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Highlights

Employee Retention as a Challenge

Art of West Africa in Wood

Social Security Systems

Challenges for Urban Governance

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Citizen Participation and Framing Effects: An Empirical Study in Tehran Municipality Expert Idea Bank

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Abstracts - : Nowadays the societies which are confronted with significant challenges that dealing with them have become the most important concern of the urban managers. Although the managers are considered to be responsible in this regard, citizens might be able to play an even better role by presenting their ideas for cities' problems. Tehran as a metropolis is an example of those cities on their ways to modernization facing with emerging problems and issues. From 2009 a system for accumulation and surveillance of these ideas, is nominated "Idea Bank", is implemented. The Idea Bank is introduced and the impact of the framing effects on experts' judgment and decision making would be analyzed in this research. A sample of 202 expert members of the system is investigated. Based on the obtained results, idea generation resembles expenditure of money in order to buy a good or use a service and from the mental accounting point of view, it creates a mental account. In this research we have indicated that how the conflicts arising from framing effects in people's decision making, could influence experts' decision and judgment for prevention of closing the accounts containing loss, therefore, hazards concerning these effects should be considered as a critical factor for effectiveness of the idea bank.

Keywords: *Framing Effects, Mental Accounting, Citizen Participation.*

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Citizen Participation and Framing Effects: An Empirical Study in Tehran Municipality Expert Idea Bank

Amir Emami¹, Behrouz Zarei², Mahsa Ebrahimzadeh

March 2011

Abstract- Nowadays the societies which are confronted with significant challenges that dealing with them have become the most important concern of the urban managers. Although the managers are considered to be responsible in this regard, citizens might be able to play an even better role by presenting their ideas for cities' problems. Tehran as a metropolis is an example of those cities on their ways to modernization facing with emerging problems and issues. From 2009 a system for accumulation and surveillance of these ideas, is nominated "Idea Bank", is implemented. The Idea Bank is introduced and the impact of the framing effects on experts' judgment and decision making would be analyzed in this research. A sample of 202 expert members of the system is investigated. Based on the obtained results, idea generation resembles expenditure of money in order to buy a good or use a service and from the mental accounting point of view, it creates a mental account. In this research we have indicated that how the conflicts arising from framing effects in people's decision making, could influence experts' decision and judgment for prevention of closing the accounts containing loss, therefore, hazards concerning these effects should be considered as a critical factor for effectiveness of the idea bank.

Keywords- Framing Effects, Mental Accounting, Citizen Participation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Eric Hofer states that "It still holds true that human beings are the most uniquely human when they turn obstacles into opportunities" (Baron and Shane, 2008, p. 38). Opportunity is a situation in which a person can exploit a new idea that has the potential to create a benefit (Baron and Shane, 2008). During recent years, with considerable expansion of Tehran, capital of Iran, the municipality, has been always encountered with critical problems in effectiveness and efficiency of delivering services to citizens, for instance mismanagement, misconduct of projects and misallocation of resources.

To overcome these problems, the municipality needs to codify different kinds of long and short term plans. Those plans must have especial attributes like:

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applicability, effectiveness, efficiency with consideration of opportunities, threats, weaknesses and strengths. Therefore the Strategic Committee department of municipality crucially needs outward ideas from experts of all related civic fields; and a database for scrolling and maintaining the ideas, based on which a system would be enabled to collect the best ideas and have those mentioned attributes for the municipality senior managers. It is called "Municipality Idea Bank" which is able to collect a variety of ideas and can provide many opportunities. By developing such an idea bank, two results will be achieved for the municipality: first solving its own problems, second, increasing the level of citizen participation. Success of this system would depend on subjective values of participants.

In current study on the one hand we advance our knowledge about the necessity and the activities of the Idea bank, and on the other hand, we discuss that how neglecting the subjective values that are influenced by framing effect could jeopardize the efficiency and effectiveness of the idea bank. Furthermore, in this paper we argue that the idea generation as well as making payment in advance would create a mental account which to our knowledge is not investigated in an unique context like an idea bank.

The literature review section covers two areas: citizen participation and idea bank, and framing effects. After describing the research method, empirical tests would be applied. Then the paper discusses the studies' findings and implications and finally conclusion.

II. REVIEW ON FRAMING AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION STUDIES

1) Citizen participation and Idea Bank

Cities are known as complex systems which have become a challenging phenomenon for all urban managers. Therefore any planning tools recruited must contain innovative and sophisticated attributes, otherwise monitoring will face many obstacles (Rotmans, Asselt & Vellinga, 2000). In purposeful citizen participation system, the voice of members must be listened in the clearest way and the system should provide transparent participation opportunities for the

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members (Adamson, 2010). This facilitates urban society to have ideal conversation with agents (i.e., service providers in the city) (Adamson, 2010). In the literature of social engagement it is clearly mentioned that agents' authorities have been considered more responsive in ensuring the engagement, partnership, willingness and capacity of community. The modern society, nowadays, is faced with problematic phenomena such as: Increasing growth of cities, emergence of cluster cities, environmental opportunities and threats, social, political and economical matters, decreasing quality of urban life, rapid change of connection between urban and rural areas (Berner, Bogoyavlenskaya, Lliushin, Kovalev, Rochtchin, 1995; Rotmans, et al., 2000). As it is mentioned earlier, these are the complicated tasks that urban managers need to resolve. Great "ideas" might be one of the best solutions here. Weiss and Carayannis explain "idea" as 'normative or casual beliefs held by individuals that influence their attitudes and actions toward economic and social development'. In addition, an integrated system of gathering ideas and opinions from citizens' experts is required to provide valid and real time information for city top level managers, (Berner, et al., 1995; Rotman, 1998). To achieve this aim, since 2009 an expert's Idea Bank is established in Tehran municipality. Experts groups by generating their ideas, influence policies and programs of the city especially at the time of uncertainty (Haas & Haas, 1995). "Global Ideas Bank" and "Idea A Day" are two famous similar examples of idea bank around the world, the first started in 1985 and the second founded in London in 2000.

The mission of the Idea Bank in Tehran municipality is to use synergy of expert citizens' participation in solving their own city's problems; it is the feature that may distinguish it from the other idea banks. The Tehran idea bank is a website where people post, exchange, discuss, and polish new ideas indirectly with the managers of the city, therefore, it is as part of the municipality's management information system. These experts analyze every event from variety points of view (Weiss & Carayannis, 2001). A good idea is often generated through discussion. Whatsoever, an idea evolves through more different and contradictory points of view (e.g., in a cross-cutting group), would be more rational and mature (Mutz, 2002; Druckman, 2003) that is why in our civic deliberation network we use ideas and opinions from different expertise.

When the ideas are gathered and evaluated by its unique net base system, the best ideas will be chosen by the idea bank's agent. Such ideas are then sent to Tehran Municipality Strategic Committee department (TMSC) in order to be applied in solving problems and modifying the projects.

There are two ways to receive ideas by the idea bank:

- Random idea: when an expert contributes her/his idea for a special case. In this way, the municipality has not asked for the idea but he or she has considered the idea useful and the municipality can make use of it later. After the idea has been assessed, it will be sent to TMSC for future action.
- Planned idea: The municipality has specific problems and enquires about experts' ideas. In this way, it is generally assumed that the application of the offered ideas would be possible within a short time. So the process of evaluation is very controversial and takes more time. Similarly after the idea evaluation it will be sent to TMSC.

The first kind of idea is adhoc, so it can be concluded that most of the procedures in the idea bank have been assigned to the second alternative although framing methodology has been planned for both kinds of idea generation.

It is not possible to impulse experts by a rigid system of compensation (e.g. merely paying money), because they expect to receive a variety of equilibrates for sharing their ideas. The idea bank compensation system must be flexible enough to compensate the citizen valuable contribution by providing them with the best possible portfolio of prizes.

2) Framing Effect

Framing is one of the most famous controversial issues, which deviates from the rational decision theory (Tversky and Kahneman, 1986). Judgment and decision making are very sensitive to the way that decision outcomes are manipulated (Kahneman & Tversky, 1971; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981;) whether this manipulation, aims at challenging the willingness to risk, simply evaluating of an object or persuading a communication (see., Levin et al., 1998). Basically rational decisions follow the normative model of expected-utility theory (Baron, 2008). According to this model, decision outcomes should not violate the principle of description invariance (Kahneman and Tversky, 1984). Based on this principle the way that a decision scenario is manipulated in different states or situations should not change individual choices. But in framing manipulating of a decision problem is different, even contradictory choices would be made. Because it objectively emphasizes part of the problem's information that biases people's decision to a choice that does not follow a rational process, it rather follows subjective values. (Kahneman and Tversky, 1984).

Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky in 1979 proposed a descriptive theory of decision utility, which is called "prospect theory" (see Fig. 1). This theory illustrates the famous type of framing called Risky-choice framing, because it can challenge people's

judgment by risky vs. certain options. (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Tversky and Kahneman, 1981). It is the most widely used type of framing in researches (Levin et al., 1998; Huang and Wang, 2010). In this type, "individuals tend to prefer risk-averse alternative when the outcomes are framed in term of gains (e.g., saving lives, making money), but shift to preferring risk-seeking when the equivalent outcomes are framed in terms of losses (e.g., dying, losing money)" (Druckman, 2001, P.63). For instance in the most widely cited risky choice framing (i.e., Asian disease problem) 72% of the answers biased to the certain choice in positive format and 78% of answers biased to risky choice in negative format (see, Tversky and Kahneman, 1981).

Variations of Asian disease problem have been used in many researches (see Druckman, 2001; Huang and Wang, 2010). Therefore one of the objectives of current study is to verify risky choice framing by using Asian Disease format, while it contains idea bank's outcomes (Experiment 2), because if this verification occurs, it would strengthen the existence of some framing effects that are consider in the idea bank (like, loss aversion, status quo, and sunk cost).

Prospect theory contains one of the most robust human biases called "loss aversion" and is defined as the individual tendency to avoid losses in exchange for obtaining equal gains (Tversky and Kahneman, 1981; Inesi, 2010). This bias causes risk seeking behavior because from psychological point of view losses (e.g., losing 1000\$) seem more painful and tormentor than equal gains (e.g., gaining 1000\$) (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Tversky and Kahneman, 1981). The result of this dissatisfaction in risky framing, biases decision to more risky choices. It is necessary to say that in the idea bank contributing an idea equates paying cost, and Obtaining award/s or satisfying expectations is similar to the gain. Kessler, Ford and Bailey (1996) found that loss of a favorable object produces a negative value in prospect theory. This is retrieved from mental accounting studies.

Loss aversion has been identified to be related to the number of important biases in decision making, including sunk-cost effect and Status quo bias and Task Framing (soman, 2004).

Sunk cost occurs when a person pays the price of a service or good in advance or has a previous investment in something then opens a mental account for the service (Thaler, 1999; Soman, 2004). A person can simultaneously open different mental accounts for different services and if the sunk cost be greater the pressure of using the service increases, (Garland and Newport, 1991; Soman, 2004). The account will close when the person gains the same value by consuming the service (Keasey and Moon, 2000; Soman, 2004). Therefore an expert who contributes an idea might create a mental account and it will be closed when

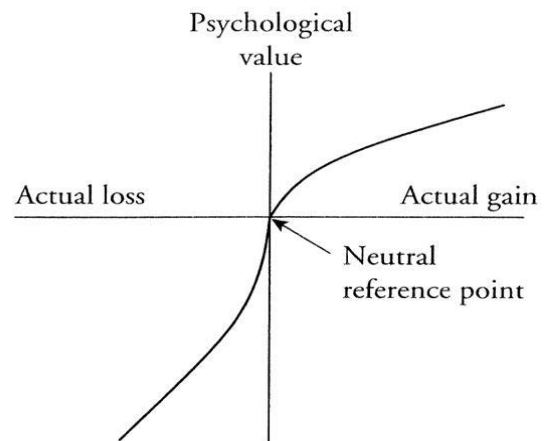


Fig.1 The value function of prospect theory. Reference: Soman, 2004

obtain an award (or gains) from the idea bank. Hence sunk cost is not just limited to monetary matters.

Status quo bias occurs when people have a willingness to remain at the status quo (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988). The disutility of giving up current solution or situation looms greater than utility of gaining the new alternative solutions or situation (Thaler et al., 1991). Also people tend to feel more gain by the default condition. (Kahnman et al., 1991). Even by introducing a state as a default option to a person (i.e., the person has not experienced it before), it makes them more committed to the status quo to avoid loss feeling (Burmeister and Schade, 2007).

Positive features of an option motivate choosing it, in contrast negative attributes of an option discourage selecting it (Shafir, 1993; Levin et al., 1998) this is called "Task framing". According to hazard of these biases, In the idea bank which is suppose to collect the best ideas, there should not be any oriented means to direct the idea, deliberately or un-deliberately, to a special object; otherwise, the framing effect would occur. In manipulating of the problem only the necessary material and information should be provided, and also the experts should feel free in making decisions and contributing their ideas.

III. METHOD

1) participants

The participants were 202 adults (129 male and 73 female). Experts in our idea bank consist of different groups of dons, lawyers, engineers, managers, hygienists, treatment experts, consultants, and social experts. Ages ranged from 25 to 67, with a mean of 39.47 years (SD= 6.65). The population was experts living in Tehran and had contributed in the idea bank before.

2) Research design and procedure

The questionnaires were distributed among experts. The experiments 2 performed in two phases. In

the first phase half of the questions are asked and the rest were asked two months later. Since understanding the questions was necessary for the respondents, we performed an interview after each question. These interviews authenticated the reliability and stability of responds. Also one question appeared at the end of the experiments: "How clear were the questions in this questionnaire?" to check the clarity of the experiment tool (Hasseldine and Hite, 2003) responds recorded on a 1(very unclear) to 9 (very clear) scale. Another technique we applied for validation of the questionnaires was acquiring the opinions of five academic professors and applying the required modifications. The experiment 1 asked the subjects to indicate their likeliness on a five point respond scale, on which to respond (1="very low", 5="very much"). And in the experiment 2, we asked subjects to respond double choice questions.

IV. RESULT

1) Experiment 1- Sunk Cost Effects

The objective of presenting this study is to investigate whether a person would be likely to continue contributing ideas after investing other ideas into the idea bank without success (i.e., loss). According to the system report, experts in idea bank can be categorized in to 3 parts. The first part is those experts whom have more than 60 % rate of idea acceptance and the second and third respectively have between 40%-60% and less than 40% .Therefore, we consider it in grouping our sample as control condition factor.

The Experiment's question:

Imagine you are expected to receive a concert ticket of your favorite singer in VIP part from idea bank as your requested award for your accepted ideas, but unfortunately your ideas are not accepted. How likely you are to continue contributing your ideas for the next round? (Note that this ticket could cost you \$50 if you wanted to buy it yourself)

RESULTS

The descriptive data are provided in Table 1.

Table .1 Descriptive data

Category	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
MORE THAN 60%	2.4062	32	1.26642
BETWEEN 40%-60%	3.2838	74	1.30877
LESS THAN 40%	3.7083	96	1.16001
Total	3.3465	202	1.30773

A T-test implied to examine the difference of means between categories in three states. The output is illustrated in Table 2.

The result of the statistics shows that the means are not equal in each test ($P\text{-Value} < 0.05$). Especially there is significant different between the means in second test ($P\text{-value} < 0.00$).it can be inferred from the tables that those who has more failure rate of ideas are more likely to continue contributing ideas in future. In contrast the experts whom are the owner of winning rate are less concern about future contributions. So it might be concluded that the members' enthusiasm to avoid the loss impression in the idea bank (i.e., closure of a mental account containing loss of missing a reward), creates a stronger sunk cost.

2) Experiment 2-Risky Choice framing

Several studies have supported the validity, and reliability and internal consistency of the risk framing (e.g., Druckman, 2001). This experiment has been retrieved from Asian disease problem by considering the idea bank outcomes in order to find out to what extent framing effects can bias members' judgments and decision making. We had to implement questionnaire in two stages with one month lag. Otherwise the subject may understand the manipulation trick that had been used and in this case the results of this experiment would not be reliable.

The expressed questions in this experiment are as follows:

Imagine that your idea is accepted by the municipality and your expected awards are 6 subjects but in the very same time the municipality is dealing with some problems and this causes some limitations for the municipality. Therefore it will not be able to provide you the whole 6 subjects, rather you are provided with two alternative programs to compensate your efforts, Assume that the exact scientific estimation of the program's consequences are as follows:

Question 1:

-If program A is used, you can gain 2 of your expected awards for sure.

-If program B is used, there is a one-third probability that you will obtain the whole 6 awards and a two-third probability that no awards will be acquired.

Question 2:

- If program C is used, 4 of your expected awards will lose.

- If program B is used, there is a one-third probability that none of your expected award will lose and a two-thirds probability that you will lose the whole 6 awards from municipality.

Table2. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
More than 60% × Between 40%-60%	.082	.77	-3.20	104	.002	-0.87	0.27	-1.42	-0.33
More than 60% × Less than 40%	1.21	0.27	-5.37	126	0.00	-1.30	0.24	-1.78	-0.82
Between 40%-60% × Less than 40%	3.34	0.07	-2.23	168	0.02	-0.42	0.18	-0.79	-0.04

*Equal variances assumed

Obviously in question 1 program A contains positive and certain information and program B offers positive and risky information, while in the second question, program C includes negative and certain information and program D provides a negative and risky outcome.

In Table 3 the frequency of responds to each one of the programs are shown. On one hand although programs A and B in question 1 are identical with programs C and D in question 2 are equal from the consequence point of view, there is a meaningful difference around %39 (65-26 & 74-35) between them. On the other hand a Nonparametric chi-squared test, χ^2 (1, N=202) = 19.03, $P < .05$ in first question and χ^2 (1, N=202) = 64.34, $P < .05$ in second question shows that in %95 confidence level, the proportion of the responds are not the same. This result supports the prospect theory principals in the idea bank, consequently when the decision outcomes are presented in positive way, the experts would be risk averse. On contrast if those outcomes are offered in negative way they would be risk taking.

Table3. Frequency Distribution in Experiment 2

Chi-Square(P-Value)	Percent(N)	Options	Questions
19.03 (0.00)	65%(132)	Program A	Question 1
	35%(70)	Program B	
64.34 (0.00)	26%(44)	Program C	Question 2
	74%(158)	Program D	

In table 4 the cross tabulation instrument has been applied to better explanation of the relationship between two questions. The interesting point that is indicated in this table is that 28 (%14) out of 202 experts who had chosen program A (positive-certain), selected program C (negative-certain) in second question and also only 45 experts (%22) who had chosen program B in question 1, selected program D (negative-risky) in second question. This result explicitly indicates the inconsistency in selection, which is a consequence of framing.

Table4. Experiment 1_1 × Experiment 1_2 Cross tabulation

		Experiment 1_2		Total
		Negative Certain	Negative Risky	
Experiment 1-1	Positive certain	14%(28)	51%(104)	65%(132)
	Positive Risky	12%(25)	22%(45)	35%(70)
Total		26%(53)	74%(149)	100%(202)

V. DISCUSSION

The result of sunk cost in this research is of great value especially because it may open a path to apply proved mental accounting's theories and principles in the idea bank or other similar information systems that is the theatrical contribution of this study. For instance we can mention "hedonic effect" principle (Thaler, 1985, 1999) which is retrieved from mental accounting literature. The implications of this principle have been introduced in researches (for further study see Thaler, 1985, Soman, 2004) especially in marketing. To increase the subjective value of individuals in a transaction:

1. Integrated Losses
2. Segregate Gains
3. Segregate small Gains from big Losses (well known as "Silver Lining" Principle)

We can exemplify the implication of each mentioned principle above to satiate expert more in the idea bank. According to the first principle when the idea bank has received some ideas from an expert it is better to inform the rejected ideas all together at the time of notification of the result rather than notify each (failed idea) one by one. For the second principle if an expert expects to receive a portfolio of wards, it is more effective to provide his/her awards separately for example assigning 5 awards in 7 days rather than whole in one day. And finally imagine that the idea bank has been faced with financial problem in a period of time which is not possible to compensate the expert's for their contribution (especially when the promised award/s

costs a lot) by whole award/s the third principle suggest that never postpone the awards for the future in this exceptional case rather it is very convenient to inform them friendly the current circumstance of the idea bank and provide them their award as much as possible this help to lessen the perception of loss in their mental account otherwise the inclusion of the loss in their mental account hamper future cooperation with the idea bank.

V. CONCLUSION

People select opposite solutions for their problem in a same situation because of the framing effects. This paper discusses the outcomes of framing effects on judgment and decision making in the idea bank with a real experience from the idea bank. In the first Experiment we discussed that generating ideas in the idea bank similar to monetary transactions creates a mental account for the expert therefore it is suggested that the theories and principles which are in domain of mental accounting could be applied in idea bank or other analogous management information systems the "hedonic effect" considered as an example here. In the second experiment the risky choice framing applied in order to show how framing effects can cause contradiction in experts' judgment and decision making. We insist that awareness about hazard and opportunity that framing problems cause is as necessary as budgeting and planning for survival of the idea bank. Finally the implication of framing effects and mental accounting for increasing the level of individual participation would be suggested for the future studies. In this study a limited number of framing effects have been investigated. By taking the results of the study into consideration, it is evident that some of the primary theoretical constructs of framing area and mental accounting could be employed in the idea bank; therefore it is possible to be able also to investigate other constructs of this area in the idea bank and similar information systems.

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Employee Retention as a Challenge in Leather Industry

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Abstracts - : Employee retention is the vital challenge in all organizations. This papers focus on one industry that is the leather industry of Pakistan which is facing the same problem of retention of employees due to many reasons. As Leather industry is the third largest export earning sector in Pakistan so these reasons are discussed in detail. The turnover rate in Leather Industry of Pakistan is around 25 – 30% annually, its observed that mostly second line managers change their job's for high salaries offer, recognition, authority and also to seek for more knowledge and to get more competitive edge in terms of processing; In tanneries its critical and alarming because of the process and article secrecy. In order to achieve competitive advantage, maximum utilization of resources and to get organizational efficiency employees must be retained in a true spirit in order to cope with all these conditions. In this paper the authors tried to know the reasons behind this dilemma that how employees can be retained and some suggestions were given to deal with it. One edge of this paper is that one of the author belongs to the same industry i.e. leather industry.

Keywords: *Employee retention, Tannery.*

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Employee Retention as a Challenge in Leather Industry

Muhammad Hassan¹, Sobia Hassan², Kashif Ud Din Khan³, M. Akram Naseem³

Abstract- Employee retention is the vital challenge in all organizations. This paper focus on one industry that is the leather industry of Pakistan which is facing the same problem of retention of employees due to many reasons. As Leather industry is the third largest export earning sector in Pakistan so these reasons are discussed in detail. The turnover rate in Leather Industry of Pakistan is around 25 – 30% annually, its observed that mostly second line managers change their job's for high salaries offer, recognition, authority and also to seek for more knowledge and to get more competitive edge in terms of processing; In tanneries its critical and alarming because of the process and article secrecy.

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I. INTRODUCTION

It is a new era of modern technology and competitive business environment. Organizations are continuously changing. This changing environment is not only effecting the organizations but also the employees working in it. In order to maximize organizational efficiency and for optimal utilization of the resources, human resources must be managed properly. Human resource management plays a vital role in this regard. They are responsible that how employees are treated in the organization.

Employee retention is a vital issue and challenge to all the organizations now days. There are numbers of factors which promote the employees to stay or leave the organization. It may be external factors, internal factors and the combined effect of both. Human resource practices counts a lot in this regard.

It is the need of the hour that HR managers should identify the needs of the employee and then devises the retention strategies. One strategy does not fit to all as different individuals have different priorities. HR professionals face the vital challenge to retain talented employees. Employee retention is very critical to the long term health of any organization. When an organization loses its talented employee it lefts a negative impact on innovation, customer satisfaction, knowledge gain during the past years and on the profitability of the organization. More over replacing cost of another employee contribute a lot to the organization.

Management theorist like Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg and many more believed that people have needs that should be satisfied with in the work place 50 years ago or more than that. They have proposed the hierarchy of needs to motivate the person with in a working environment. so it is a challenge which management have been facing a years before.

Leather industry is the third largest export earning sector in Pakistan after textile. Its history of origin is as old as of Pakistan. Leather Industry is among the top 10 GDP contributing sector in Pakistan which is still recognized as SMALL INDUSTRY. A private sector which has the challenges of scare resources in terms of raw material availability (A byproduct from Meat sector), technological expertise (Only two professional Institutions are in operation – Highest degree is Diploma of Associate Engineering), energy crises as well as high turnover Ratios. There are two major hubs that known to be as Southern Zone (Karachi) & Northern Zone (Multan, Sahiwal, Lahore, Sheikhpura, Kasur, Sialkot, Peshawar). Leather industry of Pakistan is facing different challenges to survive in international market. First of them is the use of Hi-tech expertise for superiority products and availability of expert manpower to provide the needs of the world market. This is a serious issue and need to be dealt with as early as possible. There is an increasing need to train labor force having ability to produce leather products on scientific lines and fulfill with the demands of international market to fight. There is an urgent need of training our labor force on modern pattern to improve the finish product to develop reliability of leather products of Pakistan. On the whole, it is a job-oriented sector providing employment to a very large sector of the society and having problems with their retention and high turnover.

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Industries are continuously facing this challenge and much of work has been done and a lot of the researches have applied to deal the situation. So this study is a little milestone to it. We have tried our level best to add a little value to it.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Employee retention means keeping right people on right jobs for every organization. There is no single definition of employee retention. 'Employee retention is all about 'keeping good people.' It is much to do with our culture and how we treat people.'

(J. Leslie Mckeown). Infact, the notion of employee retention arose because of increasing number of employees leaving the organization due to various reasons.

It is viewed that employee retention is 'controllable element' by the organization. To quote again J. Leslie Mckeown that there is 'No single plan that fits every situation. As an alternative, we have to discover how to hold employee for our organization and even for specific departments or divisions in the organization. We have to learn how to launch the right strategies and procedure to retain employees and learn to measure their success. And the way how to supervise our employee retention goals, strategies, and tactics over time in a changing circumstances day by day.

Jim Collins - author of 'Built to Last and Good to Great' - explains the first key to success is indeed people. You have to find the right people first; the vision and strategy can follow. It is the people in organization, who are the key to success.

A significant amount of literature has been published on retention. In this era of high employment levels, organizations find out that balance of power has shifted from the employer to the employee since the turn over impact have not be reduced well. Excessive turnover is often a indicator of basic problems within the business. It is critically important to retain the employees to do this one must know how an employee can remain in the particular company. Many researchers analyzed that retaining employees is considered as a key strategy to achieve financial success. The challenge might be increasing day by day. The organizations want to hold the valued employees. Many approaches are used in this regard. The one approach sees success in rewards the second in making jobs more valuable (training and advancement). Most observers suggest a merge of both approaches.

Recent evidence by Raudenbush & Bryk (2002) suggests that retention is very important for every organization. Previous studies indicate Cappelli (2000:104) that several factors are considered important in a well-functioning of employee retention. The determinants that are considered to have a direct affect

are career opportunities, work environment and work-life balance. Cole (2000) suggests that people stay at such companies where there is a sense of pride and will work to their fullest potential. The reasons to stay are work environment, rewards, growth and development and work-life balance.

Leaders should provide support to their staff because in most of the cases "People Don't Leave Organization People Leave Managers" (Jim Collins). Many employees would like working in organizations with pleasant working environment. They would be more productive if the relationship between themselves and also between them and the employer are bettered (Asmed, 2006).

The challenge of finding, attracting, developing and retaining the right talent is a major element of management and once the right talent is found the next job is to retain that talent. Retaining employees involves understanding the motivators in them which many organizations unable to identify. The reason is individuals differ greatly in this regard. A company should made some effort and undertake some analyses to determine the non-monetary interests and preferences of its key employees, and then attempt to meet these preferences in action. The organizations should implement only the relevant retention strategies. Since one Strategy does not fit in all the organization, there is a need for the HR Managers to identify the employee needs and then plan the retention strategies.

All organizations or business enterprises of all sizes or under any names are only to serve the needs of the people. All organizations are not only run by people, but also it is the people mainly employees, at various levels who establish the competence and efficacy of the organization. This means that if organizations have to maintain their competence and efficacy, there should be maintenance of the retention of the employees within the system. Thus competency, efficacy and survival of any organization anywhere, whether big or small, depend on the human resource.

The relationship between the employee's job performance and their retention also differ significantly with organizational culture values. The cultural effects were stronger than the combined influences of the labor market and the new employees' demographic characteristics. (John E. Sheridan)

Selecting and retaining great staff is key for any business success. Talented people who continue to develop skills and increases their value to an organization and to the customer are the most important resource. (Susan Heathfield)

Organizational commitment has been considered as one of the most important indicator of turnover and intention to leave. It was found that employees who were more committed to their organizations had lower intention to leave than those

with lower organizational commitment (Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Igharia & Greenhaus, 1992).

Don Grimme suggests out some ways to retain the Employees .In his opinion pay employees reasonably and well. Treat each and every employee with respect. Show them that you care about them as persons, not just as workers. Praise their attempts; clearly communicate goals, responsibilities and expectations. Never criticize in open. Reward for outstanding performance (e.g., with promotions and opportunities).Involve employees in plans and decisions. Ask for their ideas and opinions. Encourage initiative. Create opportunities for employees to learn & grow. Link the goals of the organization with the goals of each individual in it. Keenly listen to employees concerns — both work related and personal. Share information openly and clearly. Celebrate successes and milestones reached — organizational and personal. Create an organizational culture that is open, trusting and fun. (Grimme Top Ten for Retention)

It has been proved that both the hiring and training processes are costly and employees increase in value as they become ever more experienced. Employees stay with a company either because the organization satisfies their needs and uses their abilities to an optimal level (in good case) or because they just can't find another job (in bad case).

It is fairly obvious that retention policies based simply on reward procedure will be insufficient. Retention will work best if the company's values are very clear, encouraging to employee ambition, and implemented to provide both "rewards" and "capacity" within the organization.

Finally organizations need to be more concern about the employees because if there is stronger Organization's commitment the employees are retained for longer.

III. PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to find out the reasons and to know how to retain employees in leather sector of Pakistan.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This research methodology depends upon the randomization selection of employee from 15 leather tanneries. In this research the target population was the First line and Second line managers of Leather industry of Pakistan .There are around 400 tanneries of leather in Punjab .The data was gather from 15 Leather Tanneries

and organizations located in Lahore, Sialkot, Shekupura, Muridkay and Kasur because these selected tanneries carry 50% export share leather industry of Pakistan. There are almost 100 managers in these tanneries .It was tried to gather data from 75 managers but response rate was not 100%. The data was gathered from 50 managers.

V. SAMPLING

The sample population of this research was only male managers from 15 tanneries because there were no women at that level. From 15 most important tanneries of leather industry the data is collected on the basis of their production level which contributes 50% of total Pakistan exports. The data was collected through structured questioner by below given approach.

Primary data	Questionnaire to be filled	Response rate
By email	10	2
By telephone	20	18
By self administered approach	45	30
Total sample	75	50

VI. ANALYSIS / RESULTS

The data was entered in SPSS by predefined coding scheme through exploratory factor analysis technique factors are determined and the items which shows low communalities (< 0.60) are discarded and then re-factor analysis applied to decide the factors.

The explode factors are as under;

Carrier Prospects
Attitude of Employer
Employer Loyalty
Job and Life Balance
Job Security
Job Opportunities

Pearson correlations are obtained to determine the relationships between the different factors. The significant correlations are highlighted in below table.

There is positive correlation between Carrier Prospects and Attitude of Employer, Employer loyalty, Job life balance and Job security.

To know about the association between demographic variables and the explored factors Chi-Square analysis is performed and it is found that the Age is associated with Attitude of Employer at 10% level of significance.

VII. CORRELATIONS

		Carrier Prospects	Attitude of Employer	Employer Loyalty	Job and Life Balance	Job Security	Job Opportunities
Carrier Prospects	Pearson Correlation	1	.680**	.590**	.470**	.357*	-.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.011	.981
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50
Attitude of Employer	Pearson Correlation	.680**	1	.552**	.462**	.121	.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.001	.404	.846
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50
Employer Loyalty	Pearson Correlation	.590**	.552**	1	.420**	.351*	-.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.002	.012	.805
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50
Job and Life Balance	Pearson Correlation	.470**	.462**	.420**	1	.325*	.174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.002		.021	.226
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50
Job Security	Pearson Correlation	.357*	.121	.351*	.325*	1	.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.404	.012	.021		.701
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50
Job Opportunities	Pearson Correlation	-.003	.028	-.036	.174	.056	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.981	.846	.805	.226	.701	
	N	50	50	50	50	50	50

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

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

VIII. THE REASONS FOR WHICH EMPLOYEES CHOOSE TO STAY

The following are the reasons for which employee wants to stay in leather industry analyzed from the data

There should be good Career prospects within an organization to retain employee for longer. More over attitude of employer, or a supervisor or a manager is very important in this regard. Employee loyalty comes when an employee is fully satisfied with his employer, good working conditions ,having benefits and fair pay, recruitment should be on merit and there must be no favoritism and his abilities are been polishing through training and development time by time. There should be proper work and family life balance having flexed working hours. An employee should have job security at all the times.

IX. CONCLUSION

It was concluded that almost all the factors or indicators that directly or indirectly influence employee retention are correlated. One has an apparent effect on other. So not only a single factor promotes an employee to leave the organization but it's a blend of many reasons. Sometimes an employee is more concern with one reason as compare to other according to human nature and priorities. But it is a challenge for an organization to be more concerned about their employees to pace with them for longer.

X. RECOMMENDATIONS

It was highly recommended to hire right person for a right job for long-term relationship. Role of a supervisor is very important to gain the trust of an employee. There should be a good judgment of job security and future prospects in an organization.

Restrain favoritism. Establish Flexible Work Hours. Safe and good working environment must be there because of hazardous chemicals used in leather sector.

Training as well as personal development plans should be in place which will show more affiliation between employee and employer and will play a vital role in removing the GAP between the top, higher and middle level management.

Individual's performance measurement should be in place based on tangible and measurable goals. There should be Personal Development Plan for every individual in the organization based on his Role and Responsibilities. Human Resources Department should be established which is not there in almost 99% of tanneries. And last but not least there should be effective communication throughout the organization.

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Willingness to Pay For Water at Household Level in Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria

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Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



Willingness to Pay For Water at Household Level in Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract- The paper examines willingness to pay (WTP) at the level of household in Ilorin, Nigeria. Ilorin was divided into four residential zones namely: Government Reservation Area (GRA), Modern Area, Housing Estates, and Traditional Area. 50 questionnaires were administered in each of these zones; making a total of 200 questionnaires administered in the whole of the study area. Also, 37 socio-economic variables were generated from the questionnaire. Due to multicollinearity problem, factor analysis method was used to reduce the 37 variables to orthogonal factor defining variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to associate willingness to pay (WTP) and the social economic variables. The result of factor analysis showed that 3 factor defining variables (fdvs): income, demography and educational level, are the most dominant factors having 98% explanation. Further analysis through stepwise multiple regression suggests that household income is the best predictor of WTP in Ilorin with 83% explanation. The paper posits that any policy towards pricing water in Ilorin should consider household income as an important variant.

I. INTRODUCTION

Water pricing is the price paid by a domestic user for water distribution, purification and treatment. It aims at determining the amount of money a consumer will pay for the supply of water. For example, a price responsive consumer might reduce water usage according to rate of increase. Contrary to popular opinion water is not in-exhaustible gift of God. Indeed in view of the present state of water supply on the earth, the next world war may possibly not be caused by petroleum but by water. Water has high value which must be paid for.

Two extreme views are often expressed as regard availability of water. First, that man is in his critical period of water consumption, because the demand for water has already overtaken its supply. The second view is that water is sufficiently available everywhere and in every part of the world. Indeed, both views may be acceptable in water resources. The world water resources and access to water shows that potable water is scarce. Meanwhile, anything scarce and in high demand commands a price. For example, water is scarce especially in the context of drought and degraded quality. Hence, there is a need to price water.

The reserve generated through the purchase of water has been shown to equate to the cost of developing city's public water utility. Whittington's (1987) research on willingness to pay is the most popular because of its wide revelation in Onitsha; Nigeria, which

illustrates how level of payment for water equate to the finance of urban water supply and infrastructural development. Valuing water is controversial; willingness to pay conceptualizes water as a commodity (i.e. good to be bought). The variations in perceptions of water are clearly wide ranging and it cannot be assumed that people attached the same value or cost to the provision of water at one time or in any one place. These variations are not always recognized by government organizations and development agencies consequently they tend to over or under estimate the levels of unwillingness to pay for a commodity when implementing water projects. Therefore, water supply project fail because the needs and requirement of the community have not been met and their willingness to pay is not clearly signalled. Kessler (1997) observed that free access to a resource leads to excessive use and that charging of water rates leads to sustainable water management. In the same vein, Rogerson (1996) observed that State or government tariffs rarely reflect a community's willingness to spend.

Many factors affect household water demand and willingness to pay for improved water services. According to a World Bank (1992) many of the water projects implemented over the last decades in developing countries are considered as failures. This is because poor knowledge of the health benefits of improved water supplies, affordability of tariffs, insensitivity by donors and central government to local customs and beliefs and the ability to operate and maintain water systems by local and community participation and local involvement in design and management (Brookshire, et. al., 1993). It also due to poor emphasis on the importance of improved project identification, design and construction, the level of understanding of the institution providing water and their tendency towards selecting capital intensive projects, the neglect of maintenance schemes and establishment of strategic links between water, the investment sector and micro economic policies (Howe and Dixon, 1993, Roger et. al. 1993). Also, several studies such as Whittington, et. al (1990; 1991), Atlaf, et.al. (1993, 1994), Briscoe, et. al. (1990), WBWDRT (1993) showed that the Willingness to pay for improved services does not depend solely on income but on both existing and improved supplies. Income elasticity of demand for access to improved water services have been estimated to be low as 0.15 in Brazil, 0.4 in India and 0.07 in

Zimbabwe. The report further showed that, more educated households are willing to pay more for improved water supplies; while gender was also statistically significant in WTP. Secondly demand for improved water supply also relate to the characteristics of the existing water source, such as quality and reliability of supply. Finally, a third demand factor refers to the attitude of government water supply and their inefficiencies (WBWDRT, 1993). In Brazil and India it was reported that more educated households are willing to pay more for improved services, the characteristics of existing water source in terms of quality and reliability of supply and the attitude of governments' water supply and their purchasing power have also been fingered in the analysis of willingness to pay (Asthana, 1999; Calkins; 2002).

There are several approaches for studying willingness to pay but some of these methods have not yielded the expected results particularly in the developing countries. Therefore, Merret (2002) had criticized these previous methodologies because they do not take into account the multiple uses of water and their relationship to multiple sourcing. He suggested that behavioural studies into the domestic demand for water and waste water services in low income countries which should be based on semi structured interviews. This will be attempted in this study.

II. WATER SUPPLY AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development with reference to man's environment is the ability to continue to support progressive social and economic development with a view to providing many types of ecosystems services.

The need for water sustainability has been stressed extensively but has not been seriously examined (Kimoon, 2008). The problem of climate change, groundwater stress, extreme weather events and migration coupled with demographics and increasing consumption due to rising per capital income has brought about global water crises. As income increase, people consumed more; water demand for producing goods also increases. In addition, as people move from one meal a day to two and people include meat in their diet the demand for water is also increased. Changes in lifestyles, rural urban migration complicated by political conflict and environmental crises will further stress water demand. Furthermore, pricing policies, subsidies on water, trade patterns, and developments in science and technology patterns, evolution of policies and laws, social movements, global and natural politics will affect water supply. Meanwhile, there is need to balance all these variants for sustainable development of water resources. More importantly, the impact of lack of sustainable

development will be mostly felt in countries with low income levels per capita, widespread absolute poverty, high population growth and rapid urbanization such as Nigeria.

Sustainable development is not complete without discussing sustainable financing. According to WHO estimates returns of 3 to 4 dollars is expected in form of economic growth depending on the level of technology and region for each 2 dollar invested in drinking water and sanitation. For example, expanding safe drinking water and sanitation services would drastically cut the loss of life from water related illnesses. Also, upgrading of water supply and sanitation will improve education and in turn allow girls and young children to attend schools rather than fetching water. Further, in industrial countries lots of cost redeemed from ecosystem restoration efforts over 60 billions may be required for this purpose.

Indeed, WHO and UNICEF (2006) rightly conclude that without higher commitment the world may not achieve ½ of the MDGs target by 2015, this call for greater commitment in sustainable water resource management in Nigeria. This paper will examine sustainable water resources management as it relates to water pricing in Nigeria growing city.

III. THE STUDY AREA

Ilorin the Kwara state capital is located on latitude 8°32'N and longitude 4°35' E. It covers about 1000km². The landscape ranges in elevation in the western part from 273m to 333m and in the eastern part from 273m to 364m. Sobi hill is the dominant landform, it is an inselberg, and it is the highest point in the city (394 m above seal level).

Ilorin has a tropical wet and dry climate. Wet season is experienced from May to November and dry season from November to March. Days are hot during the dry season from November to January when temperature ranges from 33.0 to 34.6°C. Between February and April, temperature values are frequently between 34.6°C to 37.0°C. Mean monthly temperature is high in the city in dry season. Mean temperature is 14.0°C in dry season and 8.0°C in the wet season. Rainfall condition in Ilorin exhibits greater variability both temporarily and spatially. Relative humidity varies seasonally with an average of 79.7%. The vegetation in Ilorin falls within the derived Savannah. The city is underlain by Precambrian Basement complex; comprising mostly gneiss, granite, schist, undifferentiated metasediments rocks and overburden that are composed mainly of clay, sand and silt soils. The drainage system of Ilorin is dendritic in nature, and is dominated by Asa River, which flows from south to north and divides the city into two parts, the western and eastern parts. The western part represents the indigenous area. The eastern part coincides with the

modern layout. Major rivers draining the city are: Asa, Agba, Alalubosa, Okun, Osere, Aluko. Aluko.

Ilorin is one of the fastest growing urban centers in Nigeria. There has been a colossal increase in the population of Ilorin since it became the state capital in 1976. The population growth rate is much higher than other cities at 2.5 percent of the national growth. The 1991 census put the population of Ilorin city of about 572,172 (NPC, 1991 provisional results).

IV. METHODOLOGY

Willingness to pay is a behavioural attribute of water consumers, and the data required include: information on the socio-economic characteristics of respondents such as level of education, employment status, income level, size of household, uses of water, and quality of water demand e.t.c. Information is also required on the pricing options employed by government, and consumer's willingness to pay, ability to pay for water of household level e.t.c. A list of this is presented in Table 1.

These information and others were obtained through primary sources with the use of structured questionnaire and interviews. Ilorin city was categorized into four major zones, namely GRA, modern layouts, traditional layout, and housing estates. In each of these, 50 questionnaires were administered each: Demarcation into these four zones is to allow the sampling of the different patterns of water resource characteristics among the various segments of the city such as the elite, uneducated etc.

V. ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

In view of the nature and the number of socioeconomic variables employed multicollinearity is expected in the data set. Hence, factor analytical approach was used to re-write the 37 variables to a few orthogonal ones which best explained the variance multiple regression and stepwise analyses were also used to establish relationships between willingness to pay and the orthogonal factors.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1) Primary attributes of households

a) Size of Household

According to Table 1 large family size is common in the traditional area as much as 19 people and least in the modern area sometimes as low as 2 persons.

b) Educational Status

The modern area has the highest number of educated people at primary and tertiary level. High percentage of people within the modern area has

tertiary education. Hence, overall literacy level is highest in the modern area.

c) Monthly Income of Respondents

Income level is generally low. Income is least in the traditional area as 42% earn less than 5000 per month. A high percentage of the highest paid workers are found in the GRA 20% earns #17,000 and above.

2) Water Supply Characteristics

d) Accessibility to Water

32% of residents in GRA are connected to improved water system (pipe borne water). This is followed closely by the traditional area (25%), while a high percentage of residents of modern area have higher access to hand dug wells.

e) Quantity of water Demanded

The amount of water demanded has no bearing on the house hold sizes as the residents of modern areas uses more water than GRA and residents of traditional area despite their higher family sizes and even the higher level of education in the GRA.

f) Water Pricing

Majority of the respondents want to control usage of water mainly due to economic reasons and are not really bothered about environment problems.

g) Individual attitude towards improved services

All categories of respondents with the exception of residents of Housing Estates are willing to pay for improved services with a large majority in the GRA willing to pay more for improved services. Residents of housing estates appeared to have lost confidence in the public supply service system.

h) Response to Privatization

Majority of residents of modern layout wants privatization of water supply, while most residents in GRA do not want water services to be privatized. This is expected in view of the irregular supply in the modern area, as privatization is envisaged to bring improved services.

3) Factors controlling willingness to pay

After vari-max rotation only 3 factors dominated the explanation of the variance. Variables with loadings greater than 0.80 were selected as defining variables.

a. Factor 1

Factor 1 has the highest number of loadings, with high loadings on about 50% of the variables. The

strongest loadings were recorded on income levels and water use control variables. This factor contributed 64.5% explanation to the variance. It is tagged House Hold Income Factor.

The role of income is clearly shown in willingness to pay. Most residents of high income area are willing to pay for improved water services. Asante et.al. (2002) established a relationship between household income and willingness to pay for water in Ghana. Briscoe and de Ferranti (1988) has also established that an increase of 10% in household income increase water consumption by 4% in Zimbabwe. In a similar survey of household willingness to pay for water in Mali, Calkins et.al (2002) also reported that purchasing power of daily food expenditure turned out to be significant at a level of significance of 6% which is slightly higher than the usual 5%. They concluded that, purchasing power has a positive effect on the probability of adoption.

b. Factor II

Factor II contributed 22.4% explanation to the variance in the equation. This factor loaded highly on all the demographic variables of age and sex variables. This factor is tagged demographic factor.

The role of age and sex are very significant in willingness to pay. Young respondents are likely to pay more for water compared to the elderly ones, while females may wish to pay more for water than male depending on the culture and tradition of the respondents. The WBWDRT (1993) in a survey of different parts of the world observed that demographic variables of age and sex play important role in willingness to pay. For example, they concluded that increasing the numbers of children by one from the mean increase the probability of purchase from 74 to 85% on gender. They also concluded that gender was statistically significant in the determination of willingness to pay for improved water. In the some vein, Briscoe and de-Ferranti (1988) in a study in Zimbabwe observed that women are willing to pay 40% more for access to public taps than their husband in order to free themselves for more fulfilling and remunerative handicraft or small commercial activity. In terms of the social characteristics of the household, while the number of women of all ages increases the likelihood of using a more distant or less reliable sources will also increase, also a higher dependency ratio for example age, infirm, student or infant members of the household to fulfilling active members reduces the likelihood of using an inconvenient source.

c. Factor III

Factor three contributed 11.3% to the variance. It has the highest loadings on educational variables.

This shows that the higher the level of education the higher the willingness to pay for water. This popular observation agrees with several reports on willingness to pay for water in the less developed countries. For example, WBWDRT (1993), showed that more educated households are willing to pay for improved water supplies

The role of these three factors has been stressed in literature. Another study conducted in India clearly linked gender and education. For example, in Zimbabwe Briscoe and de-Ferranti observed that the higher the level of education of women, the greater the demand for clean water. Similarly, female literacy and perception of benefit were also found to be relevant. In a similar study, Asthana (1991) (in India) and Jayasundra et.al. (1999) (in Bangladesh) reported the importance of gender and education in willingness to pay. This is simply because the level of education will affect identification of water sources, perception of water quality and reliability of sources of water.

4) Predicting Willingness to Pay In Ilorin

The 3 factors were related to willingness to pay using multiple regression, the result is presented in Table 3. The 3 factors contributed 98% of the explanation to willingness to pay for improved services in Ilorin.

Based on this association, willingness to pay in Ilorin can be predicted using equation 1.

$$WTP = 36.800 + 28.239HINC + 7.123DEMO + 10.773EDU$$

C..... (eq. 1)

$$(R=98\%; SE=2.79)$$

In a further analysis using stepwise regression, it was observed that income is the dominant factor affecting household willingness to pay for improved water services in Ilorin.

Conclusively therefore, willingness to pay for improved water services in Ilorin can also be defined with equation 2.

$$WTP = 36.80 + 28.24 HINC..... (eq. 2)$$

$$(R^2 = 83.0\%; SE=15)$$

The above shows that income of respondents contributed 83.0% explanation to the discussion of household willingness to for improved water services in Ilorin. The result is expected in view of the nature of the study area. The levels of respondent income are generally low. This factor is clearly supported with Table 1 which shows that in the modern layout and the government reserved areas where levels of education are highest respondents are willing to pay more improved water .

This agrees with the findings of Asante (2002), WBWRT (1993) and several others. In the study area, the

areas of high income also doubles as areas where level of education and awareness are also higher or need for improved and hygienic water. Hence, this again explained reasons for the expected results.

The results obtained in this work, agree with popular opinion on studies of WTP but rather the report WBWRT (1993) Briscoe and de Ferranti (1988) where demographic variables dominant. It also disagrees with the work of Calkins, et. al. (2002) in Mali, where distance to the planned new sources of water was dominant in the determination of willingness pay. The paper also agreed with Engel, et.al. (2005) where he reported that quality perception, relative distance to improved and unimproved sources, prices and income level are important to the explanation of willingness to pay for improved services.

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Table 1: socio-economic and willingness to pay attributes of respondents.

Social economic variable	Regional Pattern			
	G.R.A	Modern layout	Traditional layout	Housing estate
No people per household				
a. 1-5				
b. 6-10	25.3	34.2	19	22
c. > 10	25	25	19	26
	24	5	51	19
Age of respondent				
a. 18-25	35	37	18	10.8
b. 26-30	35	39	20	6
c. 30-35	36	32	19	13
d. 36-40	27	23	29	21
e. > 40	33	33	22	13
Sex				
a. Male	23	19	24	33
b. female	18	20	18	44
Education				
a. primary	14	83	5.4	0
b. secondary	15	18	48	33
c. tertiary	26	27	21	26
d. others	46	22	13	20
Income				
a. <50,000	19	23	42	16
b. 5000-8000	2	24	38	18
c. 8000-12,000	27	31	15	31
d. 12,000-17,000	20	16	9	27
e. > 17,000	7	3		
Accessibility				
a. Boreholes	32	24	25	19
b. Hand dug well	31	9	28	31
c. Pond of stream	9	35	23	33
Quantity of water demanded				
a. 60 litres	13	41	33	13
b. 61-120 litres	28	28	48	16
c. 121-180 litres	35	21	21	23
d. > 180 litres	25	19	23	33
Control of use				
a. Economics	30	28	18	25
b. environment	18	21	36	26
Willingness to pay for improved services				
a. willing to pay	29	24	25	22
b. not willing to pay	9	30	25	35
Privatization				
a. want privatization	19	31	26	13
b. don't want privatization	31	19	24	37

Table 2: Factor loadings, Eigen-values, percentage contribution of factors

Variable	Variable Description	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III
1.no of people per household (1-5)	Household size	.94	.20	.24
2.,, ,, (6-10)		.91	.40	.18
3. ,, ,, > 10		.71	.40	.50
4. age 18-25	age	.35	-.90	-.30
5. 25-34		-.15	-.97	-.17
6. 35-40		-.31	-.90	-.40
7. 41-45		-.86	-.43	-.12
8. >50		-.41	-.90	-.27
9.male	sex	.19	.97	-.13
10. female		.70	.70	-.05
11. First school leaving certificate.	Level of education	.70	0.07	.70
12.secodary school education		.78	.50	.40
13. tertiary institution		.93	.30	.22
14. other forms of education		-.18	-.51	-.80
15. monthly income	Monthly income	.81	.26	.51
16. 5000-8000		.84	-.30	.50
17. 8000-12,000		.94	.30	.14
18. 12000-17,000		.90	.44	.05
19. .17,000		.93	.40	-.05
20. private service	Sources of water	.94	.22	.24
21. bore hole		.85	.45	.17
22. hand dug well		.81	.40	.40
23. stream		.83	.12	.52
24. 60 litres	Volume of water use by household	.91	.18	.32
25. 61-120litres		.95	.30	.14
26. 121-180 litres		.90	.44	.19
27. > 180 litres		.95	.26	.17
28. economic value	Value attached to water use	.82	.40	.42
29. environmental value		.91	.23	.35
30. willingness to pay	Indices of Willingness to pay	.90	.40	.20
31. % household not willing to pay		.89	.40	.23
32. % able to pay		.91	.09	.40
33.% not able to pay		.93	.30	.24
34.% willing to pay		.80	.45	.36
35. % not willing to pay		.90	.15	.41
36. % household in support of privatization	Desire for privatization	.90	.44	.15
37. household not in support of privatization		.71	.45	.55
Factor Description		Household income factor [HINC]	Household Demographic factor [DEMO]	Household Education factor [EDUC]
Eigen value		23.2	8.07	4.07
% Variance		64.5	22.4	11.3
% Cum. Variance		64.5	86.9	98.2

Table 3: Summary of Multiple Regressions

Constant/variable	coefficients	Standard error	t-test	Significance level	R ²
constant	36.800	1.25	29.41	.022	
1. Household income factor (HINC)	28.239	1.399	20.109	.022	98
2. Demographic factor (DEMO)	7.123	1.399	5.09	.123	
3. Education factor	10.773	1.399	7.7	.082	

Table 4: Summary of Stepwise Regression Model

Constant/variable	Regression coefficient	Standard error	t-test	R ² (%)
Intercept	36.80	-	5.48	83
1. income	28.24	15.00	3.76	

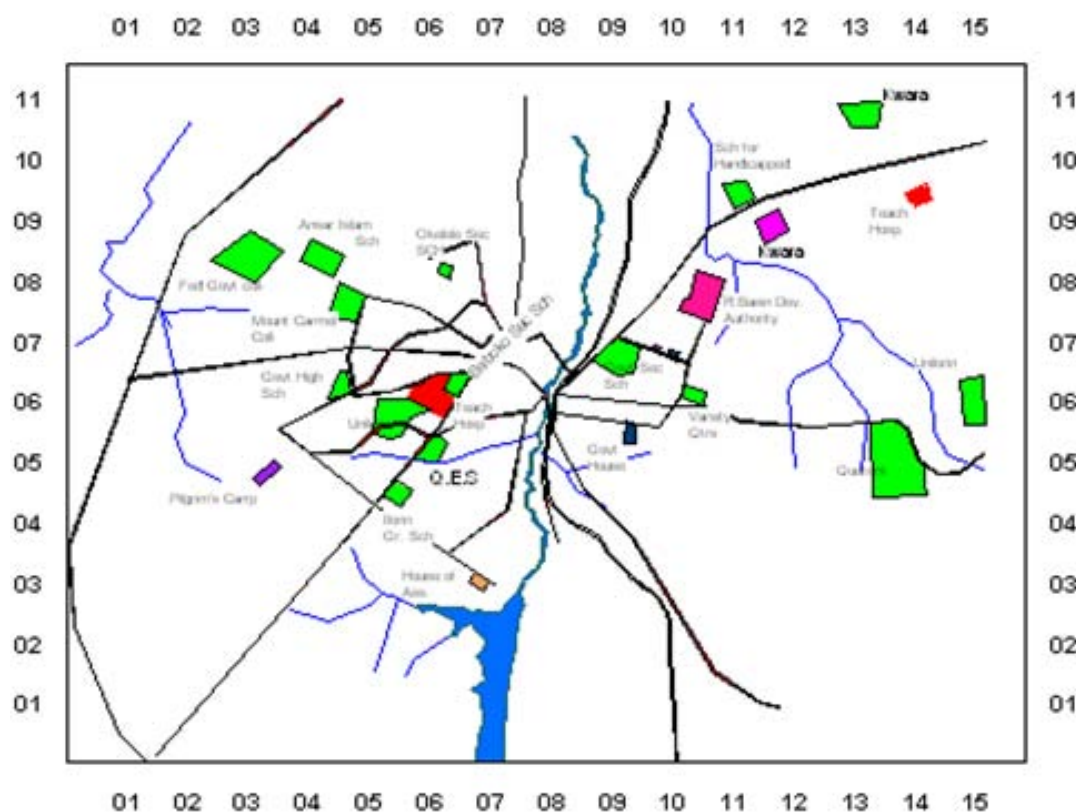
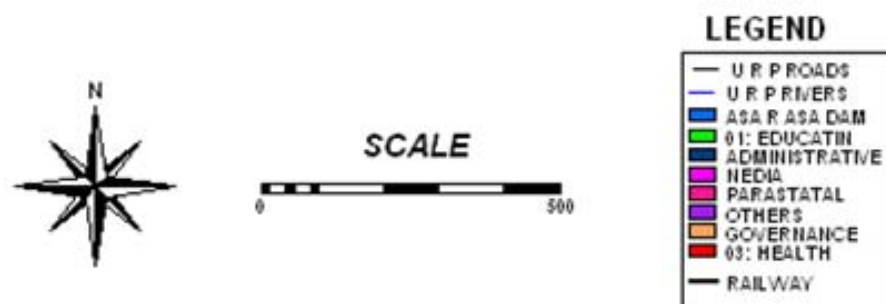


Fig.1 : A digital map showing major urban features of Ilorin metropolis





**Plate 1: Waiting for water in parts of Ilorin West Local Government Area
(Empty containers are used to queue-up.)**



Plate 2 : At-last water came; note the struggle and chaos in fetching water by housewives and children who are culturally assigned to fetch water;also imagine the average time it may take for each of these people to fetch just a bucket of water.



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An Urban Informal Economy: Livelihood Opportunity to Poor or Challenges for Urban Governance

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MPhil in Development Studies (Norway)

Abstracts - : Issues are contested whether informal sectors of Economy are opportunity to urban poor or challenge for urban governance. This article argues that street vending has become an important source of earning livelihood for rural poor in the urban areas, and not only rural poor are getting livelihood opportunities in the informal economy, this has been providing goods in cheaper price to another section of urban poor that neither urban authorities nor other can provide. Thus, street vending has become an opportunity of marketing space to most of the urban poor in Kathmandu Metropolitan City. However, issues relating to urban management and controlling over the deteriorating city environment due to increase vending activities are, of course, challenging for urban governance. Therefore, there are confrontations between authorities and vendors over licensing, taxation, encroachment of public places and pavements and on increasing social problems. In spite of its crucial role for providing employment and livelihoods to both urban and rural poor, its economic importance is rarely recognized either in national poverty reduction strategies or in city governance initiatives.

Keywords: *livelihood, urban poor, informal economy, urban governance, street vending*

Classification: *GJHSS-A Classification: FOR Code: 160514*



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Abstract—Issues are contested whether informal sectors of economy are opportunity to urban poor or challenge for urban governance. This article argues that street vending has become an important source of earning livelihood for rural poor in the urban areas, and not only rural poor are getting livelihood opportunities in the informal economy, this has been providing goods in cheaper price to another section of urban poor that neither urban authorities nor other can provide. Thus, street vending has become an opportunity of marketing space to most of the urban poor in Kathmandu Metropolitan City. However, issues relating to urban management and controlling over the deteriorating city environment due to increase vending activities are, of course, challenging for urban governance. Therefore, there are confrontations between authorities and vendors over licensing, taxation, encroachment of public places and pavements and on increasing social problems. In spite of its crucial role for providing employment and livelihoods to both urban and rural poor, its economic importance is rarely recognized either in national poverty reduction strategies or in city governance initiatives.

Keywords: *livelihood, urban poor, informal economy, urban governance, street vending*

1. INTROCUCTION

The informal economy has experienced rapid growth in developing countries and has consequently attracted increasing attention among academics, researchers, social development activists, and policy planners. It is generally believed that the rapid growth of the sector has been influenced by increasing unemployment in developing countries. According to ILO (2004), the lack of jobs in the formal sector of the economy as well as the lack of skills in a large part of the labour force has resulted in the growth of a substantial informal sector in which most workers are in low-paid employment under unregulated and poor working conditions. Informal sector encompasses largely unrecognized, unrecorded and unregulated small scale activities including; small enterprises, household enterprises, self-employed sectors such as street venders, cleaners, shoe-shiners, hawkers etc.

With the lack of governmental regulation or lack of institutions that provide job security and benefits, this sector comprises the largest part of the economies of developing countries (Suharto, 2003:115).

Characterized by a large number of small-scale production and service activities that are individually or family owned and labour-intensive, the informal sector does not fall under the purview of organized economic activities. Most workers entering this sector are recent migrants unable to find employment in the formal sector and their motivation is usually to obtain sufficient income to survive, relying on their own indigenous resources to create work (Singh, 2000). As many members of the household as possible, including women and children, are involved in income generating activities, and they often work very long hours. It is difficult to estimate the exact magnitude of the informal sector but there is general agreement that the informal sector comprises a growing proposition of economic activity. Particularly in less developed countries 50 per cent of the labour force engaged in the informal economy (Gottdiener and Budd, 2005:77).

At the same time, it should be noted that in both developed and developing countries, the informal sector is connected to the formal sector of the national and global economy through subcontracting networks and commodity chains. For example, street vendors sell goods such as cigarette, clothes, newspapers, electronic goods, clothes and other branded products obtained from the formal sector. In Nepal, the informal economy is growing at a faster rate than the formal economy. The informal sector proves to be the major mechanism for economic growth and development. In most of the less developed countries; the informal sector including with street vending is the largest source of employment, investment and government revenue. This is because the informal sector offers the best opportunity for the upward mobility in lifeline of the poor people and their children (Brown, 2005:5).

However, these aspects are unfortunately ignored by the urban authorities because street vending is considered an illegal activity and street vendors are treated as criminals. Studies show that in almost all the Asian countries, street vendors have no legal status to conduct their business and they are constantly harassed

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by the authorities (Bhowmik, 1999:4). Furthermore, the role of informal sector including with street vending has not been well perceived. It is rather regarded to be a non-profit activity, as it does not contribute to the national economy in terms of tax. It is marginalized from the development agenda, and hence has been severely affected by the functioning of macro socio-economic policies. Particularly improper or lack of policy support has made the sector to be unsecured (Bhowmik, 2005:2258), which adversely affects the livelihoods of the urban poor. Yet they are popular because they provide the urban population with much needed services that neither the municipalities nor the larger retailing outlets can provide.

Despite the fact that street vending is an important source of livelihood to urban poor, street vendors occupy the footpath leaving no space to the pedestrians. This has become a public concern because it creates problem for smooth vehicular and pedestrians' movement, and has polluted the environment of the surroundings. Similarly, vendors occupy public places and roads, which can create social problems like pick pocketing, hoodlum and theft. This situation has created several problems in management, development and has destroyed the morphology of the city. Therefore, much more needs to be understood in Kathmandu about the role of the informal sector - to what extent street vending provides a means of livelihoods to the urban poor, to what extent urban authorities are facing challenges for urban governance. This article provides understanding of whether street vending is an opportunity for livelihood to urban poor or challenges for urban governance and concludes that, of course, challenges are bulging with increasing informal activities in Kathmandu but this sector can be of important source of livelihood to urban poor for making their living.

II. METHODS AND MATERIALS

This article is based on both primary and secondary data which was collected in 2007 during the process of writing MPhil thesis in Development Studies. In social science research, field work is the central and important method for collecting the primary information. Standardized open-ended interview, key informants interview, informal conversational interview, observation (participatory and non-participatory) methods were used to collect primary information whereas secondary information were collected from published and unpublished literature. Four highly concentrated locations of street vendors namely Asann-Bhotahity, Sundhara-Khichapokhari, Indrachowk and Ratnapark from core city of Kathmandu were purposively selected to include most of the types of street vending activities of Kathmandu. Thirty street vendors from those four locations were selected through snowball sampling for

open-ended interview. Similarly, key informants including representative authorities of Kathmandu Metropolitan City, representative of Nepal Street Vendors Union, local residents were selected for interview. Besides, observational information were also used to come up with the findings about the nature of street vending, vendors' response to authorities, authorities' response to vendors and so on. Qualitative textual explanation method is used to analyze the findings whether street vending is livelihood opportunity or challenges for urban governance in Kathmandu Metropolitan City.

III. STREET VENDING AS URBAN LIVELIHOOD

The livelihoods of the poor are determined predominantly by the context in which they live and the constraints and opportunities this location presents. This is because context - economic, environmental, social and political - largely determines the assets accessible to people, how they can use these (Meikle, 2002:38), and thus their ability to obtain secure livelihoods. Rural people see new opportunities in the urban areas in terms of employment, physical facilities and others. As a result, rural landless agricultural workers had little incentive to remain in agriculture. Instead they choose to migrate to nearby towns or cities in search of more remunerative non-agricultural jobs. It is important to examine whether they get more remunerative jobs after migration or end up swelling the ranks of unemployed in the urban labour market as predicted by Todaro (1976). But those migrants, who were working in the rural vulnerable situation, see themselves more beneficial working in the urban informal sector. Migrants' livelihoods vary according to their level of education and the skills they have. Competent and skilled migrants may find urban formal jobs either in the government or in the private sectors.

In Kathmandu, there is domination of unskilled and uneducated migrants, who work in the informal sector. Among various informal activities, street vending is one which is growing in the recent years rapidly. It was estimated that 30,000 street vendors were earning livelihoods on the street of Kathmandu Metropolitan City (Timalsina, 2007) and the number is to be predicted increasing in the recent years. There is domination of migrants' street vendors predominantly poor, landlessness, conflict affected and having some expectations with earning in Kathmandu (Timalsina, 2007). Street vending has become livelihood strategy to those migrants poor in Kathmandu. Vendors exist in the major nodal junction of urban areas of Kathmandu and they prefer to be located nearby market centres and shopping malls. Types of vending are vary with locations according to the nature, composition and functions of formal sector. Almost all of the vending types are

located at Asan-Bhotahity, Sundhara-Khichapokhari, Indrachowk and Ratnapark areas. These locations cover main types of street vending activities including cloth vending, vegetable vending, electronic goods, cosmetics, kitchen utensils, spices, fast foods vending etc.

IV. STREET VENDING AS LIVELIHOOD OPPORTUNITY

Street vending as a profession, which has been in existence in the capital city, Kathmandu, since time immemorial. Urban Street vending is not only a source of employment but it provides affordable services to the majority of the urban poor. Vendors constitute an integral part of the urban economy, provide an essential service, create their own employment and contribute to economic growth. The role played by the street traders in the economy therefore is as important as it provides services and goods to the urban poor. At present more than 30,000 street vendors are earning their livelihood on the street which is one of the huge contribution in terms of employment and livelihood to urban poor.

In addition to this, vending attracts those who have limited opportunities for obtaining formal employment or prestigious business, and minimizes chances of social exclusion and marginalization. Street vending is increasingly becoming livelihood option for those marginalized people. On the one hand, urban authorities take street vending as an illegal and unproductive sector; while on the other hand, it is an important livelihood securing sector for the urban poor. It provides seasonal employment to the rural poor and has become a source of economic earning to them. Therefore, it can be accounted as an opportunity to poor communities.

1) Opportunities for Work and Employment

Very poor people migrate to the urban areas for survival creating their own work. It is also prevalent that some better off people also migrate to urban areas for work and to earn cash income. Thus, street vending in Kathmandu has become an opportunity for work and employment for both poor and some other better off rural people. Furthermore, this sector also links to the formal sectors by providing labour forces and by marketing their products. Studies show that a lot of goods sold by street vendors, such as clothes and hosiery, leather and plastic goods and household commodities are manufactured in small scale or home-based industries. These industries employ a large number of workers and they rely mainly on street vendors to market their products (Gottodiener and Budd, 2005:77). In this way street vendors provide a valuable service by helping to sustain employment in these industries.

Furthermore, street vendors are mainly those who are unsuccessful or unable to get regular jobs. This section of the urban poor tries to solve their problems through their own meager resources. Unlike other sections of the urban population they do not demand that government create jobs for them, or engage in begging, stealing or extortion. They try to live their life with dignity and self-respect through hard work. These people work for over 15 hours a day under harsh conditions on the street. One respondent who has been working on the street for work merely to create livelihood said:

I have been living on the street for 14 years. Waking up in the early morning and working till late evening is my normal working schedule. I wake up at 4 in the morning and go to Kalimati (whole selling market) to purchase vegetables for the day and come at this site. I put up mat until the shop owners do not come and after then, I move to Bhedasing for the day time. I put up mat until late evening for whole the day where my wife also works with me for looking after the shop during the lunch time. Working more than 15 hours a day on the street has been hardly providing food for our family.

Another respondent in this regard added that:

I have been selling multiple items on the street for survival. In the morning, I put up vegetable shop at Asan, and during the day time I go in different locations, sometime at Khichapokhari and sometimes at Sundhara with seasonal goods e.g. clothes, cosmetics, electronics and so on. In the evening, again I go to vegetable selling to finish remaining vegetables because I cannot stock those perishable vegetables for the next day. Sometimes, I earn more from vegetable selling and sometimes from others.

This sector on the one hand, provides livelihood earning opportunities for the poor and on the other hand, it provides employment opportunities to some of the educated people. Because of decreasing formal employment, and to some extent, people do not get job even if they are having good education and skills. One educated respondent in this regard said:

I am a graduate. I did my Bachelor Degree in 1990 and came to the city hoping to find some jobs. Once I had gone for a post in a company with my first division certificates, but the employer said to me that I could not get that post if I would give them Rs.50,000 (\$715) as bribe. Since, I had not much to give them as bribe. So I decided to work on the street for survival.

Another respondent added:

I left my home dreaming about higher education. Since, it was difficult to continue higher education in the hardship of my economic background, I tried to find some jobs, but unfortunately I did not find any job. Then I started vending on this site. Now, I put

up mat on the street during the morning and the day time. In the evening I go to the evening college. I work morning to evening during the week-end and off days.

In addition to this, as the goods sold are cheap, the poorer sections too are able to obtain their basic necessities mainly through street vendors. The lower income groups spend a higher proportion of their income in making purchases from street vendors, mainly because their goods are cheap and thus affordable (Bhowmik, 2005:2257). In this way one section of the urban poor, helps another section to survive. Hence, though street vendors are viewed as a problem for urban governance, they are in fact the solution to some of the problems of the urban poor. By providing cheaper commodities street vendors are in effect providing subsidy to the urban poor, something that the government should have done. One public customer emphasizing this said:

I always use to buy goods with the vendors. I have never entered into the shop because I cannot afford the goods those are being sold in the stores and supermarkets. For poor people like me, street vendors provide goods in affordable price. If there was no street market, I would not be able to provide even clothes to my children.

Those examples and explanations explore that street vending in Kathmandu has become livelihood opportunity to most of the poor and some better off people have also been living on the street. Poor people are making a living with hard work on the street and some educated follows are pursuing their higher education. Hence, street vending in Kathmandu has become opportunity for work, employment and livelihoods. It has been providing livelihoods not only for the rural migrants, but also to the urban poor by providing goods and services in affordable price.

2) Livelihood to Dependent Family

Street vending provides earning opportunity and livelihoods to the dependent family members. Because of the rural conflict and increasing livelihood vulnerability at the household level, some of the migrants have migrated with dependent family members, for example, children and old parents. Providing basic necessities to those dependent family members becomes the responsibility of youths and adults. In Kathmandu, many vendors are working on the street for surviving to their dependent family members. One respondent quoting this said:

I have been living in Kathmandu for 5 years with my three small children and mother-in-law aged 65. Last year my husband went abroad (Malaysia) to earn but he has not sent any money to me. Since then, I have to bear all the responsibilities for my family. I have been working on this site from early in

the morning to late evening and hardly been able to get livelihoods to my family.

During the field work, some vendors were living on the street with their small children. Explaining to the questions about the living situation and their involvement on the street, one woman said:

I was living with my husband with good enough family status in the village. One night some armed men came and took my husband forcefully. Now, I do not know where he is living and in what situation. I asked and reported many times to Human Right Commission, but still his situation is unknown.

Showing her small children she further said:

I have four children and I have to look after them. I hardly earn Rs. 100 (about 1.2 \$) per day on which five family members have depended. If my husband was with me, it would be easier struggling for livelihoods together. But I am alone and it has become very difficult to earn a livelihood for my family.

Moreover, some vendors are working on the street as partial fulfillment for their livelihoods. Working only in other sectors, for example, driving (taxi, tempo, micro-buss etc.) and labour work in small industries cannot survive their families. One respondent whose husband was driving, but could not cover all the household necessities, went on the street even if she was having small kids. She was working on the street taking care of her children. The following pictures show two dimensions of urban livelihoods. One (first picture) is about livelihood dependent situation whose husband had gone abroad and another (second picture) is about whole family work for survival on the street whose husband was working as driving.



a) a mother working on the street for survival

b) whole family members' work to survive

Source: Timalista, Field Work, 2006.

V. CHALLENGES

It has been difficult for controlling and managing the city environment, including managing footpath, controlling of increasing vending activities and providing easy movement to the pedestrians. Hawkers and street vendors spread their wares on the pavement and sometimes on the street, causing great inconvenience to the pedestrians and vehicles. At present, vendors on the street have so increased that it has been difficult to shoo them away. It is not good for

let them stay on the street because it creates a lot of problems, including physical and social problems and difficulty for public movement. It deteriorates the KMC environment by increasing social evils and overcrowding. Vending activities in Kathmandu is rapidly increasing during the last 6/7 years. During the evening, especially at Sundhara-Khichapokhari, Asan-Bhotahity, Indrachowk, Ratnapark vendors go on the main street and put up their mats. Vendors get gathered and shout loudly to attract to the customers, which creates a noisy environment. Because of the crowd on the pavement and street, it creates difficulty for vehicle flow and public movement. In response to a question about physical problems, the KMC authority responded:

I do not have to tell you about the congestion resulting from the vending activities. You can see the situation. Especially during the evening, vendors go on the street and put up their mats. Vehicle flow and pedestrians movement have been entirely affected. It has now been out of control. Moreover, it has become a political issue and organization like GEFONT is giving support to them. I think it is not good to have political protection to such public issues.

According to the officer, during the festivals (Dashain and Tihar), vendors increase by two fold and at that time there will be more congestion. All street of Kathmandu, especially Ratnapark, Asan, Bhotahity, Indrachowk, Sundhara, Khichapokhari, Newroad become full of street markets. It becomes very difficult even to walk around those locations. During that period, garbage output from those areas becomes almost 3/4 times more than as usual. Municipality has to employ double staffs and excavators to remove the garbage.

On the one hand, vendors claim that they should have options for living because living on the street was not their wish. On the other hand, the pavement has been encroached to such an extent that if appropriate solution has not been taken, probably almost all pavement and public places will be fully occupied. Therefore, the main problem resulting from increasing street vending is the overcrowding and it leads to encroachment of the public places and roads. Hence, increasing street vending activities in Kathmandu Metropolitan City has created the physical problem relating to encroachment of public places and pavement. Overcrowding and pollution of city environment in terms of garbage are also linked with this.

Similarly, social problems relating to theft, hoodlum, pick pocketing, burglary, crime are linked with increasing street vending activities. In addition to this, conflict between vendors, between metropolitan police and vendors has also been increasing. Vendors have been increasing on the street day by day. Since the space to locate their mats is limited, each vendor does

not get space to put up their mats and they quarrel and sometime fight each other. It is said that crimes have been increasing in Kathmandu in recent years and some crimes relating to pick pocketing, hooligans according to the street in charge officer are, of course, because of increasing informal activities including with street vending in Kathmandu.

In Kathmandu, there is significant number of women street vendors. Some of the women vendors are newly migrated and young as well. Some of them have been facing the problems like raging and misbehaving by the male vendors. Moreover, it was also heard that vendors used to sell stolen and worn out goods. There were some vendors selling worn out (they called it 'sale') goods or second hand goods. Those worn out goods were especially garment products selling at Sundhara and Ratnapark areas. However, authority of the KMC reported that in the past it was heard that some vendors used to sell stolen goods, but nowadays it has been stopped. In response to a question relating to the goods that vendors were selling on the street, the street in charge of the KMC authority said:

Nowadays, there is no report about stolen goods that vendors are selling. About second hand goods, some of the vendors are, of course, selling on the street. Vending on the street is not an illegal market, only the problem is their encroachment of public places and pavement. Overcrowding, crimes are also linked with this.

Besides, increasing crimes relating to street vending activities in Kathmandu has been a challengeable issue. Crime as a social problem is increasing with increasing street vending in Kathmandu. Crime relating issue is noticed when one of the informal informants told a story. His story was like this:

One day I was staying in my shop, all of a sudden some hooligans shouted loudly as saying Han, Han, Chhapka (blow him, blow him, kill). When I saw two young boys were showing Khukuri (national weapon of Nepal, a sharp weapon like a sword) to each other, I got scared and closed my shop immediately. On the following day, I heard that they were vendors, who used to stay at the same place selling vegetables for many years, and one of them was seriously injured.

Conflict between vendors and the KMC authorities is also a major problem which is increasing at present in Kathmandu. Officer in charge of the street market said that recently they employed more staffs to control encroachment and overcrowding in the public places. Still the situation was that some of the locations were out of control. There were many reports that vendors and the KMC staffs quarrel. It was because vendors did not want to remove their mats and the KMC staffs were given duty not to allow vendors putting up mats on the street. One informal informant who was working as a metropolitan policeman in this regard said:

I have been working as a metropolitan policeman for 10 years. It was very easy to deal with vendors when I started my job. But at present, I find it very difficult to deal with them. I have realized that vendors have been increased by twofold in recent years. Public places and pavements have been occupied by the mats. As a metropolitan police, my duty is to take them away from public places and pavements. Instead of moving away, they attack when we go to chase them. One day I had been bitten seriously by some vendors when I told them to remove their mats.

Hence, it can be pointed out that besides encroachment of streets and public places, social problems including; conflict, theft, robbery, crimes etc. are increasing with increasing street vending in Kathmandu and these issues have been more challengeable to urban governance.

VI. CONSLUSION

Rural migrants, domination with low level of education and skills, are enforced to involve in the informal economy for their scanty livelihood. Street vending activities has become an easy access to those migrants' vendors in Kathmandu. Those vendors see street vending as an opportunity for work and employment in the urban areas and take street vending as an earning opportunity and an opportunity to provide livelihoods to dependent family members. Poor, better off people and some educated fallows have been engaged on the street of Kathmandu for making a living. Not only rural poor are getting livelihood opportunities in informal economy, vendors are providing goods in cheaper price to another section of urban poor that otherwise would be impossible to provide by the urban authorities or by the urban governance system. Thus street vending has become opportunity of marketing space to most of the urban poor in Kathmandu Metropolitan City. However, it has been difficult for controlling and managing the city environment, including managing footpath, controlling of increasing vending activities and providing easy movement to the pedestrians. Hawkers and street vendors spread their wares on the pavement and sometimes on the street, causing great inconvenience to the pedestrians and vehicles. In spite of increasing street vending activities in Kathmandu, it has created several problems such as overcrowding, encroachment of public places, footpath and increasing social problems such as theft, hoodlum, pick pocketing, burglary, crime etc which have ultimately become challenges for urban governance.

Of course, street vending is a challenge for urban governance but what about livelihood rights of more than 30, 000 migrants street vendors' as well as other urban poor who are making their scanty living on

the street. Urban authorities need to think to settle down these problems with a logical end. One possible solution for solving the problems can be by providing vendors with a specific location for trading. It can be done with the help of local clubs giving them responsibility for controlling and managing the surrounding environs. Some open spaces can also be identified and provided for trading that can protect livelihoods right of the vendors and manage the city environment for good urban governance.

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Curriculum Review: Reactions from Education Stakeholders in South-South States of Nigeria

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Abstracts - : This study examines reactions from education stakeholders in South-South States of Nigeria on issues facing curriculum design and implementation especially at secondary school level. One hundred and fifty (150) participants (stakeholders) were purposefully sampled for the study. Qualitative technique was used to elicit information from participants. The qualitative method used was Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Participants were divided into six group comprising of 25 persons each. Group discussions were based on specific theme including curriculum contents, secondary and university education objectives, national needs of secondary and university education, teaching methods, curriculum practice/implementation and evaluation techniques. Information from participants revealed that the curriculum content, pedagogy, evaluation techniques among others in secondary schools are inadequate, unrealistic and should be reviewed. We recommended the urgent review of secondary school curriculum, proper funding of education and provision of school physical facilities as a panacea to eminent collapse of secondary education in Nigeria.

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Curriculum Review: Reactions from Education Stakeholders in South-South States of Nigeria

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Abstract- This study examines reactions from education stakeholders in South-South States of Nigeria on issues facing curriculum design and implementation especially at secondary school level. One hundred and fifty (150) participants (stakeholders) were purposefully sampled for the study. Qualitative technique was used to elicit information from participants. The qualitative method used was Focus Group Discussion (FGD). Participants were divided into six group comprising of 25 persons each. Group discussions were based on specific theme including curriculum contents, secondary and university education objectives, national needs of secondary and university education, teaching methods, curriculum practice/implementation and evaluation techniques. Information from participants revealed that the curriculum content, pedagogy, evaluation techniques among others in secondary schools are inadequate, unrealistic and should be reviewed. We recommended the urgent review of secondary school curriculum, proper funding of education and provision of school physical facilities as a panacea to eminent collapse of secondary education in Nigeria.

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is vital for socio-economic and political development (Agba, Ushie & Agba, 2007). It is instrument par excellence for national development (National Policy on Education, NPE, 2004). It is a potent tool in graduating families out of poverty and promoting social security. Education is the frontier for social justice and the wheels of social mobility and redistribution of societal wealth. These objectives and more can only be achieved if our curriculum is properly designed and implemented.

The escalating rate of unemployment among school leavers is worrisome. Records show that between 1970 and 1980 national unemployment increased from 4.3% to 6.4% respectively (Akintoye, 2008). It was also reported that unemployed persons secondary education rose from 59.2% in 1992 to 68.7% in 1994 (Ajayi, Adeniji & Adu, 2008). According to

Adeyinka (1988), Balogun (1995) and Woolman (2001) the unemployment situation is not unconnected with the inadequacies in the countries curriculum contents; and where the curriculum is adequate, poor implementation, government attitude towards education bedevils its achievement. The inability of secondary schools curriculum to provide trained manpower in applied services, technology and commerce at sub-professional grades is even more worrisome.

This study is therefore designed to examine educational stakeholders' reaction on issues facing curriculum especially at secondary school level. The specific areas of focus in this study include curriculum contents of secondary school education, national needs of secondary and university education; teaching methods, challenges to curriculum implementation and evaluation techniques in secondary schools. The purpose of this work is not only to create awareness on the need to carry out a valid curriculum review, but more importantly, to derive a baseline data on the current state of education from the reactions of a representative sample of education stakeholders. The identified problems on various themes presented, and the tentative suggested solutions on the areas of curriculum will form the base for further fieldwork on the process of curriculum review.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

The study is carried out in the South-South States of Nigeria. The South-South States are located in the south-south Geopolitical zone of Nigeria (SSGPZN) and they occupied 85,303 Square Kilometers. These states comprised of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo and Rivers. These states forms part of the Niger Delta region. Each state is divided into 3 senatorial district and local government areas for administrative convenience, totally, 18 senatorial districts and 126 local government areas (Agba, et al 2010). According to National population Census (NPC, 2006) put the population of the South-South States at 21,014, 655.

The South-South States provide about 90 percent of the nation's foreign earning (Ogochukwu, 2001). These states are also the commercial nerves of Nigeria and home of various institutions of learning from where education stakeholders were selected for this

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study. However, the predominate occupation is agriculture ranging from fishing farming, cultivation of palms, yams, cassava, cocoyam etc. Despite polutions from oil exploration in the region, the rich soil and favorable climate made agriculture the main-stay of the people.

Poverty in the region is significantly high despite the huge earnings from crude petroleum exports (Agba & Ushie, 2005). Seventy percent of the people are poor and poverty level in the region exceed African standard. Forty percent of its population is illiterates and youth unemployment is unprecedented (Woller, 2004). Despite government and other stakeholders' efforts to reduce poverty in the region, their activities yielded less fruits because their strategies excluded education. According to Agba, Ushie and Agba (2007) education remains a panacea to eradicating poverty in Nigeria. This therefore calls for the provision of functional and effective education in the region and indeed the whole country, through curriculum review that would reflect the needs and aspiration of the region as well as the entire nation.

III. TRENDS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT/REVIEW IN NIGERIA

The historical antecedence of curriculum development in Nigeria began with the arrival Christian Missions in September 1842 and the establishment of missionary schools. Between 1842 and 1881 Christian Missions alone opened, maintained, controlled as well as defined the objectives, contents and instructional methods including the curriculums of those schools. The main thrust of the curriculum then was based on the four R's: Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Religion. The objectives of mission schools and the curriculum were to train lay-readers, cooks and catechists who could assist in the mission work (Fajana, 1969; Adeyinka, 1988).

The agitation by indigenous people for the opening of schools in their respective local environments led to the establishment of the Church Missionary Society Grammar School, Lagos in 1859, Methodist Girls' High School, Baptist Academy and Methodist Boys' High School. Although these schools were opened based on local demands the curriculum and subjects were controlled by the Missionaries (Ajayi, 1963; Adeyinka, 1988). Subjects taught in these Grammar – School gave little consideration to agriculture or preparation for self – employment rather pupil were trained in British literary tradition and were empowered to mount white collar jobs that were normally for the products of the grammar schools.

The early secularly curriculum development in the history of education in Nigeria was between 1882 and 1925. Government interest in curriculum development started in 1882 with the establishment of

Education Act which provided for a Board of Education to regulate the development of education at all level in British West African Countries. The opening of the first Government Secondary School (King's College, Lagos in 1910 and the Metamorphosis of University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate to school certificate in 1923 significantly affected the development of curriculum for senior classes of Nigerian Grammar Schools. Consequently, between 1916 and 1920, subjects such as applied mathematics, experimental science, Botany, Natural History of Animals, Needlework and Hygiene were included in the Nigerian Grammar school curriculum (Adeyinka, 1988).

Phelps –Stokes Commission Report of 1925 had wide implication on curriculum development in Nigeria. The report revealed that education in Nigeria was not adapted to the needs and aspirations of the people, consequently subjects such like History, Geography, and Biology etc were restructured to focus on Nigeria and Africa in general (Lewis 1962, Adeyinka, 1988). The establishment of West African Examination Council (WAEC) in March 1952 and it's Logos Office in September 1953 significantly influenced curriculum development in Nigeria. The council was saddled with the responsibility of inspecting and encouraging Grammer schools to teach subjects that are examined by WAEC. Soon after independence in 1960, the quest for national development informed the expansion and modification of the inherited colonial curriculum to serve the new socio-economic and political needs identified in Nigeria (Woolman, 2001).

Critical intellectual evaluation of the goals and practice of education in Nigeria occasioned the establishment of Ashby Commission's whose report in 1960 led to the introduction of subjects such as Vocational Studies, Commerce and Agriculture in secondary schools (Adeyinka, 1988). This is because Mission Schools and their curriculum neglected African culture and history (Ajayi, Goma & Johnson 1996), thus separating students from the life and needs of their community (Woolman, 2001).

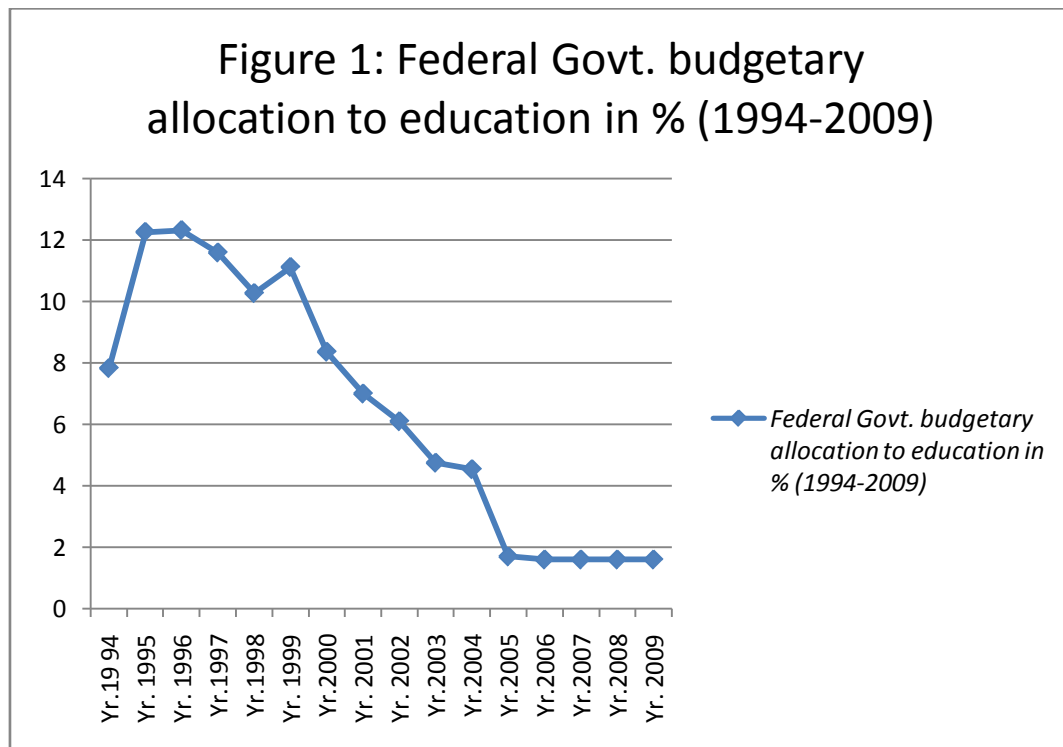
Other landmark events that influenced curriculum development in Nigeria include the establishment of Educational Research Council, the National Curriculum Conference (NCE) in 1969. National Policy on Education in 1977 reviewed in 1981 and 2004. The proceedings of the NCC informed the National Policy on Education and the 6-3-3-4 system of Education and a comprehensive review of both the junior and secondary school curriculum. The introduction of Universal Basic Education in 1999 also brought remarkable change in class-room management techniques, supervision and curriculum development in Nigeria (Ayo & Adebiyi, 2008, Ajibola, 2008).

IV. CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

IV. CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

In a knowledge driven society like ours education is gaining unparalleled grounds, as indispensable tool for national development (Awang 2004; Agba et al 2009). For education to serve as instrument par excellence for sustainable development, its content must be fully implemented. Unfortunately, the goals of education are continually been impeded by factors that also posed as challenge to curriculum implement in Nigeria.

According to Balogun (1995) factors that limit effective curriculum implementation in Nigeria include inadequate planning, syllabus overloading or unrealistic goals, insufficient teachers and lack of adequate resources. Others are lack of in-service training, are lack of commitment from both government and teachers, and lack of adequate monitoring and evaluation in the education system.



Source: Adopted from ASUU National Executive Council (2005 & 2009); Agba et al (2009).

Similarly, Jega (2002) Awah and Agba (2007) posit that incessant industrial crisis and lack of school physical facilities impedes the potency of education as instrument of sustainable development in Nigeria. Morinho (2009:1) observed that "Based on inarticulate policies, inadequate resource and poor planning, curriculum implementation has become ineffective and lacks any useful feedback mechanism anchored in review, analysis and design processes." Declined budgetary allocation to education from 1994 to 2009 obstructed the effective implementation of school curriculum at all levels of education. It was evidence that between 1994 and 2009 yearly budgeting allocation to education at national level declined from 7.83 percent in 1994 to 1.6% in 2009 (see figure 1 for details). Gulloma (2009) and Agba et al (2009) observed that public expenditure on education in Nigeria is within the region of 5 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is far below the average of most countries. Consequently aggregate per capita expenditure on students continues to dwindle since 1994.

V. EDUCATION CURRICULUM AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Education and national development are inextricably interwoven. Education is a continuous process by which an individual acquires basic skills that enable him to function effectively as member of society. While national development is the progressive unfolding of the potentials of society (Orobosa, 2010). It entails establishing "a free and democratic society; a just and egalitarian society; a united, strong and self-reliant nation; a great and dynamic economy; a land, full of bright opportunities for all citizens" (FGN, 2004:6); Emeh & Agba (2010).

National development includes engendering in members of society the disposition for personal autonomy, responsibilities as well unfolding man's potentialities in a total sense. It entails making man the focus of development drive. It involves total transformation of society, reduction of poverty, enhancing social services and security, housing, wealth

creating and equitable distribution of wealth (ACARITSD, 1989; Mohammed, 1991; Orobosa, 2010; Emeh & Agba, 2010).

The aspiration and drive for national development informed the philosophy and objective of education in Nigeria (Ajibola, 2008). The curriculum was expanded and modified, to place education as agent of social change as well as reflect the dynamics process of nation-building (Woolman, 2001 & Marinho, 2009). Education was meant to foster the frontier of knowledge, formulate ideas for national development, train and develop manpower to man various institutions of society (Jaja 2007, Agba, Ushie & Agba 2007) and to inculcate national Values, morals and character necessary for national unity and development (Agba, Ushie & Agba 2009), Emeh & Agba, 2010).

Despite government intention to use education as vital instrument for national transformation, there remain systemic short comings that bedevil the realization of development plan of Nigeria (Agba, 2007, Morinho, 2010). Consequently, the country is still trapped in the vicious cycle of underdevelopment. Social mayhem such as poverty, food insecurity, health crisis, dead infrastructure, high crime rate and poor sanitation characterized the Nigerian federation (Agba, et al, 2009). Others are unemployment (Alanana, 2003, Akintoye, 2008), ethno-religious crisis, political thuggery (Agba, Coker & Agba 2010). These social upheaval threatened national unity and could extinct the Nigerian federation even at 50 years of nationhood.

Although the causes of these social mayhem are multidimensional, effective and functional education could serve as remedy (Emeh & Agba 2010); since such education stimulates other sectors of society (Ojogho & Ogunu, 2003, Jaja, 2007) and trained social thinkers who would proffer solution to societal problems (Emeh, 2010). Effective design and implementation of curriculum is therefore vital for functional education and nation building (Marinho 2009). Nwilo and Badejo (2002) posit that when curriculum is inadequate to propel the wheels of effective education it should be modernized or reviewed to meet the demands and dynamics of society.

VI. METHODOLOGY

This study was carried in South-South States of Nigeria. Four States including Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Edo and River States were purposefully selected for the study. One hundred and fifty participants were purposefully sampled from the population of education stakeholders in the sampled states. The breakdown of the sample is as follows:

1. <i>University lecturers</i>	-	11
2. <i>Secondary school principals:</i>		
a) <i>State owned</i>	-	8
b) <i>Privately owned</i>	-	6

c) <i>Federal owned</i>	-	2
3. <i>NGOs</i>	-	8
4. <i>Industries and factories</i>	-	10
5. <i>Community leaders</i>	-	10
6. <i>Ministries</i>	-	12
7. <i>Religious organizations</i>	-	3
8. <i>Teachers:</i>		
a) <i>State schools</i>	-	32
b) <i>Private schools</i>	-	20
c) <i>Federal schools</i>	-	8
9. <i>Parents</i>	-	10
10. <i>Students</i>	-	6
11. <i>The press</i>	-	4
<i>Total</i>	=	150

Special invited guests include the Vice - Chancellor of the University of Calabar, the Manager of Export Processing Zone (EPZ) Calabar, Retired Chief Judge of the High Court, Commissioner of Education, Cross River State, and the Director of the Research Centre, University of Calabar who is also the Project Manager, University of Calabar Step B World Bank Project. This sample was therefore judged adequate representative of education stakeholders for a workshop on curriculum review. The basic assumptions are that all education stakeholders who participated in the workshop had, at one time or the other, been in contact with some aspect of Nigerian educational curriculum at secondary, university or both levels of the educational system. They are therefore judged capable of responding to various curriculum issues and expressing their reactions in a Focus Group Discussion (FGD).

Qualitative technique was used to elicit information from participants. The qualitative method used was the FGD. Participants were divided into six groups, comprising of 25 persons each. The following curriculum themes were the focus of the group discussions:

1. Group 1: National needs to serve by secondary and university education.
2. Group 2: Secondary and university education objectives
3. Group 3: Curriculum contents
4. Group 4: Teaching methods (Pedagogy)
5. Groups 5: General implementation of curriculum (current practices).
6. Groups 6: Evaluation techniques and linking of secondary and university education lifelong strategies.

The Focused Group Discussion (FGD) stage was followed by group presentation of report. This was presented by each group's discussant leader or secretary when participants converged for general interaction. The final stage was comments from the participants on their individual reactions to (a) the curriculum issues, and (b) the extent of success of the stakeholders' workshop.

VII. FINDINGS

1) *Result from FGD 1: National Needs to Serve by Secondary and University Educations.*

The questions for discussion in Group 1 was: Does the present secondary education system adequately serve national needs as an entry point for (a) further life experiences, and (b) university experiences? If no, what are the areas of inadequacy?

During the session, discussants observed that, in theory the present secondary education system in Nigeria adequately serve national needs, but not in practice. The white collar trend of missionary education is still on. Learners go to school without the necessary equipment. They posit that the theoretical aspect is adequate, but there is no enabling environment for skills development, thus unemployment is prevalent. Discussants asserted that trained personnel to facilitate the implementation of curriculum in Nigeria are lacking; that subject like Introductory Technology is not adequately taken care of, even where the equipment are available, implementation is poor due to lack of personnel. They also asserted that, inadequate funding affects curriculum implementation.

Discussants observed that education at secondary school level does not equip students to meet the standard for the University in terms of knowledge build up and skills development. Consequently, they posit that parents and teachers roles should be supplementary; parents should be interested in what their children learn in school. That enabling environment should be created to stimulate teachers' commitment to work. There should also be commitment on the part of all stakeholders, government inclusive. Government must show genuine interest in education. Teaching and learning process should be organized in such a way that children are encouraged to develop their potentials.

Participants asserted that school time at secondary school level should be extended beyond 2.00pm if they are to cover everything included in the curriculum. They also advocated for the re-introduction of "A" Levels programme in Nigeria; and that moral instruction should be included in schools.

2) *Result from FGD 2: Secondary and University Education Objectives*

The question for discussion in this group was: How realistic are the present objectives of secondary education as an entry point for (a) further life experiences and (b) university education experiences?

During the session discussants asserted that the objective of secondary education of providing all primary school pupils with the opportunity for education at a higher level, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background is realistic because government provided facilitates in secondary schools for

everyone without any social or racial restrictions. However participants posit that the objective of secondary education of offering diversified curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and future roles is not realistic. That education at secondary school level does not make provision for holistic individual development and does not give room for creativity and opportunities for students to excel. This is because the curriculum is teacher centered and does not take into cognizance the growth and development of the learners.

Participants further asserted that the objective of providing trained manpower in the applied science, technology and commerce at sub-professional grades through secondary education is unrealistic. This is because there is lack of technical expertise; schools are poorly equipped and lack modern facilities for advancement. More so, discussants observed that secondary education had not been able to inspire students with a desire for self-improvement and raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feeling of others. Participants posit that the lapses or inadequacies in secondary education is attributed to a number of factors including that the curriculum is teacher – centered; emphasis is on certification and not skilled, consequently learning is based on note/memorization; and that the class size is often very large for teachers. Other impediments are lack of school physical facilities, including ill-equipped laborites, lack of teaching aids and libraries.

Discussants asserted that for secondary education to be relevant the following objectives should be including in the curriculum:

1. Entrepreneurial training
2. Syllabus should include acquisition of skills such as creativity and problem solving,
3. Reproductive health education should also be offered as a subject in secondary schools.
4. And that learning should be practical oriented.

3) *Result from FGD 3: Curriculum Content*

Discussion in this group was based on the question: How adequate are the present curriculum content of secondary education as an entry point for (a) further life experiences, and (b) university education-experiences? It was asserted in this group that the curriculum contents of secondary education is inadequate for further life experiences; owing to recent charges in technology, globalization process and other global dynamics. The curriculum contents are inadequate because it fails to domesticate local needs and in science is more theory oriented than practical. It was asserted by discussants that science curriculum failed to integrate our traditional methods of healing, and other indigenous knowledge system. They posit that

history curriculum content should be expanded to include minority tribes in Nigeria.

Participants further asserted that social science curriculum should be broadened to capture more of the Nigerian economy than that of the Western World. They posit that theories especially that are related to climate change should be reviewed; and that curriculum content for food and nutrition should emphasized more on local dishes.

4) *Result from FGD 4: Teaching Methods (Pedagogy)*

Discussants based the session on the question: How adequate are the teaching methods presently employed in secondary education as entry point for (a) further life experiences; and (b) university education experiences?

Participants observed that the current teaching methods employed in secondary schools in Nigeria are grossly inadequate as entry point for further life experiences and tertiary education experiences. They posit that teaching methods are more teachers – centered, because discussion, demonstration, discovery and concept mapping methods which are very important are rarely employed in our schools. That absence of properly trained and committed teachers, non-professional teachers, inadequate learning materials, absenteeism as by both students and teachers further obstruct the process of teaching and learning in secondary schools.

Participants posit that the teaching methods in secondary schools are largely inefficient and mechanical. The popular ones like lecture method are stereotyped and routine, making the classroom boring for learners. They asserted that, methods are traditional, outdated and are more teachers – centered than student-centered.

5) *Result from FGD 5: General implementation of Curriculum (Current Practices)*

Discussants based their deliberation on the question: How realistic and adequate are the current practices in the implementation of secondary education as an entry point for (a) further life experiences; and (b) university education experiences?

The participants posit that the current practices are relatively unrealistic because of infrastructural problems. Inadequate classroom, staff room, lack of teaching aids, laboratories, workshops and indecent teaching environment impede the implementation of secondary school curriculum in Nigeria. Other factors include large proportion of students in a class. In most school teacher student ratio is 1:100; this does not make for school friendly environment. Again in schools where there are laboratories, they are not equipped, attendants, reagents are not available and some of the equipments are obsolete.

Discussants also asserted that the current practices in the implementation of secondary education curriculum are relevant, except for situation where students are exposed to only theoretical aspects of learning in subjects that require practical applications. Practical learning are not emphasized nor carried out for the following reasons: inadequate equipments, untrained teachers, and irrelevant curriculum contents.

Participants posit that pitfalls to curriculum implementation can be overcome if government prioritize education, equip schools and cater for the welfare of teachers. They asserted that teaching methods should be modified; teachers and other stakeholders should be allowed to participate effectively during curriculum review or design. The content of the curriculum should be reviewed to reflect the needs of the Nigeria.

6) *Result from FGD 6: Evaluation Techniques and Linking of Secondary and University Education of Lifelong Strategies*

Discussion in this group was within the frame of the question: How relevant are the present evaluation techniques in secondary education as an entry point for (a) further life experiences; and (b) university education experiences?

Participants asserted that the traditional mode of examination is inadequate and it is mainly directed towards testing cognitive ability of students. They posit that paper and pencil test are rampant, and this hardly test skills, attitudes and values. Learning experiences that forms the core of the curriculum are obsolete and do not reflect the aspirations of students. The discussants observed that since what students experiences at the secondary level are at variance with their subsequent progression to the university they become disoriented as first year, students at the university level, because their secondary school experiences do not serve as stepping stone to interact at a higher level.

The group also posits that existing evaluation techniques were inadequate. Continuous assessment both at secondary and university levels are no longer taken seriously. Students are not exposed to varied forms of test that can prone all areas of their ability like cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Fortnight test is completely out in most secondary schools. Test items are not comprehensive because most teachers do not understand three methodologies used in examining students which include – single domain, co-matrix and affective. Repeating questions and poor supervision of examinations also constitute a problem in evaluation techniques in Nigeria.

VIII. DISCUSSION

The study revealed that in theory, the present secondary education system in Nigeria is adequate but not in practices. It shows that the theoretical aspect of the curriculum is adequate to serve the needs of the country, but lack enabling environment for skill development. The study also revealed that education at secondary level does not equip students to meet further life experiences. Consequently, unemployment is prevalent. The curriculum in secondary school is therefore relic of colonial type which is white collar oriented. According to Fajana (1969) and Adeyinka (1988), the main thrust of colonial curriculum was based on the Four R's: Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Religion. Its objective was to train lay-readers, cooks and interpreters. People were trained to fit into the white collar jobs of the colonial overlords. Little consideration was given to agriculture or preparation for self-employment.

The unprecedented rise in unemployment in Nigeria is not unconnected to the inadequacies in the secondary education system. According to Alanana (2003), unemployment rate increased from 6.2% in the 1970s to 11.5% in the 1990s. Akintoye (2008) posits that national unemployment rose from 4.3% in 1970 to 6.4% in 1980. Statistics from National Bureau of Statistics (2005), Ajayi, Adeniji and Adu (2008) revealed that unemployed persons with secondary education increased from 59.2% in 1992 to 68.7% in 1994.

The study shows that the objective of secondary education of offering diversified curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities, further life experiences and future roles is unrealistic. Education at this level does not make provision for holistic development of the student. The study further revealed that the objective of secondary school providing trained manpower in the applied sciences, technology and commerce at sub-professional grades is not realistic. Participant asserted that lack of school physical equipment, experts, poor curriculum design and poor funding are jointly responsible for the set-back in the potency of secondary education in Nigeria. This findings corroborates Balogun (1995), Jega (2002), Awah and Agba (2007) who all observe that factors that limit the effective implementation of curriculum in Nigeria include – inadequate planning, insufficient teachers, syllabus overloading, incessant strikes, lack of infrastructural facilities among others.

Marinho (2009) posits that inarticulate policies, inadequate resources, poor planning, lack of feedback mechanism impede curriculum implementation in Nigeria. Agba et al (2009) and Gulloma (2009) observe that public expenditure on education is within the region of 5 percent of the GDP and this could be responsible for the gross lack of school physical facilities in schools and frequent strikes in the education system which in turn affects curriculum implementation. Agba et al (2009) further observed that between 1994 and 2009

yearly national budgetary allocation to education declined from 7.83 percent to 1.6 percent and this adversely affects the process of teaching and learning in Nigeria schools.

The study also revealed that the curriculum content of secondary education is inadequate for further life experiences and university education. This is because the curriculum contents failed to domesticate local needs and is more theory-oriented than practical. The content largely omits most changes in technology and other global dynamics. This finding is consonant with the observations of Adeyinka (1988) and Woolman (2001) who posit that secondary school curriculum contents are inadequate; because it neglects African culture and history, thus separating the students from life and needs of their community.

Participants acknowledge that the current teaching methods in secondary schools are inadequate to spore students for further life experiences. That the teaching methods are teacher-centered which largely omits demonstration, discovery and concept mapping methods. Participants blamed the absences of trained and committed teachers, non-professional teachers and inadequate learning material to be responsible for the poor teaching methods in secondary schools in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with the observations of Balogun (1995) and Nwakoma (2009) who posit that lack of in-service training and committed teachers could be responsible for poor pedagogy in primary and secondary schools in Nigeria.

Poor teaching methods could be responsible for poor academic performance of students in secondary schools in external examinations such as Senior Secondary Certificate of Education (SSCE), Joint Admission and Matriculation Examination (JAMB) and NECO. Agba, Ikoh and Ashibi (2010) posit that teaching-learning process revolves around the teacher and his/her pedagogy and this has behaviour consequence on the student performance at school. Ikoh (2007) observe that records in Nigeria show that students' performance in SSCE is quite below average. This performance according to Ashibi (2005) and Agba et al (2009) is blamed on teachers' pedagogy and government inability to effectively sponsor education in Nigeria.

The study further revealed that the current practices are unrealistic and inadequate in the implementation of secondary education as an entry point for further life experiences and university education. Participants observed that inadequate classroom, staff room, lack of teaching aids, laboratories, workshops and poor work environment impede curriculum implementation in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with the works of Balogun (1995), Nwakoma (2009) and Morinho (2009), who observed that lack of school physical facilities, inadequate



funding, and lack of professional teachers posed great challenge to curriculum implementation in Nigeria.

More so, the study revealed that the traditional mode of examination in secondary schools is inadequate, since it is directed towards testing cognitive abilities of students; omitting skills, values and attitude test. This could be responsible for the disorientation among year one students in the university. The reason is that what students' experience at the secondary level is at variance with their subsequent progression to the university. This therefore calls for re-evaluation of the existing testing techniques and re-emphasizing the importance of continuous assessment in secondary schools.

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on this research finding, the following recommendations were made:

1. Government should prioritize education in Nigeria. Genuine interest should be shown in education. Education should be properly funded by government to enable schools acquire adequate physical facilities and instructional materials. This will help reduce the problem of overcrowded classrooms.
2. Conducive work environment should be created for teachers to stimulate their commitment to work. Adequate and decent staff rooms should be built for teachers.
3. Teaching and learning process should be organized in such a way and manner that encourage the development of the hidden potentials of the child.
4. The existing curriculum in secondary school should be reviewed to reflect the needs and aspirations of Nigerians. Subjects that developed the child for self-employment should be introduced and enabling environment should be created for these subjects to be taught. Existing subjects such as introductory technology should be encouraged through adequate equipment and personnel.
5. Secondary school curriculum should be diversified to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and future roles of students.
6. Curriculum contents especially in social sciences and in food and nutrition should be domesticated to reflect local needs. The content of economic syllabus should capture more of Nigeria economy than Western World. Food and nutrition curriculum should emphasize more on local dishes.

X. CONCLUSION

Education remains a potent factor in national development. The aspiration of establishing a free and

democratic Nigeria, a just and egalitarian society, a united, strong and self reliant nation, a great and dynamic economy, and that of becoming one of the twentieth economy by 2020 would be dashed if our curriculum is faulty and not properly implemented especially at secondary school level. This is because education at this level serves as a bridge between primary schools and tertiary institutions. The unprecedented rate of unemployment among secondary school leavers, the poor performance of secondary school students in external examinations and their disorientation at entry points in universities/tertiary institutions merits serious consideration and commends our attention for curriculum review. We therefore recommended among others that the curriculum contents in secondary schools be reviewed to reflect the needs and aspiration of Nigerians; and that government should prioritized education and create enabling environment for teaching and learning in secondary schools.

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The Role of Parents in Early Childhood Education: A Case Study of Ikeja, Lagos State, Nigeria

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Abstracts - : This research aims at providing solutions to role of parents in early childhood education in Nigeria. It will serve as an eye opener to parents and the society in helping to modify or re-adjust their mode of parental involvement towards achieving a better future for themselves and their children notwithstanding their busy schedules and in some cases, inadequacy of resources. A survey approach was used through self-administered questionnaires, and analysis was done using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test the hypotheses. Based on the findings of this work, parental involvement, that is emotional care and support has a very big influence on early childhood education, particularly the academic performance of the child. More so, it was observed that the extent of parental educational attainment has a significant influence on the age which the child is being sent to school. This implies that the extent or level of the parental educational attainment and exposure determines the age at which the child is being enrolled to school. It was also discovered that, the residential setting of the parents (respondents) has nothing to do with the educational performance of the child. On the whole, parental involvement is very essential in early childhood education and this helps to broaden the child's horizon, enhance social relationships, and promote a sense of self-esteem and self-efficacy.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Education in the second half of the twentieth century has been characterized by increases in the provision of educational programs for preschool-age children. The largest wave of preschool education activity has been the federally funded Head Start program, established in the 1960s to help children overcome the cognitive, social, emotional, and physical deficits that frequently accompany growing up in economically deprived homes. By providing an array of educational and social services to children and their families, Head Start programs are designed to foster general well-being and enhance school readiness, so that these children might gain the full benefit of their school experiences and be more successful in life generally.

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If Head Start and other programs for economically disadvantaged children can be shown to make a positive difference in these children's school and life experiences, their impact can be very widespread. Schweinhart (1985) points out that one-fourth of all children under the age of six are living in poverty, and that three-fifths of the mothers of three- and four-year-old children now work outside the home. However, fewer than 20 percent of the nation's three and four-year-olds from poor families are currently enrolled in Head Start programs.

Kindergarten enrollment has also increased dramatically in recent years. While only seven states mandate kindergarten attendance, about 95 percent of all children currently attend kindergarten (Sava 1987), and 23 percent of these attend full-day programs (Karweit 1988). In addition to the generally recognized need to provide some kind of extra support to children from low-income homes, there is another reason for the dramatic increase in educational programs for children before first grade. This is the increase, alluded to above, of mothers in the workforce. Many parents who are not at home with their children in the daytime are not satisfied with unstructured day care or babysitting, preferring that their children participate in more formal learning experiences. Finally, some of the increased interest in and push for structured preschool programs comes from the unfortunate notion, held by some, that education is a race to be won, and those who start first are more likely to finish ahead. Commenting on this source of pressure for preschool education, Elkind (1988) says: ...the choice of the phrase "Head Start" was unfortunate. "Head Start" does imply a race. And not surprisingly, when middle income parents heard that low-income children were being given a "Head Start," they wanted a similar "Head Start" for their children.

A great many educators and researchers view early childhood education as beneficial to children's cognitive and social development. These proponents including virtually all of the researchers and theorists whose work was consulted in order to prepare this document base their conviction on personal observation and on the many research studies linking early childhood programs to desirable outcomes. It is important to note, however, that some educators, such as Elkind (1988), Katz (1987), Zigler (1986), and

representatives of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (1986) warn against too much formal, highly structured education for very young children. These and other writers have called attention to three major objections to school-based programs. As summarized by Katz, these objections include:

- Such programs, because they are to be conducted in schools normally serving elementary-age children, will inevitably adopt formal academic teaching methods that early childhood specialists generally consider developmentally inappropriate for under-six-year-olds.
- Research reporting positive long-term benefits of early education programs is based on the kind of high quality of staff and program implementation unlikely to be duplicated in most school districts.
- Others...cite the special risks of public school programs for young black children, suggesting that such children need comprehensive programs that include health, nutrition, social services, and parent involvement, as well as informal curriculum/methods.

In addition, writers such as Herman (1984) and Puleo (1988) call attention to the issues surrounding the half-day/full-day kindergarten controversy. They note that some educators and researchers feel that the additional hours are too fatiguing for young children and that, in any case, increasing allocated time does not necessarily enhance program quality. Given this array of assertions and reservations about preschool and kindergarten programs, it is important to examine what well-designed research studies reveal about the long- and short-term effects of early childhood education. It is also important to determine whether different effects are produced by different models for early childhood programs--to determine, for example, whether didactic, teacher-directed programs or less-structured, "discovery" models produce superior cognitive and behavioral outcomes. Finally, we need to determine whether different populations of students respond differently to early childhood education in general or to particular program models. "The relationship of the early childhood education research to the general effective schooling research is also of interest to teachers, administrators, theorists, and researchers. The effective schooling research base developed over the past two decades tells us a great deal about what school and classroom practices are effective for students in general".

The series of topical synthesis documents of which this report is a part examines particular topic areas against the backdrop of the general effective schooling research to determine points of congruence and identify any areas where the general and specific

bodies of research do not match. To achieve this, the present report invokes the general effective schooling research cited in *Effective Schooling Practices: A Research Synthesis* (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory 1984). In reviewing the many research findings cited in this document, it is important to remember that they did not, for the most part, emerge from studies conducted with children younger than first graders. Many of these studies are therefore not applicable to these very young children, because the settings and treatments employed in them represent what Katz described above as "formal academic teaching methods that early childhood specialists generally consider developmentally inappropriate for under-six-year-olds."

There are, nevertheless, several points of congruence between the two literatures, and these will be noted following a discussion of the research on early childhood education.

1) *General Objective*

The broad objective of this study is to critically examine the role, effectiveness and impact of parents in early childhood education in Nigeria, specifically the geographical location of Ikeja, Lagos State. The specific objectives include the following:

- To examine the impact of parents in early childhood years.
- To investigate if the socio-demographic characteristics of the parents have an impact on early childhood education.
- To examine the factors affecting parental involvement in early childhood education.
- To recommend measures to increase the rate and involvement of parents in early childhood education in the study area and also Nigeria.

2) *Hypotheses to be tested*

A hypothesis can be defined as a hunch, an educated guess or logical speculation based on available data information relative to a problem or a set of problem under investigation (Izedonmi 2005).

It is a proposition made about a population that is subjected to test in order to determine its validity. It is an intelligible uncertified proposition. In testing the hypothesis of the role of parents in early childhood education the hypothesis below is being deduced;

- The higher the level of parental involvement in early childhood education, the higher the educational performance of the child.
- The socio-economic characteristics have an impact on early childhood education.
- The more conducive the learning environment of the child the higher the educational performance.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous studies, observations, opinions, and comments related to the problem under investigation will be identified and evaluated. More so, the future of any country and mankind depends solely on the children. In order to achieve this, there must be emphasis laid on the issue of the role of parents in early childhood education.

Children's rights have been argued about for centuries, and the concept touches raw nerves when adult decisions and actions are put to the test (Stainton Rogers, 2004). 'Rights are entitlements, valuable commodities' which we 'do not have to grovel or beg to get', according to Freeman (1996, p. 70). Children's rights do not receive widespread public or political support in New Zealand, and perhaps even less so in Australia. Children's rights have often been perceived as 'a political hot potato', which, rather than advancing children's interests, jeopardize them (Melton, 2005, p. 655). This is a disturbing state of affairs, which one would like academics and professionals working on children's issues to fight. There is a responsibility for education about children's rights to be implemented in countries which have ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (the Convention). Article 42 obliges the state 'to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, by appropriate and active means, to adults and children alike'. It is particularly important, therefore, for early childhood teacher education and professional development programs to ensure that the principles of the Convention are understood and implemented in early childhood services.

Professionals working with children have an important role in advocating for them: by taking a proactive approach towards recognising the rights of all children; and responding by trying to change systems, policies and individuals. Child advocacy involves raising the status of children, increasing their self-determination and the responsiveness and accountability of institutions affecting them (Melton, 1987). Professionals should be educating government and local agencies about the Convention and using it to provide a common basis for understanding, and a framework to plan and operate services for children. Child advocacy is not about undermining the role of parents, families or teachers, nor is it about denying children their childhood. The Convention provides legal and ethical grounds on which to argue for changes to policy in favour of children's rights. Greater collaboration between agencies concerned with the rights of children in different spheres, and even between different countries, could do much to speed implementation. The Convention is a

powerful international treaty, ratified by all but two countries in the world (US and Somalia), which is being used proactively in many countries to persuade governments and communities to support better policies for children. Even if countries do not fully comply with the Convention, ratification of it signals an intention for them to progressively implement it and incorporate it into their domestic law, policies and practice (Ludbrook, 2000).

The Convention provides an internationally accepted standard to be applied to basic human rights affecting children. Freeman (1995) argues that, while the Convention is not the final word on children's rights (because it is a result of international compromise); it goes well beyond any previous international documents and reflects a world consensus on the status of children. Melton believes that the Convention is unusual in the breadth of its coverage. Not only is the Convention a nearly universally adopted expression of respect for children as persons, but it is also unparalleled in its conceptual breadth. No other human-rights treaty directly touches on so many domains of life. (2005, p. 648). It is a document of reconciliation which treats parents and children with respect. It has had a major impact on other fields, including law, welfare and health. The following quote from the Principal Family Court Judge in New Zealand, referring to a new law, the Care of Children Act, 2005, illustrates well the different perspective on children associated with the Convention.

Children are citizens and social participants in their own right. This is a fundamental shift from the old adage 'children should be seen but not heard'. No longer are children to be thought of as the property of their parents, unwarranted of consideration until the attainment of adulthood. Children are human beings and entitled to the same degree of respect as adult human beings. ... This position of being people unto themselves, while also being dependent on others, is clearly recognised in the pre-eminent human rights instrument specific to children. That is the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCROC). As the most widely adopted human rights document in history, ratified by 192 countries, UNCROC provides a powerful backdrop to the Care of Children Act. (Boshier, 2005, p. 7).

There are other the Convention articles which are also important for early childhood education (Smith, 2000), but it is participation rights, in particular Articles 12 and 13, that are the most challenging. Article 12 says the views of children should be taken into account in decisions affecting them (according to age and maturity). Article 13 says children have the right to express their views and to be given information. Article 12 is 'the linchpin' of the Convention (Freeman, 1996) which recognises children's personality and autonomy; children as people and not just objects of concern, and that children must be listened to. Article 13 is equally

important in setting out children's rights to give and receive information. These articles accept that children are full human beings with rights and dignity, and accord respect to their identity (Pufall & Unsworth, 2004).

Increasing attention has been paid to the early childhood years as the foundation of children's academic success. The importance of high quality learning environments, qualified teachers, and family engagement with early care and education programs have all been identified as critical factors in enhancing young children's early learning experiences and their subsequent educational outcomes (Cost, Quality, and Outcome Study Team, 1995; NICHD, 2000; Peisner-Feinberg et al., 1999). This report focuses on one critical aspect in supporting high quality learning experiences for young children – that of family involvement in early care and education programs. Family is the primary influence of young children and sets the stage for how they grow and develop (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). The more parents are involved with their children, the more positive learning and general life outcomes occur (Baker, Goesling & Letendre, 2002).

Furthermore, children of involved parents typically display higher levels of achievement, more acceptable behavior and greater motivation in school (Keith, 1999). Students who excel academically often have parents who are interested in their children's learning from an early age and who engage in supportive learning activities, such as rhyming and shared book reading (Wade & Moore, 1998). It is important that the key role families play in supporting their child's learning at home and in early care and education programs be understood, facilitated, and nurtured across the array of services and programs available to young children and their families. The following report examines this issue particularly as it relates to the current context of early care and education in Kentucky;

While many studies have focused on "parent involvement," the concept remains unclear, leading to uncertainty for many families and early care and education providers. Thus, there is no standard definition of parent involvement. Rather, the term is used loosely and is construed in a number of ways. For instance, Sheldon (2002) loosely defined parent involvement as the investment of resources in children by parents. While Coleman and Churchill (1997) provide a more descriptive definition stating that family involvement can include many different components including a program providing emotional support, providing parents with skills and knowledge, communicating about the child with the provider. However, their definition is still quite broad and they admit that it is not inclusive. Furthermore, McBride, Bae and Wright

(2002) use the words family-school partnership, parent involvement, and family involvement interchangeably to define the process between schools and families that enhances learning for the children. The interpretation of parent involvement is highly dependent on the individual beliefs and expectations of each person concerned. Often, the beliefs and expectations between families and early care and education programs are not shared collectively. This often causes confusion as to what role each is to play in the care and education of children, which can ultimately lead to decreased involvement.

With the understanding that parent involvement is highly individualized, a broad approach to defining parent involvement is more likely to encompass the full extent of beliefs and expectations presently held by families and providers. To that end, Epstein (2001) suggests that the relationships and interactions among family members, educators, community, and students are similar to partnerships. Dunst (1990) presents a family-centered approach, one where a child's growth and development is nurtured by the overlapping supports of parents, family, community, and child learning opportunities, as most effective for successful outcomes. Both Epstein and Dunst present the partnerships between families and providers as an opportunity for shared responsibility for facilitating the growth and development of children.

Following a comprehensive approach of involvement for family and professional partnerships, Epstein (2001) describes six types of involvement including parenting, communication, volunteering, learning at home, and decision making, and collaborating with the community. Each type of involvement comprises various components (see Table 1). Families and educators can work together to develop goals and establish the best possible practices that are meaningful and appropriate for both parties.

Table 1 Components of Epstein's Six Types of Involvement

Type Of Involvement	Purpose/Goal
Parenting	Help all families establish home environment to support children as students
Communicating	Design effective forms of school-to-home and home -to- school communications about school programs and their children's progress
Volunteering	Recruit and organize parent help and support
Learning at Home	Provide information and ideas to families about how to help students at home with homework and other curriculum-related activities, decisions, and

	planning
Decision Making	Include parents in school decisions, developing parent leaders and representatives
Collaborating with Community	Identify and integrate resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development

An increasing number of young children are involved in early care and education programs. The Children's Defense Fund (2001) reports that 13 million preschoolers participate in child care each day. This includes 6 million infants and toddlers. The U.S. Census Bureau (2002) reported that in 1997 63% of children fewer than 5 years of age attended some form of regular early care and education arrangement an average of 37 hours each week. In Kentucky, 103,000 children access the child care system on a daily basis, including approximately 16,000 children ages 3-4 serviced by Head Start and about 21,000 children serviced by KERA Preschools (K. Townley, personal communication, July 22, 2003). Many young children who are considered "at-risk," as defined by their family income level, receive services through either federal program, such as Head Start, or through state supported programs such as the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) preschool programs in Kentucky. Thus, many Kentucky families are currently accessing some type of early care and education program. Although these programs vary in many ways, they all have the potential to provide the foundation for successful parent-school partnerships for Kentucky families.

Despite the number of children in early care and education programs, most research concerning parent involvement is focused on families with children in the school system and for school-age children in particular. It is essential that the foundation for family-school/program partnerships is nurtured early in a child's educational experience in an effort to enhance future family-school partnerships as well as optimize children's educational success. Although the school-based research provides insight to parent involvement, several differences exist between early care and education programs and school-based programs, which can affect the nature of parental involvement. These differences stem from both the ideological differences that have historically served as the catalyst for the emergence of these programs, as well as their funding and current structure of operation. Specifically, public school programs are an entitlement to all children who reside in the U.S. and are seen as the primary vehicle to support children's formal education and preparation for society. Although varying philosophies and approaches

can be witnessed throughout the public school system, their funding structure is essentially similar and secured by a combination of federal and state funding.

3) *Theoretical Framework*

a) *Family Systems Theory*

Family Systems Theory proposes that families are interconnected units in which each member exerts a reciprocal influence on the other members (Boss et al., 1993). Thus, each member of a family is affected by the family system in which they participate (Berger, 2000). Changes occurring in any part of the family system, such as a parent losing a job or a child switching classrooms, affect and initiate changes within other members of the family. Thus, early care and education programs can expect to see changes in children based on what happens within the family system. Likewise, families can anticipate changes in their child based on what takes place within the program. Therefore, it is essential that parents are involved with what is happening with the child while in the program, as well as for the program to stay informed of what is happening with the family.

There are many factors that influence a family's ability to both facilitate a child's growth and development and participate in parent education programs. Issues of diversity, communication, meeting preferences, resources, time, knowledge, and personnel affect family involvement. Issues of diversity can be found throughout the majority of research regarding parent involvement. In recent research, diversity is most commonly discussed in terms of race, socioeconomic status (SES), parents' educational level, and family structure (Desimone, 1999; Bruckman & Blanton, 2003).

While there are disagreements within the current literature about the degree of influence these factors have on parent involvement, there is consensus that they are influential. Race and ethnicity have also been a focus of many studies of family involvement, specifically Caucasian, African, Hispanic, Latino, and Asian American families. Most often, findings suggest that parent involvement programs fail to serve minority groups, groups that are not Caucasian and/or middle class and that programs that are designed around the needs of Caucasian, middle class parents do not efficiently serve other groups. This leads to feelings of discomfort and disconnection among parents of minorities, which minimizes their chances of participation. Crozier (2001) has contended that parent involvement strategies will ultimately fail until the needs of ethnic minorities are recognized and addressed. Although it is necessary to recognize the needs of particular groups, it is also important to avoid restricting people to specific categories. Placing stereotypes on individuals may potentially suppress the uniqueness of individuals in minority groups (Jordan, Reyes-Blanes, Peek, Peel, & Lane, 1998).

In addition to ethnicity, education and SES are commonly examined as it relates to family involvement. U.S. Census Bureau (2000a) indicates that 28.6% of adults over the age of 25 have a high school diploma or higher while 15.5% have a bachelor degree or higher. Increasing parents' educational levels and knowledge has been shown to lead to an increase in their children's knowledge, thereby decreasing the disadvantageous lives that some families lead (Bauer and Barnett, 2001).

According to Bauer and Barnett (2001), the United States has one of the highest percentages of children in poverty among developed countries, with many of these children being raised by single mothers. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000b), over 2.5 million families with related children under age 5 live below the poverty line. The resources available to families have a large impact on every aspect of life, including participation in parent education programs. Parents from lower SES backgrounds experience many obstacles, which affect their ability to participate. Time constraints due to work schedules, need for child care, transportation and financial difficulties (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Finders and Lewis, 1994; Lamb-Parker et al., 2001; McBride, Bae and Wright, 2002; Sheldon, 2002) are all hindrances to their ability to be involved. Parents who come from higher SES backgrounds generally have more flexibility in their schedules and do not have the additional daily stressors that lower SES parents' experience. Parents with few resources who struggle with such stressors may not have the time to practice effective parenting (Eccles & Harold, 1993) Not only can life at home be disadvantageous for some parents, but they can also receive poor treatment by teachers and professionals.

Bruckman and Blanton (2003) found that teachers who were not supporters of parent involvement typically had negative views about parents with lower income levels and those with less education. Glanville & Tiller (1991) propose that some parents, due to their low SES background, lack certain skills that would allow them to participate and help in their child's development. Coleman and Churchill (1997) further found that parent with low SES and education levels are just as interested in being involved in parent education programs as those with higher incomes and greater levels of education, but may not demonstrate their involvement in the same ways. For example, low income parents prefer helping their children at home over volunteering at school (Desimone, 1999). Knowing that diversity exists among the parents participating in early care and education settings, it can be assumed that various groups of people also have diverse needs in regards to working with professionals in education programs.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1) Sampling Procedure

A simple random technique was adopted in the selection of the respondent (parents) from no education level, to primary education level, to secondary education level, and tertiary/post-secondary education level in Ikeja, Lagos state. The questionnaires were distributed in primary schools, through the headmistress, in non-governmental organizations, and governmental organization.

2) Method Of Data Collection

Since the population was primary school, governmental and non-governmental organization, more so, the respondents are majorly parents and most of them are literate, therefore, the questionnaire was designed in such a way that the respondent will be able to fill-in the answers themselves without having any problem on either of the questions, that is, open and close-ended questions. About five (5) people including myself will carry out the administration of the questions.

3) Data Processing

After returning from the field work, information supplied in the questionnaire was edited to check for inconsistencies and inadequacies. Thereafter, the response were categorized and re-coded where the questions are open-ended type. The coding was used in preparing the frequency tables and cross tabulations. The tables' cross-tabulations were then prepared for analytical purposes.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

1) Data analysis and interpretation

HYPOTHESIS 1: The higher the level of parental involvement in early childhood education, the higher the educational performance of the child.

Multiple R	0.426
R square	0.182
Adjusted R square	0.177
Standard Error	1.02049

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	36.552	1	36.552	35.099	.000
Residual	164.541	158	1.041		
Total	201.094	159			

- Predictors: (Constant), Do you examine your child's/ward's notes, assignments and class-works?
 - Dependent Variable: How can you rate his/her performance?
- $P < 0.000 (0.000 < 0.05)$

H0: There is no significant relationship between parental involvement in early childhood education and the educational performance of the child.

H1: There exists a significant relationship between parental involvement in early childhood education and the educational performance of the child.

CONCLUSION: Since P value is less than 0.05 .i.e. ($0.000 < 0.05$) therefore, we can reject the Null hypothesis (H0) and accept Alternative hypothesis (H1), meaning that there is a significant relationship between parental involvement in early childhood education and the educational performance of the child. From the analysis it is vividly obvious that children are most likely to perform better in their early childhood education with adequate participation of parents.

HYPOTHESIS II: The socio-economic characteristics have an impact on early childhood education.

Multiple R	0.351
R square	0.123
Adjusted R square	0.177
Standard Error	20.05493

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8913.319	1	8913.319	22.161	.000
	Residual	63547.656	158	402.200		
	Total	72460.975	159			

- Predictors: (Constant), Educational Attainment of the respondents
- Dependent Variable: At what age did you send your child/ward to kindergarten?

$P < 0.000 (0.000 < 0.05)$

H0: The socio-economic characteristics do not have an impact on early childhood education.

H1: The socio-economic characteristics do have an impact on early childhood education.

CONCLUSION: Since P value is less than 0.05 .i.e. ($0.000 < 0.05$) therefore, we can reject the Null hypothesis (H0) and accept Alternative hypothesis (H1), meaning that the socio-economic characteristics do have an impact on early childhood education. The parental educational exposure is very crucial. Some parents just don't buy the idea of letting their kids experience early childhood education. More so, some parents who are illiterate do engage in practices like; if the child's hand does not touch the other side of his/her ears then he/she can't start school. These are kind of old beliefs that should be discarded. So therefore, the parental educational exposure has a very huge impact on the early childhood education.

HYPOTHESIS III: The more conducive the learning environment of the child the higher the educational performance.

Multiple R	0.007
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R square	0.000
Adjusted R square	-0.006
Standard Error	1.12814

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.009	1	.009	.007	.934
Residual	201.085	158	1.273		
Total	201.094	159			

- Predictors: (Constant), The residential setting of the respondents
- Dependent Variable: How can you rate his/her performance?

$P > 0.934 (0.934 > 0.05)$

H0: There is no significant relationship between the learning environment of the child and the child's educational performance.

H1: There is a significant relationship between the learning environment of the child and the child's educational performance.

CONCLUSION: Since P value is greater than 0.05.i.e. ($0.934 > 0.05$) therefore, we can accept the Null hypothesis (H0) and reject Alternative hypothesis (H1), concluding that there is no significant relationship between the learning environment of the child and the child's educational performance. This means that for the fact that a child schools in the rural area doesn't mean his/her educational performance would be poor, and on the other hand, the fact that a child schools in the urban area doesn't mean his/her educational performance would be good.

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Challenges of Formal Social Security Systems in Sudan

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Abstracts - : The present paper discusses issues of challenges of social security systems in Sudan. Following parameters advanced by ILO and UNCOSOC, those systems are analyzed. The conclusions focus on their applicability that faces axial difficulties mainly presented in the state of institutional interregnum facing the country. Moreover, it is important to revisit aspects of social cohesion that serves greater role in traditional social security in the Sudan.

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Challenges of Formal Social Security Systems in Sudan

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Abstract- The present paper discusses issues of challenges of social security systems in Sudan. Following parameters advanced by ILO and UNCOSOC, those systems are analyzed. The conclusions focus on their applicability that faces axial difficulties mainly presented in the state of institutional interregnum facing the country. Moreover, it is important to revisit aspects of social cohesion that serves greater role in traditional social security in the Sudan. <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1728684>

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1. INTRODUCTION

Social security is a paramount challenge to many countries much as to concerned organizations around the world. The International Labor Conference, 2001 launched a campaign to extend social security coverage. Similarly, the World Commission (2004), established the declaration of providing a certain minimum level of social protection needs to be accepted as a part of the socioeconomic floor of the global economy. The DFID circulated a White Paper¹ (2006) in the same issue while the UN ECOSOC High level stated in 2006 recognized that in the context of globalization countries need to devise systems of social protection with broader and effective coverage. Moreover, the G8 Labor Ministers' meeting and summit in 2007 recognized that in conjunction with economic growth and active labor market policies, social security is an instrument for sustainable social and economic development.

The multitude crises around the world reinforced the perception that the extension of social security should be a high priority. In many developing countries' SSS were considered unaffordable. However, undeniably they are important investments to support sustainable economic growth. They play an essential role as economic stabilizers. At present, four out of five people worldwide do not benefit from an existent level of social protection that allows them to realize their human right to social security. That is essential to ensure a basic level of social protection and thus a decent life for people struggling just to survive. It is also a necessity and an obligation under the Human Rights Code.

The generated term of Social Protection Floor is an initiative to provide a basic level of social protection and means as an access to essential services and social transfers for the poor and vulnerable. Within the scope of its mandate, the ILO is in charge of promoting the social transfer component of the social floor. An example is creating a basic set of essential social guarantees realized through cash transfers that could ensure universal access to essential health services, income support and income or subsistence security.

The SPF-I was adopted by the Chief Executives Board of the United Nations in April 2009 as response to the crisis. The ILO and the World Health Organization lead the Initiative. Many UN agencies and other partners such as development banks, bilateral organizations and NGOs, supported that issue. The improved coordination between these partners is at the core of the Program. The Social Protection Floor subsequently was integrated as a key element of the Global Jobs Pact adopted by the International Labor Conference 2009. The Pact provides an internationally agreed set of policy measures to build an employment-oriented framework for future economic growth. The ILO report to the G20 summit in Pittsburgh found that the employment effects as automatic stabilizers, including social assistance and benefits, were just as important as the effect of the stimulus packages. Governments that already had social protection schemes in place were able to cope with the crisis. The stabilizing role that Social Security Systems (SSS) play made them universally accepted instruments. Governments were able to use existing social transfer systems for the delivery of stimulus packages to respond to the heightened need for protection. The crisis acted as an accelerator in the social security debate. SSS not only respond to social needs, but they are an economic necessity. Thus, a new understanding of the importance of social security is required, as a condition to growth rather than a burden to society. Comprehensively, there are direct impacts of the crisis on social security financing and increased demand on SSS. The latter faces a number of long-term systemic challenges. The overall challenge they face in industrialized countries is the changing demographic environment. However, developing countries face these challenges with greater pressures. The main challenge, however, is to extend social security coverage by applying sustainable SSS. The start should be with a

About -The Department For International Development (DFID) is a United Kingdom government department. It was separated from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office in 1997. The goal of the department is "to promote sustainable development and eliminate world poverty".

basic level of protection for all and then gradually build on that base to provide higher levels of protection.

Financing remains as a key concern for implementing sustainable SSS. ILO studies found that it is possible to finance the Social Protection Floor or some of its components even in low-income countries. For a comprehensive approach, a national social security strategy and a diagnosis of priority needs can help to the implementation of SSS. As countries achieve higher levels of economic development, their SSS should also, in parallel, extend the scope, level and quality of benefits and services provided. This can be done within the framework of ILO Conventions, particularly a wider ratification of its Convention No. 102.

The SPF-I has set up a Global SPF Advisory Network to deliver technical assistance to countries that are committed to building, expanding, or reorienting their social protection systems. The Initiative provides support along every step in the process including policy design, awareness raising, legislation and evaluation. Many developing countries have already successfully taken measures. Among these are Mexico, Brazil and Chile. Argentina, China, India, Thailand, Ghana, Mozambique and South Africa introduced important elements such as family benefits, access to education and health services. Cambodia, Equator, Burkina Faso, Togo and Benin also have committed to start building their own Social Protection Floors.

II. THE COUNTRY'S PROFILE

Sudan embodies the necessity for such schemes. During the past three decades, it has endured exceptional calamities, which ranged from natural disasters to undeniable political turbulences. Those had great impacts on all social security parameters in the whole country.

The following table (1) reflects the country's main features as stated by the World Bank Reports (2009). It is apparent that there are rapid demographic expansion from the year 1993 and 2009 as estimated by 24%. The basic required services only increased by 12% and that only concentrated in urban areas. The country's agricultural base did not similarly expand whereas, the industrial activities diminished. Truly, communications and educational capacities, specifically universities largely expanded though with a lower quality efficiency. Other health and water facilities still do not meet the basic levels. However, even with improvements, rural population at large had little share in the development of social security. That is true in specific regions, which amplified during the conflict in Southern Sudan. Uneven development generated similar conflicts in its Eastern and Western parts. Infrastructure development remained limited to the central parts of the country though recent schemes were launched in the Southern and Eastern regions. The major impacts came with the collapse of

irrigated agricultural schemes that played stabilizing role in food security. Privatization policies added shock to patterns of economic production known in the country whereas, irrigated schemes represented and played pivotal role in providing income for seasonal labor markets and refuge at periodic times for drought victims.

Table (1) Sudan Country Profile

Parameters	Year 2009
Population, total (millions)	41.3
Population growth (annual %)	2.2
GDP (current US\$) (billions)	55.9
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,353
GDP growth (annual %)	8.3
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	58.1
Mortality rate, infant (per 1,000 live births)	69.7
Literacy rate, youth female (% of females ages 15-24)	81.7
Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49)	1.4
World Bank Tables	

According to the Human Development Report, 26.6% of the Sudanese population is not expected to survive to more than 40 years of age. Comparatively, in neighboring Egypt the number is only 9.9% and in China 7.7%. The early death of so many Sudanese can be traced to the violence but also to the lack of necessities, as health services, clean water or even food. More than 27% of the population do not have access to safe water whereas in Egypt a lesser 13%. In Sudan more than 30% have no access to health services, while in Egypt, 1%. For children under the age of 5 years, 34% are underweight, while in Egypt, 12%. The World Fact book estimated that the GDP per capita at purchasing power parity in 2000 was less than US\$1,000, which increased to US\$1399 in 2009. All of these numbers underscore the difficulty of most people's lives in Sudan and do not represent the true picture in some disasters ridden regions. Increases in calculated per capita income, however, does not transfer to all population. Disparities exit between regions, states and urban and rural areas. That translates into income gaps correlated with lack of social security specially in rural areas or civic conflict regions.

III. RURAL POVERTY IN THE SUDAN

Poverty in the Sudan is deeply entrenched and that is largely rural. It particularly affects farmers who practice rainfed agriculture. The phenomenon is more widespread in rural areas in Southern, Western and Eastern Sudan and in areas affected by conflict, drought and famine. The incidence of poverty varies considerably according to region. Partly, that is because economic growth is unevenly distributed and the economic and social devastation caused by the conflict in certain parts of the country. There are severe inequalities in terms of access to education, sanitation and clean water, infrastructure and natural resources, income opportunities, justice and political protection.

Sustained economic growth was behind as presented in the extreme poverty rates that exacerbated from 77% in the 1990s to an estimated 90% at present. Important regional disparities still exist. The Sudan remains a low-income, food-deficit country. It ranks 147th on the United Nations Development Program's Human Development Index (2007/2008) among 177 countries.

In the country's poorest areas, the rapidly growing population includes displaced people and returnees. That puts significant pressure on already fragile ecosystems. Erosion, loss of soil fertility and damage to watersheds are affecting resources. Agricultural productivity is low. Farmers face the impact of the effects of climate change, such as water scarcity, on their livelihoods. Volatile food prices affect household food security.

In general, small-scale farmers, herders in the traditional rainfed farming and livestock sectors are poorer than those in the irrigated agricultural sector. People who do not have land to farm lead a livelihood by undertaking casual labor such as collecting firewood and making charcoal. Meanwhile, people living in areas that have been or continue to be affected by drought and conflict. The South, Darfur, Kordofan and the Red Sea, are the most vulnerable to poverty.

Isolation is one of the key factors affecting poverty. Isolated settlements have little or no access to social services and markets. Within rural communities, households without assets and labor are the poorest. They include elderly or disabled people, and households headed by women with young dependants. Women and girls are the most disadvantaged members of society, less than one third of them have access to education. The country's poorest areas include, southern Sudan, with the exception of Western Equatoria, the transition area between northern and southern Sudan, the states of Blue Nile, Darfur and Kordofan, the states of Gedaref, Kassala, Red Sea and White Nile.

Inadequate development strategies, slow adaptation to climatic volatility, and erosion of natural resources are causatives of poverty. These causes have also fuelled the prolonged civil conflicts that have had a devastating effect on the rural population. Poor rural people, practice subsistence agriculture, and their livelihoods are based on crop cultivation, herding and fishing, where available. Smallholder farmers are hindered by the limited size of their landholdings, low productivity and an inability to improve their incomes. Because of the lack of rainfall and domestic water supplies, for most farmers the growing season is brief and crop failures are frequent. Constraints to their livelihoods are represented in the unpredictability of rainfall, water shortages during the dry season, barriers on migratory routes. Those lead to disputes between pastoral and sedentary or between local communities and commercial interests. Access to credit, distribution

and marketing channels are limited. Farmers have inadequate technical knowledge and poor skills in production and marketing. They find it difficult to break out of the cycle of low productivity and income. Seasonal migration of rural workers in pursuit of wage labor opportunities on mechanized and irrigated farms and in urban areas is widespread.

The impacts of conflicts on poverty incidence in Sudan are enormous. More than two decades of civil unrest in the Sudan have cost the lives of about 2 million people and had a devastating effect on the well-being of the population. Protracted civil conflict in the Sudan generally has its origin in socioeconomic inequities caused by neglect of the agricultural sector. Instantly, there were misguided land reforms, unfair distribution of resources for development between urban and rural areas. For irrigated and traditional farming, the exclusion of local communities from decision-making had its impacts. These policies have led to the development of an economy based mainly on export and lease of natural resources, to competition over access to scarce land and water and to inadequate nation's building.

IV. CAUSES OF SOCIAL INSTABILITIES

After decades of internal conflict the Sudan signed a peace agreement in January 2005 and the new Governments of National Unity and Southern Sudan launched a six-year recovery, peace-building and development plan. However, many factors attributed to the social instabilities in the country. The first is expressed in natural disasters, e.g., floods of 1988 and a multitude of droughts that hit many parts of the country.

The second manifests in the recurrent changes in the political regime and hence in the country's institutional structure and the continuation of the Civil War in the southern Sudan that restarted in 1983. Inceptions of rebellions in Darfur region in 2003 was followed by similar movements in the East of the country. The conducted elections in 2010 are supposed to be followed by a ballot to decide for the separation of the south or not in January 2011. The instabilities of the political situation generated institutional interregnum between and with regions and states.

The previous events genuinely affect parameters of social security in the country, e.g., unemployment levels and supporting institutions. Moreover, they had certain impacts on population strata and social formulations all around the country. A certain social formation was generated by civic instability, represented in the internally displaced. Today that is present in considerable portions of the Sudanese demographic formation. Statistically, it is 3 millions in Greater Darfur region, or 36% of its total population, 600,000 of the Eastern Sudan, or 15% of its population and 1.2 Millions in the capital Khartoum or 24% of its

urban population. However, the numbers are less than expected and definitely less than 5 years ago. Large portion of refugees in the Sudan's capital refugees settled and housed in newly built towns around Khartoum or returned to the Southern Sudan. However, more refugees flood to the country's largest urban areas. An estimated 600,000 people settle every year in cities. All these numbers are direly in need for water, hospitals and jobs. The vision for social security are blur with the civil conflicts, economic restrains and dwindling ability of donors to give more for the country's increasing needs.

New phenomenon is represented in the increasing numbers of universities and higher educational colleges due to the High Education Revolution declared by the present regime 20 years ago. Visions for better employment policies are required. Unemployment rates are getting high. Thus, the quality of the provided job opportunities should be amalgamated with social security parameters.

The subsequent analysis will introduce more of the above-mentioned social security parameters and try to implement them with the analysis the concept of Social Floor. Though the selected parameters: economic impacts, health and education and the political impacts, are few but they give some view on the general situation as affected by the pre and post civil wars.

V. THE ANALYTIC MODEL

We use a simple regression analysis to fortify the discussion carried out here that depends on statistical data provided from official records. The parameters are comparisons between available resources during peaceful and civil war periods. However, the inception of the conflicts in Darfur that started in 2003 cannot be accounted for in the analysis as no solid peace agreement has been held yet to compare with and dummy representation is not available to cater for possible verifications.

The simple model is based on:

1. For the economic impacts, Y represents GDP per capita, GDP per capita growth rate, Investment share, Government expenditure and inflation in the equations 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 as the first dependable variable.
2. Independent variables X_1 , X_2 are present for Pre-civil war (1972-1982) and Impacts of civil war (1983-2005), consequently.

Table (2) Pre- and post-war comparison The Economic Impacts

Dependent Variable	Pre-Civil War (1972-1982)	Impacts of Civil Wars (1983-2005)
GDP per capita	0.150** (0.046)	-0.252** (0.122)
GDP per capita growth rate	2.381* (0.399)	3.395** (1.277)
Investment	0.166	1.387**

share	(0.022)	(0.232)
Government expenditure	0.957** (0.141)	2.137 (0.357)
Inflation	13.048** (5.404)	10.643** (5.319)

**Significant at 99%.

*Significant at 95%.

3. Impacts on health Y: infant mortality, adult female mortality, adult male mortality, primary and secondary school enrollments is dependent on pre-civil war (1972-1982) and Impacts of civil wars (1983-2005).

Table (3) Impacts on Health and Education

Dependent variable	Pre-Civil War (1972-1982)	Impacts of Civil Wars (1983-2005)
Infant mortality	1.211** (1.259)	5.314** (0.924)
Adult female mortality	2.202** (5.332)	5.129 (4.956)
Adult male mortality	11.233** (4.111)	18.423** (3.266)
Primary school enrollment	3.117** (1.687)	5.814** (1.515)
Secondary school enrollment	5.853 (1.235)	16.680** (1.343)

4. The dependant variables in this model are Political stability and Civil liberties and rights which were treated as qualitative data and utilized in the analysis after having given binary values.

Table (4) the Political Impacts

Dependent Variable	Pre-Civil War (1972-1982)	Impacts of Civil Wars (1983-2005)
Politic Stability	2.330** (0.266)	5.128** (0.469)
Civil liberties and political rights	0.553** (0.030)	4.342** (0.127)

VI. THE CURRENT SITUATION

The intensity of civil war violence relatively faded in the south. However, the conflict escalation in Darfur increased the social disturbances. Early-life exposure to civil wars had impacts and affects labor-market outcomes later in life. The impacts of armed conflict in Sudan gave an experience of a tenacious and brutally effective civil war. That was sensitive to social stability and hence to applying measurements for social floor. That generated social scourge particularly in early-life exposure to civil war violence specially, at the first 36 months of life. On income levels, civil war leads to fall in adult monthly earnings. Heterogeneity in the earnings impacts emerge when considering variation in the types of civil war. Sexual violations affect the wages of women. Meanwhile torture and forced disappearances affects the wages of men. Health and schooling rates are important channel in connecting early-life exposure to civil war and adult earnings. According to scholars like

Kruger (1992) violence against and between civilians is the most important attribute of civil wars. A minimum of eight out of ten people murdered in civil wars have been civilians. Civil wars also are associated with mass murder, forced disappearances, sexual assaults, and other types of extreme violence. They are deliberately inflicted with the purpose of intimidating civilians through exemplary terror (Kalyvas 2006).

It is well documented the direct short-run effects of civil wars include the destruction of vital infrastructure, the collapse of institutions, a large number of displaced individuals, orphanage children, and a massive loss of life (Collier and Hoeffler 1998). Abadie and Gardeazabal (2003) reported their negative impacts on economic growth. Justino and Verwimp (2006) showed that one out of five Rwandans moved into poverty after the genocide. That is true in the Case of Sudan that lost years in the strife manifested in the poor infrastructure especially in conflict torn regions. Yet, the long-run consequences of civil wars on human capital development, institutions, and social norms are still unclear (Blattman and Miguel 2009). However, evidence from formerly displaced people of Southern Sudan who stayed long in refugees' camps suggests entrenched Foreign Aid Dependency Syndrome. Many lost their cattle herds, in case of nomadic herders. Other, sedentary farmers migrated from their cultivable lands. Both turned into aid-handed displaced or marginal jobs takers. Many transformed from de facto or potential producers into camps displaced. Alternative working opportunities were not available and the traditional ways were not available. Their social protection blanket vanished with the loss of their income generating facilities. Similar phenomenon is evident for Darfur population. More petty jobs seekers, homeless or beggars are represented more in the Sudanese urban and suburban areas. Reports of increased numbers of street-children are evident. Probably, early life exposure to civil war had torn or deprived them of their families. That should affect labor-market earnings later in life, following the critical-period theory (Godfrey and Barker 2000). That is the impact of two decades where the country experienced the actions of a tenacious, brutally effective and long civil conflict. The social and economic losses from this spiral of violence were dramatic.

Economic subtractions from development, is evident because of the strife at an estimated economic losses for the civil war in the south (1983-2005) is at the fringe of US\$12 billion dollars in addition to foreign debts of US\$37. The latter was supposed to be used in projects, which feasibly could have provided social havens and income generating institutions if properly used under good governance regimes. The production of violence also led to over 2 millions displaced people as a result of serious acts.

Human capital losses are presented in a body of literature on the legacies of civil wars. They suggest

that they affect schooling (Chamarbagwala and Moran 2010, Shemyakina 2010, Leon 2009) and health outcomes (Akresh et al. 2007, 2009, Alderman et al. 2004). Both are negatively impacted by episodes of civil war. The scope of human capital models reveals the inevitable effect on total lifetime earnings of those affected. Direct evidence on the long-run labor-market consequences of civil wars, however, are still a missing gap in the literature. An exception is the work of Blattman and Annan (2007) who reported less schooling and work experience for former child soldiers in Uganda, and therefore, less success in their labor market outcomes as adults. Another view was illustrated by Humphreys and Weinstein (2007). They reported that increases in Sierra Leone combatants' violence exposure was negatively correlated with employability. Such study, however, did not restrict labor-market analysis to former combatants, but rather used a large national representative sample of civilians exposed to civil war at the very beginning of their lives. Moreover, the violence shocks for several periods before and after birth uncover evidence about sensitive or critical period: early childhood, and preschool exposure. Furthermore, data enables us to assess the long-run impacts of civil war violence, which improves over limited time horizons of most civil war datasets. That is consistent with the findings in literature for some conventional or international wars (Hearst and Newman 1986 and Angrist 1990).

Recent research in economics relates conditions in early life to outcomes in later life. This literature help to identify shocks that have long-lasting effects, understanding the mechanisms of underlying shocks' persistence and highlighting potential pathways connecting childhood and adult outcomes. However, the long-run effects on health or environmental shocks in early life on adult health is presented in Strauss and Thomas (1998), Alderman and Behrman (2006), and Maccini and Yang (2009). The negative impacts on schooling attainment are presented in Glewe and King (2001), Behrman and Rosenzweig (2004) and Alderman et al. (2006).

The civil war in Sudan began in the southern part and spread other regions of the country. Regional variations in the timing and intensity of violence identify its effects on labor-market earnings. Similar strategies were used in other studies addressing the impact of civil war violence on human capital outcomes (Akresh et al. 2006, 2009; Chamarbagwala and Moran 2010; Shemyakina 2010).

Literature review by way of a systematic analysis reveals the impacts of violence. Civil war inherently affected the majority of civil war and that had impacts on the effectiveness of possible launching of social security schemes. Such impacts are described by Blattman and Miguel (2009). The actual intensity of violence does not separate transitory shocks from

secular trends in violence conditions. However, distinction between civil war and violence in civil wars is often overlooked in the micro data analysis of civil wars as postulated by Kalyvas (2006). Accounting for civil war violence is primarily based on a single specific measure of violence, including deaths as emphasized by Chamarbagwala and Moran (2010) and abductions (Blattman and Annan 2009), length of exposure to civil war (Akresh et al. 2009, Leon 2009), and damage to household dwellings (Shemyakina 2010).

In literature, the heterogeneity of civil war impacts has five characteristics: violence: sexual violations, forced disappearances, abductions, killings and forced detentions and torture. The most sensitive period to early-life exposure to civil war violence is the first 36 months of life. Early childhood exposure to violence leads to a fall in adult monthly earnings. That is an indicator of strong impacts of the incidence of civil war. Women are more affected by civil war violence than men, which affects the long-run earnings of urban people, as compared to those living in rural locations. The substantial heterogeneity in the impacts of civil war on adult earnings depends on the type of civil war violence experienced. Exposure to torture and forced disappearances yields the strongest negative impacts; sexual violations proportionally affect the wages of women, while torture and forced disappearances negatively affect the wages of men. Focusing only on the most common types of violence, deaths and abductions, may underestimate the overall impact of civil war. The psychological distress that attaches to other types of violence may have stronger long-lasting human capital impacts. The mechanisms connecting adult earnings and violence suggest that health is affected. Armed violence during early childhood is significantly associated with sustainable chances for education. Additionally, schooling attainment is negatively affected by exposure to civil war and adult earnings.

In 1983, Sudan witnessed the re-continuation of one of the world's longest deadliest civil conflict. However, the civil war in Sudan did not follow the conventional prediction in such armed conflicts that flourish in resource rich regions because of the existence of more rents to fight over (Le Billon 2005). Weinstein's (2006) typology of an activist rebellion where grievance trump greed and participation is risky, short-term gains were unlikely. Highly committed militants resemble investors dedicated to the cause of the organization and willing to make risky investments in return for the promise of future rewards (Weinstein 2006). The initial response from the government was ineffective. The operations used strategic force. However, rapid economic assistance, to bolster local economic conditions in the initially affected areas was not visible. The military forces were reportedly accused of using indiscriminate violence against civilians. This

strategy did not cease, but rather fueled the expansion of the civil war. Kalyvas (2006) documents 100 studies and 45 historical cases where state violence against civilians provoked a greater insurgence violence, as a response. The result was the collapse of traditional social security and cohesion systems in addition to all existing infrastructure supporting economic structures in all civil war ridden regions.

VII. REGIONAL IMPACTS ON SOME SOCIAL PARAMETERS

The following table (6) illustrates some parameters that give evidence of the condition in the Southern region. Though four years passed since the peace agreement, the numbers of local conflicts kept on rising. Data on displacement reveals that there are 400,000 refugees, which is over 8% of the region's population. Food production is still at the same levels during the civil war years. Illiteracy is at 87% rate and people with no sources for clean water records 48% of the region's population. Acute mal nutrition rates are high and the life expectancy is less than that of Northern parts of the Sudan.

Table (6) Profile of the Situation in Southern Sudan 2009

Victims of Local Conflicts	2500
Number of Refugees	400,000
Number of States Enduring Violence	7
Number of Small Arms (millions)	7.2
Number of People in Need for Food Aid	3.4
Number of People Suffering Food Insecurity	5.1
NGO Services to Public Services	85%
Illiteracy	87%
Life Expectancy at Birth	42
Acute Mal Nutrition Rate	8.14%
People with no Clean Water Access	48%
Children in Primary Schools	8.15%
UNDP, 2009	

The minimized contribution of the government in providing public services is revealed by the percentage of the NGO participation in services to the people, which are health, clean water and education.

When the civil war expanded to other regions, they were under the siege of political violence. The cycle of political violence worsened even more. It began against the government. However, civilians were most affected. The end of civil war occurred in 2005 when peace agreement was signed. However, the Darfur was different. Though the conflict there seems to fit the activist rebellion typology developed by Weinstein (2006), it does not follow its main prediction. The armed conflict was marked by deliberate indiscriminate violence against civilians. The production of violence

was provided by at least many competing parties, with the purpose of matching their opponent's violence to create fear in civilians. The number of serious violence acts, i.e., killings, forced disappearances and sexual abuses. That seriously affected the economic activities, traditional settlement and livelihood of sedentary population. Activist rebellion type predicts that movements that arise in resource-poor contexts perpetrate into low levels of indiscriminate violence and employ violence selectively and strategically. On the other hand, the rebellion type predicts that civil wars emerging in rich natural resources areas tend to commit high levels of indiscriminate violence (Weinstein 2006). It highlights the limitations of building unified conceptual categories to describe diverse civil war movements. Kalyvas (2000) defined a typology of civil war based on the interaction of two key elements of violence: its purpose and its production. According to this typology, the armed conflict corresponds to civil war violence.

The intensity of early life exposure to the cycle of armed violence depends on where and when the individuals were born. Some places may not experience a single violent act, where others do. The years 1984 and 1985 were extremely violent, while 1987 was relatively peaceful.

The low coverage of social security programs in developing countries is often attributed to the dual nature of their labor markets. Implicit in this view is that workers are rationed out of social security against their will because they are unable to find formal jobs with benefits. Throughout the world, social security programs have been introduced to insure consumption in old age. For salaried workers, participation in these programs is linked to employment; employers are required by law to register workers and transfer a certain share of workers' wages to pension administrators. In practice, however many employers do not enroll their workers in these plans. Some workers may contribute in former jobs and thus accrue some pension rights. However, participation rates are very low, suggesting that a large share of the labor force may not receive a pension or will retire with meager benefits.

Most studies attribute the high rates of non-participation or the informal employment, to the characteristics and regulations prevailing in the labor market or to the characteristics of the firms. Some studies emphasize the importance of wage rigidities caused by labor regulations, unions or efficiency wages, which lead to rationing of formal sector jobs with benefits (Harris and Todaro, 1970; Esfahani, Hadi and Salehi-Isfahani, 1989; Agénor, 2005). Other studies, explain informality as the result of the decisions of firms (Levenson and Maloney, 1998). In this view, firms decide whether to engage in formal institutions by assessing the benefits and costs of doing so, with the outcome of the cost structure and characteristics of firms. Participation in social security becomes

exogenous to workers' decisions. Workers with weak preferences for participating in social insurance programs sort into jobs in which social security is easier to evade. The possibility that workers preferences are likely to underlie participation in social insurance is presented in health insurance literature in developed countries (Monheit and Vistnes, 2006).

VIII. THE SOCIAL FLOOR

The broad concepts of Social Floor contain seven pillars we outline and analyze the situation in the Sudan as follows:

The first pillar is that social security is a Human Right as postulated in Article 22 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It states that: Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security. That is difficult to presume under the current conditions with non-participative fact of several regional populations' powers. The successive regimes that controlled the country produced continuous erosion of such concept. After almost 60 years of independence, that remains a dream for the majority of the country's population. The ILO's Philadelphia Declaration was the extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need of such protection and comprehensive medical care. Subsequently, the ILO launched a campaign in 2003 to extend social security to all with a proposed set of rights as a social security floor.

That is hardly applicable for the Sudan with an estimated 10% of its population in displaced camps and over 90% under the poverty line globally specified. That makes the task difficult in implementation. Moreover, over 70% of the population is deprived of basic requirements of clean water, basic medical and educational facilities. Therefore, providing the required services which will set the base for building-up SSS essentially call for international help and wider strategic planning to cater for that. That is difficult to achieve with the current civil conflicts in Sudan.

The second pillar is that: Social security is a social necessity. There is no solid data set to cater for an achievement of such a parameter. However, with over 90% of the Sudanese people living under poverty and 70% are deprived of basic facilities, it is logical to propose that at least 80% of the Sudanese population lives in social insecurity. Some research data proposed that 40% of them live in utter destitute. Sudan also records the highest infants' mortality less than 5 years of age, due to lack of access to health care and lack of income security. With hypothetical assumptions' social security is expected to reduce poverty. Household surveys show high concentrations of revenues in the urban. Social security systems should reduce income inequality.

The third pillar is that Social security is an economic necessity. That concept is necessary in order to convince governments and societies to spend on social protection. Thus, they can countries grow with equity. Countries that have been the most successful in achieving long-term sustainable growth and poverty reduction have all put in place extensive systems of social security at an early stage. In Sudan, that is inevitably necessary as differences between urban and rural areas, between states and regions are highly manifested. Most states rely on the Central Government support for subsidies to run their administrative cost and other basic facilities. Moreover, it has been stated in most negotiations, literature and by politicians that unless development is defused in all the country's regions rebellion may expand.

The fourth pillar is that basic social security for all should be fiscally affordable. Economies cannot develop and grow without a productive workforce. In order to unlock a country's full growth potential one has to fight social exclusion, ignorance, unemployment. Social transfers are most directly and most effectively reach out to the excluded and the poor and those who have to adapt to economic change and thus maintain their productivity. Access to social health protection improves productivity levels. Social transfers also cushion the effects of economic downturns on domestic demand. As expected, in developing countries have multiplier effects on local markets and transfers in kind may have negative effects on prices. Again, the cost of civil conflicts in Sudan makes it impossible to achieve such a parameter. Defense and security consumes over 70% of the GNP. The remains give inadequate sums funds to finance SSS.

The fifth pillar we propose here is to support social cohesion in the country. That is basically vital in a country that endured civic strife for sixty years. The cohesive relationships traditionally that existed between its societies were eroded by long conflicts about resources and power. Sudan, as a traditional society, in whole, suffered stigmas of discrimination, elitism, marginalization and destitute. Without applying institutional basis that protect and provide irrevocable constitutional rights for individuals, societies and people building up social cohesion based on social welfare is a delusion. Moreover, such social cohesion is vital to support traditional social systems that long protected economic activities, e.g., rights for nomadic activities and pastures, collective farming and traditional marketing and bartership.

The sixth pillar is represented in the definition of SSS floor per se. Globally, less than 2% of the Global GDP is required to provide a basic set of social protection benefits to all people that have to live on less than one dollar a day as stated years ago. However, such specified minimum income is unrealistic today with the rife inflation seen in Sudan as much as other parts in

the world. Recession adds to the dilemma, with the increasing rates of unemployment and the deteriorating rates of investment in the real economic production sectors. The latter, amplify job generation chances. Both combined produce stagflation, which is the most serious impediment for SSS creation. A minimum package of social security benefits is affordable in even the poorest countries as recent work by the ILO on the cost of a minimum package of social security benefits in sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and Latin America has shown. A basic package of modest pensions and child benefits can reduce the poverty by 40% in poor developing countries at a cost of 3-4% of GDP in some African countries. The case is prevalent in Sudan with high rates of inflation that even conquer the logics of modifying available pensions to meet the required needs. Thereby, investments in a basic set of social security benefits will have minimum cost compared to expected building-up of social networks. Logical hope is to minimize expenditures on armament and divert their funds to SSS, development of infrastructure and means of production.

The vision should not elude the paradox, if Sudan can afford the cost of social security. It should be directed towards what schemes can introduce, where and quickly. The guarantees of access to basic health benefits, through a set of sub-systems linked together, e.g., a public health service funded by taxes, social and private insurance and micro-insurance systems. Moreover, income security provided to family/child should produce benefits to facilitate access to basic social services, i.e., education, health and housing. That should guarantee access to basic social assistance for the poor and unemployed in active age groups. Thus income security is guaranteed for the people including those in old age, invalid and survivors through basic pensions. Decisively, it is relative with serious decision-making, planners and those who direct funds. Both are institutionally defined. However, under the prevalent conditions, it seems that an institutional interregnum exist between what is planned and what is executed in reality.

Two essentially things are basically required:

1. A Global Strategy that contains an international standard/instrument that defines minimum benefit benchmarks for defined stages of development. That can be used by national advocacy groups to promote the development of national systems integrated into international development policy agendas. Thus, donors can allocated and focus on funding social floor development plans. The UN, UNICEF and support building a Global Social Floor Coalition campaign for the introduction of a Global Social Security Floor. That should aim at creating global political consensus. However, reaching for a finally formula is vital to set an applicable pattern.

2. Defining National Action to engulf national action plans and draw-up credible and pragmatic roadmaps for the development of social floor benefits. The mandatory should be that the supporting national social floor development, initiate plans for new pilots. Thereby, it shall be through a full range of financial and administrative analyses and the support of national consensus to build dialogue processes. That requires including such National Action into a constitutional structure to guarantee its implementation.

IX. CONCLUSIONS

Currently, the primary challenge to social security in Sudan is the state of continuous institutional interregnum caused by instabilities in parts of the country. Such state detains efforts to establish social protection measures from providing the necessary results. In order to establish any coherent parameters for social floor, it is essential for a comprehensively stabilized system. Subsequent implementation should focus on specific lines institutionally defined and applied. Otherwise, efforts shall be lost.

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Indigenous Art of West Africa in Wood

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Abstracts - : Art as it has been defined severally, it has many definitions of its own, but in the context of this paper. Art will be defined as a means of self-expression with the medium which one is familiar with. Wood is one of the very important means of artistic representation which the Africans have used and are still making use of in bringing forth and producing artistic works aimed at documenting peoples way of life as well as their religious and socio- cultural values. African wood sculptures are not older than two centuries old because of the susceptible nature of wood to the destructive effect of termites and climate. Wood is the Africans most favourite material or medium for sculpture. Hard, termite-resistant woods are preferred for sculpture, Iroko wood (*chlorophora excelsa*), Mahogany and Ebony varieties which are suitable for extremely delicate carving. For the large masks lighter woods are chosen, which do not weigh so heavy when worn. The African traditional artist or carver doesn't just go to the forest to fell trees indiscriminately. If there is any particular tree they are interested in, in the forest, they carry out some sacrifices to find out from the tree itself if it would like to be fell or not. And if any particular tree is to be felled, they carry out some sacrifices before they touch the tree at all. I would like to make the following West African countries as my area of focus in this paper with particular references to their masks, stools and architectural designs. These countries are Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra-Leone and Mali.

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Indigenous Art of West Africa in Wood

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I. INTRODUCTION

Art as it has been defined severally, it has many definitions of its own, but in the context of this paper. Art will be defined as a means of self-expression with the medium which one is familiar with. Wood is one of the very important means of artistic representation which the Africans have used and are still making use of in bringing forth and producing artistic works aimed at documenting peoples way of life as well as their religious and socio-cultural values.

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II. YORUBA FIGURES IN NIGERIA

The Yorubas are the most prolific sculptors in Nigeria, they are noted for their wooden veranda post, ceremonial masks for the Gelede, (figure 2) Egungun, Epa cults, Twins figures (figure 1) used in the cult of the twins, staff and bowls for the worship of Shango (figure 3) (the god of thunder), bowls and trays for the Ifa divination.

The Yorubas have some highly decorative stools, drums and lamps and also in the complicated figures compositions of the elaborate pillars of temples and chiefs houses, we will see evidence of fertile imagination and a great sense of architectural designs.

The Yoruba figure carvings show certain very distinctive characteristics. The figures are lively and shows great variety, every posture is attempted, and the trunk and body no longer remain in one axis, forms are rounded, but are kept clear-cut and decisive, there is the usual African tendency towards enlarged heads and great reduction in the size of the legs. The form of the head is usually unmistakable; the general shape of the face is naturalistic, with pointed chin and large brow; the features are strongly marked. The eyes are long and pointed at each end, with the lower lip nearly as large as the upper and the pupil of the eye is gouged out. The nose is broad at both root and base, with well-marked nostrils, the mouth protrudes, thick-lipped and does not narrow at the ends, which are slightly upturned. The ears are set high and well back on the head, faces are cicatrized on the cheeks, and sometimes on the forehead with tribal markings.

The most common wood figures among the Yorubas of the south-western part of Nigeria are the "Ere-Ibeji". These are carved statuettes carved to commemorate the dead twins that died in their infancy. The soul of the deceased is transferred to it. The wooden images are washed, dressed and fed every four-four days i.e. during every market days, and then the parents may dance around in the marketplace asking for alms, she also offers special prayers and rituals every week. The figures have identifiable styles that could be traced to certain regions.

The statuettes conform to the Yoruba aesthetics of physical proportion. The head is one third the size of the body, because the head among the Yorubas is associated with a person's destiny or "Ori-Inu" that determine the successes or failures in life. Emphasis is on human resemblance rather than photographic likeness facial features are stylized. Generally the surface is shining and smooth.

III. AMONG THE IGBOS

The Ibo figures, known as Ikenga, often consists of highly complicated carvings, they are the personal protectors of the master of the house and are consulted in every family crises. Among the Igbos of Southern Nigeria, we have Ikenga figures (figure 7). Ancestor figures and the Ogbom figures from the headdress as a form of Igbo figures connected with the Ikenga cult. The Ikenga means a altar for the power of the right hand as a team for the effective force of manhood. Whenever the foundation of a house is laid such a figure is set up and destroyed again at the death of the owner. It also acts

as the god of destroyer. It is asked for advice at any important occasion and honoured with palmwine and kolanuts.

A typical Ikenga figure has a massive coiled ram horn with abstracted human face. A shape that looked like fat letter "E" looks or is situated where the ear is supposed to be. It has the characteristic of a straight long neck similar to those of Mbari figures. It carries a knife and trophy head with ringed designs around them.

IV. MASKS

Masks are used majorly by masquerades to commemorate certain traditional festivals as in cult activities whose activities are showed in secrecy. Notable examples are the Egungun mask, Gelede mask, Epa and Ekime masks.

This rather sophisticated art of naturalism is seen clearly in a type of masks common to the Egungun and Gelede societies of the Yoruba. The Gelede masquerades are done to appear the "Iya" which refers to the power of the women folk who are witches. They are believed to have to have power that can twist anybody's destiny, fortune and health. The Gelede society is found among certain branches of the Yoruba, and holds similar ceremonies to the Egungun society. They are made in paints and are always female, whatever the sex of the deceased at which burial they are used. To this type of masks Murray (1989) says:-

"Yoruba, They have a large number of religious cults Whose members belong to them by right of birth or who have joined them on account of advice conveyed to them by divination. These societies have celebrations at yearly festivals and funerals.....among these is Egungun which usually associated with the foundation of the town and is therefore performed to precitate the ancestors and to promote its prosperity during the festival the chief of the town does homage to the head Egungun who in return blesses him and the whole town."

The Gelede masks are the closest to Ife art in naturalism. The facial features are well defined and have commonly three parallel markings on their cheeks. Mostly the human head is depicted with some superstructure. The superstructure may be simply a bicycle rider or as complex as a ladder with as many as six parrots. This superstructures function as an identity for viewers to know the character which the masquerade is portraying. This is more of the conventional and more contemporary use as entertainment masquerade.

There are some other types of masks like the Epa mask (figure 6) of the Ora people, the Epa mask are made in the Ekiti area of the north-east Yoruba land and are used in cults to honour their heroes, heroines and their ancestors. The Epa masks are big masks or

headdress that could be as high as six feet. The face is stylized and with a slit at the mouth to allow the weaver to see. The mask could carry about twenty figures of kings on horsebacks, leopards, traditional doctors, women and children. The images are repainted yearly with traditional earth colours, before performances festivities and dancing taken place in front of their sacred grove. The ceremony in which the masks are used takes place once or twice in a year. In some places however, the ceremony is in honour of Ogun," the god of iron and war and at times usually marks the cutting of new yams.

Among the Igbo of the Eastern part of Nigeria are different masks, the Ekpo Njawhaw society of the Igbo and Ibibio has been quoted as an example of the more pleasant forms of Secret Society in Eastern Nigeria. The Most noticeable general characteristics of the mask of the Ibo is their extreme refinement and delicacy, compared with so much of the work of other African tribes. A large number of these masks are said to represent maiden Spirit or beautiful girls, these are often set in contract with other ugly elephant spirits, or mischievous he goat who chase small boys, and so on. Many of the marks used by the Ibo Mmo Society are of this maiden spirit type. They are of two Types. The Larger ones has a thin High crest, running from back to front of the head; this crest, running from back to front of the head; this crest is highly ornamented with fretted carvings. The top of the mask is carved as a cap shape, to fit over the head; While the face is long and triangular. The face is whitened and has black or blue-lined brows, eyes and lips. The second kind of masks representing the maiden spirits in the dance of the Mmo society is much smaller.

Talbot (1974), writing of the uses of these masks among the Ibo says:

"The Images are entirely covered by voluminous clothes the upper part often composed of some knitted materials, occasionally a sort of kilt is worn, but the legs are always hidden by cloth or knitted trousers. A Wooden masks is used, which is at times placed on top of the man's head so as to give him increased height, while he himself looks out through narrow slits below."

Nearly all masks are painted white, like the clay statues of ancestors in the Mbari houses, and some are of very great interest and display undoubted Egyptian traits".

In one of the Ibo dance within their society called "Ayolugbe" Murray says; "Three to seven white faced masks are used; they represent the spirit of the maidens with their mother, and have dignity and beauty. The masks are "made to measure", and with them is worn a tight-fitting costume of gorgeous colour decorated with appliqué work in which red and yellow predominate. These masks of small size are sewn to the costume and are superstructure".

There are several other masks among the Igbos of Eastern Nigeria such as the masks of the Igojiji society or Iko Okochi of Afikpo, Ehi masks of Ogoni tribe.

V. STOOLS

The stools among the Igbos is regarded as an item to show their wealth and social status. The stools symbolises the owner's wealth and status. The stool became more elaborate as the social status or ladder is climbed. However, There are simple stools for ordinary people (figure 4).

VI. BOWLS

Among the Yorubas, respect for elders and visitors is very much emphasized. Children and women compulsorily kneel to present gifts especially Kola, to elders and the bowls that are often used are elaborately decorated wooden bowls. Designs for these bowls Vary from simple designs of geometrical, stylized Zoomorphic and anthropomorphic designs to figures carrying bowls on their head. The figures are sometimes females or even males and equestrian figures too. Most of the designs are caryatids.

Wooden bowls with decorative face of Esu are used to hold the Opele (Ifa divination seeds). They are also made into board with decorative edges and powered or sprinkled with "Iyefun Ife" which the Ifa priest draws symbolic lines with his fingers. (figure 3)

Among the Igbos, there are kola bowls also like that of the Yorubas. Decorative bowls are used to present kola to visitors as among the Yorubas and also show a symbol of hospitality.

VII. ARCHITECTURAL DECORATIONS

Wooden architectural decorations are in the forms of panel doors and posts.

The Igbo have decorative panels. Some have representations of kings and their wives. Their style is predominantly abstract. There are also stories of marriages ceremonies and chieftaincy festivals. Also images of fortune-tellers. Usually there is an entrance door panel and there are others set against the wall covering the wall of the compound. The Igbos love curves, dynamic forms and bright colours, these could be seen in all their works. Abstracted figure alternate with other of starting realism. Other panels have holes through which the ancestors overlook the compound. They use linear and basic designs especially concentric circles.

Among the Yoruba-speaking people of Nigeria are carved doors decorated with animals motifs like snakes, stylised reptiles and some human figures. Generally they depict historical records or occurrences. Their wooden veranda posts depicts the quality of the

works and it equally shows the type of occupation of the people of the area. (figure 9)

VIII. THE DOGON OF MALI

The Dogon, lives in the northern Mali and they are called Habbe which means the unbelievers by the Fulani, because they resisted Islam when it was introduced to them.

Their carving is of great variety and interest, the sculptures refers to ancient myths, the creator god Amma and as incantations of life force. It was also the Nommo who became men. The smith, the Nommo who had become the seventh man came down to earth either on horseback or in an ark, bringing with him important cultural materials and techniques.

The myths also tell of the most of Duyu seru and Yasigi, a sin which upset the great cosmic order and was atoned for by the sacrifice of one of the Nommo. A remarkable fun, discovered in bidden cares in the rock, were the bundles of figures joined together with iron chairs, often in a naturalistic style and made of wood as hard as stone, encrusted with a red grey covering made of ashes, animals, blood and millet bear. There is no doubt that these figures are centuries old; a carbon dating places them in the thirteenth century. The genuine Dogon style is very far from naturalistic. It is symmetrical and firm in outline, built up of clearly defined stereometric elements. The slim, length bodies, in which the free trunk can still be detected, from the very arch type of the pole style. The arrangement of the hair is such that it continues the line of the profile in a semi circle running back in the center of the head. The breasts are balance by the heavy shoulder blades; in this style, the basic requisite is balance, the face is completely unrealistic, with a nose like a straight arrowhead, a short horizontal chin, and the ears drawn as a semi-circle. The large hands often lie on the thighs or the knees. The dogon statues with their through going simplification, produce a solemn and monumental effect.

Abstract to the ultimate degree, and reduced as it were to a sign, these figures are found on cult objects, doors, doors locks, butler dishes, loom handle pulleys and other tools. These themes, refers to the event of mythology and to the laws of life and growth. Thus are found the smith as the seventh Nommo and the first Dogon, with a ribbed cap and a beard, or as a rider. Figures set upon the other recall Aru, the cumming unburper of the country, and his brother we see Yasigi who committed incest, or Dyngu Seiu, who hides his face from shame. Raised arms signify entreaty for the protection of the mythical creative force, or an invocation to the ram clouds to pour ram upon the dry land. The original ancestor couple, the androgynous ancestor on the pedestal, and stool with the four pairs of figures of the eight Nommo, as well as the other rarer compositions with several heads, are a symbol of the

universe and manifest the eternally valid order of the cosmos to which man must subject himself.

Masks are not made by the smith but by the novices of the men's secret society and the wood used is the lightwood of the kapok tree. They have the same cubic structure as the statues; always starkly rectangular, sometimes shaped into a point at the top, with eyes, carved out as triangles or rectangles, lying in deep vertical grooves beside the sharp arrowhead ridge of the narrow nose. The nose may also be broken by Zigzag marks. The mouth is shown in abstract form. This basic form is painted in various ways, adored with horns, animal ears and other features, to show what kind of creature is meant, and whether a Nommo, a human being or an animal is represented.

Each type of mask has its own distinctive dance step. The Kanaga mask, called "the hand of god", with its headdress in the form of a cross of lorraine, indicates a bird in flight, while others interpret it as crocodile. All these various types of mask more than a hundred in number are derived from the great imina-na mother mask, which is conceived in the form of a snake. It is ten yards long, and is therefore much too large to be worn.

The ancestors' figures of the Dogon are the most impressive figure in wood, their carvings consist in certain very old and very rare statues of single or pairs of figures of the placed by the bodies of the dead at burial ceremonies.

In addition to the ancestor figures there are female fertility figure, which confirm to the general schema, but are far less impressive than the burial carvings. The Dogon masks have about then something of the same statues give, impersonal quality as their cult figures, for many of them are architectural rather than representational in form.

IX. THE BAMBARA OF MALI

The Bambara of Mali lives very close to the Bari river and on both sides of the upper Niger, are an important Mande speaking tribe, almost a million in number. They are the heirs of two kingdoms. Segu (1600-1881) and Kaarta (1670-1851) they were predominantly farmers.

The Bambara believe in the great light and creator god FARO, a kind of redeemer and organiser of the universe, who is enthroned in the seventh heaven and sends the rain which brings fertility. His sacred colour is white.

According to myth Faro bestowed upon men, their conscience, order and purity, as well as their sense of responsibility. He brought them corn and taught them how to work. Faro also regarded as bringing good fortune.

The carvings of Bambara present a great number of types and varieties and are in general of a several monumental but elegant style. The figures are

composed of cubist forms, with this pillar like bodies. The arms hang down at the sides. The Bambara, for instance, concentrate on building up wonderfully balanced pieces of three dimensional designs carved in to a flowing decorative pattern in the their antelopes crests.

The female has a transverse hairstyle, based on the short ringlets that project sharply sideways on the heads of female figures which are used on fertility cult and are also found on door latches. Figures also decorate the bowls in which she butter is kept. The statues can be divided in to three main groups of styles Viz;

1. The figures of the northern Segu which is characterised by a prominent hooked nose, protruding eyes, breasts placed high on the body, large hands like paddles and large, stable feet.
2. the southern style, found round Bamako, figures have a straight profile, the breasts are often placed low;
3. the third group, from the region between Buqul and Diollo, have softer lines and sensitive features, they are crowned by a tall cap with bands falling away at each side and they are shown standing, riding or seated on a chair. The surface of the figure is considerably decayed throughout.

The people of Bambara have also become world famous because of their Chiwara headdresses for the antelope dance which is amongst the most beautiful and indigenous works of African Sculptures. There are also the male and female antelopes which always form a pair and the great spirit would kill anyone who tried to separate them.

The Chi Wara headdresses are made as numerous brilliant variations, differing according to place and time and never alike. Three main groups of Chi Wara can be distinguished.

1. The "Segu-Minianka type of the eastern Bambara Design, between Sikasso, Kutiala, including the Minianka, an enclave of the Senufo in the Bambara region. The structure is vertical above a small body rises a powerful curved neck with a broad band of decorative openwork, a firm narrow head and slightly curved horns beaming spiral curves, leaps across horizontally formed as two parts, which are joined together at the neck with a metal ring.

The "Suguru type' found in the village around Buguni in the south-western Bambara region. It's a vertical abstract type, interplay of forms between the Zig-Zag patterns, to a point and the strange bodies, is extraordinarily attractive and imaginative. The dance for which the

Suguni type is used is more wild than in the case of other types.

The most important group of masks is used by the More society. The masks are worn when the water spent has to be called upon for rain and growth. The form of the Kore masks is unrealistic, so much that the animal they represent is the type of animal that is almost unrecognizable. They are mainly hyenas, monkeys, lions, antelopes and horses.

X. GHANA STOOLS

The Ashantis of Ghana do not represents their gods in sculptures like the rest do but gain contact with the supernatural by means of the gold. Legend tells us that the stool fall from heaven during a storm around the year 1700, right on the knee of the great king Osei Tutu, who founded the kingdom. The throne became not merely the symbol of the state, but also the altar on which sacrifice was offered to the invisible gods. The Ashante regarded it as the seat of the soul of their people and as a guarantee of health and prosperity.

The stools are simple and rectangular and are put in charge of the king, queen mother, lineage heads, town and chiefs. Each person is supposed to have a stool. It is only the king who can have a tiger or an elephant representation in his stool. Some stools are covered with the king having monopoly of gold, therefore the natural stool is in gold.

XI. FIGURES

Among the Akan of Ghana, have also statuettes commonly called "Akuaba". The figure is supposed to induce pregnancy and bring a beautiful lady at birth. After being blessed by a priest, a woman carries the statuettes around it with beautiful beads, nurses it and puts it to bed. The statuettes illustrates Ashantes concept of a beautiful child; a high oral, flattened forehead (achieved by massaging the infant, soft skull at birth) a small mouth, a neck ringed with creases of subcutaneous fat indicating good living and healthy living of the child. Most Akuaba dolls or statuettes depict females since among the Ashante Matrilineal descent is practised.

XII. SIERRA LEONE

The Mendes whose Language is Made, entered Sierra Leone in the sixteenth century, conquered the existing kingdoms and divided the Kissi from the Bullom. The Mendes are outstanding for their wood carvings in Africa they produce mainly for their Women's societies, and particularly for the Bundu Society (The S ande society among is the Vais of Liberia) Which undertakes the education of the girls. Their training in the camp in the bush is a hard one. These Girls learn everything they need for their future life

as wives and mothers, which includes singing and dancing.

Characteristics:- hair is arrange in heavy crests; there is a high forehead over a small delicate face with lowered eyelids, and a broad spiral bulges of fat on the neck as an expression of prosperity and the idea of beauty. The hair is highly imaginative.

The Mende people also make statuettes which they call Minsere(figure 8). The heads of these Minseare display the same features as the Bundu masks, a high forehead, a small face and a ringed neck. The body is slim, naturalistic and with smooth lines. The Minsere are used by the yaisi society of prophetesses.

XIII. THE TOMA

A mande-speaking tribe in the region of Guinea around Maccenta , north-western Liberia and north-eastern Sierra Leone. They carve their hand a mask following the strict Sudanic style. They achieve the utmost cubic simplicity and concentration of form. A board like face with a featureless crocodile shape jaw and a straight nose under an arched forehead is the way the Toma represent the mighty Poro bush spirit. When the abstract face of wood stares out of the tangled costumes of leaves and skin, the effect is weird and unreal. The masks in Sierra Leone among the Mende people are of Toro types. The Poro and Sande. The Poro is for male initiation while the Sande is for female initiations, and it represents female with elaborate hair-do. The Sande masks are usually anointed with oil which ladies use to rub themselves.

XIV. DAN-NGERE

This region is known for their masks. The Dan and the related groups are savannah tribes, speaking the Mande tongue, who came from the north about three hundred years ago. In all the secrete societies the function of the masks is of outstanding importance.

They help men to control the environment and life, they support the chief in his tasks of ruling the land. Each mask represents a bush divinity, having its own spirit and name. Everyone wearing a mask is accompanied by musicians and assistants who even include a translator for the twittering of the secret language. The most important masks, of highest rank represent a powerful bush spirit and act as judges, lawgivers and peacemakers. They make the choice between war and peace, no one dares to lie in their presence, and they are a neutral court of appeal recognized by everyone.

Today these masks are regularly fed with the blood of cocks, palm oil and kolanuts.



Figure 1

The Yoruba have a high incidence of twins. However, the rate of child mortality is quite high, leading to the development of the *ibeji* or twin cult. If a twin dies, a figure is carved for the dead child, then clothed and fed alongside its live twin. If both children die, two figures such as these are created.



Figure 2

GELEDE MASK PAINTED WOOD 44.5cm, YORUBA, NIGERIA



Figure 3

YORUBA DIVINATION TRAYS 4, 10x12": Divination (*Ifa*) is practiced to explain misfortunes and help to prevent them. The diviner, in consulting a *diety*, manipulates sixteen palm nuts, reads the patterns they form and marks the results on a divination board sprinkled with wood dust. The marks indicate verses that should be chanted as prayers. with bowls are used to hold kola nuts as offerings of hospitality or as receptacles for sixteen sacred palm nuts used in divination.



Figure 4

YORUBA, STOOL 1, 19": Yoruba stools, like those of the Luba, related to kings and important chiefs, who defined their power by the display of prestige objects during important ceremonies. Stools were among the most important of these objects. The leader was literally as well as figuratively supported by a male or female caryatid figure, which also symbolizes the continuity of power.



Figure 5

YORUBA, SHANGO DANCE WAND 13, 16.5": In special festivals and processions, followers of Shango, the Yoruba god of thunder, carry dance wands, oshe shango, depicting a female devotee with Shango's symbol, the double-headed axe. Shango is thought to control the great powers of nature as one of the orisha, or gods.



Figure 6
EPA MASK



Figure 7
IKENGA FIGURES OF THE IGBOS SOUTHERN NIGERIA



Figure 8
THE MINSEREH OF SIERRA LEONE



Figure 9

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Spirituality as a Global Strategy for humanity in the search paths in the future

By V.U. EMELYANOV

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Abstracts - : Act-The proposed formulation of the problem in the article allows to outline the spiritual essence of its features and get off at the theoretical level of comprehension. Reveals the meaning of spirituality as a sense of purpose for the development of people.

Keywords: *Spirituality, Russian, and people*

Classification: *GJHSS-A Classification: FOR Code: 220405, 220499*



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Spirituality, as aspiration to the highest expediency, should be present in the construction of society. The need for the ultimate goal of public administration has said Plato: "We are still in the beginning, when founded state, established that this should be done without fail for the sake of the whole. So here is the whole and there is justice ... "[2.1.3, s.204].

At different times, philosophers and politicians offered a variety of purposes: justice, order, progress, prosperity, stability, freedom and equality.

In hard times higher expediency replaced by a practical purpose - survival. In Russia, the Soviet era, there was an attempt to oust goals of justice and impose a desire for "prosperity", as expressed in material well-being only a part of society. Such exclusion is contrary to common sense and speaks of the degeneration of society's elite.

Spirituality in politics and economics - the desire for a harmonious society dispensation.

What criteria must match the spiritual development of society? This society is capable to set and achieve different goals. Society with a rich spiritual life - opens ideological space of literature, art, philosophy, develop science and technology, bereguschee ecology of the land and discover the vastness of space. Spirituality - it's an inner strength, through which existing states.

On the role of "supreme expediency", "big idea", "sacred values" for the development of states in N. Danilevski (1822 - 1885) "Russia and Europe" [1].

A comparative analysis of civilizations Danilevsky holds in terms of what the basic idea of developing each of them. "Jewish - the religious, the Greek - the actual cultural and Rome - political" [1.c.405].

Special mission to Danilevsky, the Slavic civilization, which is only just unfolding in the historical arena. Her future goal is already present - the creation of

"just providing the masses of socio-economic structure» [1.c.431].

The spiritual can only be a free society, as ideological orientations should be tested for strength, be criticized, be replaced by the best. Such activities are fully possible only in a democratic society.

Society should be well informed, open to observation and study.

Each year, information is becoming increasingly valuable and necessary public goods. It is obvious that along with rights to life and work, education and medicine, has the right to be informed. Right, this is done quite poorly, and for some reason, basically, taking into account the knowledge of current events, while there are problems with basic awareness of (lie to the media, lies in the textbooks).

The fact that honesty is needed, has long been known. But does the requirement to report compliance is ubiquitous? Honesty has given very good results in science, the same should be expected from it in the religious and political life of nations.

Though the capitalist, even though the socialist economy have no right to exist, if not based on spiritual principles understanding of the supreme desirability of government, which should work for the benefit of the people, not understanding the economy as a mechanism for profit by individuals, but as an organism, which supplies all the necessary people.

This means that pensioners should be a decent pension. Some of them defended the country, and someone killed children in armed conflicts, including those for ensuring that businesses can easily make money. It's a shame to be rich in a poor country.

That means - to guard the health and lives of people must be reliable medicine, science, industry and army. A person should be able to get a good education in the future to get reliable information about all aspects of society, the development of the state. The state must control many vital processes.

Choice, directed toward the highest expediency, should be sustained, systematic and principled. In a society should be the priority principles of humanity, justice, and not a desire for change for the sake of change and reform for the sake of reform.

Traditionally, after Marx, speaking of the development of society, identify different "formations": slavery, feudalism, capitalism, socialism, communism.

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Sometimes, these words are embedded in a completely different meaning.

In the nineties was taken a turn toward capitalism and social ideas were rejected, ridiculed the commune. Attempts to nominate a new national ideas were sound veil covering the self-seeking bureaucracy.

But society must move toward greater rationality, that is, the interests of all at the maximum efficiency of the management. Otherwise the inevitable collapse of the economic, environmental, political, demographic.

Developed society should be multicultural - with free movement between the communities in which people profess the same beliefs. Everyone should be able to choose the community in which he believes he can best reveal their talents. In these communities, people will be equal!

In the commandment "love your enemies, you can see the call for harmonization of relations, to finding a reasonable system of relationships that" enemies "have ceased to be enemies.

So Christians see their enemies' scourge of God ", test, and was happy to take meal. Surely this problem has no unique solution. Requires finding a solution to be able to "love your enemies" and not become their slave. Today - is a science, "Conflict Resolution", which studies why people in conflict and how to peacefully resolve conflicts.

As noted by N. Danilevskiy, "progress is not whether to go in one direction (in which case he would soon have ceased), and to start the whole field, constituting a historical field of human activity, in all directions" [1 . c.92].

Can not be "one way" for such a huge country like Russia with its complex historical experiences. She needs to multiculturalism. This can be achieved through the establishment of "special zones of democratic"

Why in the territory of Russia did not exist to selected cities in which to develop a socialist or even communist culture? Probably would be of interest and the society in which would have been possible to achieve full of liberalism. Free democratic zone could be built on the principle of science cities or free economic zones.

State law requires that starts the process of such zones. Every citizen of Russia, might choose to reside zone for the soul.

Today's capitalism is a "zone free of hunting for the hypocritical men with aggressive, criminal tendencies. And people are not inclined to cruelty, hypocrisy, greed, find themselves in the role of slaves, robbing and robbing. Man is free when there is a choice. Today he is a slave of circumstances dictated to him by other people.

Why multiculturalism? Should not all communities, over time, merge into one global, the best arranged by a community? So George Soros for a

modern progressive society understands the "capitalist" and "open" society, "traditional," closed "societies are, in his opinion, flawed, outdated [3].

In our opinion, a multicultural unit of humanity more in keeping with the spiritual essence of human nature. Multiculturalism can cultivate diverse aspirations of the human spirit. It prevents the degradation and impoverishment, deterioration of the spiritual essence. The fact that humanity is in the future in various ways, one can see a safety mechanism from sliding into "the kingdom of the Antichrist."

With multicultural tune the concept of "open" society. It also includes an opportunity for people to freely choose for themselves a good society. But the fact is that society should be spiritual and in a sense, "closed" in their spiritual intentions should protect their legal systems.

The modern "capitalist" society, of course, can be considered open. But at the same time we must remember that there is an economic mechanism which, like the pump is pumping capital and brains of the "traditional" societies. And this mechanism makes a "capitalist" society of the imperialist superpower closed as closed every organism, feeding on their environment. "Traditional" society who are forced to devote their resources, capital, brains, etc., should consider a more "open", but also less healthy.

Everyone is familiar with Marxist principles of communism: "From each according to his ability, to each according to his needs, a classless society and the gradual abolition of state power.

When the "Communists" found that "increasing needs" almost impossible to meet, when Brezhnev was introduced by an indefinite complement "reasonable needs" to the fundamental principles of communism.

That can be attributed to the reasonable needs? Of course, functional requirements, then there are those that are absolutely essential to maintain human life. This is - simple, healthy food, simple clothing that protects from the effects of habitat, simple accommodation, transport, etc.

Reasonable (functional) requirements satisfied with reasonable people, deprived of their inferiority complex. Independently-minded, self-sufficient, able to distinguish right from wrong. Such people have always been, is and will be. Socrates at the fair would exclaim: "How many things are useless to me." So it was in ancient Greece, when "unnecessary things" were lower than now. Roughly the same was said and thought, Einstein, Tolstoy, and others.

But over and above the functional needs of each person should have the means and opportunities for consumption and production of spiritual values. Indeed, one of the most important characteristics of the state of culture and spiritual life of society is the degree of inclusiveness of all people in spirit production and consumption.

Therefore, the contemporary Russian society and their elected government should come up and solve the problem of the regulated distribution of all benefits at the state level. This means that the full, embracing all people in the democratic country should operate a distribution system both material and spiritual values. The last includes the following subsystems: the education and upbringing, cultural and educational institutions, the system of mass information media and advocacy, trade and exchange of products of spiritual culture among peoples and nations. Only in this case it will be possible to rename a modern society on spiritual values, the internal self-disclosure.

Reflecting on the way a man of the future, we can not ignore such valuable concepts such as intelligence, citizenship, passionateness. These concepts come from different areas of social thought, but largely overlap with each other.

Intelligence, as well as citizenship, a high degree of self-consciousness, samostoyaniya rights. Public awareness is becoming an intellectual citizenship, his ideology, which he promotes in practice through the participation in work parties and social organizations. Intelligence - it passionarnost: constant and steady determination not to contemplate, but to alter, improve reality. The desire to remodel requires a well-equipped, permanent intellectual work, a critical approach to reality. A true intelligence is always a willingness to forget the immediate needs of selfish existence, so whether you want to say that most intelligence grows on religious grounds.

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Growth and Productivity Analysis of Wood & Wooden Products Industry of Punjab

By Dr. Gulshan Kumar

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Abstracts - : In the fast changing liberalized global environment where growth and productivity have emerged as the important agents of growth and development, present study is an effort to investigate growth pattern and productivity trends of small scale wood and wooden products industry in Punjab. The growth of industry has been measured in terms of four variables namely: number of units, fixed investment, direct employment and production. Yearly growth rates have been computed to mirror year to-year fluctuations in growth and compound annual growth rates (CAGRs) have been worked out to find the impact of the policies of liberalized regime on growth of this industry. Productivity trends have been sketched in terms of capital intensity, capital output ratio and partial factor productivities. The study observed that the liberalization has encouraged mechanization and technological up gradation in the wood and wooden products industry in Punjab. The policies of liberalized regime have resulted in lower COR and enhancement of factor productivities but at the expense of employment generation.

Keywords: *DOM, Productivity, Compound annual growth rate, capital Intensity.*

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I. INTRODUCTION

Wood industry is one of the oldest industries in human society. It is one of the most diversified industries encompassing manufacture of wood and its products, cork, articles of straw & plating material, manufacture of plywood, laminboard, practice board and other panels and board, manufacture of builders' carpentry and joinery, manufacture of wooden containers articles of cork, straw and plating materials and wooden furniture (Annual Survey of Industries, 2005). In the modern dynamic world, the industry not only plays a crucial role in meeting the household needs of the common man but also serves as a catalyst for the industrial and economic growth of a country.

Punjab, who shares an international border with a hostile neighbour has failed to attract mega investment in this industry but still this industry does occupy a prominent place in the small scale industrial

space of the state. The small scale wood and wooden products industry of Punjab has experienced several changes in tune with the changing business environment under the policies of liberalized regime. The ongoing liberalized regime aims to dismantle all the growth retarding structures to trade, investment and productivity. Removal of quantitative and non-quantitative restrictions, rationalization of subsidies, enforcing fiscal prudence, easing regulatory controls etc. are some of the hallmarks of liberalized regime. As a consequence of this, competition has increased manifold, compelling the businesses to enhance productivities in order to survive in the market.

Punjab where small scale industries predominate, wood and wooden products industry has emerged as one of the important industries of Punjab.

Despite the challenges during pre-liberalization and liberalization period, the wood and wooden products industry in small scale sector of Punjab has made significant growth.. The wood and wooden products producing units in the small scale sector were only 2390 in the year 1980-81 which soared to 10459 units in 1991-92 and further grew to the level of 15886 units. As regards employment the industry provided employment to 8837 persons in the year 1980-81 which surged to 33042 persons in the year 1991-92 and further climbed to the level of 61265 persons in the year 2004-05. In the sphere of fixed capital investment, it was only 7.28 crores of rupees in the year 1980-81 which jumped to Rs. 49.78 crores in 1991-92 and further advanced the level of Rs. 202.25 crores in 2004-05. Similarly the value of production of small scale chemical products industry of Punjab was a only worth Rs. 24.75 crores in the year 1980-81, entailed to the level of Rs. 109.63 crores in the year 1991-92 and further enhanced to the level of Rs. 887.73 crores in the year 2004-05 (Directorate of Industries, Punjab 2005).

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Analysis of growth and productivity of an industry plays an instrumental role in framing a pragmatic and result oriented industrial development strategy. In this study, an attempt has been made to dig the facts about wood and wooden products industry in Punjab which can be treated as a catalytic agent for the

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cause of appropriate policy formulation. The specific objectives of the study were:

- 1 To compute partial productivity of labour (AOLR) and partial productivity of capital (AOGR).
- 2 To analyse the comparative picture of growth of number of units, fixed investment, direct employment and production during pre-liberalization and liberalization periods.
- 3 To calculate average capital output ratio and capital intensity of labour in wood and wooden products industry of Punjab.

III. DATA BASE AND METHODOLOGY

Present study is based on secondary data for the period of 25 years i.e. 1980-81 to 2004-05. (Due to change in classification of industries, it is not possible to get the data as per requirement for the next four years because that data will not be in uniformity with that for the last 25 years, still study finds data for the 25 years sufficient to draw various conclusions). The data relating to number of units, direct employment, fixed capital and production of small scale wood and wooden products industry at aggregate level for the above said period were culled from Directorate of Industries, Punjab. Since the figures of fixed capital and production were given at current prices, these have been converted into constant prices by deflating them with index number of the wholesale prices of manufactured products total, taking 1993-94 as the base year. Yearly growth rates for all the four variables were computed to capture year-to-year fluctuations in growth.

Partial productivities of labour and capital were obtained as O/L and O/K. For making an assessment of the extent of amount of units of capital that are needed to produce a certain level of output as well as the capital intensity, K/O and K/L ratios were computed. Compound Annual Growth Rates (CAGRs) for overall period (1980-81 to 2004-05) and two sub-periods: pre-liberalization (1980-81 to 1991-92) and liberalization periods (1991-92 to 2004-05) for all the eight variables were estimated by fitting an exponential function of the following form:

$$Y_t = \beta_0 \beta_1^t e^{U_t} \quad (1)$$

Where Y_t is dependent variable, β_0 and β_1 are the unknown parameters, and U_t is the disturbance term. The equation (1) could be written in the logarithmic form as follows:

$$\log Y_t = \log \beta_0 + t \log \beta_1 + U_t \quad (2)$$

Above equation was estimated by applying Ordinary Least Square Method and compound rate of growth (gr_c) was obtained by taking antilog of estimated regression coefficient, subtracting 1 from it and multiplying the difference by 100, as under:

$$gr_c = (\hat{\beta}_1 - 1) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

Where $\hat{\beta}_1$ is an estimate for β_1 . The significance of growth rates was tested by applying t - test, given as follows:

$$t = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1}{s(\hat{\beta}_1)} \sim t(n-2) \text{ d.f.} \quad (4)$$

Where $\hat{\beta}_1$ is the regression estimate, $s(\hat{\beta}_1)$ is the respective standard error. All statistically insignificant growth rates are treated as almost zero growth rates. (Gupta and Kumar, 2006).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the results and discussion of the study. The first subsection is devoted to the analysis of compound annual growth rates of number of units, employment, fixed capital and production. The second subsection is devoted to the profile of capital intensity, capital-output ratio and partial productivities of labour and capital in wood and wooden products Indus

SECTION -I

a) Growth Performance

Measurement of growth has been one of the most extensively researched areas. The growth rate analysis provides the detailed vision of growth. The year to year growth rates and compound annual growth rates (CAGRs) of number of units, fixed investment, employment and production of wood and wooden products industry are shown in table I. The results have been discussed in brief under the following four sub heads

Insert Table-I

b) Number Of Units

The year-to-year growth rates of number of units as demonstrated in column II of table I suggests a growth trend but with a downward bias. Commencing from the level of 30.50 percent in 1981-82 touched the level of 7.93 percent in 1990-91. Then started the

decline in growth rate which continued till 1997-98, however fluctuations in growth rates were observed at odd intervals till 2001-02 and the most noticeable one was in the year 2002-03 when it jumped to the level of 36.48 percent. But in 204-05, a sharp fall is found to the tune of -3.40 percent.

Further perusal of the column reveals that the compound annual growth rates for the pre-liberalization period was found to be 13.75 percent which declined to 3.07 percent in the liberalization period. However, a significant CAGR of 6.47 percent was observed during overall period of the study.

c) *Fixed Investment*

The profile of annual growth rates of fixed investment as envisaged in column III of table I reveals that in 1981-82 rate was 16.29 percent, it touched the level of 22.75 percent in 1984-85. The yearly growth rate started to fluctuate in the following years and dipped to 0.92 percent in the year 1990-91 and remained in negative zone for the two years i.e. 1992-94 and with minor fluctuation in 1997-98 and escalated to level of 11.66 percent in 1998-99. Then again witnessing the fluctuations, the highest rate of growth was glanced in 2002-03 of the order of 47.71 but proved to be finished at the level of -2.75 percent in 2004-05.

Further investigation of the column exhibits a significant CAGR of 11.82 percent in the pre-liberalization period which declined to the level of 6.91 percent in the liberalization period. However, a CAGR of 6.80 percent was observed for the entire period of the study.

d) *Direct Employment*

Perusal of yearly growth rates of employment as contained in column IV of table I exhibits swings of varying magnitude through out the study period. The period 1981-82 observed the rate of growth as 22.12 percent, fell to 9.27 percent in 1987-88 and with fluctuations it became 1.65 percent in 1993-94 and it climbed to the peak of 50.52 percent in 2002-03 after experiencing some fluctuations at very low levels of growth.. The growth rate further declined to touch the lowest level of 0.80 percent in 2003-04 followed by a negative growth level of -0.27 percent in 2004-05.

Further perusal of the column reveals that the pre-liberalisation period noticed a significant CAGR of 12.55 percent, but the liberalisation period failed to register any growth because of insignificant CAGR of 4.78 percent. However, a CAGR of 6.79 percent was observed for the overall period of the study.

e) *Production*

The annual growth rates of production as sketched in column V of table I reflects an uptrend with volatility at every alternate step. Starting from a yearly growth rate of 9.19 percent in 1981-82 rose to a level of

14.90 percent in 1983-84. Thereafter, the growth rate after getting variations in the following years, entered the negative zone for two years i.e. 1991-93 and jumped to the level of 6.92 percent in 1993-94. The growth rate started fluctuating again in the following years and entered the negative zone to touch the level of -40.73 percent in the year 2002-03 and touched the highest peak of 272.75 percent in 2003-04 and reached a level of -4.20 percent in the year 2004-05.

The column further reveals that the CAGR for the pre-liberalisation period was found to be 7.27 percent which accelerated to the level of 9.95 percent in the liberalization period. However, a CAGR of 6.63 percent was observed for the overall period of the study.

The conclusion that emanates from the above discussion is that the liberalization period failed to register improvement in compound annual growth rates in three out of the four variables. In case of number of units, a clear deceleration was recorded while the direct employment disappointed also because of low CAGR. In the sphere of fixed capital investment, the CAGR also declined. Only the production variable managed to show robust growth. Hence the policies of the liberalization have facilitated production in the small scale wood and wooden products industry but at the expense of employment generation and number growth.

SECTION – II

a) *Productivity Analysis And Profile Of Related Variables*

Productivity depends on the relationship between total output and related inputs such as labour and capital which have been used in production of that output. It is evident that the capacity of the economy to produce goods and services mainly depends on productivity of these factors. Productivity can be enhanced through proper utilization of such resources. It is widely agreed that enhancing productivity is a signal of good health of a system which allows producing at lower cost and makes it competitive. Table –II depicts the profile of capital intensity, capital output ratio and partial productivities of labour and capital of the wood and wooden products industry of Punjab. This table also highlights the compound annual growth rates of capital intensity, capital-output ratio and partial productivities of labour and capital for the pre-liberalization and liberalization period. The detailed column wise explanation of table II is discussed as under:

Insert Table-II

b) *Labour Productivity (Aolr)*

The labour productivity as compiled in column II of table II shows a figure of Rs. 0.0072 crores in 1980-81 which continued to fall to the level of 0.0037 till 1992-93. Thereafter the labour productivity escalated till 2001-02 to touch the level of Rs.0.0091 crores in 2003-04 with minor fluctuations. The labour productivity finally settled at Rs. 0.0087 crores in 2004-05.

The column further reveals that the CAGR for the liberalization period (4.92 percent) registered a remarkable improvement over the CAGR of -4.61 percent belonging to the pre-liberalisation period. However, a CAGR of -0.13 percent (insignificant) was observed for the overall period of the study.

c) *Capital Intensity (Dom)*

The profile of annual growth rates of capital intensity as sketched in column III of table II demonstrates that the capital intensity which was Rs.0.0021 crores in 1980-81 reached a level of Rs. 0.0019 crores in 1990-91 after experiencing minor fluctuations and declined to 0.0016 crores in 1995-96 and surged to level of 0.0021 crores in 1999-00 and continued to be at the same level for the next three years also and finally settled at a level of Rs. 0.0020 crores in 2004-05.

The column further reveals a significant improvement in the CAGR of liberalization period (2.01 percent) from the CAGR of -0.66 percent belonging to the pre-liberalisation period. However, a CAGR of -0.05 percent (insignificant) was noticed in the overall period of the study.

d) *Capital-Output Ratio (Cor)*

The column IV of table II portrays the profile of capital output ratio. Starting from a ratio of 0.29 in 1980-81, continued to increase to the level of 0.46 in 1991-92 with marginal fluctuations. Remaining at the same level for the one year declined to the level of 0.34 in 2001-02. Showing sharp increase for the next year, COR settled at a level of 0.23 in 2004-05.

Further perusal of the column explains that the CAGR of the pre-liberalisation period which was 4.32 percent declined substantially to reach the level of -2.82 percent (insignificant) in the liberalization period. However, a CAGR of -0.16 percent (insignificant) was observed for overall period of the study.

e) *Capital Productivity (Aocr)*

The column V of table II reflects improvement in capital productivity but also dots fluctuations at odd intervals. Commencing from a capital productivity of 3.40 in 1980-81 fell gradually to the level of 2.19 in 1992-93, accelerated slowly to touch the level of 2.95 in 2001-02. and managed to touch the highest level of 4.46 in 2003-04 and became 4.39 in 2004-05.

The column further reveals that the CAGR which was -4.47 percent for the pre-liberalisation period cheered up during the liberalization period to reach the level of 2.85 percent. However a CAGR of -0.15 percent

(insignificant) was observed for the overall period of the study.

From the above discussion it can be safely inferred that the liberalization has encouraged mechanization and technological up gradation in the wood and wooden products industry in Punjab. The policies of the liberalization regime have resulted in lower COR and enhancement of factor productivities but at the expense of employment generation

f) *Conclusion And Findings Of The Study*

It is quite evident from the entire discussion that despite the problem of militancy during pre-liberalization period, significant growth rate was observed in all the four variables namely number of units, employment, fixed investment and production. But the policies of liberalized regime have resulted in qualitative rather than quantitative growth in the wood and wooden products industry in Punjab. Highly significant growth rate was recorded in fixed investment and production, a satisfactory growth was noticed in number of units but insignificant growth was gauged in employment during the liberalization period. However, in the overall period of the study, significant growth rate was registered in the case of all the four variables. Thus, it could safely be inferred from the analysis that the liberalization has resulted in jobless growth because along with acceleration in the growth of production, the rate of growth of employment has gone down miserably.

The profile of labour and capital productivity reflects that in absolute terms the labour and capital productivity and the capital intensity exhibited significant growth rate capital output ratio recorded insignificant growth during the overall period of the study. The comparative profile of pre-liberalization and liberalization period indicates that during liberalization period, productivities of labour and capital accompanied by capital intensity have improved significantly whereas capital output ratio decelerated.

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Table I

Year to year and Compound Annual Growth Rates (in percent)

Year	Number of units	Fixed Investment (in Rs.Crore)	Direct Employment (in no.)	Production (in Rs.Crore)
1981-82	30.50	16.29	22.12	9.19
1982-83	19.46	15.38	18.05	11.16
1983-84	24.64	14.72	20.40	14.90
1984-85	17.18	22.75	17.05	8.10
1985-86	12.64	14.46	13.18	9.08
1986-87	11.06	8.98	10.17	6.00
1987-88	9.96	10.37	9.27	9.45
1988-89	16.64	13.62	13.02	4.23
1989-90	3.01	5.09	6.34	4.06
1990-91	7.93	0.92	5.39	0.32
1991-92	7.74	2.49	6.63	-0.26
1992-93	3.28	-3.87	3.04	-3.97
1993-94	1.52	-0.95	1.65	6.92
1994-95	1.37	0.51	2.65	4.03
1995-96	1.05	2.94	2.18	2.10
1996-97	0.74	8.75	1.67	12.20
1997-98	0.95	6.43	1.86	7.38
1998-99	1.05	11.66	3.33	10.75
1999-00	0.68	10.01	1.63	15.88
2000-01	0.83	0.65	1.41	5.36
2001-02	0.55	1.15	1.16	8.24
2002-03	36.48	47.71	50.52	-40.73
2003-04	0.32	-0.83	0.8	272.75
2004-05	-3.40	-2.75	-0.27	-4.20
CAGRs:-				
Pre Liberlization	13.75*	11.82*	12.55*	7.27*
Liberalization Period	3.07*	6.91*	4.78*	9.95*
Overall Period	6.47**	6.80*	6.79*	6.63*

*Significant at 5 percent level of significance.

**Insignificant at 5 percent level of significance.

Source: Calculated from the data supplied by Directorate of Industries, Punjab.

Note:1. Fixed investment and Production figures are taken on 1993-94 constant prices to compute various growth rates.

2.It is not possible to find change for the first year as it is based on previous year so growth for 1980-81 is not quantifiable.

TABLE II
Profile of Capital Intensity, Capital-Output Ratio and Partial Productivity of Capital and Labour

Year	AOLR (In Rs.Cr.)	DOM (In Rs.Cr.)	COR	AOCR
1980-81	0.0072	0.0021	0.29	3.40
1981-82	0.0064	0.0020	0.31	3.19
1982-83	0.0060	0.0020	0.33	3.07
1983-84	0.0058	0.0019	0.32	3.08
1984-85	0.0053	0.0020	0.37	2.71
1985-86	0.0051	0.0020	0.39	2.59
1986-87	0.0049	0.0020	0.40	2.51
1987-88	0.0049	0.0020	0.40	2.49
1988-89	0.0046	0.0020	0.44	2.29
1989-90	0.0045	0.0020	0.44	2.26
1990-91	0.0043	0.0019	0.44	2.25
1991-92	0.0040	0.0018	0.46	2.19
1992-93	0.0037	0.0017	0.46	2.19
1993-94	0.0039	0.0017	0.42	2.36
1994-95	0.0040	0.0016	0.41	2.45
1995-96	0.0039	0.0016	0.41	2.43
1996-97	0.0044	0.0017	0.40	2.50
1997-98	0.0046	0.0018	0.40	2.52
1998-99	0.0049	0.0020	0.40	2.50
1999-00	0.0056	0.0021	0.38	2.64
2000-01	0.0058	0.0021	0.36	2.76
2001-02	0.0062	0.0021	0.34	2.95
2002-03	0.0025	0.0021	0.84	1.19
2003-04	0.0091	0.0020	0.22	4.46
2004-05	0.0087	0.0020	0.23	4.39
CAGRs:-				
Pre-liberalization period	-4.61*	-0.66*	4.32*	-4.47*
Liberalization period	4.92*	2.01*	-2.82*	2.85*
Overall Period	-0.13**	-0.05**	0.16**	-0.15**

Source: Calculated from the data supplied by directorate of industries, Punjab.

Note : *significant at 5 percent level of significance.

** Insignificant at 5 percent level of significance

Terms used:

- DOM: Degree of Mechanization (capital intensity):- It is fixed capital at constant prices per employee.
- COR: Capital output Ratio: - It is ratio of total fixed capital to total production (both deflated).
- AOCR:- Average output capital ratio (Capital Productivity):- It is ratio of total production to total fixed capital (both deflated)
- AOLR: - Average Output Labour Ratio (Labour Productivity):- It is total production at constant prices per employee.



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Soil Quality Status of Tunga Left Bank Command area, Shimoga & Davanagere Districts, Karnataka, India

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Abstracts - : The success of soil management to maintain soil quality depends on an understanding of how soils respond to agricultural use and practices over a time. As a result, the important physico-chemical parameters of soils were studied under different land use systems. The Tunga Left Bank Canal Command (TLBC) area lies in between $75^{\circ} 31'$ to $75^{\circ} 40'$ E and $13^{\circ} 50'$ to $14^{\circ} 02'$ N forming a part of Shimoga and Davanagere districts of Karnataka state. About thirty soil samples were collected in the study area during the pre-monsoon season (April-May 2007) and were analyzed for the physico-chemical parameters viz; pH, EC, N, P_2O_5 , K_2O and micronutrients such as Fe, Mn, Zn and Cu. From the above study area it is noted that the physico-chemical parameters are in these range i.e., pH varies from 6.7 to 7.7, EC varies from 0.14 to 0.32 dSm-1, 1142 to 246 Kg/ha, available P_2O_5 varies from 14 to 27 Kg/ha, available K_2O varies from 135 to 173 Kg/ha. In the case of micronutrients, Fe varies from 12 to 18 ppm, Mn varies from 5.0 to 8.1 ppm, Zn varies from 0.63 to 1.83 ppm and Cu varies from 0.36 to 1.1 ppm. The results obtained indicate that all the soil samples of the present study are within the permissible limits for agricultural purposes.

Keywords: Land use system, Soil quality, physico-chemical parameters.

Classification: GJHSS-B Classification: FOR Code: 840105



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



Soil Quality Status of Tunga Left Bank Command area, Shimoga & Davanagere Districts, Karnataka, India

Basavaraja Simpi¹, Chandrashekarappa K.N¹, Anil N Patel²,

Abstract: The success of soil management to maintain soil quality depends on an understanding of how soils respond to agricultural use and practices over a time. As a result, the important physico-chemical parameters of soils were studied under different land use systems. The Tunga Left Bank Canal Command (TLBC) area lies in between 75° 31' to 75° 40' E and 13° 50' to 14° 02' N forming a part of Shimoga and Davanagere districts of Karnataka state. About thirty soil samples were collected in the study area during the pre-monsoon season (April-May 2007) and were analyzed for the physico-chemical parameters viz; pH, EC, N, P₂O₅, K₂O and micronutrients such as Fe, Mn, Zn and Cu. From the above study area it is noted that the physico-chemical parameters are in these range i.e., pH varies from 6.7 to 7.7, EC varies from 0.14 to 0.32 dSm⁻¹ and available Nitrogen varies from 142 to 246 Kg/ha, available P₂O₅ varies from 14 to 27 Kg/ha, available K₂O varies from 135 to 173 Kg/ha. In the case micronutrients, Fe varies from 12 to 18 ppm, Mn varies from 5.0 to 8.1 ppm, Zn varies from 0.63 to 1.83 ppm and Cu varies from 0.36 to 1.1 ppm. The results obtained indicate that all the soil samples of the present study are within the permissible limits for agricultural purposes.

Key words: Land use system, Soil quality, physico-chemical parameters.

I. INTRODUCTION

Soil is a living system that represents a finite resource vital to life on earth. It forms a thin skin of unconsolidated minerals and organic matter on earth's surface. It develops slowly from various parent materials and is modified by time, climate, macro and microorganisms, vegetation and topography. Soils are complex mixtures of minerals, organic compounds and living organisms that interact continuously in response to natural and imposed biological, chemical and physical forces. People are dependent on the soil and conversely, good soils are dependent on the people and the use they make of the land. Soils are the natural bodies in which plants grow. Soil quality evaluation is a tool to assess management-induced changes in the soil

and to link existing resource concerns to environmentally sound land management practices. In the present study an attempt has been made to know the soil quality of the Tunga command. Tunga Left bank canal (TLBC) is located in between longitudes 75° 31' 00" to 75° 40' 00" E and latitudes 13° 50' 00" to 14° 02' 00" N covering an area of 147.9 Sq.km. The area lies in the part of Shimoga and Davanagere Districts of Karnataka state (Fig 1). The area under the project is in semidry zone, the mean annual rainfall in the study area is 814.90 mm during the period from 1991-2005. The monthly average temperature is 26.22°C. The maximum temperature of 46°C was recorded in March 1994 and a minimum of 09°C was recorded in month of December 1994. The average relative humidity of the study area is 63.64%. The relative humidity recorded at in the months of July to October (monsoon) varies from 84% to 54%, while in other months (pre and post monsoons) it varies from 91% to 22%. The study area has an average wind speed of 4.22 km/hr.

II. GEOLOGY AND HYDROGEOLOGY

The study area forms part of Shimoga schist belt, which is one of the important schist in Dharwar Craton. The Shimoga granite-gneiss is regarded as a mantled gneiss domal structure having grano-diorite composition (Syed Ali and Divaker Rao, 1980). This rock is compact gray in color and often jointed and most prominent ones are N25°E to S10° E trending joints (Fig 3). The dip of this joint set varies from 50° to almost vertical, geologically TLBC consists essentially of gneisses, basal polymict conglomerate and quartz chlorite schist. Numerous quartz and pegmatite veins traverse all the litho units. In the study area Migmatites and grano-diorites to tonalitic gneisses of Archean age are confined to Northern part. Numerous exposures of migmatites are observed with steep slopes and high degree of weathering is more prominent at places. The general trend of the foliation is NNE-SSW. Presence of mylonitic fabric, δ-porphyroclasts and swerving of foliation indicates that gneisses of the study area have suffered intense deformation.

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III. SOIL TYPES

About 90% of the area of the study area is occupied by soils developed on granite-gneiss, and about 10% by soils developed on schist. The major

types of soil occurring in the study area include red loamy soil and red sandy soil and black soil.

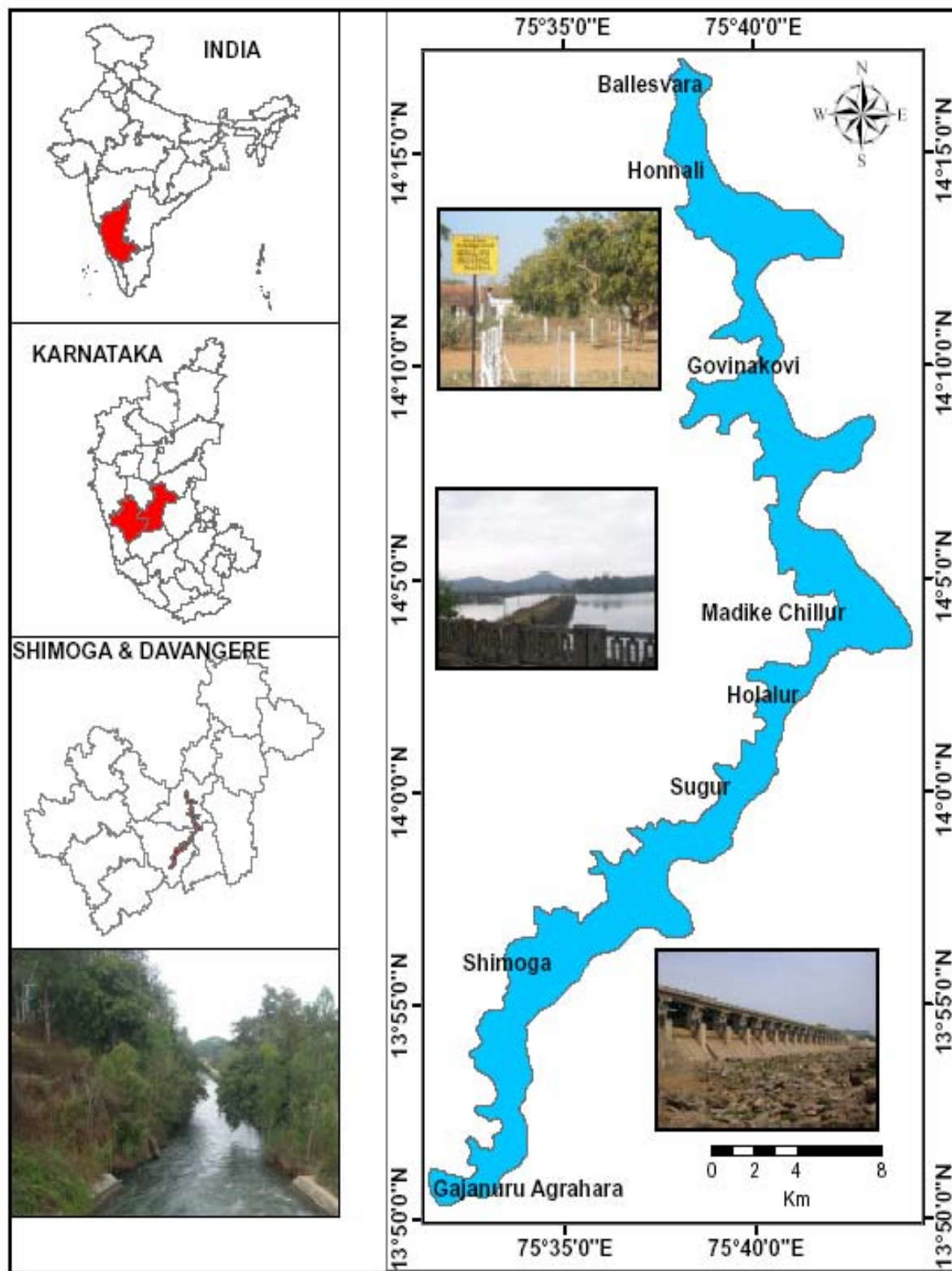


Fig 01: Location map of the Tunga Left Bank Command area

IV. METHODOLOGY

Thirty soil samples, which have been collected during pre-monsoon and post-monsoon seasons of 2007 covering the entire TLBC (Fig 02). Soil quality has been analysis to determine the agricultural suitability following Indian Standard Procedures has been used (Titration method, Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS) Thermo M5 Model). Aq.QA version 1.1 software has been used for the water quality evaluation. The collected soil samples were dried in air and then crushed in a wooden mortar with a pestle and sieved through a 2mm sieve to separate the coarse fragments (> 2mm). The fine earth samples were stored in separate containers for analysis. To qualitative analysis of the soils the following physical and chemical analysis were carried out, it include pH, EC available N, P and K. Soil pH has measured the in soil and water suspension in 1:1.5 ratio, 1 N KCl and 0.01 M CaCl_2

suspensions using a glass electrode pH meter (Sharma et al., 1977) and Electrical conductivity using Conductivity Bridge. Nitrogen content of the soil was determined by alkaline potassium permanganate method in this method 20 gram of soil mixed with 100 ml of KMnO_4 (32%) and 100 ml of NaOH (2.5%) are added and then distilled. Ammonia liberated has been collected in boric acid (4%) and mixed with indicator and then titrated against standard acid. Available Potassium is determined by preparing the extraction by neutral normal ammonium acetate and subsequently estimated using flame-photometer (J R Hall et al., 1976). The micronutrients elements were determined by AAS (Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer) model Thermo M5. Thirty soil samples were analyzed for physico-chemical parameters and micronutrients and the data is presented in the (Table 1.1).

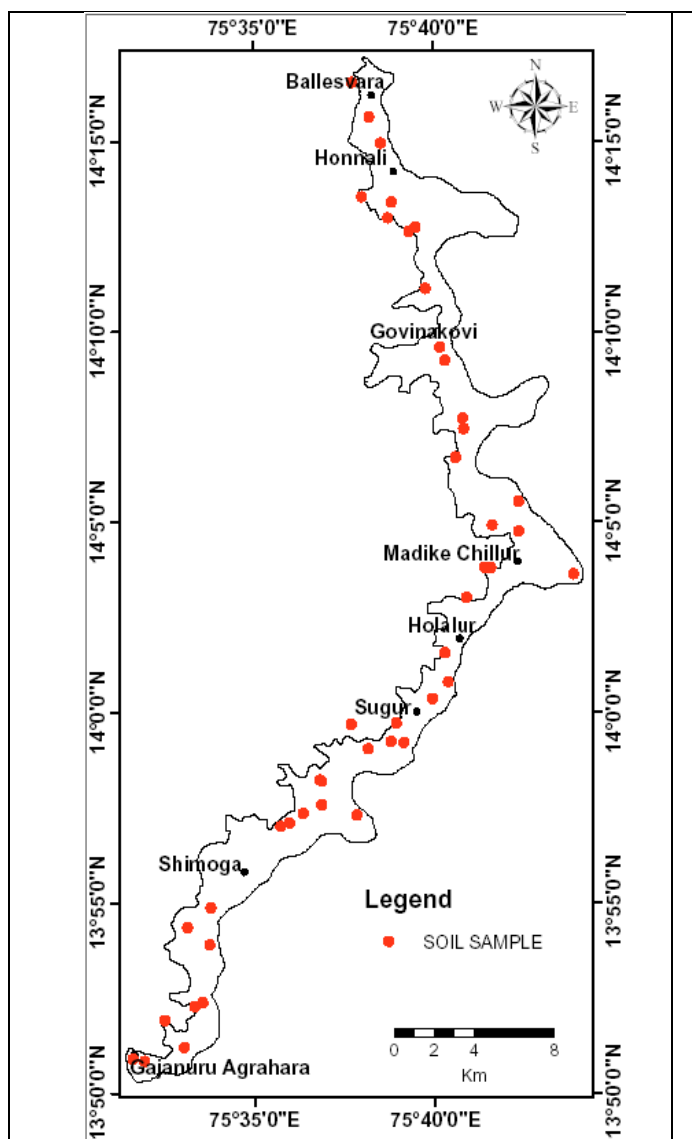


Fig 02: Location of Soil samples in TLBC

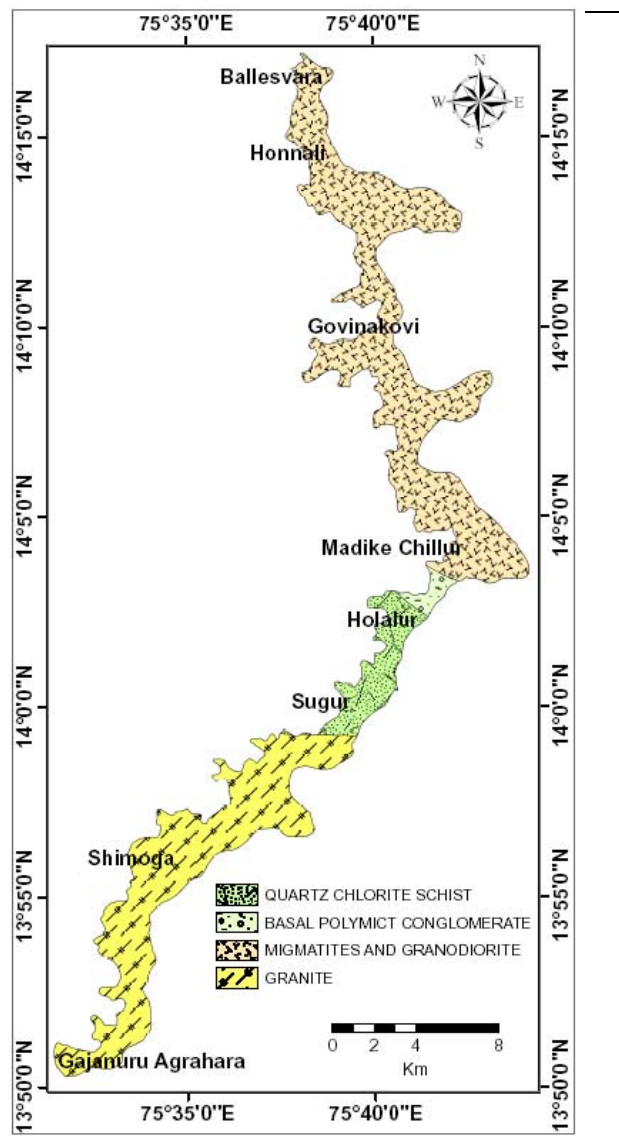


Fig 03: Geology Map of TLBC

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) Irrigation Soil quality Soil pH

pH is a measure of the acidity or alkalinity of a substance and soil pH is considered the single most important chemical property of soil because it affects the availability of essential plant nutrients. Acid soils have pH values less than 6.6, neutral soils between 6.7 and 7.72 and alkaline soils greater than 7.3. The pH of soil samples is ranging from 6.70 to 7.72 with an average of 7.29 indicating that the soils in study area within the Indian standard specification (6.5 to 8.5) and hence no amendments are required for the soils of the present study. Soil of TLBC belongs to neutral class (pH 6.7 – 7.7)

b) Electric Conductivity

Electrical conductance is the ability of an object to conduct electric current. It depends upon the presence of various ionic species in soil and the temperature at which measurement is made. EC of the soils of the present study area varies from 0.14 dSm⁻¹ to 0.32 dSm⁻¹, indicating the soils are good for crop production as EC is < 1 μ dSm⁻¹.

c) Available Nitrogen (N)

Soils containing higher amounts of organic matter generally are capable of releasing higher quantities of nitrogen. Nitrogen is a mobile nutrient in the soil. Nearly all soils in TLBC require nitrogen for optimum production of crops requiring nitrogen uptake. The available nitrogen in a soil represents a fraction of the total N absorbable by plants. In soils of the present, the available nitrogen varies between 142.0 to 246.0 kg/ha with an average of 195 kg/ha. As per the Indian standard specification soils of the present study are low in available Nitrogen. Hence, they need to be amended with organic manure (FYM/compost/vermi compost) /inorganic fertilizers (Urea/ 17; 17; 17 NPK).

d) Available Phosphorus (P_2O_5)

Crops and crop rotations require different levels of available phosphorus. Generally, even in row crops, it is recognized that phosphorus response varies. The available P in a soil represents a fraction of the total P which is susceptible to plant uptake during their growth. Plants take up P in $H_2PO_4^-$, $H_2PO_4^+$ forms but the water soluble P at any one time is very small. In the study area available P varies between 14 to 27 kg/ha with an average of 20.93 kg/ha. As per the Indian standard specification soils of the present study are low in available P. Therefore, they need to be amended with SSP (16% P), DSP (32%P) and rock phosphate 24%P).

Amount of P_2O_5 (Kg/Ha)	Rating
<22.5	Low
22.9-56.33	Medium
>56.33	High

e) Available Potassium (K_2O)

Available K in a soil is generally the sum of water soluble and exchangeable potassium. The reserve forms of K in soils are the non-exchangeable K and the mineral K. As the exchangeable K of soils is removed through cropping or leaching, some of the reserve K derives from weathering of feldspars and micas and become exchangeable. In the soils of the present study area available potassium varies between 135 to 173 Kg/ha, with average of 156.4 kg/ha. In the study area, the concentration of potassium is maximum. As per Indian standard specification, soils of the present study are high in available K. Hence, the use of fertilizers is more in the study area and it should be reduced to improve the soil quality.

K_2O (Kg/Ha)	Rating
<141	Low
141-136	Medium
>136	High

VI. STATUS OF MICRONUTRIENTS

Micronutrients are those, which are required in small quantities for the growth of plants and organisms.

a) Iron

In the soils of the study area, the concentration Iron varies between 12 to 18 ppm and average of 14.47 ppm and it is indicating that this soil is good for plantation and double crop. The iron concentration is maximum and minimum in the basin and this substantiates the presence of areca nut, coconut plantation and paddy fields.

b) Manganese

A manganese concentration in the soils of the present study varies between 5.00 to 8.10 ppm with an average of 7.20 ppm and indicates that these soils are good for plantation crops/horticulture.

c) Zinc

The zinc ratings and recommendations are for use in corn and grain sorghum. These recommendations are for a single corrective soil application that should last from three to five years. In the study area, the concentration of zinc varies between

0.63 to 1.83 ppm, with an average of 1.34 ppm and it is exceeding the critical limits.

d) *Copper*

In the study area, the concentration of copper varies between 0.36 to 1.10 ppm, with an average of 0.619 ppm and it is exceeding the critical limits. The use of micronutrient fertilizers is more in the study area, it should be reduced to improve the soil quality by monitoring the levels with frequent soil tests and plant analyses.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Learn to know how to produce more, while damaging the soil less. Plants are restricted by the nutrient in shortest supply, and they simply stop growing. But when soil organisms stop growing, all remaining free nutrients are eventually lost. So, a soil short of nitrogen but rich in all other essential nutrients will lose all of these if nitrogen is not supplied. The purpose of the present study is assessing the soil

quality to protect and improve long-term agricultural productivity and habitats of all organisms including people. In the summery there is lack of good drainage system in the study area in low laying lands. The N and P shows low rating and K shows medium rating in the soils of the present study. Higher concentrations of Cu were noticed in the soils, which is probably due application of Bordeaux mixture (it is copper sulfate mixture and contain 1% copper) in order to control diseases koleroga and application of excessive inorganic fertilizers. Hence, educating everyone involved in agriculture about the importance of soil and agricultural practices to be done according to the soil quality factors and water availability and the crops should be grown accordingly and about the essence of soil. Proper soil and crop management is certainly the safest and least costly ways to prevent pollution of our surface and ground water.

Sample No.	Location	Latitude	Longitude	pH	EC (dSm ⁻¹)	Avail. N (Kg/h)	Avail. P ₂ O ₅ (Kg/ha)	Avail. K ₂ O (Kg/ha)	Fe (ppm)	Mn (ppm)	Zn (ppm)	Cu (ppm)
1	Gajanur	13° 50' 50.9"	75° 31' 57.1"	7.56	0.25	246	24	162	15	8.00	1.60	0.65
2	Veerapura	13° 51' 54.8"	75° 32' 30.7"	7.60	0.26	208	27	136	14.5	7.00	1.70	0.70
3	Hosahalli	13° 52' 23.1"	75° 33' 33.8"	7.50	0.30	216	23	150	13	7.40	1.65	0.40
4	Shimoga	13° 54' 21.3"	75° 33' 08.4"	7.64	0.18	230	25	148	12.5	7.20	1.73	0.70
5	Mandli	13° 54' 52.1"	75° 33' 47.5"	7.68	0.25	220	27	135	14	8.10	1.30	0.65
6	New Mandli	13° 57' 0.03"	75° 35' 43.8"	7.72	0.28	234	23	138	13	7.60	1.50	0.70
7	Harakere	13° 57' 20.8"	75° 36' 21.0"	7.60	0.30	215	20	152	13	7.00	1.30	0.52
8	Pilangere	13° 57' 17.9"	75° 37' 50.1"	7.60	0.24	218	24	162	12	6.90	1.42	0.56
9	Hanaswadi	13° 58' 13.2"	75° 36' 49.3"	7.18	0.27	230	20	170	17	7.23	1.30	0.70
10	Bedara Hosahalli	13° 59' 02.4"	75° 38' 09.6"	7.20	0.15	208	23	165	14	7.90	1.45	0.50
11	Bedara Hosahalli	13° 59' 13.9"	75° 38' 47.4"	7.06	0.21	204	19	160	13	8.10	1.80	0.61
12	Hosahalli	13° 59' 41.1"	75° 37' 41.1"	7.10	0.26	210	17	164	18	8.06	1.70	0.60
13	Near Bullapura	13° 59' 43.1"	75° 38' 56.3"	7.08	0.15	198	20	170	13	7.20	1.83	0.40



14	Bullapura	14° 00' 21.5"	75° 39' 56.8"	7.02	0.20	200	14	163	15	7.00	1.60	0.52
15	Hale Hatti	14° 01' 33.5"	75° 40' 17.3"	6.92	0.30	164	16	154	17	6.40	0.90	0.40
16	Holalur	14° 03' 00.8"	75° 40' 53.6"	6.98	0.26	158	17	168	18	6.10	1.20	0.62
17	Madikechiluru	14° 03' 47.5"	75° 41' 34.0"	7.30	0.20	175	19	159	13	6.00	0.92	0.60
18	Hale Malali Hosahalli	14° 04' 44.9"	75° 42' 20.4"	7.01	0.24	183	18	160	12	7.10	0.63	0.45
19	Hosahalli	14° 04' 55.2"	75° 41' 36.4"	7.42	0.18	180	23	173	15	7.25	1.26	0.80
20	Chiluru	14° 06' 42.2"	75° 40' 35.9"	7.40	0.20	169	25	151	15	7.60	1.30	0.60
21	Distributory no 7	14° 07' 43.0"	75° 40' 47.5"	6.85	0.25	142	20	148	18	7.90	0.90	0.65
22	Kuruva	14° 09' 14.3"	75° 40' 18.2"	7.60	0.20	198	24	168	12	5.00	1.26	0.55
23	Haranahalli	14° 11' 07.7"	75° 39' 46.0"	7.68	0.32	190	20	172	16	6.50	1.20	0.60
24	Sunkadakatte	14° 12' 44.4"	75° 39' 29.5"	6.89	0.18	164	23	150	17	7.70	1.36	0.50
25	Sunkadhakatte	14° 12' 59.1"	75° 38' 44.2"	7.70	0.22	188	27	170	13	8.10	1.20	0.63
26	Sunkadakatte	14° 12' 59.1"	75° 38' 44.2"	7.40	0.26	200	18	165	12	7.20	1.40	0.70
27	Herematkere	14° 13' 32.5"	75° 38' 00.8"	7.02	0.16	180	23	145	14	7.15	1.10	0.36
28	Honnali	14° 14' 56.9"	75° 38' 32.4"	7.06	0.18	168	14	143	15	8.00	1.15	0.80
29	Konayakanahalli	14° 15' 38.0"	75° 38' 13.2"	6.70	0.14	174	16	140	17	7.10	1.26	1.10
30	Lambanithanda	14° 16' 32.8"	75° 37' 44.5"	7.12	0.26	180	19	152	13	6.40	1.36	1.00

Table 1.1: Results of physico-chemical analysis of soils

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Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art. A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:



- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
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Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

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Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

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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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