities must surround with the language form of lessons. First, teachers explain the vocabulary, grammar, sentence patterns and other knowledge-points which appear in the text, and then organize the students to practice them, so as to learn and consolidate the knowledge of the foreign language. But this method would isolate the point of linguistic knowledge so that the students are often unable to quickly grasp the new language points and grammatical form, even the simple language forms. The students can master the language forms only through a long time of practicing to match the form and language function well.

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Since the above language teaching methods can not lead to the expected learning effects, teachers should change the approach to provide students with sufficient "comprehensible language input", and encourage students to open their mouth without too much emphasis on the accuracy of language form, but focused on the significance of communication instead (focus on meaning, Krashen 1985; Felix 1981), to complete the transmission of information without thinking of the language errors. Teachers can also adjust the student's language input according to their language levels at any time, so as to achieve the aim of not only learning the correct form of language, but also a successful communication.

Success Communication depends on the quality of oral expression to a large extent. When the learner fails to communicate with others, they will force themselves to express more precisely, more coherently, and more elegantly in foreign language. Swain (1985) pointed that output is a process which leads the learners from the semantic to the syntactic process. Output in practice will force the speaker to pay more attention to expressing exactly in order to achieve comprehensible output. Comprehensible output refers to the result that the speaker not only conveys information, but also conveys in an accurate, consistent and decent way. Studies of Gass & Selinker (2001) showed that comprehensible output plays four specific roles for the output of syntax and morphology, namely: Testing hypothesis, Feedback, Automaticity, and Move from semantic processing to syntactic process.

The above function and importance of output play a more active role for learners, and enable learners to organize language in a high way and also facilitate learners to complete the transition from the state of uncertain understanding with a semantic strategy to the state of using grammar exactly. The whole process of output will be a process of combining language form, meaning and function. And it is a crucial part in learning a language. Learners need to consider which form can express what they think rightly.

In fact public speaking is an output with high demand. It requires students to conduct extensive reading firstly, then choose the topic which they are interested to speak, and use relevant knowledge of the language points to express in a specific period of time, also be accurate, fluent, and decency. The final stage is Q&A. It not only checked the students' listening ability, but also trained their adaptability. Teacher can instruct the students to answer the questions in a simple, targeted way. Public speaking links all aspects of the process of learning language together, including the choice of words, connecting the sentence, the complexity of sentences and so on. It is a relatively effective way to improve the speaker's presentation ability and language skills.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND CONCRETE IMPLEMENTATION OF PRE-CLASS SPEAKING

In a real lecture, the author uses the method of public speaking. Before the lecture students are allowed to read a large number of extra-curricular readings, and to find an interesting article or topic. When it is the turn to make the pre-class speaking, the student needs to finish a speech at a specified time (usually 3 minutes for speech , 1-2 minutes for answering the question). For example, the student can describe a person whom he likes or introduce a book or a good movie, and answer the other students' questions after finishing his speech. And finally the teacher should sum up and note the deficiencies of the public speaking.

The public speaking referred in this article is implemented in the specialized courses of Korean department at the Oriental Language and Culture Institute of Qufu Normal University. In the first semester, the freshman is still in the stage of learning Korean, and is busy in mastering the pronunciation and simple dialogue. For them, public speaking in Korean will lead the majority of students to have a similar speech, and the listeners are easily bored with that kind of speech. Sophomore students have relatively adapted to learning the Korean language, but they also need to develop a sense of language. Junior and senior students can already speak daily Korean fluently, but there are some problems appeared when they want to express their thought in Korean accurately more or less. So, the author presents different requirements of pre-class speaking for different grades of students.

Specifically speaking, in the first semester freshmen's public speaking can be done in Chinese or mixed with English, each student can have five minutes to do their public speaking at the beginning of every lecture (two hours). As a sample of Grade 08 (include 30 students) which the author taught, each student got two chances to do the pre-class speaking per semester. The author instructed the other students to note when listening to the speaker, so does the teacher. Thus the teacher can correct the errors within 3-5 minutes after the speech according to the note that he made just now, and guide the other students to pose questions on the topic that he listened to. It can not only improve their presentation skills, but also make up their own shortcomings and correct errors and mistakes occurred in their speech. It can also train the other students' listening and deepen their emotional communication.

From the second semester, students are demanded to speak in only Korean with an easily understanding content and a reasonable structure. The speaker needs to express clearly, answer questions simply, logically, and to leave a deep impression and useful inspiration to the others.

Considering that most of junior and senior students are busy in preparing for the Graduate Test and looking for a job, and some students do not really like to do a pre-class speaking, so when the author arranged the speaking task for them, the author asked them to give me a name list who really wanted to make the speech at the first class each semester. At this stage public speaking is carried out one student per week in turn. Due to the long time preparation, the student is demanded to have an in-depth conversation on a particular topic without the problems such as loose content, long pause, repetition, and inconsistency and so on. The aim of public speaking for them is to train them to have continuous speech ability.

The aim of Korean language teaching is to improve the student's comprehensive ability, especially the oral expression ability. The method of public speaking has a significant effect on improving the oral expression skills of students. Generally speaking, public speaking needs three stages. Firstly, the speaker needs to prepare a topic carefully. The selected topic should be innovative and attract the other students, with the professional knowledge, combining current events, such as the world economic crisis, South Korea (North Korea) economic, political, social, cultural and other aspects; Secondly, the speaker needs to elaborate the selected topic with a reasonable structure, a clear and concise language and so on; Thirdly, the speaker needs to answer the others' questions in a strongly logic way. For the speaker, the above three aspects are the challenges of knowledge, logical thinking, and language skills. And from the point of view of the learning process, public speaking is a good way to train and improve students' language skills.

IV. EFFECT ANALYSIS OF PRE-CLASS SPEAKING

After the implementation of public speaking for two years, the author made an investigation to analyze the effect of the method.

Respondents of the Survey: Grade 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010 of Korean Department, Qufu Normal University

Number of questionnaires issued: 196

Number of questionnaires recovered: 162

Questionnaire: It contains 10 questions including the investigation of its effect on language learning, personal abilities, such as whether it is helpful to the expansion of knowledge. Each question has four answers. It has great help, much help, less help and no help separately. Respondents were asked to only choose one answer. Specific survey content please see the following table.

Results analysis : survey results according to the questionnaires recovered.

Table : Questionnaire and the survey result

Questions	Great Help	Much Help	Less Help	No Help
1.~Public Speaking before Class has for increasing your Korean Vocabulary.	30	91	42	2
2.~for expanding your knowledge.	52	58	47	5
3.~for increasing your sense of Korean language.	60	61	38	3
4.~for increasing confidence to express in Korean.	92	52	18	
5.~for improving your writing ability in Korean.	39	87	34	2
6.~for improving your listening ability in Korean.	48	64	50	
7.~for increasing self-confidence to take part in a Competition.	102	50	10	
8.~for recognizing the grammar errors.	38	80	40	4
9.~for improving your response ability during the stage of Q&A.	68	60	25	9
10.~How do you like the method of Public Speaking before class?	Like it very much. 38	Like it moderately. 91	Don't care much for it. 18	Don't like it. 15

By analyzing the survey results, we can see that the method of public speaking has great or much help for enhancing the students' self-confidence. When the students select the answer of this question, 152 students chose the two kinds of answer mentioned above, which accounted for 94% and it is a very good sign. It is impossible to be success or create miracles with confidence. And self-confidence is very important for foreign language learners, especially self-confidence can bring positive effects on a speech contest. It can not be ignored. Of course, one speech will not be a successful speech only with the confidence while without the good language skills.

Then what is the effect of the public speaking method on language learning? The questionnaire results show that the method can increase the students' Korean vocabulary and the sense of Korean language. Also it is helpful to improve the students' writing skills, listening ability and cognitive ability of grammatical errors. There were 121,121,126,112,118 students separately who chose the answer of great help and more help when they were asked about above-mentioned questions. On the specific point of view, 75% students felt that the public speaking method can increase their Korean

vocabulary. As we know, vocabulary relies on not only the recite but also the practice. Only when the vocabulary is enriched, listening, speaking and translation will be the simple things relatively.

With regard to the writing ability and hearing capability, on one hand, 126 and 112 students think that there are of great help and much help, accounting for 78% and 69% respectively. On the other hand, 34 (accounting for 20%) and 50 (accounting for 30%) students felt there is no obvious help for their Korean study. It reflects the method has indirect effects on improving the Korean listening and writing ability. It also shows the method can play a positive role when creating a sense of language, cognitive syntax errors.

On the improvement of response capability, there are 68 students (accounting for 42%) considering it has great help, 60 students (accounting for 37%) considering that it has much help, 25 students (accounting for 15%) felt it has no obviously help, and 9 student (accounting for 5%) think that there is no help. In addition, 110 students (accounting for 68%) felt that public speaking method is helpful to broaden their knowledge. There are 129 students (accounting for 80%) who are very fond of this method, and 113 students (accounting for 70%) felt that they used Korean thinking method when they stood on the stage.

Generally speaking, the survey showed that the students' evaluation on pre-class speaking method is positive. Students enjoy and participate in this activity actively. It is also an important step to develop their language skills by communicating with the target language. It also can be seen through the survey that the public speaking can broaden students' knowledge, enhance their confidence, promote the Korean language learning and can improve their oral expression.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the pre-class speaking method, students' reading ability, listening and speaking ability in Korean have been improved to a large degree. And it increased their interests of studying Korean. It also can put the knowledge which they learned from the textbook into practice. For the teacher, it is easier to achieve teaching purpose effectively, and also helpful to communicate with the students who he taught. But in the actual engagements, we should emphasize the dominant position of students, activate the communication between teachers and students and the interaction between students. It also need to encourage students to innovate and do not let the activity become a mere formality. In short, the ability of oral Korean will not be improved in a short period, and need a long-term exercise properly. Only if the teacher try to practice and explore consciously, the students' Korean ability and integrated language ability will be improved.

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Extension Agents' Perception of the Information Needs Of Women Farmers in Oyo State, Nigeria

By Adeola, R. G., Ayoade, A. R.

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Abstract - The study was carried out to examine the extension agents' perceptions of the information needs of women farmers in Oyo State, Nigeria. Data were obtained from 84 extension agents in the Oyo state Agricultural Development Programme. Simple random sampling technique was employed in the selection of 84 extension agents in the state while structured interview schedule was adopted in the collection of information from the sampled respondents. Data collected were analyzed using frequency distribution, percentage and chi-square as analytical tool. The mean age is 38 years. The agents are of various educational backgrounds, while majority (44 %) of them holds B.Sc. degrees and they specialized in different fields of agriculture. The agents indicate different levels of information needs of women farmers in the study area. Areas of information needs of women farmers as perceived by the agents include soil fertility management, how to increase productivity, use of machine farm implements, record keepings and loan acquisition, keeping family safe, household maintenance, controlling pests, and education on hygienic conditions. The agents also indicated different levels of agreement about the differences between the information needs of women farmers and their men counterparts. Socio- economic characteristics of the agents significantly ($P \leq 0.01$) influenced their perceptions of women information needs. The study concludes that the extension agents have developed in-depth knowledge of the information needs of women farmers and their perceptions are mostly shaped by their direct experience with women farmers. Therefore, extension agents' contributions toward the designing of relevant and appropriate programmes for women farmers should be encouraged by the extension administrators.

Keywords : *pre-class speaking, public speaking, Korean education, output, effect analysis.*

GJHSS-C Classification : *FOR Code: 070106, 130302*



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Extension Agents' Perception of the Information Needs Of Women Farmers in Oyo State, Nigeria

Adeola, R. G.^α, Ayoade, A. R.^Ω

Abstract - The study was carried out to examine the extension agents' perceptions of the information needs of women farmers in Oyo State, Nigeria. Data were obtained from 84 extension agents in the Oyo state Agricultural Development Programme. Simple random sampling technique was employed in the selection of 84 extension agents in the state while structured interview schedule was adopted in the collection of information from the sampled respondents. Data collected were analyzed using frequency distribution, percentage and chi-square as analytical tool. The mean age is 38 years. The agents are of various educational backgrounds, while majority (44 %) of them holds B.Sc. degrees and they specialized in different fields of agriculture. The agents indicate different levels of information needs of women farmers in the study area. Areas of information needs of women farmers as perceived by the agents include soil fertility management, how to increase productivity, use of machine farm implements, record keepings and loan acquisition, keeping family safe, household maintenance, controlling pests, and education on hygienic conditions. The agents also indicated different levels of agreement about the differences between the information needs of women farmers and their men counterparts. Socio- economic characteristics of the agents significantly ($P \leq 0.01$) influenced their perceptions of women information needs. The study concludes that the extension agents have developed in-depth knowledge of the information needs of women farmers and their perceptions are mostly shaped by their direct experience with women farmers. Therefore, extension agents' contributions toward the designing of relevant and appropriate programmes for women farmers should be encouraged by the extension administrators.

I. INTRODUCTION

Women contributions to agriculture right from creation cannot be overemphasized and they actually constitute the bulk of the world's food producers. However, despite rural women active involvements in food processing and marketing, they do not have access to scientific and technological information. Therefore, for consistent growth in agricultural production, it is very important to equip rural women farmers with relevant and timely information to improve their production techniques and increase their income (Salilaja and Reddy 2003 and (Goldey *et al.* 2001). These women lack agricultural extension services support hence, having no agricultural

information sources related to crops and livestock production, inadequate technical competency and exposure to outer world (Olowu and Yahaya, 1998; Percy, 1998;) In most developing countries, rural women form the mainstay of small-scale agriculture, the farm labour force and day-to-day family subsistence and yet are faced with a number of constraints.

Women farmers have inadequate access to extension services due to their engagement in both on and off farm that make them have less time to enjoy the offered extension services (Obinne, 1995). Similarly, Protz (1997) conceived that due to the multiple roles of women in the rural household tasks, they do not fully benefit from extension services, especially, when the time of delivery (of extension service) conflicts with their other household responsibilities. FAO (1998), also posited that rural women are loaded with domestic tasks and family obligations and controlled by social restraints such that they are constrained time-wise to be away from home to attend to extension training programmes.

Many studies in the recent past have identified unique information needs of women farmers. However there has been limited research on the specific extension programme that will effectively meet the need of women farmers. This study intends to understand the extension agent's knowledge of the experiences of women and the extent to which this agent perceive the needs of women farmers. The specific objectives of the study are to: identify the personal characteristics of the extension agent in the study area; examine the information needs of women farmers as perceived by the extension agents and investigate factors that influence the perception of the ext agents. Relationships between extension agents' socio-economic characteristics and their perceptions of information needs of women farmers were also examined.

II. METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Oyo State. The State has a gentle lowland topography in the South rising to a plateau of 40 meters and above in the North. The vegetation pattern of the state is that of rain forest in the South and guinea savannah to the North. The climate is equatorial, notably with dry and wet seasons with relatively high humidity. Based on prevailing climate and soil characteristics, the following crops are cultivated: maize, cassava, yam, sorghum, vegetable, cowpea and tree crops such as cocoa, oil palm, cola

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nut, coffee and citrus. In addition, some people rear livestock such as goat, poultry and swine. Oyo State is made up of thirty-three Local Government Area and divided into four Agricultural zones by the Oyo State Agricultural Development Programme (OYSADEP) namely: Ibadan/Ibarapa, Oyo and Ogbomosho Agricultural zones. All the extension agents in Oyo State ADP form the target population for this study.

There are 170 extension agents in the Oyo state ADP with Ibadan/ibarapa zone having 56 extension agents while saki zone has 42 extension agent, oyo zone has 40 extension agents and Ogbomoso has 32 extension agents. For the purpose of this study 50% of extension agents were randomly selected from the list of the extension agents in each zone to arrive at a total number of 85 extension agents that constituted the sample size (Table 1). Data were collected through the use of structured questionnaire whose content comprised open and closed ended questions. However, eighty four copies of the questionnaires were returned for the analysis. Perception of the information needs of women farmers was measured in terms of asking the extension agent to describe women farmer's information need based on their experiences. Descriptive analysis such as frequency counts, percentages and the means were used to describe and chi-square was used to test the hypothesis.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study indicates that majority (34.5%) were within the age range of 32 – 36 years with a mean age of 38 years. This implies that majority of the respondents are young and active and this is likely to positively influence their performance on the field. A larger percentage (64.3%) of the extension agents were males while only 35.7% were females. This is an indication that ADP extension service is still dominated by men and this corroborates the observation of Jiggins *et al*, (1998) that extension services have been staffed predominantly by men. The educational status of the extension agents sampled for the study showed that 22.6% of them held Masters degree (M. Sc.) in various fields of agricultural sciences while 44% of them held Bachelor of Science (B.Sc) degrees and 26.2% held Higher National Diploma (HND) certificates. About 6% of the extension agents were holders of Ordinary national Diploma (OND) certificates. Crop production was the area where 29.8% of the respondents specialized while, 20.2% had livestock as their areas of specialization and 17.9% and 26.2% specialized in agricultural extension and agricultural economics. Only 6% of them specialized in environmental and crop protection. This phenomenon suggests that different areas of specialization will assist their organization to effectively practice its unified system of extension. Majority (97.6%) of the respondents perceived that women need information on how to increase their productivity while, soil fertility management is the area where 80.9% of them perceived that women need information. Other areas where the

extension agents perceived that women need information included controlling pests, record keeping, keeping family safe, use of machine and farm implements, education on farm hygienic conditions and loan acquisition. Only 3.6% of the agents perceived that women do not need information on household maintenance (Table 2).

Results in table 3 show that 42.9% of the extension agents agreed that needs of women farmers are the same as men's while, 45.6% of them disagreed with the statement. However majority (66.7%) of the agents agreed that needs of women farmers are somewhat different and 9.5% disagreed with the statement. About 70% of the extension agents also agreed that learning style of women farmers are very different and 20% disagreed with the statement. It was also agreed that learning environment of women farmers should be different from that of men by 41.7% of the agents and 46.4% disagreed with such statement.

Demographic characteristics of the extension agents significantly influenced their perception of women information needs. The significant influence of age ($\chi^2 = 66.592, P \leq 0.01$) suggests that older extension agents are likely to be more experienced and had interactions with more women are likely to understand needs of women farmers than their younger counterparts. Sex also had a significant ($\chi^2 = 6.857, P \leq 0.01$) influence on extension agents' perception of women needs. This may be due to the fact that extension services in the study area is male dominated and female agents are likely to understand the needs of women farmers better. The significant ($\chi^2 = 49.333, P \leq 0.01$) influence of education on extension agents' perception of information needs of women farmers suggests that agents with higher education are likely to be more knowledgeable to ascertain the information needs of women farmers. Area of specialisation had significant ($\chi^2 = 14.095, P \leq 0.01$) relationship with extension agents' perception. This is an indication that different areas of specialization of extension agents are likely to result into different opinions about women's information needs.

IV. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study reveal that extension agents in Oyo state have developed great depth of understanding the information needs of women farmers. Perceptions of extension agents regarding women farmers' information needs are mostly shaped by their direct experience with women farmers. The study therefore recommends that relevant agencies should create opportunity for extension agents to interact with women farmers in educational and professional settings. This interaction opportunity will assist the extension agents in making their contribution toward the development of relevant and appropriate programmes that will meet the needs of women farmers.

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Table 1 : Sample Selection of Respondents

Zone	No of extension agents	Number selected
Ibadan/Ibarapa	56	28
Saki	42	21
Oyo	40	20
Ogbomosho	32	16
Total	170	85

Table 2 : Distribution of Respondents According to Personal Characteristics n = 128

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age range (Years)		
27 – 31	12	14.3
32 -36	29	34.5
37 – 41	19	22.7
42 – 46	16	19.0
> 46	8	9.5
Total	84	100
Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	54	64.3
Female	30	35.7
Total	84	100
Educational level	Frequency	Percentage
M Sc.	19	22.6
B. Sc.	37	44.0
HND	22	26.2
OND	5	6.0
NCE	1	1.2
Total	84	100
Area of specialization	Frequency	Percentage
Crops	25	29.8
Livestock	17	20.2
Agric. Economics	15	17.9
Agric Extension	22	26.2
Environmental Management & Protection	5	6.0
Total	84	100

Source : Field survey 2010

Table 3 : Distribution of respondents according to their perception of information needs of women farmers n=84

Area of Needs	Fairly Needed	Needed	Very Needed	Not Needed
Increasing productivity	2(2.4)	65 (77.4)	17(20.2)	-
Soil fertility management	16(19.0)	40(47.6)	28(33.3)	-
Controlling pests	17(20.2)	48(57.1)	19(22.6)	-
Record keeping	15(17.9)	51(60.7)	18(21.4)	
Household maintenance	20(23.8)	42(50.0)	19(22.6)	3(3.6)
Keeping family safe	16(19.0)	46(54.8)	22(26.2)	-
Use of machine and farm implements	12(14.3)	53(63.10)	19(22.6)	
Education on hygienic conditions	9(10.7)	51(60.7)	24(28.6)	
Loan acquisition	8(9.5)	45(53.6)	30(35.7)	

Source : Field survey 2010

Figures in parentheses are in percentage

Table 4 : Distribution of respondents by their views of differences in information needs of women farmers n=84

Extent of differences	Agree	Indifference	Disagree
Needs of women are same as men	36(42.9)	10(11.9)	38(45.6)
Needs of women Are somewhat different	5(6.7)	20(23.8)	8(9.5)
Learning style of Women farmers are very different	59(70.2)	8(9.5)	17(20.2)
Learning environment of women farmers should be different from that of men	35(41.7)	10(11.9)	39(46.4)
Never really considered	15(17.9)	39(46.4)	30(35.7)

Source : Field survey 2010

Figures in parentheses are in percentage

Table 5 : Chi-Square analysis of relationship between extension agents' perception of information needs of women farmers and agents socio-economic characteristics.

Variables	X ² -value	Df	P – value	Decision
Age	66.592	22	0.00	Significant
Sex	6.857	1	0.00	Significant
Education	49.333	4	0.00	Significant
Area of specialization	14.095	4	0.07	Significant

Source : Field survey 2010



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A Theoretical Approach to the Strength of Motivation in Customer Behavior

By Dr. Yakup Durmaz, Ibrahim Diyarbakırlıođlu

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Abstract - The aim of marketing is to meet and satisfy target customers' needs and wants. The field of consumer behavior studies how individuals, groups, and organizations select, buy, use, and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires. Understanding consumer behavior is never simple, because customers' behaviors are changeable. They may not be in touch with their deeper motivations, and they may respond to influences and change their minds at the last minute. All marketers can profit from understanding how and why consumers buy. If you do not understand your customer's motivations, needs, and preferences you will fall into some major mistakes. The need to predict consumer behavior outcomes is considered to be a very important issue for marketers. Isolated individual psychological constructs such as attitudes, motives, personality traits and learning styles have been used to identify their predictive capacity for actual consumer behavior with varying degrees of success. In this study, the strength of motivation in customer behavior was investigated in a theoretic manner.

Keywords : *Costumer, Consumer, Consumer Behavior, Customer Behavior, Motivation, Motive.*

GJHSS-B Classification : *FOR Code: 130302, 150501*



A THEORETICAL APPROACH TO THE STRENGTH OF MOTIVATION IN CUSTOMER BEHAVIOR

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Dr. Yakup Durmaz^a, Ibrahim Diyarbakırlıoğlu^b

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The need to predict consumer behavior outcomes is considered to be a very important issue for marketers. Isolated individual psychological constructs such as attitudes, motives, personality traits and learning styles have been used to identify their predictive capacity for actual consumer behavior with varying degrees of success.

In this study, the strength of motivation in customer behavior was investigated in a theoretic manner.

Keywords : Costumer, Consumer, Consumer Behavior, Customer Behavior, Motivation, Motive.

I. INTRODUCTION

It was during the 1950s, that marketing concept developed, and thus the need to study the behavior of consumers was recognized. Marketing starts with the needs of the customer and ends with his satisfaction. When everything revolves round the customer, then the study of consumer behavior becomes a necessity. Since consumer is a human, before we start to understand consumer behavior, we should determine human behavior. Human needs – consumer needs – are the basis of all modern marketing. Needs are the essence of the marketing concept. The key to a company's survival, profitability & growth in a highly competitive market place is its ability to identify & satisfy unfulfilled consumer needs better & sooner than the competition. The forces that drive human to buy and use products are generally straightforward, as when a person chooses what to have for lunch. As hard-core vegans demonstrate, however, even the consumption of basic food products may also be related to wide-ranging beliefs regarding what is appropriate or desirable. Among the more general population there are strong

beliefs about genetically modified foods, which have proved difficult to alter via information campaigns. In some cases, these emotional responses create a deep commitment to the product. Sometimes people are not even fully aware of the forces that drive them towards some products and away from others. Often a person's values – his or her priorities and beliefs about the world – influence these choices.

To understand motivation is to understand why consumers do what they do. Why do some people choose to bungee jump off a bridge or go white-water rafting, whereas others spend their leisure time playing chess or gardening? Whether to quench a thirst kill boredom, or to attain some deep spiritual experience, we do everything for a reason, even if we can't articulate what that reason is (Solomon et al, 2006). In recent years, in a growing number of fields, both basic and applied, there has been a great deal of interest in the influence of affect on thinking, problem solving, and decision making. Consumer behavior, like other human endeavors, is unmistakably goal-directed (Haugtved et al, 2008).

II. MOTIVATION CONCEPTS

The term motivation appears to have first crept into psychologists' vocabularies in the early 1880s. Prior to that date, the more amorphous concept of the will was used by philosophers and social theorists when they discussed the antecedents and features of effortful, directed, and motivated human behavior. Early functionalist philosophers and psychologists adopted the term motivation usually in reference to voluntary action behaviors that show direction (Forgas et al, 2005). According to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, a motive is "something (a need or desire) that causes a person to act." Motivate, In turn, means "to provide with a motive," and motivation is defined as "the act or process of motivating." Thus, motivation is the act or process of providing a motive that causes a person to take some action. In most cases motivation comes from some need that leads to behavior that results in some type of reward when the need is fulfilled (Shanks, 2011).

The term motivation can be used in different ways, but in essence it refers to any sort of general drive or inclination to do something (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). Motivation is the driving force within individuals that impels them to action. It is defined as the stimulation of any emotion or desire operating upon

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one's will and prompting or driving it to action. Motivation is also the driving force by which we achieve our goals. According to various theories, motivation may be rooted in a basic need to minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure, or it may include specific needs such as eating and resting, or a desired object, goal, state of being, ideal, or it may be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism, selfishness, morality, or avoiding mortality. Conceptually, motivation should not be confused with either volition or optimism (Seligman, 1990). Motivation is said to be intrinsic or extrinsic. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Motivation>, 3.05.2011).

A person has many needs at any given time. Some needs are biogenic; they arise from physiological states of tension such as hunger, thirst, discomfort. Other needs are psychogenic; they arise from psychological states of tension such as the need for recognition, esteem, or belonging. A need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity. A motive is a need that is sufficiently pressing to drive the person to act (Kotler, 2002).

a) *Intrinsic Motivation*

Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that comes from inside an individual rather than from any external or outside rewards, such as money or grades. Motivation, meanwhile, is identified as "an inner drive that reflects goal-oriented arousal" (Montgomery, http://www.saycocorporativo.com/saycoUK/BIJ/journal/Vol1No1/case_3.pdf, 30.05.2011). The motivation comes from the pleasure one gets from the task itself or from the sense of satisfaction in completing or even working on a task. An intrinsically motivated person will work on a math equation, for example, because it is enjoyable. Or an intrinsically motivated person will work on a solution to a problem because the challenge of finding a solution provides a sense of pleasure. In neither case does the person work on the task because there is some reward involved, such as a prize, a payment, or in the case of students, a grade. Intrinsic motivation does not mean, however, that a person will not seek rewards. It just means that such external rewards are not enough to keep a person motivated. An intrinsically motivated student, for example, may want to get a good grade on an assignment, but if the assignment does not interest that student, the possibility of a good grade is not enough to maintain that student's motivation to put any effort into the project (Bainbridge, <http://giftedkids.about.com/od/glossary/g/intrinsic.htm>, 23.05.2011). A motive is an internal energizing force that orients a person's activities toward satisfying needs or achieving goals (Pride and Ferrell, 2000).

b) *Extrinsic Motivation*

Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards like money and grades, coercion and threat of punishment. Competition is in general extrinsic because it encourages the performer to win and beat others, not

to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A crowd cheering on the individual and trophies are also extrinsic incentives.

Social psychological research has indicated that extrinsic rewards can lead to over justification and a subsequent reduction in intrinsic motivation. In one study demonstrating this effect, children who expected to be (and were) rewarded with a ribbon and a gold star for drawing pictures spent less time playing with the drawing materials in subsequent observations than children who were assigned to an unexpected reward condition and to children who received no extrinsic reward (Lepper et al., 1973).

Self-determination theory proposes that extrinsic motivation can be internalized by the individual if the task fits with their values and beliefs and therefore helps to fulfill their basic psychological needs.

III. THE MOTIVATION PROCESS

Motivation refers to the processes that cause people to behave as they do. From a psychological perspective motivation occurs when a need is aroused that the consumer wishes to satisfy. Motives drive purchases and all other human behavior (except reflexes) (Mcneal, 2007). The result of motivation will arise by convincing the consumer to purchase the firm products from a specific retailer (Abdallat and Emam, <http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/73944/DocLib/Consumer%20Behavior%20Models%20and%20Consumer%20Behavior%20in%20Tourism.PDF>, 23.05.2011). Once a need has been activated, a state of tension exists that drives the consumer to attempt to reduce or eliminate the need. A major part of the motivation component is the individual's goal structure. The individual goals then, provide the motivation to seek out and purchase a product that will meet the consumer's need. In other words, the goal of purchasing is to satisfy a need, and the satisfaction of that need provides the motivation behind the shopping activity of the consumer. These personal and cultural factors combine to create a want, which is one manifestation of a need. For example, hunger is a basic need that must be satisfied by all; the lack of food creates a tension state that can be reduced by the intake of such products as paella, pizzas, spaghetti, chocolate biscuits, raw fish or bean sprouts. The specific route to drive reduction is culturally and individually determined. Once the goal is attained, tension is reduced and the motivation recedes (for the time being). Motivation can be described in terms of its strength, or the pull it exerts on the consumer, and its direction, or the particular way the consumer attempts to reduce motivational tension (Bettman, 1979).

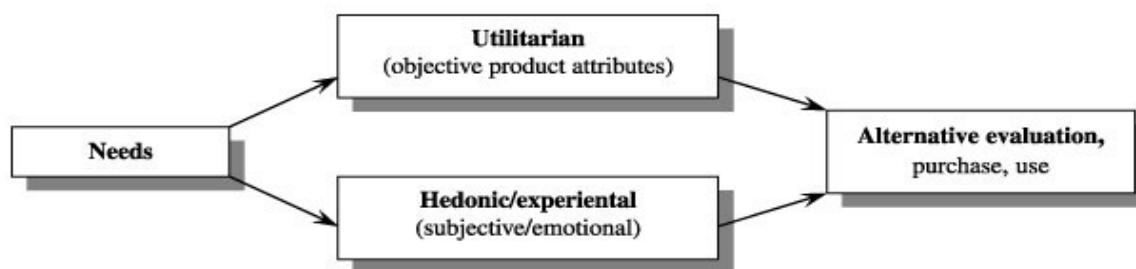
Once motivation is present, and reaches a sufficient level to warrant further activity, the consumer moves into the attention phase of the process. During the attention phase, the consumer will direct their attention to information or stimuli that is relevant to the given goal or motivation that they are currently attending to. For example, if an individual is motivated to buy a

car, then they will focus their attention on gathering information about cars or focus on car related advertising that they might otherwise ignore. This shift in activity, from simply attending to a stimulus in the environment to actively seeking information, moves the consumer from the attention phase to the information acquisition phase. This need may be utilitarian (a desire to achieve some functional or practical benefit, as when a person eats green vegetables for nutritional reasons) or it may be hedonic (an experiential need, involving emotional responses or fantasies, as when Jez thinks longingly about a juicy steak). The distinction between the two is, however, a matter of degree. The desired end-state is the consumer's goal. Marketers try to create products and services that will provide the desired benefits and permit the consumer to reduce this tension.

Whether the need is utilitarian or hedonic, a discrepancy exists between the consumer's present state and some ideal state. This gulf creates a state of tension. The magnitude of this tension determines the urgency the consumer feels to reduce the tension. This degree of arousal is called a drive. A basic need can be satisfied in any number of ways, and the specific path a person chooses is influenced both by his or her unique set of experiences and by the values instilled by cultural, religious, ethnic or national background (Solomon et al., 2006).

Activated need ultimately becomes expressed in buying behavior and consumption in the form of two types of expected benefits illustrated in Figure 1. (see Figure 1).

Figure 1 : (<http://herkules oulu.fi/isbn9514259378/html/x728.html>, 20.05.2011)



a) Utilitarian Benefits

They are objective, functional product attributes (Engel et al., 1990). Utilitarian benefits are defined as those pertaining to instrumental and functional benefits that are closer to necessities than luxuries. In the context of cell phones, for example, the phone's battery life and network coverage are utilitarian benefits (Chitturi, 2009).

b) Hedonic (Experiential) Benefits

They encompass emotional responses, sensory pleasures, daydreams and esthetic considerations (Hirschman et al., 1982). Hedonic benefits are defined as those pertaining to aesthetic and experiential benefits that are often labeled as luxuries. In the context of cell phones, aesthetic appeal from its shape and color are hedonic benefits (Chitturi, 2009).

IV. THEORIES OF HUMAN MOTIVATION

a) Freud's Theory

Freud never used the term 'Instinct' to characterize human motivation despite continued misrepresentations and commentaries that claim otherwise. Instead he describes the process by which unconsciously enlisted variants emanate from their immediate, embodied sentient nature and evolve in both form and content to produce a robustly complex and over determined system of human development and social motivation. Freud's drive theory therefore remains the paragon for potentially explaining all facets of

intrapsychic and interpersonal phenomena, from the most base and primordial urges of unconscious desire to the most cultivated and exalted dimensions of mind, individuation, culture, and inter-subjective life (Mills, 2004).

Freud suggests that a person does not fully understand his or her motivation. For example, If a girl wants to purchase an expensive camera, she may describe her motive as wanting a hobby or career. At a deeper level, she may be purchasing the camera to impress others with her creative talent. At a still deeper level, she may be buying the camera to feel young and independent again (Kotler et al, 1999).

b) Maslow's theory

Maslow has introduced his Theory of Human Motivation which basically can be divided into two types, the Basic needs and the Growth Needs. The Basic Needs includes the physiological needs and the safety needs, (Yahaya, <http://eprints.utm.my/6091/1/azizyahbrahamMaslow.pdf>, 24.05.2011). (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 : Maslow's hierarchy of needs (http://miraclemind.com/investors/newsletter/?a=2008_5_5, 25.05.2011).

i. *The Basic Needs*

There are certain conditions which are immediate prerequisites for the basic needs satisfactions. Danger to these is reacted to almost as if it were a direct danger to the basic needs themselves. Physiological needs are the biological needs of the human being for air, water, food, shelter and so on. These are the needs that human being will seek for and satisfy before the other needs in the growth needs will emerge. Physiological needs are the human instinct to survive. For example, a hungry person will be satisfied with a hearty meal, but will also be thinking of the next meal. When all physiological needs are satisfied and no longer controlling thoughts and behaviors, the needs for security can become active. Adults have little awareness of their needs for security except in times of emergency or periods of disorganization in the social structure. The feature of the needs for safety can be seen clearly in infants, (Yahaya, <http://eprints.utm.my/6091/1/aziziyahbrahamMaslow.pdf>, 24.05.2011).

ii. *The Growth Needs*

Maslow's great insight was to place actualization into a hierarchy of motivation. Maslow also presents a hierarchy of needs which can be divided into growth needs. One must satisfy lower basic needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. One these needs have been reasonably satisfied, one may be able to reach the highest level called self-actualization. Maslow's hierarchy in Growth needs includes the need for love and belonging, esteem, understanding and knowledge, aesthetics and self-actualization. In the levels of these five needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied or the third until the second has been satisfied, and so on (Yahaya, <http://eprints.utm.my/6091/1/aziziyahbrahamMaslow.pdf>, 24.05.2011).

c) *Herzberg's Theory*

Frederick Herzberg developed a two-factor theory that distinguishes dissatisfiers (factors that cause dissatisfaction) from satisfiers (factors that cause satisfaction). The absence of dissatisfiers is not enough; satisfiers must be actively present to motivate a purchase. For example, a computer that comes without a warranty would be a dissatisfier. Yet the presence of a product warranty would not act as a satisfier or motivator of a purchase, because it is not a source of intrinsic satisfaction with the computer. Ease of use would, however, be a satisfier for a computer buyer. In line with this theory, marketers should avoid dissatisfiers that might unsell their products. They should also identify and supply the major satisfiers or motivators of purchase, because these satisfiers determine which brand consumers will buy (Solomon et al., 2006).

V. MOTIVATIONAL CONFLICTS

Recall that motivational goals have valence; they can be either positive or negative. Consumers are motivated to achieve an approach object, that is, a positive state of affairs that fulfills their needs, such as refreshing drink or an enjoyable TV show (Lantos, 2011). However, not all behavior is motivated by the desire to approach a goal. Consumers may instead be motivated to avoid a negative outcome. They will structure their purchases or consumption activities to reduce the chances of attaining this end result. For example, many consumers work hard to avoid rejection, a negative goal. They will stay away from products that they associate with social disapproval. Products such as deodorants and mouthwash frequently rely on consumers' negative motivation by depicting the onerous social consequences of underarm odor or bad breath. Because a purchase decision can involve more than one source of motivation, consumers often find themselves in situations where different motives, both

positive and negative, conflict with one another. Because marketers are attempting to satisfy consumers' needs, they can also be helpful by providing possible solutions to these dilemmas (Solomon et al., 2006).

a) Approach- Approach

In the approach- approach conflict, the consumer is struggling with two desirable alternatives. This conflict generates the least amount of anxiety of the three types of customer conflicts. Although the Consumer must make a decision, each option is equally desirable and has attractive options.

For example, say a man is at an auto dealership and has decided that he likes two cars, but he only has enough money to buy one of them. Ultimately, the man will walk away from the dealership happy, but his initial need to choose creates an internal conflict and some anxiety about making the choice. Obviously, a consumer caught in an approach- approach conflict eventually will choose the most desirable option (Lake, 2009). Another Example, A consumer may want a medium size fridge with a lot of space inside** or, a fridge with a deepfreeze - double door fridge. These two choices create a conflict in the minds of the consumers (Khan, 2006).

b) Approach- Avoidance

Approach-avoidance conflicts included, firstly, the desire to please someone else; secondly, the desire to stay and complete a purchase on someone else's behalf; thirdly, the desire to complete the purchase (because of personal need for the goods) (Hogg, <http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/ap07/13040.pdf>, 20.05.2011). You both want to engage in the behavior and want to avoid it. For example, Teenagers may experience an approach- avoidance conflict whether to smoke cigarettes. Although they may believe that others will think they are cool for smoking (consistent with the need for belonging), they also know that smoking is bad for them (incompatible with the need for safety) (Hoyer, 2010).

c) Avoidance - Avoidance

It happens when the consumer has to decide between two negative choices. The choices are said to be negative in relation to certain personal attributes of the consumer. The marketer can come in to make some suggestion in the decision making process to suit & help the customer to decide in its favor (<http://www.scribd.com/doc/19769529/Consumer-Behaviour-2-Motivation>, 23.05.2011). For example, someone might be faced with the choice of either buying new shoes to replace an old, comfortable pair, or continuing to wear the old despite the fact they are no letting in water and coming apart at the seams (Blythe, 2008).

VI. CONCLUSION

Motivation is a complex topic of research that has been studied from many different approaches. We have briefly summarized some of the psychological and

physiological experiments that probe the role of motivation in the behavior of consumer. This study has tried to show the role and the effect of motivation of customer behavior on marketing. It has demonstrated that consumer behaviors have been heavily influenced by motivation in the marketing discipline. The need to predict consumer behavior outcomes is based on motivation. If you do not understand your customer's motivations, needs, and preferences you will fall into some major mistakes. Understanding consumer behavior is never simple but we can predict their behaviors using motivation. Motivation allows the latter to take into account internal needs and external stimuli in order to decide what should and should not be learned in a particular situation. The inclusion of concepts such as drives and motivation will be particularly important in consumer behavior.

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An Analysis of Relative Inflation Hedging Capacities of Prime Commercial Properties in Lagos

By Odu, Tenigbade

Abstract - The major concern to any investor is the achievement of the desired return of investment as well as his return on investment. Real estate has an age long reputation of being perceived as a hedge against inflation, a fact for which various empirical studies undertaken in some other countries have produced varying results. In this line, the study was aimed at empirically establishing the inflation hedging properties (or otherwise) of commercial properties in prime locations of Lagos state. To achieve this, the Ordinary Least Square model as proposed by Fama and Schwert (1977) was used to regress real estate rates of returns against actual, expected and unexpected inflation rates. The results show that, for prime locations around Victoria Island and Ikoyi, commercial properties provide a perverse hedge against actual inflation, Whereas, commercial properties within Ikeja and environs have been seen to present a complete hedge against actual inflation.

Keywords : *inflation hedging, commercial properties, inflation, Lagos.*

GJHSS-C Classification : *FOR Code: 140207*



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I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of every rational investor is to maximize profits on investments while as much as possible reducing the risks involved. This is the reason why it is important to acquire an investment perceived to be a hedge against inflation. In the bid to establish which is the "perfect" investment, studies have been done on items like stocks and equities, gold and real estate. In one of such researches, Alagidede and Panagiotidis (2007) observed that in Nigeria a 1% rise in goods prices (rate of inflation) elicits 0.12% rise in stock returns. Thus the stock market only provides a partial hedge against rising inflation

Over the years, investment in Real estate has been professed to offer a hedge against inflation (Amidu and Aluko, 2006), which in simple terms means that it has the power to protect the investor's funds against the eroding power of inflation. With a current inflation rate as high as 12.3% and bank lending rates as high as 29% (CBN, 2010), an investor needs to be sure that investing in real estate will cover not only current but also future risks. However, despite the fact that investors are risk averse and will prefer more return to less and less risk to more (Olaleye, 2008), the Nigerian property market has

frequently been characterized by naive decisions.

Different studies have been carried out to confirm the inflation hedging capabilities of investments in real estate. The results have shown a varying pattern. Fama and Schwert (1977) carried out some of the earliest studies on the subject. They opined that private residential estates were the only form of investment that provided a complete hedge against expected and unexpected inflation when compared with government debt instruments and returns on human capital. Voigtländer and Demary (2009), while studying the inflation hedging properties of real estate in Canada, USA, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK, found out that investment in real estate equities did not protect the investor against inflation. Quingping (2008) concluded that the housing sector plays an important role in Taiwan's economy as it is able to hedge against inflation in the long-run. In Singapore, commercial properties establish not only a perfect one-to-one correspondence relationship with the inflation rate, but they also increase at a faster rate than the increase in the inflation rate. (Sing and Low, 2001) In Nigeria, Bello (2005), while studying the Inflation Hedging Characteristics of Residential Property Investment in Nigeria between 1996 and 2000, established that real estate investment in Nigeria is not an all time hedge against inflation.

The foregoing forms the background for this study. As closely related as the various researches are, they have all produced different results. This disparity can be attributed to various factors including varying timeframes, fluctuating economic conditions, and differences in microeconomic and macroeconomic indicators among other issues. The problem is also drawn from the expectations and fears of investors in Nigeria about the security of their investments and the lack of information in the property market to address such fears.

Property has traditionally been seen as a hedge against inflation but fears have been expressed recently about whether it really is a hedge against the background of economic volatility and recession that has characterized the economy. Inflation rates, where they are higher than the rate of return on an investment devalues the return on the investments in real terms.

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There is a real danger that the inflation rate in Nigeria is outstripping the rate of return on property. The property market has seen voids and unsold properties which tend to suggest supply outstrips the demand for properties. Many estate agents have been quoted as saying that the 'market is dull'. At the same time, the inflation rate has been suggested as being at about 12.3 per cent. One naturally begins to question whether the rate of return on property is keeping pace with the inflation rate. Investors particularly would wish to obtain clarifications on this issue so as to make decisions on whether to include property in their portfolio investment.

The problem is amplified by the lack of studies in this area. The only study so far in Nigeria has been that of Bello (2005) who examined the inflation hedging characteristics of residential property between 1996 and 2000. However, this study, now outdated, focused on Lagos as a whole and moreover addressed only residential properties, whereas the commercial property class in Lagos has also become an attractive investment commodity owing to its increased demand.

This study is aimed at empirically establishing the inflation hedging properties (or otherwise) of commercial properties in prime locations of Lagos state.

II. LITERATURE

Inflation is generally considered as a purely monetary phenomenon. It is the rate of increase in prices over a given period of time (Oner, 2010). In simpler terms, inflation is 'too much money chasing too few goods' thereby causing a hike in prices of commodities. Accountants suggest that high inflation render historical cost accounting measures of income and prediction techniques useless. Inflation is however erroneously commonly taken to be an appreciation on real value whereas it is an increase in the volume of money and credit leading to a rise in the general level of prices and consequent erosion of purchasing power (Appraisal Institute, 2008). Loungani and Swagel (2001) identified four sources of inflation in developing countries viz:

1. Money growth and exchange rates, variables suggested by the fiscal view;
2. The output gap and a measure of the world business cycle;
3. Changes in the price of oil and non-oil commodities, to capture cost shocks;
4. Past realizations of inflation, to reflect the inertial component of inflation.

Various literatures have shown that the importance of the inclusion of real estate in investment portfolios cannot be under-estimated. Every investment must have the characteristic of being able to compete with other investment options for available investment funds. This attribute is what qualifies real estate to be called an investment. Peyton et al. (2008), identified 5

tools that real estate can be used as which makes it an attractive investment. These are:

- a source of diversification;
- a generator of attractive risk-adjusted return;
- a hedge against unexpected inflation or deflation;
- a component of the investment universe; and
- generator
- a strong cash flow

Hoesli (1994) identified two arguments often given to motivate the decision of including real estate in portfolios of financial assets being the diversification benefits stemming from the less than perfect correlation of real estate with the other assets included in the portfolio and the better protection against inflation provided by real estate. In recent times in Nigeria, the poor performance of the stock market gingered by the global economic meltdown has only fortified the average Nigerian's trust in the viability of the real estate market. Georgiev (2002) reveals that despite the recent focus on stocks and bonds, real estate remains a significant part of the institutional investment portfolio. The potency of their assertion is proven by Bello and Adewusi (2009) who reveal that although banks prefer financial assets, real estate has a superior performance on the long run and also exhibits higher growth than financial asset over the loan period. Lim et al (2006) however indicate that investors are sensitive to higher returns and political stability.

This study follows the pattern of some of the initial works done on the subject. (Fisher, 1930) postulated that when prices are rising, the rate of interest tends to be high but not so high as it should be to compensate for the rise; and when prices are falling, the rate of interest tends to be low, but not so low as it should be to compensate for the fall, The result is that during a period of inflation the interest rate is raised cumulatively, so that at the end of this period when the price level is high, the interest rate is also high. Consequently he noted that the nominal interest rate is an addition of the real interest rates and the expected inflation rate, hence the equation:

$$E(\tilde{R}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}) = E(\tilde{r}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}) + E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) \quad (1)$$

Where:

\tilde{R}_{jt} = Nominal return on asset j from time t-1 to t

$E(\tilde{r}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1})$ = Expected real return on asset

$E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})$ = Best possible assessment of expected value for inflation rate $\tilde{\Delta}_t$ that can be made on the basis of Φ_{t-1}

However, the volatility of inflation rates, especially in unstable economies like Nigeria invalidates this equation as it does not take unexpected inflation into consideration. Scofield (1997) asserted that there are five possible shocks that may cause the delivered real return to vary from the required real return these are: unanticipated inflation (otherwise known as unexpected inflation); changes in inflationary

expectations; unanticipated real Estimated Rental Value (ERV) growth; changes in real ERV growth expectations; and changes in the real required return. Unexpected inflation has been defined to be the difference between actual inflation and expected inflation. Hence the stance of Fama & Shcwert (1977) when they decomposed actual inflation into its expected and unexpected components. The unexpected rate of inflation is by definition uncorrelated to the expected rate of inflation therefore Fisher's initial equation can be rewritten to be:

$$E(\tilde{R}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}, \Delta_t) = E(\tilde{r}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}) + E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) + \gamma_j[\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})] \quad (II)$$

Where:

$$\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) = \text{Unexpected inflation rate between times } t-1 \text{ and } t.$$

This equation was then based on a regression model:

$$\tilde{R}_{jt} = \alpha_j + \beta_j E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) + \gamma_j[\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})] + \tilde{\eta}_{jt} \quad (III)$$

Where:

$$\alpha_j, \beta_j \text{ and } \gamma_j \text{ are regression coefficients and } \tilde{\eta}_{jt} \text{ is the random error term}$$

Schofield (1996) was of the opinion that methodologies using regressions to test hypotheses concerning inflation hedging are inappropriate. He suggested a form of sensitivity analysis which he referred to as a cash flow based scenario assessment to be more appropriate methodology. This approach may however not be considered appropriate in a volatile economy like Nigeria's. The result of a sensitivity analysis may only be considered appropriate if the indicators will be sure to be stable for a reasonable period of time. Moreover, there is need to have a model to accurately and empirically show the relationship between inflation and real estate returns.

There has also been a long standing issue on the use of cointegration techniques as a more accurate measure for inflation- heding properties in real estate when the time frame being examined is over a long period of time. To this end, various authors have used this technique (Hamelink & Hoesli, 1996). Tarbert (1996) argued that a static regression method would be unlikely to adequately capture any responses from inflation to property since the property market hardly adjusts instantaneously to changes in inflation. Static regressions, he said are unable to differentiate between adjustments to a long-run equilibrium and short-run dynamic movement. He therefore advocated the use of cointegration techniques to obtain an estimate of any long-run equilibrium relationship. For real estate investments to be a long-run hedge against inflation, then long-run components of inflation and nominal returns should co-vary over the long run consistently.

Most studies after Fisher (1930) have decomposed inflation into its expected and unexpected components. Different researchers have also adopted various proxies for expected inflation. Stevenson (2001)

tested six alternatives in order to arrive at the most reliable proxy and consequently the most accurate empirical analysis. These proxies are

- The Lagged Treasury Bill rates
- Correction to the measure of the lagged treasury bill rates – This proxy was suggested due to the fact that the use of lagged treasury bills as proxy can lead to biases due to factors such as the possibility that the real return on short-term rates may not be constant. The correction can be formulated as follows:

$$E(\Delta_t) = y_{t-1} - (1/x) \sum_{s=t-1}^{t-x} \left(y_{s-1} - \log \left(\frac{CPI_s}{CPI_{s-1}} \right) \right)$$

where y is the short-term rate and x represents the frequency of the data.

- First order autoregressive model
- ARIMA (1,0,3)
- ARIMA (1,1,3)
- ARIMA (0,1,1).

The respective proxies are assessed using the following model:

$$\Delta_t = \alpha + \beta E(\Delta)_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (V)$$

where Δ is the actual inflation rate and $E(\Delta)$ is the respective proxy for expected inflation.

Stevenson (2001) also made use of the hedged approach to provide a data series. This data series both utilizes information available in the capital markets and overcomes potential biases that may be present in either appraisal techniques or in the methods used in index construction. It is also used in portfolio studies to eliminate the interference of the risk measures present in direct investment and to avoid unreliable empirical results. It should be noted that the use of hedged data diminishes the diversification benefits that direct real estate investments provides in an investment portfolio (Georgiev, 2002).

It is worthy of note that the concept of investment in indirect real estate is not a very common one in Nigeria. With less than ten property and construction companies listed in the stock exchange market, the potentials of securitized properties are yet to be fully explored. Amidu et al (2008) suggest that in Nigeria, real estate security does not after all provide a good substitute to direct real estate investment. This they explained is because the risk/return performance of indirect real estate is a function of the behaviour of the securities' market as opposed to the direct real estate investment whose performance depends largely on the underlying asset. However, buying shares in investment companies specializing in real estate is also gradually becoming a common form of indirect property investment in Nigeria (Amidu and Aluko, 2006).

REITs are considered less advantageous as against direct real estate investment. The performance of the REIT is usually tied to the performance and leverage of the parent company. Also, equity returns are known to be more volatile compared to direct real estate investments (Voigtlander & Demary, 2009). Georgiev ,

(2002) suggests that direct real estate investment provides diversification benefits, while securitized real estate (REIT) investment does not. Yobaccio et al. (1995) also confirm that REITs act as poor hedges against any measure of inflation with the poorest performance relative to unexpected inflation. Real estate is a heterogeneous asset class and its inflation-hedging properties are determined by the nature of an investor's exposure. Hence, while real estate is generally offered as a favourable inflation-hedging investment, securitised REITs are noticed to show the same negative relationship found with equities (Adrangi, Chatrath, & Raffiee, 2004).

Montezuma (2004) showed the importance of the knowledge of inflation hedging abilities of residential real estate as he identified three criteria used to evaluate residential property as an institutional group include:

- Private rental market value relative to institutional wealth;
- Mean-variance performance; and
- Hedge against inflation.

In the study by Hoesli et al. (2006), they noted that whether inflation is high or low is a product of real supply shocks or monetary shocks such that, in both the U.K. and the U.S., public market asset returns are linked in the long run to anticipated inflation but not to unexpected shocks in inflation. Voigtländer (2009) offered some explanations as to the ability of real estate to hedge inflation. He proposed that residential Property offers a hedge against expected and unexpected inflation because rents are often indexed and because good housing cannot be substituted and therefore must continually be invested in. He stated that offices protect only partly against inflation, because worsening economic perspectives (inflation) alleviate the demand for office space. He further stated that retail property does not provide an inflation-hedge because retailers cannot shift inflation to customers. Amenc et al (2008) also noted that real estate and commodities have particularly attractive inflation hedging properties over long- horizons, which justify their introduction in pension funds' liability-matching portfolios.

In Nigeria, as well as in other parts of the world, rent review clauses have steadily become a norm for any real estate investment. In more developed countries, the intervals are longer, say, 5 -15 years for leases. However, in developing and unstable economies like Nigeria, with a constantly increasing rate of inflation, the intervals within these rent review periods are relatively short. Cash flows therefore move in step with overall price inflation and are protected from cash erosion. Peyton, Park, & Lotito (2008) however suggest that this is only applies when real estate markets are in equilibrium and that the mechanism comes under pressure when markets become oversupplied. They concluded that the property market fundamentals are the driving forces behind rent inflation or deflation rather than movements in the consumer or producer prices indexes.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study covers commercial properties in metropolitan Lagos. However, this study is limited to prime Locations as investments in these areas are usually more attractive to investors than other parts of the state. The following areas were considered for the study: Ikoyi South-West, Victoria Island, Opebi, Allen Avenue, Ikeja GRA., Obafemi Awolowo way. The study considered rates of returns on investment in prime commercial properties in Lagos State. This study considered office spaces per square metre (sqm) as these property classes represent the most transacted classes of properties in the study areas.

The primary data for this research work were collected from interviews with three Estate surveyors that have been practicing and have offices in both Ikeja and the Lagos Island for over fifteen years. They were randomly selected as sources for data on real estate annual income and capital values. These values of subject properties were extracted from their records. The secured data was treated as follows to derive the Annual rate of returns on real estate investment:

$$R = \frac{(\text{Opening CV} - \text{Closing CV}) + \text{Annual Income}}{\text{Opening CV}} \quad (\text{VI})$$

Where :

R = Annual Rate of Returns

CV = Capital Value

The data for actual inflation was gathered from secondary sources. For Nigeria, inflation rates are derived from the Consumer Price index (CPI) and computed by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). The composite CPI measures the average level of retail Prices of goods and services consumed by households living in all parts of the country. The expected inflation in this study like various preceding studies uses the 90-day Treasury bill rate as a proxy. This can also be sought from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). The secondary data containing 90- day treasury bill rates and inflation rates were retrieved from the records of the Central Bank of Nigeria and the National Bureau of Statistics.

From Literature, various methodologies have been adopted to determine the relationship between real estate returns and rate of inflation. However, this study adopted the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression modeas used by Fama and Schwert (1977).

$$E(\tilde{R}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}, \Delta_t) = E(\tilde{r}_{jt} | \Phi_{t-1}) + E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) + \gamma_j [\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})] \quad (\text{II})$$

Where:

$\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})$ = Unexpected inflation rate between times t-1 and t.

This equation was then based on a regression model:

$$\tilde{R}_{jt} = \alpha_j + \beta_j E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1}) + \gamma_j [\Delta_t - E(\tilde{\Delta}_t | \Phi_{t-1})] + \tilde{\eta}_{jt} \quad (\text{III})$$

Where:

α_j , β_j and γ_j are regression coefficients and $\tilde{\eta}_{jt}$ is the random error term

These coefficients ascribe weights to the independent variables (expected and unexpected inflation) in the equation, telling us how exactly they relate with the dependent variable (Annual rate of returns on investment)

The results are analysed as follows:

When $\beta_1 = 1.0$, the asset is a complete hedge against expected inflation; the expected nominal return on the asset varies in one-to-one correspondence with the expected inflation rate, and the expected real return on asset is uncorrelated with the expected inflation rate.

When $\gamma_1 = 1.0$, the asset is a complete hedge against unexpected inflation; the nominal return on the asset varies in one-to-one correspondence with both the expected and unexpected components of the inflation rate.

An asset is said to be a partial hedge against inflation if its coefficient of regression lies between 0 and 1. If an asset has a coefficient of regression which is more than 1, the asset is said not only to be a hedge against inflation on its own but also a hedge against inflation for other assets in its portfolio. The signs of the regression coefficient determine if the asset is a 'positive' hedge or a 'perverse' hedge against inflation.

a) Data Analysis

To determine the rates of return on investment in commercial real estate in prime locations in Lagos state between 1999 and 2010.

Table 1 : Inflation Rates, Rates Of Returns On Residential And Commercial Properties Investments (1999-2010).

Year	Inflation Rates			Rate for Commercial Properties	
	Actual	Expected	Unexpected	VI/IKOYI	IKEJA
1999	6.60	18.25	-11.65	1.40	3.00
2000	6.90	15.25	-8.35	1.80	1.30
2001	18.90	18.34	.56	2.40	1.60
2002	12.60	18.35	-5.75	3.20	3.90
2003	14.00	15.02	-1.02	.90	2.80
2004	10.00	14.21	-4.21	1.80	.80
2005	8.60	7.00	1.60	1.60	1.70
2006	8.20	8.80	-.60	.90	.80
2007	5.40	6.90	-1.50	1.30	1.40
2008	11.50	9.00	2.50	1.60	2.90
2009	12.60	9.20	3.40	1.50	.80
2010	13.80	6.60	7.20	.70	.80

Source : C.B.N Statistical Bulletin Volume 21, (September, 2010) ;
Author's survey 2010.

The above table is a comprehensive compilation of Consumer Price Indices, 90 – day treasury bill rates and rates of returns on commercial and residential properties in prime locations within the study period. The rates show no particular order signifying instability in the economy.

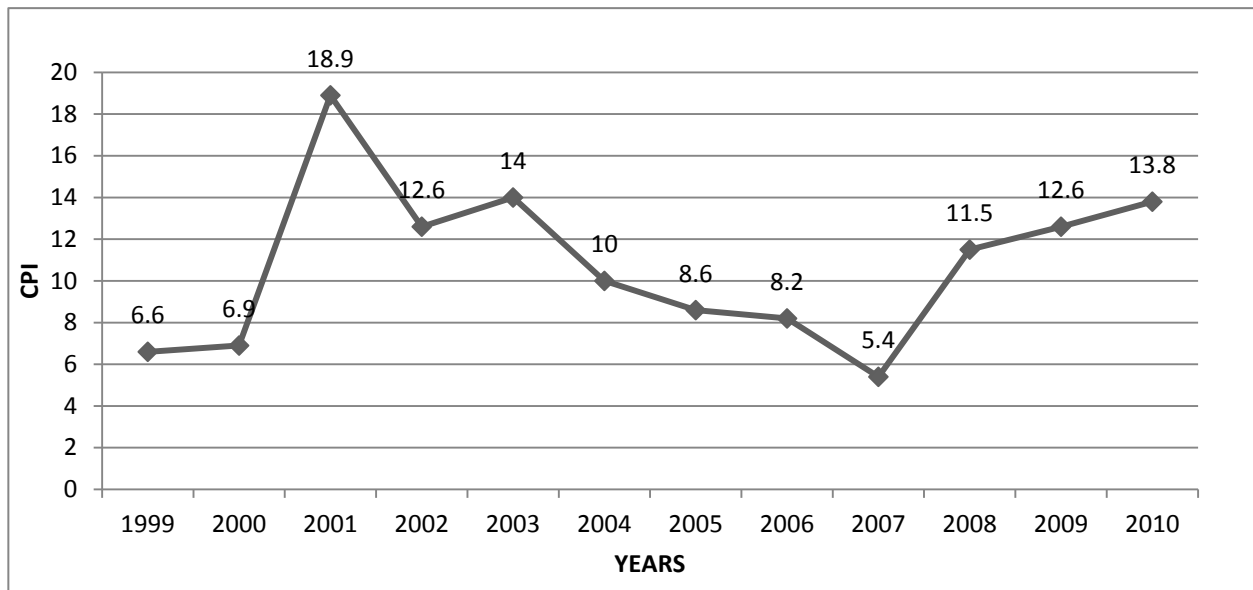


Fig. 1 : Inflationary Trends In Nigeria (1999-2010)

Figure 1 shows inflationary trend in Nigeria from 1999 to 2010. 1999 marks the beginning of the second republic in Nigeria with transition of power from Military to Democratic Government. The year-on-year inflation rate sprang to 18.9 percent in 2001, dipped to 12.6 percent in 2002 and went up again to 14.0 percent in 2003. The rise in 2003 has been linked to financial mismanagement, typical of an election year. However, following the adoption of a monetary policy framework by the Central Bank of Nigeria in year 2004, the inflation rate was brought under control again by the monetary

authorities, thus Inflation declined to 8.6 percent in 2004 and went down slightly to 8.2 percent in 2005. Since then the inflation figure has gradually fallen to a single digit, where it has remained throughout 2005, 2006 and up till the month of June, 2008. The inflation figures, which had consistently remained at single digit level for more than two years had risen to double digit of 11.5% by mid-2008 to September 2010. The surge may be attributed to reckless spending of political office holder and gross fiscal indiscipline on the part of Federal, State and Local Government Executives.

Table II : Summary Of Correlation Property Returns And Inflation

LOCATION	Correlation with CPI% Change
IKEJA	0.088
VI/IKOYI	0.258

Source : Field Survey 2010

This analysis is done in line with previous studies (Brown, 1991; Newell, 1996) Property returns have displayed different correlation attributes with inflation. Commercial property returns in the Mainland area have positive correlation with inflation, which means that as inflation rises commercial property returns keep going up and also Mainland commercial properties also display a positive correlation relationship with inflation. The performance for Island commercial properties is expected since the area has the highest property returns and property value (both rental and capital value) in Lagos.

The analysis above is however, not enough to conclude that property returns is an effective hedge against inflation. A more detailed method is needed to examine the degree of protection against inflation offered by these properties using the Fama and Schwert (1977) regression model.

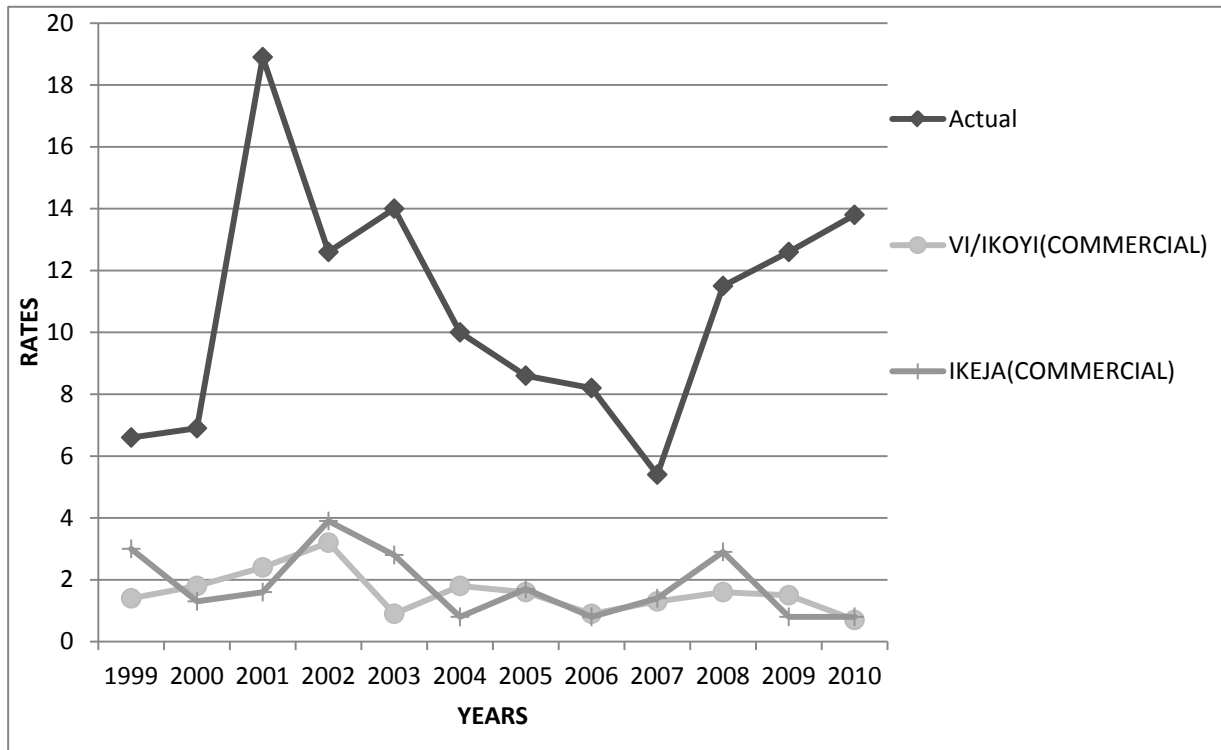


Fig. 2 : Actual Inflation Rates, Rates Of Return On Commercial Properties Investment (1999-2010).

Source : Field Survey 2010

Figure 2 reveals the relationship between inflation rates and commercial real estate rates of return.

Hence, a test was carried out to ascertain whether real estate provide a positive real return over the period.

Table III : Inflation Hedging Performance: Expected Inflation (1999-2010)

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	R Square	Type of hedge	
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constants)	5.233596	3.703491			
VI/IKOYI (COMMERCIAL)	26.40063	21.06571	0.606	0.367	Complete hedge
IKEJA (COMMERCIAL)	11.92461	13.17325	0.524	0.274	Complete hedge

Source : Field Survey 2010

b) Hedging Against Expected Inflation

The tests of inflation hedging against expected inflation is conducted by running the empirical model given by $R_t = \alpha + \beta EI_t$. The result of the regression is given by table 2 The regression equation reveals positively signed beta for all properties. Victoria Island/ Ikoyi properties have a standardized highest beta coefficient of 0.606 with R^2 of 0.367 recorded for Victoria

Island and Ikoyi commercial property rates. This implies that about 37 percent of the increase in property returns could be attributed to changes in expected inflation. The commercial properties in Ikeja/Opebi/Allen came through as a complete hedge while residential property in Victoria Island/ Ikoyi displayed a partial hedge against expected inflation.

Table IV : Inflation Hedging Performances: Unexpected Inflation (1999-2010)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	R Square	Type of hedge
	γ	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constants)	1.667729	3.269004			
VI/IKOYI (COMMERCIAL)	-7.70074	18.59432	-0.359	0.042	Perverse hedge
IKEJA (COMMERCIAL)	-9.40549	11.62779	-0.409	0.084	Perverse hedge

Source : Field Survey 2010

c) *Hedging Against Unexpected Inflation*

Regression equation $R_t = \alpha + \gamma UI$ tests the hedging ability of property returns against unexpected

inflation and the results are shown in Table 4. The regression equation reveals negative signed gamma for all properties.

Table V: Inflation Hedging Performance: Actual Inflation (1999-2010)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	R Square	Type of hedge
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constants)	6.901326	3.697636			
VI/IKOYI (COMMERCIAL)	18.69988	21.03241	0.258	-0.027	Complete hedge
IKEJA (COMMERCIAL)	2.519118	13.15243	0.088	-0.091	Complete hedge

Source : Field Survey 2010

d) *Hedging against Actual Inflation*

The regression given by equation $R_t = \alpha + \beta AI$ tests the hedging ability of property against actual inflation. The regression coefficients are positive and statistically significant for all property types.

IV. CONCLUSION

It has been empirically proven in this study that as attractive as commercial real estate investment in prime areas in Lagos seems to be, they do not provide an all time hedge against inflation. The results however show that this is not enough reason to totally sideline these investments. The results from the correlation analysis show that investment in real estate, though it may not totally hedge against inflation will minimize the risk of returns erosion due to inflation. Moreover, recent developments in the stock market have shown the importance of the inclusion of real estate in any investment portfolio because of its risk bearing capacity. It is also probable that economic stability will have a positive effect on the inflation hedging capacity of real estate.

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Skewed Sex Ratio: Gender Poverty Alleviation in India

By Ms. Margaret Gangte

Abstract - The rise of boy child population in India for the past twenty years parallels the experience of other Asian Countries such as China and South Korea. There were 945 girls per 1000 boys in 1991, 927 in 2001 and only 914 in 2011. India's increasing number of rich class seems to have increased the practice of sex selection in the new technology promoted by private health sector. The new technology has aggravated the social problem of bias against girl child and continues to have caused the drastic reduction in the proportion of female children. This paper critically evaluates the underlying factors responsible for the skewed sex ratio in India, reviews the inadequate public policy responses and recommends for an effective social marketing campaign to change the negative to positive perception on girl child and for heavy crackdown on the offence. It concludes for appeal to government and civil society for immediate action to eliminate sex selection. The article accounts a lesson sharing experience for effective public policy responses to crisis similarly faced in the region

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Skewed Sex Ratio: Gender Poverty Alleviation in India

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Abstracts - The rise of boy child population in India for the past twenty years parallels the experience of other Asian Countries such as China and South Korea. There were 945 girls per 1000 boys in 1991, 927 in 2001 and only 914 in 2011. India's increasing number of rich class seems to have increased the practice of sex selection in the new technology promoted by private health sector. The new technology has aggravated the social problem of bias against girl child and continues to have caused the drastic reduction in the proportion of female children. This paper critically evaluates the underlying factors responsible for the skewed sex ratio in India, reviews the inadequate public policy responses and recommends for an effective social marketing campaign to change the negative to positive perception on girl child and for heavy crackdown on the offence. It concludes for appeal to government and civil society for immediate action to eliminate sex selection. The article accounts a lesson sharing experience for effective public policy responses to crisis similarly faced in the region.

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I. INTRODUCTION

a) Global Trend

Amartya Sen, Nobel Prize laureate has set off a debate in development economics when he estimated that there are 100 million *'missing women' in the world, referring to the magnitude of female survival disadvantage due to unequal treatment in the intra-household allocation of survival-related commodities. In a series of papers in the late 1980s, Amartya Sen claimed that about 100 million women in the world are missing, referring to the number of females who had died as a result of unequal access to resources in parts of the developing world. He produced such estimate by comparing the sex ratios in countries with large female deficits to the sex ratio prevailing in sub-Saharan Africa. India now has the largest share of missing females in South Asia and next to China in the global comparison (Annexure-F). The latest estimates of missing women across three methodologies are given in Table 1(Annex-B). The missing women is far from a minor issue, but ranks among the worst human catastrophes of twentieth century as it is larger than the combined casualties of all famines in the twentieth century and it also exceeds the

combined death toll of both world wars and the casualties of major epidemics such as the 1918-1920 global influenza epidemic or the currently ongoing AIDS pandemic. Refer Table 1(Annex-B) for global trend on missing women. 'Missing women' refers to the deviation of actual sex ratio from the expected sex ratio

b) Trend in India

i. The highly masculine sex ratio in India has increased substantially in the twentieth century, in contrast to most other countries in the world. The sharp decline in female sex ratios over the years suggests that female foeticide and infanticide might be primarily responsible for this phenomenon followed by general neglect of the girl child. The sex ratio has been dwindling even in states like Haryana, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Gujarat, which are supposed to be economically prosperous. Female foeticide has been reported from parts of Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Tamil Nadu. The magnitude of girl's child mortality is reflected from the fact that every year, about 12 million girls born in India: third of these girls die in the first year of their life: three million or 25% do not survive to see their fifteenth birthday. The child mortality rate between 0-4 years is 20.26%, two percent more than that of boys (18.6%). (Table-1, Annex-B)

ii. The 15th National Census, 2011 of the country provides data on India's latest demographic characteristics, social and economics activities, literacy, urbanization, migration rates and so on. It is widely used for planning and formulation of policies for the central and state governments. At a total cost of Indian Rupees 22000 million, the 15th national census of India was conducted in two phases. The first one was the House listing & Housing Census from April to September 2010 and the second one was the Population Enumeration that was carried out from 9th to 28th February 2011. India's population has touched 121 crore (1.2 billion), indicating an increase of 17.64 per cent. The male population has grown by 17.19 per cent and reached 62 crore and the female population has risen by 18.12 per cent to reach 58 crore. The country's population is almost equal to the combined population of the U.S., Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Japan put together that is 1214.3 million. The period between 2001-2011 is the first decade, with the exception of 1911-1921, which has actually added lesser population compared to the previous decade. The percentage

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decadal growth during 2001-2011 has registered the sharpest decline since Independence that is a decrease of 3.90 percentage points from 21.54 to 17.64 percent. Uttar Pradesh has the largest proportion of the country's population at sixteen per cent, followed by Maharashtra and Bihar (nine per cent each), West Bengal (eight per cent) and Andhra Pradesh (seven per cent). The percentage decadal growth rates of the six most populous States, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bihar, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh have declined during 2001-2011 as compared to 1991-2001.

iii. Overall Sex ratio at the National level has increased by 7 points since Census 2001 to reach 940 at Census 2011. This is the highest Sex Ratio recorded since Census 1971. The increase in Sex Ratio is observed in 29 States and Union Territories. Kerala with 1084 has the highest sex ratio followed by Puducherry with 1038. Daman and Diu have the lowest sex ratio of 618. Three major States of India-J&K, Bihar and Gujarat have shown decline in the Sex Ratio as compared to Census 2001. As per provisional population totals of Census 2011, literates constitute 74 per cent of the total population aged seven and above and illiterates form 26 per cent. Literacy rate has gone up from 64.83 per cent in 2001 to 74.04 per cent in 2011 showing an increase of 9.21 percentage points. The effective literacy rate for males rose from 75.26 to 82.14 per cent marking a rise of 6.9 per cent, it increased by 11.8 per cent for females to go from 53.67 to 65.46 per cent.

c) *State-wise Analysis:*

- Uttar Pradesh was a case of failure, with high (masculine) sex ratios, and low health and education indicators but in census 2011 it showed improvement from 898 in 2001 to 910 in 2011.
- Kerala and Puducherry maintain increase in sex ratios that is reflected in its equal labour force participation, and much higher health and education measures than Uttar Pradesh. The overall improvement is reported in 29 states and union territories in 2011 from 24 in 2001.
- Delhi (821), Haryana (861), Punjab (874), Uttar Pradesh (898), along with Andaman and Nicobar Islands (846), Dadra and Nagar Haveli (811), and Sikkim (875), account for a large part of the alarmingly low sex ratio in India in 2001. It was in the states of Punjab, Haryana and Delhi that private foetal sex determination clinics were first established and the practice of selective abortion became popular from the late 1970s. It was alarming to note that the number of States/UTs in the Northern belt (relatively rich States in terms of economic growth) with child sex ratio below 900 has almost doubled over the last one decade, from three (Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh) in 1991 to six (Delhi and Himachal Pradesh in addition to the earlier three) in 2001. This points to the hypothesis that economic growth and human development

seldom move together, when it comes to improving gender relations.

- States having historically low sex ratio such as Punjab, Haryana, Delhi and Chandigarh however have shown minuscule increase in the sex ratio in Census 2011. Majority of the States identified as gender critical for special attention and intervention as part of the Census 2011 have not improved much.
- Major States, Bihar, Jammu Kashmir and Gujarat have experienced a fall in the sex ratio. The decline ranged from 2 points in Gujarat to 9 points in Jammu & Kashmir. Other smaller Union Territories showing steep decline are Dadra & Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu.
- The Jammu and Kashmir census department maintained that Ladakh's sex ratio of 583 girls against 1,000 boys, one of the worst in the country despite the equal treatment given to girls in opportunities. The reason is not really clear but officials are not inclined to accept it as an error of assessment (India News Post, June 11 2011)
- Indian sex ratio in general has gone up from 927 in 1991 census to 933 in 2001 census of India. The state of Kerala with 1058 has best sex ratio in India has the highest female literacy rate according to 2001 Census of India. Haryana has the lowest sex ratio of 861 females per 1000 males and has the lowest female literacy rate in India. The states of South India have the best Sex Ratio of females per 1000 males. In the Union Territories of India, Daman and Diu has the lowest female sex ratio while Puducherry has the highest female sex ratio in India. The report of a general brighter picture is shadowed by the continue declining sex ratio of girls. Gender bias due to lack of education and poverty in India is responsible for this decline in female ratio.

d) *Ratios in Rural and Urban Areas:*

Rural child sex ratio has always exceeded the urban one. However both have been declining over time, the rate of decline in urban area is much more than that of rural area, except for Tamil Nadu in 2001. The relative life chances of girls in the age group 0-6 age group is most sensitive to gender discriminatory practices, whether it is via intra-household distribution of resources or through sex selective abortions. (*Map- Annex-A*). While the overall sex ratio presents encouraging trends across the country, the same is not true in the case of the girl child in the age group 0-6 years from 1961 to 2011.

e) *The key constraints in the study:*

The weakness in the study in India has been mainly due to lack of data as the Authorities do not routinely published data on sex ratio and it is therefore not clear whether parents in India as in East Asia are substituting prenatal for post natal discrimination against girl children, or whether bias against females is

lessening overtime. However, study on ages 0-4 between 1981 and 1991 revealed that parents are combining the two strategies and male bias thus appears to be intensifying (Das Gupta and Bhat, 1997).

II. IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM

a) *Sex ratio inequity*

Highlighted by sensational titles such as 'The endangered sex' termed by Miller, 1981 or 'More than 100 million women missing' as described by Sen., 1992, female disadvantage is particularly concentrated in infancy and childhood years, and is rooted in longstanding social patterns of preference for male children. The number counting of female child is regulated by post natal methods of female infanticide, abandonment or out of adoption of girls, under reporting of female births, and selective neglect of daughters leading to higher death rates, prenatal method of sex selection techniques by way sex determination and selective abortion have now been the increasingly implicated (Asia Pacific Population and Policy Report, 1995). In India, the issue of sex ratio was observed since the first census taken in 1871 and the key factor of the phenomenon of excess female child mortality and highly masculine juvenile sex ratios has been due to the persistent preference of sons and disfavor towards daughters. Several authors viz Sen., 1989; Coale, 1991 and Klasen, 1994 and Klasen and Claudia, 2003 have concluded that India has the dubious distinction of having the largest share of 'missing women'* in the world along with China. It is important to analyze the process by which they went 'missing'; due to the unequal access to the intra-household resources owing to cultural factor that further get reinforced by sex selective abortions owing to modern technique.

b) *Gender discrimination leads to Sex ratio inequity*

An offshoot of the trend in declining ratio rather the high numbers of missing girls is that it seriously affects the status of the living girls and women and their prospects for a safe and secure life. Less realized is the strong possibility that increasing numbers of 'missing' girl children are also inimical to the safety and health (including mental and psychological health) of mothers. More specifically the selected and repeated abortions weaken the reproductive health system and increase the risk of infections. It is feared that the situation may lead to regression to earlier marital practices such as polyandry. Women from lower socio-economic strata are also being trafficked from 'supply' centers to 'demand' centers to make up for the deficit of females in the marriageable age groups. Reports are also surfacing of women being auctioned in public after being trafficked from far away places. All such women are treated as merchandise, as 'inferior' wives and many of them are abandoned as soon they carry out their apportioned task of giving birth to children. In rural areas, as the number of marriageable women declines, men would tend to marry younger women, leading to

rise in fertility rates and thus a high rate of population growth. The abduction of girls is an associated phenomenon. The Hindustan Times recently reported that young girls from Assam and West Bengal are kidnapped and sold into marriage in neighbouring Haryana.

c) *Gender discrimination leads to social inequity*

Socio-cultural trends in India place women at an increased disadvantage. The traditional patrilineal, patrilocal and exogamous marriage and kinship systems prevailing over much of the subcontinent have always placed women in a low status, precarious position, until they earn their place in the patriline by bearing sons. The son preference is guided by the symbolic advantage that sons stay with parents and represents a source of protection and affection; sons are vital to continue family lineage (gotra) and family activities. Since daughters are usually excluded from equal share of the inheritance, surviving sons are assured to inherit their parents' property and will carry the family name while daughters lose the family membership after marriage. One of the most publicized roles of sons is to perform the rituals upon the death of their father, a task where women are excluded.

d) *Social inequity leads to economic inequity*

A common explanation for gender discrimination boils down to the fact that girls constitute a source of impoverishment for their family. It is therefore appealing to attempt the cost benefit analysis, in order to examine specific costs related to girls as well as benefit accruing from boys. According to many Indian parents, raising a girl entails extra cost related to protective efforts extended to daughters. Daughters are often neglected during raising but the costs during marriage are expensive encompassing wedding expenditure and dowry. The resource flow is the opposite in the case of the boys, as the groom's family will directly receive a large part of the dowry from the bride's family. Therefore, raising a boy seems highly profitable whereas girls could be seen to mean further expenses. A traditional nickname for women within her family is *paraya dhan*, which means 'somebody else's property, hence raising a daughter is like watering a neighbor's garden. For ages, female infanticide has been a household strategy among land owning upper - caste groups, to acquire further holdings and improve and consolidate their socio-economic status. Female foeticide is spreading even to areas where this practice was little known historically such as in Tamil Nadu remote villages. Increasing landlessness and poverty, escalating dowry system, high gender differentials in wages, low education among women and few economic opportunities are the suggested reasons.

e) *Socio-economic inequity reinforced by Scientific Innovation leads to Gender Poverty*

Abortion was legalized in India under the Medical Termination Act, 1971, after a 1965 UN mission

to India recommended this step to strengthen the population policy. In 1975, amniocentesis techniques for detecting foetal abnormalities were developed in India, at the All India Medical Sciences, New Delhi. Most women who already had two or more daughters and who learnt that their expected child was female went on to have an abortion. By 1980s thousands of pre-natal clinics were in operation both in urban and rural areas. Remote districts that lacked basic amenities such as drinking water or electricity were reported to have sex determination clinics where refrigeration and cold chain facilities for vaccinations were not available but amniotic fluid samples were sent in ice packs to towns for testing. (Saheli women Resource centre, 1996). The logic underlying the motivation is illustrated by the now infamous slogan: *Better Rs. 500 today than Rs.500, 000 tomorrow*—which reasoned that an expenditure now on the test will save many multiples of the sum later on the dowry. Performing the tests has become very profitable practice for doctors and they often view the tests as a humane service to couples not wanting any more daughters and as necessary weapon to control the population. Based on statistic of Registrar General of India, the hospital records alone produce 3.6 lakh female fetuses, which were aborted in India between 1993 and 1994.

III. POLICY RESPONSES TO FOETICIDE /INFANTICIDE

a) Between 1977 and 1988, in an effort to curb the misuse of the technique, three circulars were sent to central and state government departments making the use of prenatal sex determination for the purpose of abortion a penal offense. Women groups, civil liberties groups and health movements also launched a campaign against prenatal sex determination and female foeticide. In 1984, a broad based coalition, the 'Forum Against Sex Determination and Sex pre-Selection' (FASDSP) was formed with headquarters in Bombay, to monitor all aspects of the situation, and document the growing use of the technique, and the legal and policy steps taken it. As a result of these efforts, the states of Punjab, Gujarat and Haryana followed suit and the central government passed the Prenatal Diagnostic Technique (regulation and prevention of Misuse) Act in 1994. The Act states that determining and communicating the sex of a foetus are illegal: Those genetic tests can be carried out only in registered facilities: and only offered to women who meet certain medical criteria, such as being over the age of 35, having a family history of genetic disorders. First offenders faced a penalty of upto three years of imprisonment and a fine of Rs 10,000 and repeat offence face a penalty of three years imprisonment with Rs.50, 000 fines. The act also prohibited any advertising for diagnosis facilities.

b) As the census 2001 showed deteriorating sex ratio levels, activists and NGOs questioning the failure of the 1994 law filed public interest litigation. The Act was

amended in 2003 and renamed as the Pre- Conception and Pre Natal Diagnostic Technique (Prohibition of Sex Selection) act, the PC & PNDT Act, in order to include pre implantation techniques. But it also attempted to strengthen the control of scan providers, by requiring registration and detail records of scans provided to pregnant women. District authorities are in charge of the registration of units, inspection and investigation and penalizing defaulters. The law was unsuccessfully challenged in 2005, and further amendments to the Act are now in the offing. The National Inspection and Monitoring Committee Assess the ground realities through field visit, and provide its reports to the concerned states authorities and the Health Ministry at the centre.

IV. KEY CONSTRAINTS IN POLICY RESPONSES

a) *Ineffective legislative provision*

The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act is full of loopholes making the implementation ineffective. Most restriction pertains to government facilities. Private laboratories and clinics are not banned from carrying out tests that can be used to reveal a foetus's sex: they must be only registered.

b) *Poor monitoring of implementation of the Act*

The deficiency largely is due to poor resources and lack of capacity manifested in poor inspection and monitoring, poor staff quality, poor performance of advisory committees at all levels, political pressures on district authorities, insufficient understanding of the law and procedures and even victimization of pregnant women.

i. *Lack of concern from government*

Reasons for poor implementation are attributed to government's lack of interest in investing in the implementation, as they have not yet perceived sex ratio imbalance as catastrophe requiring government intervention and public perceive the vigorous enforcement as bureaucratic harassment.

ii. *Inadequate legislative provision for empowering women*

Legislation to empower women like the Child Marriage Restraint Act 1927 is merely preventive and not prohibitive that would make the marriage null and void. It requires amendment to affect such child marriage as illegal and punishable

c) *Lack of information*

The Hindu Succession Act that entitles a daughter to inherit her father's property still remains unknown to millions in the country. The ineffective enforcement of the legislation is due to lack of information about the social consequence on the outfall of skewed sex ratio in society. People need to be educated on the severe social outcome on falling sex ratio.

d) *Lack of accountability*

The implementation of women welfare schemes well intended may look attractive on paper but may not produce the desired outcome if the money spent is not monitored in terms of its impact on the target group. It requires administrative discipline and good flow of information to monitor the outcome.

V. STRATEGIC OPTIONS TO MITIGATE THE CONSTRAINTS.

a) *Immediate Strategy : Advocacy*

i. *Need for changing negative perception to positive perception:*

The discriminatory treatment meted to girl child is largely due to the traditional perspective of society towards the girl child, which is reflective in the growing incidence of the crime and violence against her- a phenomenon that starts even before her birth through female foeticide. A unique feature of the problem is that it is not restricted to any social or economic group and cuts across caste and income barriers making the girl an endangered species, an issue confronting the nation and needs immediate action to change the mind set, to view the girl as an asset and not a liability. Traditional perception of a daughter as 'paraya dhan' as she is to be given away, will not inherit property, will not perform the last rites of her parents and will costs a great deal in terms of dowry need to be changed through sensitization and advocacy. The positive image of girls as one who is educationally sound, professionally competent and economically independent, can take care of parents and perform their last rites must be projected.

ii. *Need for dissemination of information regarding girl welfare:*

A beginning is made in the formidable change introduced in the Hindu Succession (Amendment Act) 2005 that gives right of heritage to daughters and another landmark legislation in 2006 was protection of women against domestic violence, that reinforce the anti dowry Act. Haryana and Andhra Pradesh have taken steps to address gender equity through cash support to families with daughters. Therefore, it needs widespread dissemination of information on the legislation of these laws, which provide equal share and opportunities to girls in property/assets or employment.

iii. *Need for educating society on the implication of falling sex ratio :*

To reinforce these positive images of girls, society must be educated on the adverse impact of falling sex ratio, the possibility of the society turning into polyandry as already happening in Haryana, frequent child bearing by women producing physically weak children, increased number in unmarried males and the possibility of female forcible abduction. The agencies to help in the advocacy for Girl Child survival and her welfare will be the press, media, journals articles and will

be supported by spiritual and political leaders, social activists, NGOs, community groups.

iv. *Need for public education on provision of MTP Act:*

Lack of awareness of the Act leads medical professional and general public to believe that sex determination and foeticide are covered under Medical Termination of Pregnancy. Therefore education about the provision of the Act should be widespread.

b) *Medium Term Strategy*

i. *Strengthening Accountability:*

For effective implementation of the legislation, the key players are the district authorities, whose support could boost the overworked bureaucratic machinery. Examples of two district collectors: one in Hyderabad in 2004 and the other in Punjab in 2005, cited by Christophe, Z Guilamoto (Oct, 2007) showed the importance of a proactive role of the District Authorities in implementing the Act. In recognition of this special power of the District Magistrates the policy strategy focuses on strengthening the accountability mechanism to enforce the law by making the District Magistrate accountable to the lapses in enforcing the law. The offence must be made punishable by cancellation and suspension of the clinics and giving wide publicity through press and website of the de-listed clinics and doctors. As foeticide needs to be treated as crime, it must be brought under IPC of the Police Act and scrutiny of the court while record keeping of foeticide must be kept mandatory by clinics.

ii. *Integrated policy network:*

The District administration must strengthen its vertical and horizontal network by cooperation and collaboration with the Income Tax Department. Income of the clinics including mobile machines operating in different units must be cross check with the ultrasound performances by the Income tax department and record of the PAN number of doctors and clinics is made mandatory. The District Authority would need to integrate the monitoring units under the existing PNDDT Act to make interaction easier and need to replace these bodies into one cohesive unit.

c) *Long-Term Strategy*

i. *Effective Legislation for administrative discipline:*

While the above suggestions can be incorporated within the aegis of the existing PC and PNDDT Act, on longer term, the Act needs to be strengthened through amendment giving more power and teeth to punish the offence. The Act must make registration of pregnancies and births compulsory to ensure that unwarranted abortions do not take place and must make both public and private doctors accountable to the violation of the Act.

VI. IMPLEMENTATION ARRANGEMENT

a) *National Level*

National efforts to ensure survival of girl child and her right to be born and be informed, secure and

productive participating member of the community and society are enforced through multi-prong strategy with legislative (effective implementation of PC and PNDA Act), preventive and advocacy (media) and programming inputs (central schemes for girls). Advocacy and sensitization must be accompanied with strengthening the programming inputs and supported by stringent enforcement of Child Marriage Restraint Act 1927, which need to be amended to change the enforcement from being merely preventive to that making the child marriage null and void. The Ministry of Women and Child is preparing the amended bill to 'the Prohibition of Child Marriage Bill' to ensure its offence punishable. Self help groups at community level must form a vigilant group to protect child from abuse and violence while the national government through the Ministry of External affairs must cooperate with neighbouring countries to prevent trafficking of girls for commercial purpose across the border. The Ministry of Women and Child, Ministry of Law and Home Affairs must chalked out modalities to rescue

b) State level

National Inspection and Monitoring committee set up on the direction of the Supreme Court to assess the ground realities through field visits must be strengthened by setting up counterparts Monitoring committee at the state levels with multiple membership including NGOs. The inspection committee should have surprise element without advance notice and the inspection must be conducted at the district levels.

c) Local level

The state appoints the Appropriate Authorities investigative complaints, grant registration, suspension and clinics. Such authorities must be set up at the district levels, which have the lowest female sex ratio. It must be headed by the District Magistrate and must enlist the services of NGOs; social activists retired bureaucrats, judicial officers to maintain neutrality in the investigation. It must ensure participation and ensure vertical network with women groups, representatives of the gram Panchayats, block levels and horizontal network with state departments such as the women child development, police department and municipal bodies.

d) Community level

Key issues to be tracked through monitoring and community audit include:

- Survival of the girl child and her right to be born- prevention of female foeticide and infanticide
- Health and nutrition
- Enabling education
- Gender sensitization
- Abolition of girl child marriage
- Prevention of girl child abuse, exploitation and violence
- Welfare and development of adolescent girl.

VII. ASSESSING THE FEASIBILITY OF THE STRATEGY

The potent factor responsible for the fast dwindling sex ratio is the advent of technology for sex selection. The Strategy to fight sex selection recommended in this paper is based on Gender- Equity Principle and the threats of future gender imbalances. Two approaches are adopted to support the principle and forecast on the implications on the sex ratio imbalance. The approaches are: Advocacy Approach and Hammer Approach.

a. Advocacy Approach :

The first approach demands vigorous effort to educate the public and government on a nation wide scale on gender issue and its implication. At the moment, there is no unifying formula or slogan bringing together all the efforts to combat the harmful effects of sex selection. The Advocacy approach will help change the perception in the following ways:

- a) The information on technology is easily accessible to the educated and its efficiency is easily affordable by the rich while the poor prefer to invest in the efficient technology than to incur heavy expenses later. The technology has helped to reinforce traditional mindset on preference of son. The immediate priority must be to eliminate sex selection. A short message must be devised and directed towards the largest number of current and would be users as well as providers and facilitators of sex selection. The technique used is termed as social marketing in modern management of social issues in government.
- b) The positive image of girls and the perception of being an asset rather than a liability must be projected through advocacy.
- c) The legislation to protect women like the inheritance law, marriage law, and violence against women must be informed to the public and government agencies.
- d) The existence of law prohibiting the sex selection test must be widely disseminated.
- e) Another line of advocacy follows the more functional argument related to demographic disequilibrium, such as increased gender-based violence. The speculation on less female and male surplus leading to increased crime incidence or increase number of single men facing hardships in the marriage market in Indian context, increased divorce rates or the forecast on polyandry based on past sex ratio imbalances need to be documented in greater detail and publicized more widely.
- f) To ensure the administrative and environment feasibility, Advocacy Approach need to have integrated network horizontally for collaboration and cooperation with press, media, political/religious groups, and civil liberty, NGO in the nationwide gender sensitization campaign.

b. Hammer Approach:

The Hammer approach advocates for heavy crackdown on the offence committed by both the users and service providers. The Approach envisages the following actions:

- a) The law must be amended to make Sex Selection which includes both Prenatal and Postnatal sex selection a criminal offence and punishable, and the offending doctors and clinics must be widely publicized.
- b) Accountability of the Implementation and monitoring of the offence must be placed on the District Authority, which is the closest to public activities. To ensure accountability mechanism, the District Authority will need horizontal network integration with Police Force, Judicial, and Income Tax Department, state government as well as with the I monitoring units across the District for better cooperation and collaboration.
- c) To ensure feasibility of the advocacy approach, social legislations such as on child restraint marriage Act have to be made prohibitive and not simply a restraining one, making child marriage null and void. This will enhance protection of girl's right, as her parents will retain her; educate her to become independent economically. Creation of feasible environment through amendment of such social legislations for girl child will enabled implementation of the MTP Act more effective.
- d) The administrative feasibility will be ensured through vertical network integration with National, State and Community levels for greater coordination and increased effectiveness.
- e) The administrative feasibility will depend on how it to be monitored. Mandatory register of birth, immunization, register of school admission and number of girls reaching marriageable age and employed for job will help in giving timely and accurate feedback. The feedback must be crosschecked, element of surprise visit must be introduced by the District authority and local community committee on clinics, schools and individual families.
- f) Participatory process wherein local bodies, retired officials, NGOs, political and religious leaders are made members of the monitoring units at both District and local community levels will enhance effectiveness

c. Resource Planning

i. Nationwide campaign and gender sensitization would need services of the media, press, community, NGOs, social activists, spiritual leaders and political representatives. The wide publicity and campaigns would need bigger budget on this count in the coming years which government must plan from now on.

ii. Advocacy and sensitization must be accompanied with strengthening the programming inputs for girl welfare measures through ICDS that

focused on her nutritional status, education and health progress. This would require scaling up the resource allocation in the five-year plan. For rehabilitation of rescued girl children, resource would need to be created under a special scheme.

iii. Gender sensitization may not influence families below poverty line as their concern is on immediate need for money. Girl child scheme was introduced earlier to motivate parents to keep their daughters. However, while attractive on paper, such schemes are difficult to implement and expensive. Its needs careful planning of resource allocation and management.

iv. The Department of Women and Child Development has planned to transfer cash to parents of girl child on fulfilling conditions such as registration of birth, immunization, enrollment in school, retention in school and delaying marriage beyond 18 years. The objective is to provide incentives to parents to keep their daughter while it would change the societal mindset disfavoring daughter by linking cash and non cash to her well being. This would also need estimate of resource requirement for the five-year plan.

v. Making the monitoring units more effective would require more enhancement of allocation for district administration.

vi. For conducting social audit at community level, resource need to be allocated and transferred efficiently and effectively to local bodies. It must be ensured; such monitoring units do not suffer from fund scarcity.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The policy strategy paper is a critical analysis of gender inequity leading to gender poverty evaluates the policy response and recommends strategic options based on gender equity principle and threats of future gender imbalances. The advocacy approach analyzes the need for nationwide social marketing campaign to change the mindset in order to create the environment for the transition from the skewed sex ratio to equilibrium status. The Hammer approach advocates heavy crackdown on the offence and analyzed the need for stringent legislation by amending the inadequate social legislative provisions on gender issues and placing stronger accountability in the administration.

Lesson to Learn:

a) Continue to Fight Gender Discrimination:

Existing laws and amended provisions on gender welfare and protection against violence will reinforce the message; help change the mindset and attitudes through advocacy to eliminate sex selection. It must however not contradict the efforts towards safer prenatal care and legal abortion facilities.

b) Use Social Marketing campaign to publicize future hardships being experienced:

The public needs to realize exactly how individual decisions can generate a collective calamity. Catastrophic predictions of male surplus leading to

large number of male unmarried population and forecast of polyandry may not be convincing. It needs perhaps detail document and more publicity on the hardships faced by younger male generations in different parts of India, where past experiences of sex ratio imbalance has brought severe gender imbalances among young adults.

c) *Need to focus on elimination of sex selection:*

High sex ratio imbalance is not demographically sustainable but families may not comprehend the full implications of their choices before the passage of several decades. The lag between the skewed sex ratio and the first tangible consequence on the marriage market and family structure is at least 25 years, during which time excess male births are going to significantly distort the age and sex pyramids. There is no reason to be complacent about the current trends: the fight against prenatal discrimination should be placed at the core of India's gender and demographic agenda. Responsive government will use social audit to punish the defaulter.

End Note : This article was written in 2008 during my brief posting in Women and Child Development Ministry of one month. It was presented to the Secretary and Economic Advisor in 2008 which I hoped was utilized in the policy approach for reducing sex ratio in the country. It is revised after the result of census 2011 to continue the campaign against skewed sex ratio and to share the experience with neighboring countries in tackling similar crisis with policy strategy approach that has helped some of the critical states in India to reduce the gender gap.

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Annexure - A



*Females per 1000 males.

- Highest Ratio in Daman & Diu, Dadra & Nagar Haveli- * (<800)
- Very High Ratio in North-West -** (801-900)
- High Ratio in East- West-*** (901-950)
- Lower Ratio in South & North East-**** (951-1000)
- Lowest Sex ratio is in Kerala-***** (> 1001)

Annexure - B

Table 1 : Selected Estimates of Missing Women

	Sen's Method		Coale's Method		Klasen's Method	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
China	49.9	8.2	32.3	5.3	40.9	6.7
Taiwan	0.7	6.3	0.3	3.2	0.5	4.7
South Korea	0.5	2.1	0.2	1.0	0.2	0.7
India	42.6	8.6	24.6	5.0	39.1	7.9
Pakistan	6.0	9.6	3.4	5.5	4.9	7.8
Bangladesh	3.3	5.2	1.0	1.6	2.7	4.2
Nepal	0.1	1.0	0.3	2.4	0.1	0.5
Sri Lanka	0.2	1.9	0.1	1.4	0.0	0.0
West Asia:	5.3	5.7	1.8	2.0	3.8	4.2
of which						
Turkey	1.1	4.0	0.2	0.7	0.7	2.4
Syria	0.4	6.1	0.1	1.6	0.2	3.1
Afghanistan	0.7	6.8	0.5	4.4	1.0	9.3
Iran	1.4	4.7	0.3	0.9	1.1	3.7
Egypt	1.8	6.2	0.7	2.4	1.3	4.5
Algeria	0.5	3.1	0.1	0.8	0.2	1.2
Tunisia	0.2	3.5	0.0	0.0	0.1	2.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.0	0.0	3.6	1.2	5.5	1.8
Total (Comparable)	108.9	8.0	63.6	4.7	92.8	6.8
Total (World)	113.0	6.4	60.6	3.4	101.3	5.7

Source : Klasen and Claudia, 2003, page 279.

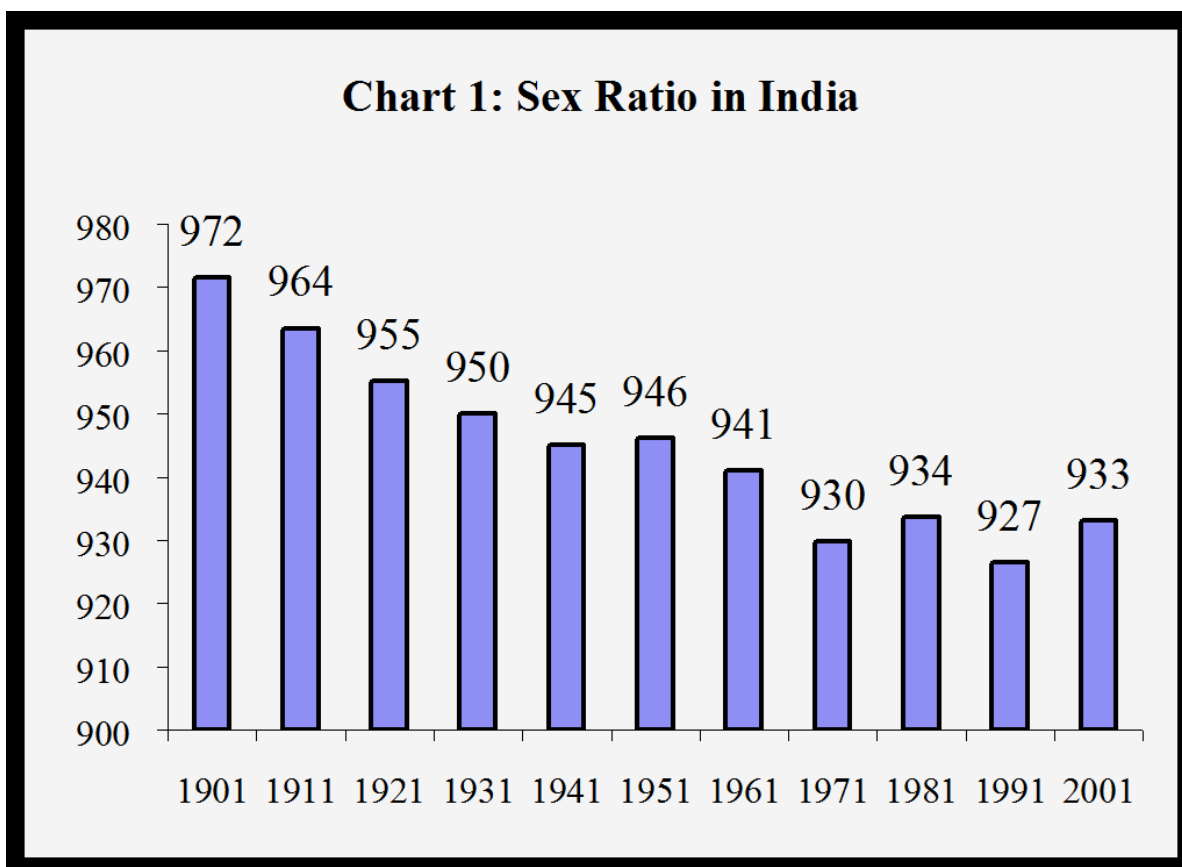
Annexure - C

Table 2 : Overall sex ratio and sex ratio in the age group of 0-6 yrs (1901 to 2011)

Year	Sex Ratio	Sex Ratio in Children (0-6yr)
1901	972	—
1911	964	—
1921	955	—
1931	950	—
1941	945	—
1951	946	—
1961	941	976
1971	930	964
1981	934	962
1991	927	945
2001	933	927
2011	940	914

While the overall sex ratio presents encouraging trends across the country the same is not true in the case of the girl child in the age group 0-6 years from 1961 to 2011.

Annexure - D



Note : Census 2011 shows improvement of female sex ratio from 933 in 2001 to 944 in 2011.

Annexure - E

Table 3 : Trends in Sex ratio in India : State wise composition

	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
INDIA	972	964	955	950	945	946	941	930	934	927	933	944
J & Kashmir	882	876	870	865	869	873	878	878	892	896	900	887
Him. Pradesh	884	889	890	897	890	912	938	958	973	976	970	983
Punjab	832	780	799	815	836	844	854	865	879	882	874	899
Chandigarh	771	720	743	751	763	781	652	749	769	790	773	812
Uttaranchal	918	907	916	913	907	940	947	940	936	936	964	975
Haryana	867	835	844	844	869	871	868	867	870	865	861	885
Delhi	862	793	733	722	715	768	785	801	808	827	821	866
Rajasthan	905	908	896	907	906	921	908	911	919	910	922	935
Uttar Pradesh	938	916	908	903	907	998	907	876	882	876	898	910
Bihar	1,061	1,051	1,020	995	1,002	1,000	1,005	957	948	907	921	912
Sikkim	916	951	970	967	920	907	904	863	835	878	875	883
Arun.Pradesh	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	894	861	862	859	901	913
Nagaland	973	993	992	997	1,021	999	933	871	863	886	909	929
Manipur	1,037	1,029	1,041	1,065	1,055	1,036	1,015	980	971	958	978	995
Mizoram	1,113	1,120	1,109	1,102	1,069	1,041	1,009	946	919	921	938	976
Tripura	874	885	885	885	886	904	932	943	946	945	950	962
Meghalaya	1,036	1,013	1,000	971	966	949	937	942	954	955	975	989
Assam	919	915	896	874	875	868	869	896	910	923	932	953
West Bengal	945	925	905	890	852	865	878	891	911	917	934	946

Jharkhand	1,032	1,021	1,002	989	978	961	960	945	940	922	941	948
Orissa	1,037	1,056	1,086	1,067	1,053	1,022	1,001	988	981	971	972	985
Chhatisgarh	1,046	1,039	1,041	1,043	1,032	1,024	1,008	998	996	985	990	995
Mad.Pradesh	972	967	949	947	946	945	932	920	921	912	920	933
Gujarat	954	946	944	945	941	952	940	934	942	934	921	923
D& Diu	995	1,040	1,143	1,088	1,080	1,125	1,169	1,099	1,062	969	709	589
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	960	967	940	911	925	946	963	1,007	974	952	811	752
Maharashtra	978	966	950	947	949	941	936	930	937	934	922	931
And.Pradesh	985	992	993	987	980	986	981	977	975	972	978	997
Karnataka	983	981	969	965	960	966	959	957	963	960	964	971
Goa	1,091	1,108	1,120	1,088	1,084	1,128	1,066	981	975	967	960	973
Lakshadweep	1,063	987	1,027	994	1,018	1,043	1,020	978	975	943	947	951
Kerala	1,004	1,008	1,011	1,022	1,027	1,028	1,022	1,016	1,032	1,036	1,058	1,099
Tamil Nadu	1,044	1,042	1,029	1,027	1,012	1,007	992	978	977	974	986	1,000
Pondicherry	NA	1,058	1,053	NA	NA	1,030	1,013	989	985	979	1,001	1,047
A&Nicobar	318	352	303	495	574	625	617	644	760	818	846	868

Source : <http://www.educationforallindia.com/chapter5-gender-composition-of-population-2011-census.pdf>

Annexure – F

Table 4 : India among its neighbor. 2001-2011

India	China	Pakistan	Bangladesh	Sri Lanka	Nepal	Afghanistan	Bhutan
933-940	944-926	938-943	958-978	1010-1034	1005-1014	930-931	9191-897

Source : <http://www.educationforallindia.com/chapter5-gender-composition-of-population-2011-census.pdf>

Table 5 : India among the world 2001-2011

World 986-- 984

	China	India	USA	Indonesia	Brazil	Pakistan	Russia	Bangladesh	Japan	Nigeria
2001	944	933	1,029	1,004	1,025	938	1,140	958	1,041	1,016
2011	926	940	1,025	988	1,042	943	1,167	978	1,055	987

Source : <http://www.educationforallindia.com/chapter5-gender-composition-of-population-2011-census.pdf>

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<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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