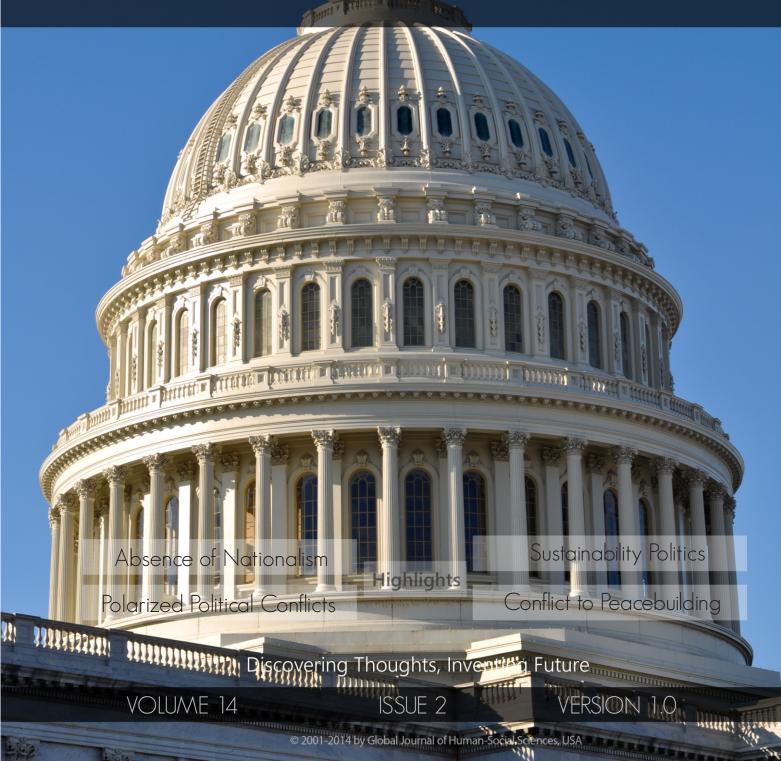
Online ISSN : 2249-460X Print ISSN : 0975-587X

GLOBAL JOURNAL

OF HUMAN SOCIAL SCIENCES: F

Political Science





GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F Political Science

GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F Political Science

Volume 14 Issue 2 (Ver. 1.0)

OPEN ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

The Absence of Nationalism during the Arab Spring

By Jason Cooley

University of Hartford, United States

Introduction- Mark Katz has been focusing on the topic of revolutionary waves for several years. According to him, a wave commences when a major revolution transpires in a particular nation within the international system. Soon after this central revolution takes place, subsequent revolutions can be expected in other countries. At times, these affiliate revolutions only occur in the same region as the central revolution.1 This can be noticed if the first major revolutionary wave of the twenty-first century is taken into consideration. Towards the beginning of 2011, the authoritarian government in Tunisia was removed from power after a series of demonstrations. Following this central revolution, affiliate revolutions happened in other Arab states like Egypt and Yemen.

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 160699



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The Absence of Nationalism during the Arab Spring

Jason Cooley

I. INTRODUCTION

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While this latest revolutionary wave has been in progress, it has become quite apparent that a key difference exists between it and prior waves. During preceding waves, dissidents often did not continue their campaigns for political change when their beloved countries were subjected to military attacks from abroad. Instead, they elected to assist the governments that were in the process of fighting against other nations. In the unstable Arab nations that have encountered attacks since 2011, this same patriotism has not been prevalent. Within the remainder of this article, this important change will be examined in greater detail. Inside the next section, we will look at the evolving political landscapes in two nations that experienced military attacks at the time of the communist revolutionary wave in the twentieth century. Once these analyses are completed, we will turn our attention to the static environments in two volatile Arab countries that have been forced to deal with military operations by outside parties over the past few years.

II. The Presence of Nationalism in Hungary and China

In the preceding section, attention was paid to how the first revolutionary wave of the twenty-first century began with the Tunisian upheaval in 2011. In

order to find the genesis of the communist wave from the twentieth century, one has to look closely at the latter portion of 1917. At this point in time, V.I. Lenin and other ardent communists seized power in Russia. In the immediate aftermath of this historic upheaval, these men started to concentrate on engineering affiliate revolutions abroad. They were interested in generating political change in other states for two reasons. First of all, it was believed that additional proletariat revolutions would allow the workers in other countries to escape from the hardships associated with the capitalist system. Secondly, the surfacing of other communist regimes would prevent the recently formed Soviet Union from being surrounded by capitalist states. Various quotations indicate there was a general fear that such an arrangement would lead to the extinction of this nation. For example, on one occasion, Lenin said that his country would not last without "the mighty support of the insurrectionary workers of other countries."2

It should be noted that other leaders have displayed a concern about living standards abroad and encirclement in the aftermath of central revolutions. Once the French monarchy was toppled in the late 1700s, the new leaders of France elected to send numerous troops throughout Europe to replace other monarchies with republican governments. These officials were hopeful that these overt ideological interventions would ameliorate the living conditions for individuals who were being mistreated by these monarchies. In addition to this, they were looking to alter the power structure that was present in the world. If these monarchies remained in place, the new government in France would be isolated because of the ideological differences that existed between it and the monarchies.³ On the other hand, if the monarchies were toppled, Paris would not have to fret about the issue of isolation. France experienced various setbacks as it conducted these operations to remove the monarchies from power, but new republican governments did surface within some countries.⁴ When these other regime changes transpired, France began to move

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¹ Mark Katz, *Revolutions and Revolutionary Waves*, New York: Palgrave MacMillan, 1997, pp.25-26.

 $^{^{\}rm 2}$ V.I. Lenin, Collected Works, Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1970, p.187.

³ Stephen Walt, Revolution and War, Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1996, pp.46-47.

⁴ Kyung-Won Kim, Revolution and International System, New York: New York University Press, 1970, p.45.

away from its uncomfortable position in the international system.

Multiple communist rebellions did not transpire in the immediate aftermath of the Russian Revolution. Instead, there was only one insurrection that occurred during this time frame. In the early portion of 1919, most of the individuals in Hungary were having a difficult time finding suitable employment. As one might expect, this widespread unemployment was leading to other problems within this nation, including a lack of food.⁵ Count Michael Karolyi, the leader of Hungary, kept insisting that he possessed the ability to eliminate these problems, but the majority of the citizenry elected to abandon him and support a contingent of communists that was attempting to establish a new government. When Karolyi's regime was finally toppled, Bela Kun, a figure with strong ties to Moscow, assumed control of Hungary.

After the transfer of power, the suffering in Hungary just continued. Consequently, Kun was put in the same unenviable position as his predecessor. In other words, he began to come across dissidents who were calling for his removal from office. Within Political Order in Changing Societies, Samuel Huntington notes how maligned politicians often try to eschew this turn of events by implementing reforms. According to this prominent political scientist, reforms can be made on the domestic level by utilizing the blitzkrieg approach or the Fabian approach. The former entails a leader making all of his reforms at once.⁶ One individual who utilized this approach was Kuang Hsu, the leader of China from 1875 to 1908. Between the months of June and September in 1898, Hsu implemented major cultural, political, and educational reforms that he believed would improve Chinese society. If reforms are made on multiple occasions, it can be said that the Fabian approach is being used.⁷ This approach was actually utilized inside the Holy Roman Empire during the Protestant Reformation. In the middle of the 1500s, the Peace of Augsburg mollified many Lutherans within the Holy Roman Empire since it declared that Lutheranism could be worshipped in provinces if the princes, who were running them, were Lutheran. This agreement was obviously a step in the right direction, but it possessed one major flaw, which was how it did not recognize the other Protestant denominations as legitimate religions. During the following century, certain measures gave these sects equal status. For example, in 1648, the Peace of Westphalia allowed Calvinists to worship freely in the Holy Roman Empire.⁸

As the political pressure against the communist government in Hungary was increasing, Kun did not set forth a series of reforms all at once like Kuang Hsu did in the summer of 1898 or announce that he planned to make reforms on multiple occasions as leaders in the Holy Roman Empire did in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Instead, he attempted to remain in power by deliberately drifting into a war with Romania.⁹ When a military conflict did commence, Romanian forces quickly moved to within the outskirts of Budapest. The members of the Romanian military would have been able to seize control of the Hungarian capital if a particular development did not transpire during the latter stages of April. At this juncture, a lot of dissidents began to enlist in the Hungarian military. This increase in soldiers enabled Hungarian officials to assemble four new divisions in a rapid fashion.¹⁰ These divisions went on to participate in a military campaign that pushed the Romanians past the Theiss, a major river that runs to the east of Budapest. In the aftermath of a successful campaign, an army usually sees a rise in membership. However, the Hungarian military actually lost numerous members in the aftermath of this victory.¹¹ Once these desertions started to occur, the Hungarians were defeated in the remaining battles of the war and Kun opted to resign from office.

The material towards the end of the preceding paragraph shows how several soldiers left the Hungarian military. Still, it does not shed any light on why they did not continue to stand behind Kun. If a book by the scholar Franz Borkenau is taken into consideration, it will be possible for us to realize why these individuals behaved in this fashion. In the middle portion of the twentieth century, Borkenau produced a study entitled World Communism: A History of the Communist International. At one point in this publication, he devotes some attention to the Hungarian war effort against the Romanians. During this discussion, he notes how the majority of the desertions transpired because Kun failed to ameliorate the living conditions within Hungary following the aforementioned triumph against the Romanians.¹²

Around the time that the war between the Hungarians and the Romanians was taking place, new communist parties were in the process of being established in other nations. The majority of these parties were surfacing in the Western world, but some parties were also starting to be seen in non-Western countries such as China. Towards the end of the 1920s, the members of the Chinese Communist Party were repeatedly unable to take control of various locations

⁵ Franz Borkenau, World Communism: A History of the Communist International, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1962, p.113.

⁶ Samuel Huntington, Political Order in Changing Societies, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1968, p.346. ⁷ Ibid

⁸ Daniel Philpott, Revolutions in Sovereignty, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2001, p.88.

⁹ Borkenau, p.122.

¹⁰ lbid., p.123.

¹¹ lbid., p.131.

¹² Ibid., p.126.

inside their homeland.¹³ On some occasions, failure came about because the Communists could not secure enough popular support. One place where the Communists did not manage to attract a sufficient amount of followers was the city of Canton. In December 1927, Communist forces were confident that disenchanted workers would help them seize power in this urban area. However, once the uprising commenced, the laborers refrained from providing these fighters with any meaningful assistance.

If the members of the Communist Party encountered failure in a location where enough sympathizers were present, it was usually because they were overpowered by the National Republican Army, an organization that was in the process of backing out of an alliance with them. One of the most famous displays of Nationalist strength could be seen during the spring of 1927. At this time, Communist forces embarked on a campaign to acquire Shanghai. On March 21st, they were able to seize control of this city that is situated in the southeastern portion of China. In the immediate aftermath of this breakthrough, the Communists proceeded to organize a provisional government. The members of this regime never had an opportunity to make important economic and social changes since individuals from the National Republican Army removed them from power during the month of April. Chaing Kai-Shek, the leader of the National Republican Army, eventually asked Wu Zhihui to be the new ruler of Shanghai.

After the split between the Communists and Nationalists was completed, several Western nations started to refer to Kai-Shek as the true representative of the Chinese people. It is quite common for countries to provide a particular figure with various forms of assistance if they have identified him as a legitimate ruler of a nation. When Western states recognized Kai-Shek as the real leader of China, they predominately sent military aid to the Far East.¹⁴ This assistance proved to be of great benefit to Kai-Shek's forces in their future offensives against the Communists. The majority of these operations did not transpire in urban areas such as Shanghai. Instead, they took place in hamlets throughout the Chinese countryside.

If one wants to understand why the village became the site of most Nationalist campaigns, one has to look at a crucial change that was made by the Communists. Following the Russian Revolution, a serious debate occurred between the leading Communist figures in the world about how uprisings should be conducted in other nations. The Bolsheviks were of the opinion that future insurrections should unfold in the same fashion as the one in Russia. In other words, small contingents of intellectuals should be assembled to help disgruntled laborers topple unappealing regimes.¹⁵ There were communists in Europe who believed that workers were capable of generating political change without these vanguards. It is quite clear that the Bolsheviks were triumphant in this debate with the Europeans. After all, earlier in this section, we saw how operatives from the Chinese Communist Party attempted to spread communism by mobilizing the oppressed laborers in cities like Canton. After the failures of 1927, the party began to concentrate on mobilizing the members of the Chinese peasantry. In 1929, members of the party managed to establish a stronghold in Chalin, a village in southern Kiangsi.¹⁶ During later years, operatives also became quite active in eastern Honan, northern Szechuan and northern Shensi.¹⁷

Towards the beginning of the 1930s, all of these rural areas were targeted by the Nationalists. However, the Communists, who were situated in southern Kiangsi, were subjected to far more offensives than the ones in eastern Honan, northern Szechuan, and northern Shensi. When these attacks transpired, the Communists would fight against government troops for a period of time. But once injuries and deaths started to increase, they were forced to move to safer locations. The most famous Communist relocation campaign took place in the fall of 1934. At this juncture, 90,000 Communists left Kiangsi to escape from Nationalist soldiers.¹⁸ By the time this "Long March" concluded in Shensi, there were only 20,000 individuals remaining.¹⁹

government These attacks against the Communists eventually came to an end because Kai-Shek became preoccupied with a Japanes occupation. As the amount of Japanese soldiers on Chinese territory increased, there were various indications that the Communists were starting to assist Kai-Shek with his national liberation campaign. During 1936, communist operatives spread propaganda that encouraged citizens to participate in the resistance against the Japanese.²⁰ While the following year was in progress, a contingent of communist forces was integrated into the Chinese military. It did not take very long for the members of this unit to encounter success on the battlefield. In September 1937, they defeated a Japanese battalion in a battle at Pinghsingkwan, a village that is located in North Shensi.²¹

Earlier in this section, it was noted how the dissidents in Hungary were also involved in a successful

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¹³ Fernando Claudin, The Communist Movement: from Comintern to Cominform, New York: Monthly Review Press, 1975, p.283.

¹⁴ Borkenau, p.327.

¹⁵ Ibid., p.45.

¹⁶ Ibid., p.323.

¹⁷ Ibid., p.324.

¹⁸ Barbara Tuchman, Stillwell and the American Experience in China, 1911-45, New York: Grove Press, 1985, p.141.

¹⁹ Borkenau, p.330.

²⁰ Tuchman, p.157.

²¹ Ibid., p.168.

campaign during the early stages of the war against Romania. One might recall how a lot of these individuals left the Hungarian military in the immediate aftermath of this campaign. The communist rebels in China did not behave in the same fashion following their triumph at Pinghsingkwan. Instead, they went on to fight against the Japanese on several other occasions in the future. This dedication enabled the Communists to receive compliments from a number of figures from outside of China. For example, throughout 1938, Evans F. Carlson, a Brigadier General in the United States Military, praised the communist soldiers during various interviews with reporters.²²

Before we turn our attention to the Arab Spring, an explanation should be provided for why the Communists remained so committed to the campaign against the Japanese. The conduct of the Hungarian dissidents demonstrated that some believe political change can still be generated when a war with another nation is taking place. There are others who insist that a successful upheaval cannot transpire until after a conflict ends. Multiple statements indicate that the Communists in China supported this alternative perspective. During 1936, an interview with Mao Tse-Tung, the leader of the Chinese Communists, appeared in the China Weekly Review. At one point, he said the following: "For a people being deprived of its freedom, the revolutionary task is not immediate Socialism but the struggle for independence. We cannot even discuss Communism if we are robbed of a country in which to practice it."23

III. A Lack of Nationalism in Libya and Syria

The last section commenced with a discussion about how the communist revolutionary wave of the twentieth century originated. This section does not have to start in the same fashion since it was already established that the first revolutionary wave of the twenty-first century began with the toppling of the government in Tunisia during the early stages of 2011. Later in 2011, more political unrest surfaced within Libya. The disenchanted citizens inside this country wanted to overthrow Moammar Gadhafi, a tyrant who had been in power since the late 1960s. However, most of them did not attempt to generate political change like the dissidents in Tunisia. In other words, they did not participate in a number of protests over a period of time. Instead, they elected to detonate explosives and engage in gun battles against soldiers aligned with the Gadhafi regime.

While this insurgency was in progress, various international leaders became concerned about the

treatment of innocent civilians inside Libya.²⁴ Among them was Barack Obama, the forty-fourth President of the United States. Obama eventually tried to protect these individuals by having the American military set up a no-fly zone in Libya. It should be noted that the United States received valuable assistance from the United Kingdom, France, and Qatar as the no-fly zone was being constructed. The main responsibility of these nations was dropping bombs on military equipment that was being used by troops in the Libyan military. Shortly after the no-fly zone was established, the European countries assumed the task of preserving it from the United States. This leadership change enabled President Obama to drastically decrease American involvement in the Libyan air campaign. In fact, by the middle part of 2011, American participation in this initiative was limited to providing refueling and surveillance for the European planes that were maintaining the no-fly zone.²⁵ These forms of assistance were just required for a little while because European flights ceased later in 2011.

Before this military operation transpired, Gadhafi spoke to a Turkish reporter about how it would be received by the Libyan people. While this interview was in progress, he stated that "the Libyan people will see the truth, that what they want is to take control of Libya and to steal their oil."26 He also predicted that citizens would "take up arms against" the United States and its allies.²⁷ If the conduct of the aforementioned rebels during the operation is taken into account, it will become guite apparent that Gadhafi turned out to be incorrect. Once this operation commenced, these fighters did not halt their insurgency like the Hungarian dissidents and Chinese Communists did when outside parties used coercion in their respective nations. Instead, they elected to continue fighting for political change. As the campaign against Gadhafi continued, the rebels actually began to receive assistance from some of the nations that were establishing the no-fly zone. For example, the United States sent weapons and other forms of support to these individuals.²⁸

When Gadhafi's government was finally toppled, it became possible for the members of the Libyan opposition to devote the majority of their attention to the formation of a new government. Not surprisingly, they wanted to create a democracy that would be much more respectful of human rights. In the last section, Samuel Huntington's Political Order in Changing Societies was taken into consideration. Later

²² Ibid., p.189.

²³ Mao Tse-Tung, Comments Made in an Interview that Appeared in *The China Weekly Review*, 1936.

²⁴ United Nations, Security Council Resolution 1973, 2011.

²⁵ Charlie Savage and Mark Landler, "White House Defends Continuing U.S. Role in Libya," *The New York Times,* June 15, 2011.

²⁶ Moammar Gadhafi, Comments Made during an Interview with a Turkish Reporter, 2011.

²⁷lbid.

²⁸ Mark Mazzetti and Eric Schmitt, "CIA Personnel Operating in Libya, Officials Say," *The New York Times*, March 30, 2011.

in the twentieth century, this analyst wrote another book called The Third Wave: Democratization in the Late Twentieth Century. At one point in this publication, he mentions how there are multiple developments that suggest a country is in the process of making a transition from authoritarian to democratic governance, including citizens being given the opportunity to participate in nationwide elections for the first time.²⁹ The first nationwide elections occurred within Libya in July 2012. During this month, the National Forces Alliance was selected by citizens to lead the Libyan parliament.

A popular uprising also commenced in Syria during 2011. Initially, it seemed as if this upheaval was going to resemble the one in Tunisia since numerous citizens participated in protests that were designed to bring down the government of Bashar al-Assad. However, once more time elapsed, it began to look like the Libyan rebellion because bombings and gun battles became more prevalent in Syria. This violent movement became a lot more formidable in the spring of 2011. At this time, Syrian security forces detained a thirteen yearold boy named Hamaz al-Khatib. While al-Khatib was in custody, he was beaten to death by his captors. After pictures of al-Khatib's mutilated and disfigured corpse were posted on a popular internet site named YouTube, numerous citizens started to volunteer for acts of violence.

Outside Syria, representatives of other countries often scrutinized al-Assad for mistreating citizens. Some of the harshest comments came from officials in Western nations. The leaders of Great Britain, Germany, and France even released a joint statement that encouraged al-Assad to resign since there had been a "complete rejection of his regime by the Syrian people."³⁰ Western politicians were calling for al-Assad's removal, but they did not appear to be willing to conduct a military operation within Syria. It was widely believed that leaders such as Barack Obama were reluctant to embark upon another mission in the Arab World since there was no United Nations Security Council Resolution endorsing this course of action. Usually, a measure does not come out of a body in the political realm because a majority elects to cast dissenting votes during a voting session. However, there are also times when a minority can keep a measure from surfacing. One domestic level body where minorities have thrived is the United States Senate. The filibuster has made it possible for small groups in this body to defeat measures on more than one occasion. For instance, in the spring of 2008, a contingent, which was led by

Kentucky Senator Mitch McConnell, used this procedure to defeat a bill that would have provided tax incentives for energy production and conservation. It can be said that the United Nations Security Council is the international equivalent of the American Senate. After all, a veto power allows the five permanent members of this body to defeat any resolution. During 2011, no member of the Security Council presented a resolution sanctioning the utilization of force in Syria because Russian and Chinese vetoes were expected. Such a development was deemed to be inevitable since these nations were closely aligned with al-Assad's regime.

Western nations were not willing to intervene in Syria while the uprising was in progress. However, there was a Middle Eastern nation that chose to conduct attacks at this juncture. Prior to the insurgency, Syria had been subjected to multiple Israeli acts of aggression. In the spring of 1967, Israeli jets shot down six Syrian planes over territory that was controlled by Damascus.³¹ This incident led to the commencement of a brief war between Israel and several Arab nations. By the end of this conflict, Israel was in possession of the Golan Heights, a piece of land that had belonged to the Syrian government for many years. Syrian personnel tried to regain the Golan Heights in the fall of 1973, but it remained in Israeli hands in the aftermath of this military campaign.

As one examines subsequent Israeli attacks against Syria, one begins to recognize that Israeli officials eventually became less interested in seizing Svrian territory. Towards the end of 2007, they attempted to halt a Syrian effort to develop weapons of mass destruction by carrying out an airstrike on a nuclear reactor. During the second year of the insurgency against al-Assad, Israeli planes dropped bombs on Syrian territory once again. Representatives of the Israeli government claimed that these attacks were necessary because the al-Assad regime was sending military equipment to Hezbollah, an extremist group in Lebanon that had attacked Israel on several occasions in the past.³² While Israeli officials were insisting that coercion was justified, the members of the al-Assad regime were making predictions about how the Syrian people would respond to this aggression. The majority of these individuals were confident that citizens would choose to participate in a resistance effort against Israel.33

Syrian citizens did not develop a strong desire to partake in an armed resistance against the Israelis, but the ones, who had been attempting to bring down al-Assad's regime prior to the airstrikes, continued to

²⁹ Samuel Huntington, *The Third Wave: Democratization in the Late Twentieth Century*, Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991, p.125.

³⁰ David Cameron, Angela Merkel, and Nicholas Sarkozy, Joint Statement about the Situation in Syria, 2011.

³¹ Adeed Dawisha, *Arab Nationalism in the Twentieth Century,* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2003, p.250.

³² Jodi Rudoren, "Israel Finding Itself Drawn Into Syria's Turmoil," *The New York Times*, May 22, 2013.

³³ Anne Barnard and Neil MacFarquhar, "Assad Warns Israel, Claiming a Stockpile of Russian Weapons," *The New York Times*, May 30, 2013.

fight for political change. This conduct obviously makes the Syrian rebels similar to the revolutionaries in Libya. After all, the Libyan dissidents also kept trying to alter the status quo once countries like the United States started to drop bombs on their homeland. Although the Syrian and Libyan rebels behaved in the same fashion in the aftermath of outside intervention, there is a key difference that can be found between them. Within the preceding pages, we learned that the Libyan fighters managed to overthrow the Gadfhafi regime shortly after the allied bombing campaign commenced. The Israeli bombing raids within Syria did not set the stage for the Syrian overthrow of al-Assad. Instead, the revolutionaries encountered a series of unappealing developments following the Israeli intervention. A rather important one was the loss of Qusayr, a city that is located near a major Syrian highway.³⁴ Once this urban area fell in the spring of 2013, it became much easier for al-Assad's forces to move military equipment and supplies throughout Syria.

If the Syrian rebels had been able to topple the al-Assad regime shortly after the Israeli intervention, the new government probably would have resembled the one that was erected in post-Gadhafi Libya. It is appropriate to presume that a democracy would have appeared in Syria because opposition members exhibited an affinity for this form of governance before the Israeli bombing raids commenced. In 2012, various opposition figures met abroad to discuss Syria's future. From different comments that were made to the press, it can be gathered that these participants thought Syrian citizens should be provided with the rights that are enjoyed by others in democratic countries. For instance, Mouaz al-Khatib stated that: "We demand freedom for every Sunni, Alawi, Ismaili (Shi'ite), Christian, Druze, Assyrian...and rights for all parts of the harmonious Syrian people."35

IV. Conclusion

Individuals would prefer to see the entities that they construct remain potent, but most begin to decline after a while. In recent years, analysts in the field of international relations have been insisting that states are in the process of declining. A lot of these figures have attempted to bolster this argument by pointing out how states do not appear to be as determined to uphold their sovereignty as they used to be. While previous centuries were in progress, most nations were reluctant to join international organizations because they feared that these bodies would infringe upon their sovereignty. However, during the early stages of the twenty-first century, the majority of the countries throughout the globe do not seem to have any qualms about joining international institutions. In fact, some of them have worked assiduously to be accepted into certain organizations. For instance, the leaders of Turkey have been trying to gain entry into the European Union for several years.

The decline of nations can also be noticed while looking at the actions of individuals who want to acquire power. In the preceding pages, the Hungarian and Chinese cases showed how campaigns for political change were often suspended during prior centuries when outside actors intervened militarily in unstable countries. These pauses transpired because the dissidents wanted to participate in resistance efforts, which were designed to defeat the parties that were responsible for the interventions. During the first revolutionary wave of the twenty-first century, other military interventions have taken place in volatile nations such as Libya and Syria. However, these interventions have not prompted Libyan and Syrian dissidents to join national liberation movements. Instead, as we saw in the last section, these individuals have elected to continue their struggles against oppressive regimes. Since the rebels in these nations have behaved in this fashion, it is appropriate to conclude that they are not patriotic like the dissidents who were involved in earlier revolutionary waves.

³⁴ Frederik Pleitgen, "Returning to Smoldering Ruins of Recaptured Syrian Town," CNN, June 21, 2013.

³⁵ Mouiz Al-Khatib, Comments Made About Syria during a Press Conference, 2012.



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Markets in the Light of Political-Economic Actors and Democracy. Reconsidering Conceptual Framework for Sustainability Politics

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Abstract- The conceptual framework of neoclassical economics has been quite stable over the years while present challenges point in the direction of a need for new thinking and a new conceptual framework. Neoclassical economics is more or less blind to equality issues and not enough to deal constructively with present unsustainable trends. I will suggest important elements of such a new conceptual framework as part of a pluralistic understanding of economics.

When compared with neoclassical economics, the political dimension is emphasized thus making democracy a fundamental principle for relationships in markets and in society at large. A political economics is suggested where individuals are understood as political economic persons and organizations as political economic organizations. This leads to a different understanding of markets from that of neoclassical supply and demand. The ethics and responsibilities of market actors in a democratic society is considered relevant and something to be investigated for purposes of sustainability politics. Approaches to decisionmaking are also discussed. Emphasis on democracy suggests a different approach from that of neoclassical Cost- Benefit analysis (CBA).

Keywords: political economy, political economic person, political economic organization, ideological orientation, mission, market models, positional analysis (PA), sustainability politics.

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 349901

MARKETSIN THE LIGHT OF POLITICALE CONDMICACTORS AND DEMOCRACY RECONSIDER IN GCONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABILITY POLITICS

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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I. INTRODUCTION

dam Smith and other classical economists referred to their discipline as 'political economics'. From 1870 onwards, a majority of economists have instead referred to the subject as 'economics'. An attempt was made to separate economics as science from the political sphere. The idea was to make economics objective, value-free and comparable to natural sciences such as physics.¹ Economists looked for laws that preferably could be formulated as equations in mathematical terms to be tested empirically.

Something has certainly been achieved by neoclassical economists over the years and their school of thought has something to offer as part of a pluralistic philosophy where also competing theoretical perspectives are considered and respected. But some of us economists regard it as a mistake to abandon the term 'political economics'. In our discipline we should be conscious about how value issues and ideology is influencing our work and recognize that the idea of value neutrality and a pure economics is an illusion. Gunnar Myrdal who saw himself as an institutional economist argued that "values are always with us" as economists in research and education (1978, p. 778). In the language I prefer, economics is science and at the same time ideology; values and ideology is always present in our work as educators and researchers. 'Ideology' here stands for 'means-ends philosophy' i.e. a kind of compass guiding thinking as well as behavior. It is about where you are (present position), where you want to go (future positions) and how to get there (strategies). Ideology is not a mathematical objective function to be optimized but rather fragmentary and uncertain. It is still useful in guiding an actor's thought and action.

In this paper I will point to the tension between technocracy and democracy in economics. Moving from Economic Man to Political Economic Person is a way of opening the door for a more conscious approach to value issues in economics. Actually, recognizing the political element in economics will lead to a theoretical perspective that differs systematically from neoclassical theory. Our understanding of individuals, organizations, markets, decision making, the political-economic system and institutional change will be influenced. Also policy issues relating to environment and development will be seen in a new light (at least when compared to the insights offered by neoclassical theory). But first an attempt to recall our starting point in neoclassical theory.

a) Essential Features of Mainstream Neoclassical Economics

At university departments of economics, research and education is based upon neoclassical theory. These days it appears justified speak of a monopoly position for neoclassical theory. Since the early 1960s when Paul Samuelson's textbook *Economics* became popular we have witnessed a far-

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 $^{^{1}\}mbox{This}$ is what some of us call the 'physics envy' aspect of neoclassical economics.

reaching standardization of the neoclassical message in textbooks. Today, other textbooks with a similar content dominate the market. In Sweden Klas Eklund *Vår ekonomi* (2007) and internationally N. Gregory Mankiw's *Principles of Economics* (2008)² are examples of this homogenization. Neoclassical economists are eagerly protecting this monopoly. But they are not alone in this effort to avoid competing theoretical perspectives in economics. Mainstream economics and mainstream politics tend to be closely related, suggesting that many establishment actors embrace neoclassical theory for conceptual and ideological reasons.

What are the essential features of neoclassical economic theory? For our present purposes I suggest five interrelated features of mainstream neoclassical economics:

- 1. Focus on markets for commodities and factors of production
- 2. Markets are understood in mechanistic terms as an interplay between the forces of supply and demand
- 3. There is a focus on the monetary dimension. All factors and impacts are reduced to the monetary dimension by using prices as part of a trade-off philosophy
- 4. Assumptions about the behavior of market actors in the economy emphasize self-interest (as in the case of consumers) or are otherwise narrow (as in the case of the profit-maximizing firm). Issues related to ethics or ideology are largely avoided
- 5. When engaged in analysis or policy advice, neoclassical economists regard themselves as experts of a rather technocratic kind. The fact that our societies claim to respect normal imperatives of democracy is downplayed or neglected.

Monetary and financial aspects are at the heart of the neoclassical approach. The ambition is to move analysis in a quantitative and one-dimensional direction thereby opening the door for simple equations and calculation in mathematical terms. It is argued that "people know about markets and money" and that "everything has a price" in monetary terms. From this we get national accounting in GDP-terms, business accounting with focus on monetary profits and Cost-Benefit analysis (CBA) based on actual market prices (or a kind of hypothetical prices). One impact expressed in monetary terms can be 'traded' against - and offset by other impacts as part of one-dimensional calculation. This approach is of course attractive in some ways. Complex issues are reduced to simple figures in money terms. We may refer to at least two kinds of reductionism 'monetary reductionism' and 'ethical/ ideological reductionism'.

There are many problems with the neoclassical approach in this part. Present challenges in our societies are largely non-monetary in kind, suggesting that we need careful measurement in non-monetary dimensions. The challenges are also a matter of ethics/ideology in the sense that some citizens and social movements question mainstream ideological orientation. Even establishment actors may be divided and uncertain in their ideological orientations. This is so for the present dialogue about sustainable development or in relation to new demands on business corporations discussed in terms of Environmental Management Systems (EMS) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for example.

b) Political economic person and political economic organization assumptions

Neoclassical economists study various aspects of what they refer to as the 'economy' or the 'economic system'. This refers to the interactions of households and firms in markets for commodities and factors of production with the state in a role as regulator. Politics and democracy are then peripheral considerations connected with other disciplines and other parts of society. This reductionism where politics is separated from economics as much as possible of course plays an ideological role. Our present perspective suggests that reference should instead be made to a 'political economy' and 'political economic system'. The market is embedded in a democratic society (or in some cases in a dictatorship). In the constitutions of many countries, the primacy of democracy over market is declared. This is so for Sweden, other countries in the European Union and the EU itself. The imperatives of democracy are considered fundamental for a functioning society in the political sphere and this political sphere is not limited to the election of members of parliaments. While we may describe certain countries as relatively well functioning democracies, democracy is always threatened by groups aiming at monopolistic power in segments of society or society at large. As we all know there are countries where power is in the hands of the few. This is called dictatorship.

What does the primacy of democracy over market mean for our present discussion about conceptual and policy issues? One first step is to understand that we cannot be content with a view of individuals exclusively related to markets. Economic Man has to be replaced by a political economic person (PEP). It is an individual with many kinds of roles and relationships. The individual is a citizen who relates directly to our democracy perspective but perhaps also a parent, a professional, a member of a social movement etc. In her thinking and action, as part of all these roles, relationships and connected contexts, the individual is an actor guided by her'ideological orientation'. As we all know, politicians and political

² While 'democracy' is a main theme in this article it may be noted that this word is absent from the subject index of Eklund's as well as Mankiw's textbook.

parties discuss various issues in terms of ideologies that they support or dislike and members of the electorate are expected to listen to them and to think in similar terms. In a democracy, ideally all individuals should furthermore be responsible persons concerned about politics and ideology. Ideology or rather ideological orientation is therefore a concept that can be applied also to individuals. This ideological orientation is certainly not a mathematical objective function to be optimized. Qualitative, quantitative as well as visual elements are involved. It is rather fragmentary, uncertain, even contradictory and divided, but still useful in guiding action. Self-interest is involved (and more so for some individuals) but also the interests of others. Our individual wants to be accepted in specific social contexts, for example among market actors to whom he or she is related. Reference to ideological orientation is thus a way of bringing in issues of ethics and responsibility in a larger context.³ The title of the Brundtland report Our Common Future (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) is a reminder of this. Human rights and the rights connected with democracy are part of this and they refer to all members of a society. Here we are far from the exclusive focus on self-interest as part of Economic Man assumptions.

The organization considered only in neoclassical microeconomic theory is the firm and the firm is assumed to maximize monetary profits (in the interest of shareholders). Here again something more and different is needed. A political economic organization (PEO) is suggested i.e. an actor guided by its ideological orientation or mission. The debates about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), Environmental Management System (EMS), Fair Trade and similar issues become meaningful as part of an organization's mission. Not only organizations that can be understood as firms are part of the political economy but also universities, Greenpeace and other environmental organizations, churches PEOs are for whom responsibility issues can be discussed. Are universities (compare University Social Responsibility, USR) always acting in a responsible way?

A political economic organization is understood as polycentric and complex with many individuals involved, each with her ideological orientation. While there are common interests connected with the mission, also tensions normally exist between individuals and groups, tensions that often are good for a creative dialogue while being difficult to handle in other cases. Politics and democracy is clearly relevant also within the organization and not only in relation to the external society.

c) Decision-making and efficiency in a democratic society

Part of human thought processes and behavior patterns is habitual while another part is a matter of conscious choice between alternatives. Decisions are somehow involved also when habits are initiated and become established. At issue is now how one can think of decision-making in a democratic society. Once more the concept of ideological orientation comes to the fore.

In Figure 1, decision-making is understood in terms of a 'matching' process between on the one hand an actor's ideological orientation and on the other hand expected impact profiles of each alternative considered. Decision-making is closely connected with search processes which may modify or change not only the set of alternatives considered with expected impacts of each alternative but also the guiding principle in terms of ideological orientation. The ideological orientation of an actor then is not given from the beginning but may be reconsidered as part of the search process. The actor as decision-maker is looking for a good fit between her ideological orientation and specific alternatives. Instead of thinking in terms of 'matching', the actor as decisionmaker can consider 'compatibility' between ideology and alternatives, look for 'appropriate' alternatives or think in terms of 'pattern recognition'. Desired patterns are then compared with available patterns in terms of alternatives with their impacts.



Figure 1: Decision-making understood as a matching process between an actor's ideological orientation and the impact profile of specific alternatives considered (Source: Söderbaum 2000, p.41)

Neoclassical economists often argue in efficiency terms suggesting that one alternative in a decision situation in an objective sense is more efficient than another. Reference is made to neoclassical theory and method and the whole thing is looked upon as a matter of expertness. It can also be described as technocracy as opposed to democracy. Cost-Benefit analysis (CBA), for example, is used at the societal level to estimate the monetary present value (or Benefit-Cost ratio) of each alternative considered and to rank alternatives in a clear-cut way. A kind of societal monetary profitability analysis is carried out. But to compare different alternatives and arrive at one alternative as the best from the point of view of efficient

³ It should be noted that the word 'ideology' is often used negatively in the US context as 'simplistic fundamentalism'.One example of such use of the term is John Ralston Saul's (otherwise excellent) book *The Unconscious Civilization* (1995). In Europe 'ideology' appears to be used mainly in a broader sense to include also positive patterns of ideas. Means-end relationships that represent compromise are considered to be as ideological as extreme positions.

resource allocation one has to refer to specific values or a specific objective function. It has to be assumed that there is consensus in society about the values or ideology built into the objective function.

In the case of neoclassical CBA, impacts are valued in terms of actual (or hypothetical) market prices. Today, it is, or should be, accepted that there is no consensus about market valuation and the prices to be applied. How relevant are present market prices if one is concerned about impacts on future generations? There is no consensus about a focus on markets when approaching issues related to sustainable development, for example. Ezra Mishan, himself a textbook writer on CBA (1971) later (1980) admitted that for CBA to be applied there is a need for a consensus about the rules of valuation that go into the method. He then added that clear differences of opinion in relation to environmental issues make it unrealistic to expect such a consensus. A Norwegian economist, Leif Johansen, at an early stage identified the values that go into CBA as a "net-value added" or GDP-growth ideology (Johansen, 1977). Today we know that a simplistic pursuit of GDP-growth is controversial, to say the least. It clearly differs from some interpretations of sustainable development.

d) Positional Analysis as a way of illuminating an issue

Having rejected CBA as not compatible with democracy one has to look for an approach that better 'matches' the imperatives of democracy. I suggest that Positional Analysis (PA) is such a method. PA starts from the recognition that actors, stakeholders, politicians differ with respect to ideological orientation and that such differences should be respected in the analysis. Rather than 'solving' the problem in a technocratic sense, the idea is to 'illuminate' an issue while dealing systematically with essential features of its complexity. A limited number of ideological orientations. perhaps three or four, are identified and articulated as being relevant among decision makers and other actors concerned. Any conclusions then become conditional in relation to each ideological orientation. For ideological orientation A, the alternatives considered are ranked in one way while ideological orientation B suggests a different ranking. Specific decision makers may hold an ideological orientation that is not directly represented among those considered in the analysis but the analysis carried out is hopefully still of value for them (compared to a CBA study, for example).

It is not possible here to go through all the parts of PA (see Söderbaum 2000, 2008). The main idea is however to *illuminate* an issue in a multi-facetted and multidimensional way through dialogue with those affected and concerned. Alternatives are identified, expected impacts are described keeping monetary and non-monetary impacts separate and conflicts of interest are identified. Ideally, decision makers should know before they are making a specific decision what they are doing, for example possible irreversible impacts in nonmonetary terms. They should be encouraged to not only consider directly affected interests but also how alternatives match their ideological orientation in a broad sense. Is a specific alternative compatible with sustainable development defined in some way? If sustainable development is accepted as a goal at the UN or global level, in the EU or nationally then this consideration has to be brought into local decision making as well.

Only one more feature of positional analysis will here be commented upon. Non-monetary indicators and impacts are considered equally 'economic' as monetary ones. Impacts do not become 'more economic' by putting a price in monetary terms on them. In this way 'economic analysis' gets a new meaning where disaggregation is preferred. In Table 1, a distinction is made between monetary and non-monetary impacts and another distinction between flows and positions. A flow refers to a period of time while a position (or state) refers to a point in time. GDP exemplifies a monetary flow ('a' in Table 1) while the assets and debts of a business corporation exemplify monetary positions ('b'). Pollution from a factory can be expressed as nonmonetary flows ('c') and the state of an ecosystem at a point in time is a non-monetary position ('d').

Table 1 : A classification of indicators and impacts in
economic analysis

	Flow (referring to period of time)	Position (referring to point in time)
Monetary	'a'	'b'
Non- monetary	'С'	ʻd'

Positional thinking in non-monetary terms is judged essential to incorporate inertia, path dependence, commitments, lock-in effects and irreversibility into the analysis. Building a new road on agricultural land is an irreversible change that can be illustrated in positional terms. For each piece of land affected, expected changes in use and future options can be illustrated and the mentioned aspects of inertia discussed. As part of Positional Analysis, decision trees in positional terms can be used to illustrate how first stage alternatives and moves will have different impacts upon future positions and options (Söderbaum 2000, pp. 93-97). This kind of decision-trees differ from decision-trees as part of conventional game theory where impacts are illustrated in terms of 'pay-offs' (rather than changes in non-monetary and monetary positions).

II. Costs and Benefits in New Light

From the point of view of one actor (or party) with her ideological orientation it is meaningful to speak of 'costs' and 'benefits' in relation to a decision situation.

Such costs (benefits) may be monetary or non-monetary in kind (Table 2). They may be expressed in quantitative, qualitative or visual terms. The idea of handling all impacts in monetary terms is abandoned in favor of a more complex conception of costs and benefits. Multidimensionality, uncertainty, even ignorance and the recognition of conflicting ideological orientations opens the door not only for quantitative measurement but also for subjective judgment.

Table 2 : A classification of costs and benefits for purposes of economic analysis

	Cost	Benefit
Monetary	'e'	'f'
Non-monetary	ʻg'	'h'

Non-monetary costs are as 'real' (or perhaps 'more real') as monetary costs. Consider a case of roadplanning where a motorway is built on agricultural land. Monetary construction costs are involved as well as monetary operating costs. But the transformation of a specific number of hectares of agricultural land to asphalt surface and other purposes may also be considered as a cost, more precisely a non-monetary cost. The importance of this non-monetary cost and other non-monetary costs and benefits in relation to monetary costs and benefits becomes a matter of your ideological orientation. Some actors may not bother about these non-monetary aspects because they are not so easy to handle or for other reasons. Other actors may see them as essential parts of a total valuation.

Another aspect of the mentioned complexity is that what is regarded as a 'cost' for some actor may be neglected or regarded as a 'benefit' for other actors. Again this has to do with differences in ideological orientation. For some of us who take the threat of climate change seriously, projects involving exploitation of oil close to the North Pole is clearly a cost while oil companies (who are not yet taking CSR seriously) see it as a chance of receiving huge benefits and profits in monetary terms.

These examples illustrate how the CBA idea of aggregating all kinds of impacts in monetary terms into a so called present value – while responding to the technocratic motives of some economists – is highly questionable, if not dangerous, to society.

a) Assets and debts in economic analysis

Market models in terms of supply and demand tend to be ahistorical. Equilibrium stands for some mystical instantaneous situation neglecting what went before and what follows next to the equilibrium situation. The neoclassical model is empty with respect to the resource positions of market actors at different points in time. We need to also consider assets and debts, both in positional terms, to complete the picture. In business accounting and when dealing with the situation of nations, monetary or financial assets and debts are certainly considered. Table 3 suggests however that we should also focus on non-monetary assets and debts (cf. 'k' and 'l').

Table 3 : A classification of assets and debts in
economic analysis.

	Assets	Debts
Monetary	ʻi'	ʻj'
Non-monetary	'k'	ʻl'

In positional analysis, all kinds of impacts are considered (Table 1) but as the name of the approach suggests, positional thinking and not least reference to non-monetary positions is at the heart of the method. These days the financial assets and debts of various nations, in the Euro-zone and elsewhere, are very much discussed and it has become clear for many that this cannot be dealt with in neoclassical mechanistic terms but is a matter of ethics and ideology. Not only nations but also individuals, families and organizations suffer or benefit from these recent developments. This means that a conceptual framework in terms of assets and debts is relevant also for the study of PEPs and PEOs. A macroeconomic policy option may for example strengthen those who are already wealthy and weaken those who are vulnerable.

At the micro level, thinking in positional terms about assets and debts permits us to bring in issues of inequalities and ethics. What are the power positions in terms of resources and relationships of specific actors in the market place? Is market actor M1 exploiting her superior power position in relation to market actor M2? Is fairness for example in the form of 'fair trade' an issue for any of the trading parties or for both of them? If M1 is a company – has this organization committed itself to CSR or specific certification schemes?

Present institutional framework for international trade and globalization under WTO has opened the door not only for exchange of manufactured goods but also for purchase of land and exploitation of natural resources. China or Chinese corporations can buy land in Africa, so called "land-grabbing" and international corporations hosted in Canada can exploit mineral resources in Sweden with connected pollution of water, air and soil. Thorstein Veblen's early questioning of "absentee ownership" is relevant here. It appears clear that democracy will not function so well with the owners located in far-away countries who in addition pursue narrow profit motives. As part of our emphasis on the right of each actor to formulate her own ideological orientation, the position of a country such as Sweden or Kenva with respect to ownership of land and mineral resources becomes an issue. A citizen as actor may even consider it as a negative thing and a "cost" when foreign narrow minded market actors buy land within her state of residence. The neoclassical conceptual

framework and ideology is silent about such transactions.

b) Market behavior based on ideological orientation

The neoclassical model of markets in terms of supply and demand is, as we have seen, based on simplistic assumptions about the behavior of firms and consumers as market actors. The model is mechanistic in the sense that firms and consumers are interacting like molecules. This supply and demand model may still be useful depending upon purpose of study but only as one among competing market models. If the purpose is to make individual market actors invisible, a mechanistic model has something to offer. But recent debates about sustainable development, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), Environmental Management Systems (EMS), Fair Trade etc. suggest that the ethics and ideological orientation (or mission) of market actors is considered and to some extent made visible by actors in the market place or by outside observers.

Neoclassical theory is based on far-reaching beliefs in the functioning of markets. Reference is made to "equilibrium" and some balancing between supply and demand of commodities. While it is believed that each one of seller and buyer is content with a transaction, it is also admitted that there may be "market failures" in some situations where third parties are affected. This is what is referred to as negative externalities or external effects (Figure 2). In addition to market failures in the form of negative externalities, neoclassical economists mention the possibility of "government failure" in cases where activities that are subsidized by government have negative impacts on welfare (defined in a neoclassical way). Such subsidies should be eliminated whereas the idea in the case of negative externalities is that impacts that are external should be "internalized" into the market transaction through government charges. Direct payment to those suffering by the actors involved in the market transaction is another option. The negative impact on third parties is then understood as a single negative 'commodity' to be compensated for. In reality there are many kinds of impacts and groups who are affected in different ways. Third party impacts are often multidimensional and complex. They may affect ecosystems and the environment in a broader sense. Neoclassical furthermore hold ideas about how economists environmental impacts should be valued in monetary terms. Again we are facing the technocratic tendency of neoclassical analysis.

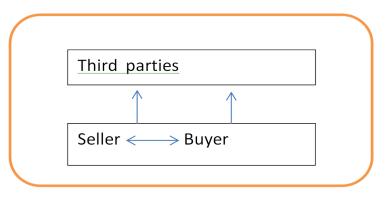


Figure 2: As part of neoclassical economic theory market transactions may lead to impacts on third parties, so called externalities or external effects. Transacting parties as well as third parties are part of society (rectangle with curved corners).

Something more is needed than the neoclassical market model. I suggest that the pros and cons of four models can be considered:

- 1. Markets in terms of supply and demand
- 2. Markets in stakeholder perspective
- 3. Markets in network perspective
- 4. Markets in political economics perspective (market actors understood as PEPs and PEOs)

Market models 2, 3 and 4 are complementary in the sense that each can add to our understanding of markets. A stakeholder perspective suggests that a market actor, such as a business corporation, is not completely hierarchic but can be understood as made up by stakeholders with partly common, partly conflicting interests. Those who are employed in a company may have objectives that differ from shareholders. Something similar is true of suppliers and customers. Also residents of the local community where the production plant is located are among stakeholders. The stakeholder model is often attributed to Edward Freeman (1984) but in Sweden references to stakeholders as interested parties can be found much earlier (Rhenman 1964).

Neoclassical international trade theory is normally unquestioned. An attempt is made to explain why trade in the sense of exchange of commodities is good for each of the trading nations. Reference is made to "comparative advantage" etc. But if we bring in a stakeholder perspective, it becomes unrealistic to refer to the interests of one nation in a clear-cut way. Many stakeholders and thereby special interests are involved in each of the trading countries. Outsourcing of production from Sweden to another country, let us say India, may imply losses of jobs in Sweden, pollution of water in India and so on. It is easy to understand that more interests than one are involved in each of the trading countries.

The network model focuses on the fact that a specific transaction is often part of a prolonged relationship. Market actors may cooperate in networks of relationships for example in the form of supply chains. Recognizing that you are part of a network is a way of accepting that members of the network depend upon each other. An actor may consider such interdependence positively or negatively and the network model of a market may mean that market actor M1 bothers about the performance of other actors M2, M3 and M4 in the same network. The power position of M1 may be such that it can exploit less influential actors, for example M2 and M3, but M1 may choose to take it easy when it is in the interest of M1 to continue cooperation with M2 and M3. The network perspective has been articulated in the case of international business research (Ford ed. 1990). As we all know transnational corporations (as the term indicates) are present in many countries, suggesting that trade that crosses national borders often reflects transactions between units within one corporation. Again this network model adds to our understanding of markets and questions the simplistic neoclassical approach.

The fourth market model in our list, apolitical economics model with ideological orientation as a key concept, brings us back to market actors as PEPs and PEOs. A political economic person is guided by her ideological orientation in market and non-market behavior whereas a political economic organization refers to its mission. Monetary as well as non-monetary aspects are part of the mission. The democracy perspective implies that each individual as citizen and in other roles has the right to articulate and express her specific ideological orientation in relation to market and non-market behavior. Listening to stakeholders as previously described is a matter of considering specific interests attributed to specific parties. Listening to citizens, social movements, political parties etc. means that you bring in actors that do not exclusively refer to specific and limited interests but who have their ideas of what is preferable or good for society at large. Taking democracy seriously then means that each individual can question the values or ideas of welfare built into neoclassical theory generally, the supply and demand model of markets or the theory of comparative advantage of neoclassical international trade theory. Normal imperatives of democracy encourage us to participate in a discourse about what is good for society as a whole. Mainstream approaches as well as alternatives should be scrutinized. Economic growth

ideology can be compared with specific interpretations of sustainable development.

c) On the meaning of democracy

Some observers are worried about the role of democracy in relation to markets. A group of scholars from the Czech Republic edited a book with the thoughtprovoking title ls Globalization Overpowering Democracy? The Challenge for Ecology, Economy and Culture (Lapka et al. eds 2007). Was the fundamentalism of the Soviet system being replaced by a new kind of fundamentalism with expansion of transnational corporations and globalization of markets as key considerations? It is clear that the role of democracy in relation to economics need to be discussed (rather than avoided as in neoclassical textbooks). A lot has been written on the meaning of democracy and it is fair to argue that democracy is a contested concept (like many other concepts referred to in social sciences).

A minimalist understanding of democracy refers to basic human rights, freedom of speech, rights to organize for political purposes and a community founded on the rule of law. Rules are established concerning processes for free political elections to local and national parliaments. This part of democracy is certainly important and we hear repeatedly of cases in some countries where such basic democratic rights are not observed or respected. But democracy is relevant for public policy in a broader sense. Considering policy for sustainable development, it is here argued that such policy begins with individuals as citizens and political economic persons. Actually, our political economic perspective is designed to be compatible with democracy and a serious discussion of ideological options at various levels from the individual through organization, local community to national and global communities.

Politics then starts with individuals, their ideological orientations and perceived responsibilities. Also organizations and their missions are relevant. This point of departure suggests the importance of social movements and ideological dialogue. Does sustainable development enter seriously into public dialogue in a local or national context? As we all know, a power game is going on between various groups of actors at specific arenas, such as newspapers, radio and television channels. Mainstream arguments appear to be welcome at many places: "The most important consideration in the present situation is economic growth. With GDPgrowth, there will be more jobs and unemployment will go down." Employment is certainly important in the present political economic system but improved levels of employment can be achieved in many ways and there are also other arguments to be made.

From the point of view of an actor as PEP, there are limits as to what he or she can say or write in any specific arena or social context. But a given actor is related to more than one arena or social context and will hopefully be able to participate in dialogue at some places. Costs and benefits, largely in non-monetary terms are associated with attempts to enter into the debate that goes on in more or less established arenas. Such barriers to participation tell us that there are shortcomings or deficits even in cases where basic democracy rights are observed. Or to argue in positive terms: in any country or local society there are many ways of strengthening performance when it comes to democracy.

Dialogue between actors as PEPs and PEOs will sometimes imply a reconsideration of ideological orientations or missions and that the actors get closer to each other. In the extreme case they may arrive at a consensus. But with Chantal Mouffe in her book *On the Political* (2005), it is here argued that respect for divergent opinions and tolerance is at the heart of democracy. Tensions based on differences in ideological orientation are a normal thing and can even be understood as the life-blood of a society. Creativity and new thinking may thrive where there are divergences of opinion.

d) Ideological orientation and institutional change processes

societies. In all there are common understandings of various phenomena in terms of language and rules of behavior or action. When a segment of actors interpret a phenomenon in a similar way and behave similarly in relation to the phenomenon, one may refer to an 'institution'. Institutions change more or less over time and in relation to sustainable development we can make a distinction between smaller changes corresponding to what has been called "modernization" of political economic system and "radical change" of political economic system.

The ideological orientation of an actor plays an essential role in both cases of institutional change. Ideological orientation stands for an actor's basic scheme of interpretation and action. The introduction of an Environmental Management System (EMS), such as ISO 14 001 in a business company can exemplify a case of "modernization", i.e. minor institutional change. Some actors in the organization realize at some point that performance of the company can be measured in other dimensions than money, for example environmental performance. They learn about the existence of EMS in other organizations. Interpreting environmental impacts as part of a certification scheme is manifested in different ways such as a modified language about performance (where also the environment matters). The new system may furthermore be manifested in organizational terms by appointing a person as environmental coordinator. Our company is connected with a certification organization which enters into an auditing role etc. The whole process can be described

as a chain of interpretation – acceptance – manifestation. Adding one more organization contributes to the legitimacy of the certification system. EMS as a broader category, or ISO 14 001, may be strengthened over time or loose adherents as part of a 'competition' with other systems and institutions.

Radical institutional change for sustainability is a matter of ideological orientation and phenomena of a more fundamental kind. I suggest a focus on three levels:

- Ideas about science in relation to politics
- Paradigm in economics
- Political and other ideology

It is argued that dominant ideas of science, dominant economics paradigm and dominant political and ideological orientation in a society together largely explain the dominant political economic system in that society. If we wish to see some radical change for sustainable development, then we should try to articulate and strengthen alternative perspectives at all three levels. We need new ideas about science in relation to politics, new and complementary ideas about economic theory and an ideological orientation where values connected with sustainable development become dominant.

At issue is now whether there are politicians willing to discuss and seriously consider radical change in political economic system. Let us take a look at a UN document prepared for the recent Rio de Janeiro conference as an example (UN Secretary General's High-level panel, 2012). Politicians from different parts of the world cooperated to present their views and proposals for action. The panel of 22 established politicians was led by Tarja Halonen from Finland and Jacob Zuma from South Africa. The politicians certainly demonstrated a concern for sustainability issues and a list of 56 proposals for action was presented. I have elsewhere commented on the report (Söderbaum 2012, 2013). It can be described as a consensus report which belongs to the mainstream "modernization" interprettation of sustainable development. Mainstream recommendations are certainly of interest when they reflect an understanding of sustainability issues. But more fundamental perspectives that can open the door for radical change are largely avoided in the report. Theories of science that open the door for subjectivity (hermeneutics, narrative analysis, social constructivism) or a new relationship between science and politics are not discussed; there is no sign that the politicians and their assistants from UNEP know anything about alternatives to mainstream neoclassical economics (Environmental impacts are discussed as single pollutants and "externalities that should be internalized" etc.) and the present dominance for Neo-liberalism as a kind of market fundamentalism is not discussed. There is no criticism of present globalization trends or the

power of transnational corporations. The UN document then, which was planned as a follow up of the Brundtland report is of some interest since it points in the right direction but does not add much in terms of ideas about radical change.

e) Sustainability politics – A conceptual frame of reference

In Table 4 essential parts of the previous argument for a different and complementary economics

is summarized. As economists we need to reconsider and broaden our views about the individual or human being, about the organization, market, our understanding of the act of making a decision, how decision-making at the societal level can be approached and about how to understand options with respect to institutional framework.

	ssical and institutional economics.

	Neoclassical economics	Institutional economics
Individual	Economic Man	Political Economic Person (PEP)
Organization	Profit-maximizing firm	Political Economic Organization (PEO)
Market	Supply and demand as forces	PEPs and PEOs as market actors
Decision-making	Optimization	Matching
Approach to decisions in society	Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA)	Positional Analysis (PA)
Institutional framework	Economic system	Political economic system

In neoclassical economics, politics is connected with alternative policy instruments at the national level. Our view is instead that politics begins with the ideological orientations of individuals as actors. Avoiding a discussion of the role of science in relation to politics, of competing theoretical perspectives in economics and of ideological options in society is a serious mistake. If ideology is important for politicians then it certainly also matters for actors in other roles who bother about the society in which they live. It is not enough to discuss unsustainable trends at the level of environmental degradation or lack of equality, problems may exist also at the level of perspectives. Neoclassical economists want us to rely on them as experts but if the monopoly position of neoclassical theory in introductory textbooks is part of the problem then there are reasons to act. Similarly, the dominance of Neo-liberalism may function as a barrier to sustainable development.

f) Sustainability politics – A personal, political view

Our PEP-assumptions are also applicable to professors and other scholars who participate in the development dialogue. Recognizing that values are with us suggests that we should openly discuss our beliefs and preferences about how to approach the present ecological crisis and connected sustainability issues.

Emphasis on democracy as a meta-ideology is a first recommendation. In all societies there are establishment or mainstream actors whose main concern appears to be to strengthen their own power positions. Too many of them tend to forget about or downplay the need for a strengthened democracy. Also university departments of economics need to move some steps away from technocracy toward democracy. Pluralism with respect to theoretical perspectives and methods is a key concept to accomplish this (Söderbaum and Brown 2010).

My second recommendation is closely related to the first one. In a situation where we are faced with

complex sustainability issues we should not be afraid of ideological dialogue. Such debate is a way of learning even in situations where there is an element of antagonism between actors and their arguments. How can we better articulate sustainable development as an ideological option?

A selective view on the pros and cons of globalization is my third recommendation. In some fields globalization is highly questionable and goes contrary to local and national control (of natural resources for example) and democracy.

The candidates for major institutional change are many, some of whom have been mentioned. International organizations, such as the WTO, belong to this category. University departments of economics are a second category. At issue is also whether joint stock companies which according to law should focus on financial performance are miss-constructed in relation to present sustainability challenges that are largely nonmonetary in kind. Banks are no exceptions from this demand. How can banks and other financial institutions be controlled and regulated to avoid some of the problems we see today?

Mainstream actors, be they business leaders, politicians or university professors too often behave tactically. Issues that are perceived as controversial are avoided. But what we need most in the present situation is an open discussion of all kinds of opportunities for the future. We are then back to the importance of a strengthened democracy not only in establishment circles but on all kinds of arenas.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Legal Analysis of Anti-Dumping Cases Raised against Saudi Arabia's Petrochemical Products

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Abstract- The subject matter of this article is to examine some of the anti-dumping cases against the Saudi Arabian petrochemical products by the European Union (EU), Turkey and India. The repetition of having anti-dumping cases against these products has raised a question about the reasons behind this scenario as well as the impact of such cases on these products and the whole Saudi Arabian petrochemical sector. There is a strong link between having cheap raw materials in this sector and anti-dumping cases, since Saudi Arabia is one of the largest oil producer and reserve in the world. Moreover, Saudi Arabia needs to establish a realistic and practicable competition polices inside its market in the context of these products. Yet, Saudi Arabian government still owns the majority of the petrochemicals industries, which makes these products target for the anti-dumping cases abroad.

Keywords: anti-dumping cases, WTO agreement, petrochemical products and saudi arabian law.

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 360199

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Abstract- The subject matter of this article is to examine some of the anti-dumping cases against the Saudi Arabian petrochemical products by the European Union (EU), Turkey and India. The repetition of having anti-dumping cases against these products has raised a question about the reasons behind this scenario as well as the impact of such cases on these products and the whole Saudi Arabian petrochemical sector. There is a strong link between having cheap raw materials in this sector and anti-dumping cases, since Saudi Arabia is one of the largest oil producer and reserve in the world. Moreover, Saudi Arabia needs to establish a realistic and practicable competition polices inside its market in the context of these products. Yet, Saudi Arabian government still owns the majority of the petrochemicals industries, which makes these products target for the anti-dumping cases abroad.

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I. INTRODUCTION

his paper details anti-dumping cases filed against Saudi Arabia's petrochemical products in India, Turkey and the European Union (EU).¹ The petrochemical's sector has traditionally applied antidumping regulations in order to protect itself.² Antidumping cases can, in general, be divided into those that are raised at national or international level. The cases examined in this paper are confined to those opened at national level.

The second question put forward in this research concerns the impact of anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabian petrochemicals products. Therefore, it is important to analyse cases levelled in depth to determine how far such cases might impact on national revenues over the long term in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, many countries have used Anti-dumping and regulations for their own aims, by enacting laws in their own interests, as mentioned here:

it is alleged [...] that sometimes, anti-dumping is being used as more than just a countermeasure to

injuries. In some cases, anti-dumping duties are being imposed on imports that are being fairly traded. This allegation implies that it should be possible to cheat the anti-dumping agreement.³

The cases considered here, which were brought by India, Turkey and the EU against Saudi petrochemical products, are the most recent, and it is be-lieved that they could have been resolved in a very different way. In the cases discussed, the end results were either cancelling anti-dumping duty against Saudi Arabian petrochemical products or ending the investigation before resolution.⁴ The termination of cases typically followed a political negotiation with the countries alleging dumping, as will be demonstrated in this paper. Termination for political reasons links to one of the key areas considered in this research, which is the role of political negotiations in anti-dumping cases.

It was a challenge for the researcher to identify the most relevant and useful cases for analysis, as around such 33 cases exist.⁵ The options were reduced by applying the following criteria to the selection of appropriate cases:

- 1. The cases should offer are presentative sample of all anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabian petrochemical products.
- 2. The cases should be recent ones, raised at the national level, against Saudi petrochemical products.
- 3. The cases should have been well covered by the Saudi media and the offending companies should have received good governmental support.
- 4. The cases should have terminated in a unique way; in some cases after anti-dumping duty was applied.
- 5. Some of the cases should include subsidies.

This paper will analyse the impact of the cases from a variety of different perspectives (legal, economic and political). It will also consider the positive and negative effects of these cases on the importing and exporting countries. However, first, it is important to

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¹ Indian case: 14/5/2009-DGAD, *India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore* [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014. Turkish case: 2008/40 and 2010/11, *Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria* [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569. EU case: 2011/c 49/10.

² Hylke Vandenbussche and Maurizio Zanardi, "What explains the proliferation of antidumping laws?", *Core Discussion Paper* 2007/66.

³ Doreen Bekker, "The strategic use of anti-dumping in international trade", (2006) *South African Journal of Economics*, 74: 3, 501.

⁴ Indian case: 14/5/2009-DGAD, *India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore* [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014.

⁵ The Global Anti-dumping Database under the World Bank, http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEAR CH/0,,contentMDK:22574930~pagePK:64214825~piPK:64214943~t heSitePK:469382,00.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

distinguish between what is meant by national and international level cases. As will be seen in this paper, India, Turkey and EU have all used anti-dumping regulations frequently against imported Saudi petrochemical products and some of these countries make con- siderable use of these regulations.⁶

II. BACKGROUND

Before proceeding to analyse the cases that took place between Saudi Arabia and India, Turkey and EU, it is important to mention that the copies referred to in this thesis are the non-confidential copies, as these were the only copies available. There are alternative copies, which have remained confidential between the au- thorities and interested parties and it was impossible to access these.

It is necessary to stress the importance of knowing the statistics for anti-dumping cases as they divided into cases at the national and international levels. National cases are those raised by the Dispute Settlement Understanding (DSU)⁷ with the involvement of the World Trade Organization (WTO).International level cases are those where the dispute is referred to the WTO; this typically occurs when one of the parties disagrees with the domestic processes of the country making the allegations.

A further division in cases made by, some scholars is to distinguish between traditional users of anti-dumping laws and new users:

In 1980 the list of the top AD users was quite short; the four traditional users accounted for all but two of worldwide AD cases. In 2002 the list of top AD users looked quite different: India (80 cases), United States (35), Thailand (21), EU (20), Australia (14), Peru (13) and PR China (11).⁸

Based on the information put forward in the materials pertaining to the cases between Saudi Arabia and India, Turkey and the EU, it is possible to know the extent of the direct impact, which this paper will have on the Saudi petrochemicals sector on one side and the national economy on the other. The Saudi Arabian petrochemicals sector one of the most important industries in Saudi Arabia.⁹ Therefore, the next step is to

introduce the statistics relating to these cases from a range of sources.

III. Cases Against Saudi Arabia at the National Level

It is difficult to obtain accurate figures for the number of anti-dumping cases at national level around the world. This is despite the fact that all contracting parties need to inform the WTO committee on antidumping of any actions they take at the national level under the Anti-dumping Agreement.¹⁰ Thus, in this section, anti-dumping cases from many sources will be clarified. Moreover, on the Saudi government's side, there are no clear statistics detailing the anti-dumping cases being applied against Saudi Arabia; when the researcher requested this data via official department channels in Saudi Arabia, the request was refused the request on the grounds of confidentiality.¹¹

It was difficult to obtain this information from official Saudi Arabian departments, as the officials in these relevant departments consider the information about anti-dumping cases to be top secret information; although this should not be the case. Many attempts were made to contact these departments and many requests were sent to have this information, but they were all denied. The anti-dumping cases, like other similar cases, include confidential and non-confidential trial copies, and the non-confidential ones should be available for interested people such as researchers and interested organisations, but this is not understood by the Saudi authorities who specialise in these kinds of cases.

According to the WTO statistics regarding antidumping cases,¹² there were 879anti-dumping initiations out of 4358 cases on the products from chemical and allied industries;¹³ this represents 20.16% of total anti-dumping initiations. In addition, in relation to anti-dumping measures in this area there were just 597 cases out of 2795 cases,¹⁴ which represents 21.35% of

⁶ There are two groups of Anti-dumping Users: traditional and new Users. Before the 1980s, the traditional users were Australia, Canada, EU and USA. However, since then, they have been joined by other countries, classified as "new users", which like Brazil, China, India and Mexico. Thomas J. Prusa, *Anti-dumping: A Growing Problem in International Trade*, (Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 2005).

⁷ DSU, Dispute Settlement Rules: Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization, Annex 2, The Legal Texts: The Results of the Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations 354 (1999), 1869 U.N.T.S. 401, 33 I.L.M. 1226 (1994).

⁸ Thomas J. Prusa, *Anti-dumping: A Growing Problem in International Trade*, (Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 2005), 690.

⁹ Fawaz Hamad Al-Fawaz, "The importance of the petrochemical industry", online, http://www.aleqt.com/2006/05/23/article_5297.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

¹⁰ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 16.4.

¹¹ I have tried many times to contact the Saudi official department in order to obtain non-confidential copies of the anti-dumping cases between them and other countries. My contact was first with SABIC and then the Ministry of Commerce. Both refused to give me a copy of these cases. I tried again by approaching the committee for antidumping negotiations, directed by HRH Prince Abdul-Aziz bin Salman, but they refused as well. There is a misunderstanding of these cases in Saudi Arabia, as there is not adequate distinction between confidential and non-confidential copies.

¹² These cases were between 1 January 1995 and 3o June 2013.

¹³ The Anti-dumping Initiations by the sector, World Trade Organisation, http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/adp_e/adp_e.htm, accessed on 21 February 2014.

¹⁴ The Anti-dumping Initiations by measures, World Trade Organisation, http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/adp_e/adp_e.htm, accessed on 21 February 2014.

all anti-dumping measures in the world. By referring to these numbers and percentages, it is apparent that there are many cases in which the petrochemicals sector is the subject of anti-dumping investigations and measures. These percentages show how important it is to identify another solution, as a means to reduce the high number of anti-dumping investigations and cases raised globally; however, "The increase in use of antidumping measures by non-traditional users, however, will inevitably lead to an increase of WTO anti-dumping litigation, and maybe to changes in traditional users' practices regarding Article 2".¹⁵

In addition, this high number of cases against the petrochemicals sector must be analysed in depth and given great consideration, by both researchers and contracting parties. The reason for this is that the petrochemicals sector is one of the most important industries in the world, and petrochemical products are directly or indirectly involved in hundreds of other industries worldwide. Yet, any impact on this sector can have a direct effect on those other industries also. In this research it is evident that the petrochemicals sector is an important one, directly and indirectly affecting the entire global population.

However, the reported number of anti-dumping initiations and investigations varies between sources, as will be analysed. Research by the World Bank Global anti-dumping Database¹⁶ shows that there were 6325 anti-dumping initiations and investigations in the world between 1979 and 2012.¹⁷ However, this number does not include cases of user countries with minimal information, which would then add to the total. There are a huge number of cases, more than reported by WTO statistics; in addition, many details of each case remain unrecorded in official documents. As mentioned, the data referred to here was collected from each country very carefully, and has been used elsewhere in a variety research papers, published in a range of academic journals (e.g. Prof. Zanardi¹⁸ has used this data in his research).

The database referred to provides accurate information to uncover the details of the cases in depth. There are two reasons for the variation in numbers between the research database mentioned above and the WTO' santi-dumping statistics. First, the data from the former extends over a greater period of time than that of the WTO, as it covers a period of time dating back to 1979. This can assist researchers to more fully explore the legal background and acquire greater knowledge cases of international trade between countries. It may also help to develop regulations in the future in accordance with changing legal circumstances. Second, in any anti-dumping case, the country making the allegations has to initiate the anti-dumping case in accordance with their membership duty, so this database includes many non-member countries, therefore returning higher figures than reported by WTO statistics.

Concerning the two databases, if we examine the WTO anti-dumping statistics, it is apparent that Saudi Arabia has faced 28 initiations and measures¹⁹ and 20 cases as a third party under the DSU;²⁰ these are totally different from figures held on the Global antidumping Database. According to Global anti-dumping Database statistics, Saudi Arabia has faced 34 antidumping initiations and investigations, not including countries that applied anti-dumping regulations with minimal information cases. There were six initiations in Australia, one in Canada, three in China, four in the European Union, nine in India, one in New Zealand, two in Pakistan, three in South Africa, three also in Turkey, and finally one in the United States and Taiwan.²¹ Twenty Six of these cases were against Saudi petrochemical products, accounting for 76.47% of the total antidumping initiations against Saudi Arabia.

The cases that have been selected for this research are those initiated by India, Turkey and the European Union, as sufficient information is available. Attempts were made to acquire cases from China also, but no English copies of these cases could be acquired from the Chinese Ministry of Commerce,²² Chinese official newspapers or the Saudi Arabian official departments. Nonetheless, it is considered that the case selected should be suitable for analysis purposes and deliver good results. The cases are:

¹⁵ Konstantinos Adamantopoulos and Diego De Notaris, "The future of the WTO and the reform of the anti-dumping agreement: a legal perspective", 2000-2001, *Fordham International Law Journal*, 24:30, 47.
¹⁶ The Global Anti-dumping Database under the World Bank, http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEAR CH/0,,contentMDK:22574930~pagePK:64214825~piPK:64214943~t heSitePK:469382,00.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

¹⁷ In this database, anti-dumping cases have been categorised by countries and each country has its cases nationally in an EXCL file, kept up-to-date to the latest case. These files have very detailed information about each case, which has been carefully collected from each state by this research centre. At the end of this database page will be found the countries of the anti-dumping users with minimum information, and without any numbers of these kinds of cases.

¹⁸ He is a Professor in Economics at the Université Libre de Bruxelles and a specialist in statistics of economic figures. The most interesting area for him is anti-dumping and he has carried out a great deal of research in this area from the economic side.

¹⁹ The Anti-dumping Initiations by country, World Trade Organisation, http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/adp_e/adp_e.htm, accessed on 21 February 2014.

²⁰ Dispute by Country/Territory, Dispute Settlement under the World Trade Organisation, http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/dispu_e/disp u_by_country_e.htm, accessed on 21 February 2014.

²¹ The Global Anti-dumping Database under the World Bank, http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEAR CH/0,,contentMDK:22574930~pagePK:64214825~piPK:64214943~t heSitePK:469382,00.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

²² Many efforts have been made to find alternative ways to locate these cases, including the Chinese official Ministries' websites. The

- Case in the European Union in 2011 for the exporting of Polyethylene that originated from Saudi Arabia.²³
- Case in Turkey in 2008 for the exporting of Ethylene that originated from Saudi Arabia.²⁴
- Case in India in 2009 for the exporting of Polypropylene that originated from Saudi Arabia.²⁵

a) Analysis of cases

Before analysing the anti-dumping cases between Saudi Arabia and India, Turkey and EU, it is important to set out the main principles deemed applicable to dumping under the WTO. In order to have a dumping margin, export and normal prices must be clear. In addition, the product must be like a product produced by the domestic industry as well as being a clear injury or threat to the domestic industry. A causal link must exist between the injury and the export price. Hence, the first part of this section will analyse export and normal pricing with the dumping margin. Secondly, the like product and the domestic industry will be discussed, and finally the injury or threat and any causal link will be considered. However, it is important, as part of this research, to discover whether a subsidy led to the dumping in these cases, as this forms the final part of this section.

i. Export price, normal value and dumping margin

Before commencing the discussion stage of this section, regarding export price, normal value and dumping margin, it is important to remember that dumping is selling an exporting product for less than its normal value, as stated in Article VI, GATT.²⁶ In cases where the export price is clear, there is no concern as all prices are matched with the real information. However, a problem arises where there is no clear export price or normal value; such cases, are hard to prove, as there is no evidence"... in many cases there is no easy way to determine what a normal price is for the purposes of anti-dumping investigations".²⁷

As mentioned in Article 2 of VI implementation, section 2.2 states that where there are no sales of a like product in an export country, or where there is a low

volume of sales regarding the market situation, in such a situation,

the margin of dumping shall be determined by comparison with a comparable price of the like product when exported to an appropriate third country, provided that this price is representative, or with the cost of production in the country of origin plus a reasonable amount for administration, selling and general cost and for profits.²⁸

This Article shows clearly the margin of dumping can be calculated in specific circumstances. The cost will normally be calculated where it is kept in by an exporter or producer under investigation. However, the amount for administrative, selling and general costs and profits will be based on actual data, kept by the exporter or producer under investigation.²⁹

In cases where there is no export price or where the export price is "unreliable",³⁰ "the export price may be constructed on the basis of the price at which the imported products are first resold to an independent buyer, or if the products are not resold to an independent buyer, or not resold in the condition as imported, on such reasonable basis as the authorities may determine.³¹

Following this brief review of dumping and relevant key elements, the cases between Saudi Arabia and India, Turkey, and the EU, will be examined in order to answer the second research question, as to whether there is an impact from such cases on Saudi Arabian petrochemicals products.

- EU case number 2011/c 49/10

In a case, initiated by the EU countries inantidumping proceeding concerning the import of certain Polyethylene Terephthalate products from Saudi Arabia and Oman to the European Union, it was declared that,

...the allegation of dumping is based on a comparison of a constructed normal value (manufactured costs, selling, general and administration costs (SG&A) and profit) with the export price (at ex-works level) of the product under investigation when sold for export to the Union.³²

Chinese Ministry of Commerce, which is responsible for anti-dumping cases, has not, however, translated these cases into English, so they cannot easily be found. See http://www.mofcom.gov.cn/.

²³ The EU Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.

²⁴ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, *Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria* [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569.

²⁵ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21February 2014.

²⁶ General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), 55 UNTS 194; 61 Stat. pt. 5; TIAS 1700, Article VI.

²⁷ Reid M. Bolton, "Anti-dumping and Distrust Reducing Anti-dumping Duties under the W.T.O. Through Heightened Scrutiny", *Berkeley Journal of International Law*, 2011, 66, 74.

²⁸ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 2.2.

²⁹ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 2.2.1.1 & 2.2.2.

³⁰ "Unreliable because of association or a compensatory arrangement between the exporter and the importer or a third party" Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 2.3.

³¹ "Unreliable because of association or a compensatory arrangement between the exporter and the importer or a third party" Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 2.3.

³² The EU Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2011/c 49/10, EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.

The above quotation shows that the EU applied Article 2.4 of the implementation of Article VI, GATT, which can be held compatible with this article. However, the information remains unclear, as this is an initiation without examination by the authority. Usually, in such an initiation, the authority does not apply the Articles to the facts; it usually just offers brief information in order to commence anti-dumping proceedings, by sending out questionnaires and receiving them back from interested parties. However, in this initiation, it was mentioned that the complaint provided the necessary evidence of the negative impact of the dumped product on the EU:

The prima facie evidence provided by the complainant shows that the volume and price of the imported product under investigation have, among other consequences, had a negative impact on the quantities sold, the level of the prices changed and the market share held by the Union industry...³³

The prices of the complainant, i.e. the EU industries has been affected negatively, which triggered the anti-dumping investigation.

Thus, this examination is not clear for our case, but it can be seen that the authority used the same Articles as those set out in the WTO regulations on antidumping. However, as the complainant withdrew the case, the examination cannot be completed about this particular point.³⁴

- Turkish case number 2008/40

This case was issued with regard to the export of Mono ethylene Glycol from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria in 2008. As mentioned determination of the normal value in this initiation in Article 4 (1) was, "due to the production costs of the domestic market, prices reached [which are] directly determined by adding a reasonable profit generated value [are] taken as the normal value for each of the three countries."³⁵

In relation to Article 4 (1), the Turkish authority identified the exporting price in this initiation. However, the decision of the Turkish authority in the anti-dumping determinations regarding the same case (number 2010/11), which referred to the domestic selling price in Saudi Arabia and Kuwait, after the authority had received completed questionnaires from the interested parties,

[was] based on costs and export price. However, in these countries, which [provide] the basic raw materials used in the production of MEG, "Ethane" is only produced by state-owned companies and the price of the supply/ emand conditions are identified and announced by the authorities. ³⁶

It was mentioned that these countries supplied very cheap raw materials, which could result in lack offair competition between other industries and similar products abroad.

In addition, in reference to the same point, it was stated that Saudi Arabia fixes prices internally, that means there is no competition inside Saudi Arabia between the industries for the similar products "....[a] price fixing mechanism for the review of the terms of these prices [to] reflect the market..". ³⁷ Nonetheless, "the total cost provided by these importing companies does not reflect market conditions and the cost of labour and other overhead costs, raw materials...". ³⁸ Therefore, although Saudi Arabia has issued a competition law for competitions between products, the conditions for gnuine competition inside Saudi Arabia are not fulfilled.

Another related point is that, in a report issued by the Saudi American Bank in Saudi Arabia (SAMBA), it was stated that Saudi Arabia is subsidising its petrochemicals sector through cheap feedstock:

Ethane has been the feedstock of choice for Saudi products for one simple reason: the cost advantage is substantial. Owing to the Kingdom's substantial gas resources, ethane is supported by Saudi Aramco to petrochemicals producers at \$0.75 per million BTUs. This compares with a current market price of \$ 3.5 per million BTUs for most producers in the US, who also tend to use ethane (the price was approaching \$14 per million BTUs around a year ago).³⁹

This statement shows the involvement by the Saudi government through Saudi Aramco in petrochemicals pricing; it sells raw materials below the global market price.

In the above quotations from the Turkish antidumping case, two important issues were raised: one regarding the Saudi domestic market conditions and other in relation to the involvement of the state in the domestic market, both of which affect the export price. Regarding the first point, the two states, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait, did not create the necessary market conditions in their domestic markets, which was a form

³³ The EU Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.

³⁴ Case number 2011/835/EU, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union 330/45.

³⁵ Case number 2008/40 brought by the Turkish anti-dumping authority against the Saudi petrochemicals products.

 $^{^{36}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 4.

 $^{^{37}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 3.

 $^{^{38}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 3.

³⁹ Saudi American Bank in Saudi Arabia (SAMBA), Report Series August 2009, http://www.samba.com/, accessed on 29 November 2013.

of unfair competition. As the price was fixed, as mentioned in the Turkish decision, this led to unfair competition, contravening the WTO agreement. In relation to Saudi Arabia, all the market conditions in the domestic markets were made available, although not mentioned in the decision, as were the rules for fair competition and the opportunity for domestic and foreign investors to invest in Saudi Arabia in this sector.⁴⁰ It might be that foreign investors do not want to invest in this particular area in Saudi Arabia due to associated economic benefits and priorities; however, ultimately a competitive market is available as is the entire investment atmosphere. Despite this, the Saudi petrochemicals sector is owned mostly by the government through SABIC; this means that the prices are usually fixed, or at the very least there is governmental interference, as only government owned companies operate in this sector.

Secondly, with regard to raw materials; this should not be an issue, as long as the government does not become involved in markets and prices; thus, raw materials should be sold to domestic petrochemicals industries at the global price. However, it is well known that Saudi Arabia is well endowed with oil and gas and so it has low cost materials to supply to any industries manufacturing products comprised of these elements. Nonetheless, the state must open its market to these types of industry and supply all the industries (whether government owned or otherwise) equally, and in fact the option of an open market might not be available in Saudi Arabia, as mentioned above. However, if there is any involvement by the government in the market price it should be regarded as a price support, i.e. a kind of subsidy. 41

Regarding normal value, the Turkish authority applied the following provision "where the normal value was based on sales in the domestic market, the domestic market of the country of origin for similar products within the framework of normal commercial transactions or to pay the prices paid by buyers on the

basis of an independent calculation".⁴² Clearly, the raw materials in Saudi Arabia do not reflect market conditions, from a Turkish point of view. In fact, the normal value was based on the Western Europe market conditions: "...with a much higher profit by using investment returns (hence this higher profit will be in the normal value) in favour of Saudi Arabia and Kuwait".⁴³ It can be seen in this research, that to apply this to the case concerned is not right, as Western Europe is entirely different from Saudi Arabia and Kuwait in many aspects; i.e. economically, legally, and in terms of development and technology. Moreover, Western Europe does not have the same oil and gas resources as these two countries, and so similar market conditions are not possible. The comparison should be at the same level of trade as market and ex-factory, as mentioned in Article 2.4 of the implementations of Article VI of GATT,⁴⁴ which is not applicable here. The Turkish authority should try to find another country as an appropriate comparison for Saudi Arabia and Kuwait, such as Venezuela.

In relation to the above statement, the Turkish authority calculated the dumping margin for Saudi Arabia (SABIC) as 30.1% for firms that were not cooperative, which must be reconsidered, as the application is not compatible with the GATT in regard to Article VI and its implementation.

- Indian case number14/5/2009-DGAD

In the case of India, the initiation of an antidumping procedure was in response to imports of Polypropylene from Saudi Arabia, Oman and Singapore into India. There are more details available for this case than for the previous cases, as the entire anti-dumping investigation process in India continued until completion and the anti-dumping duty was applied in the final finding. This case raises the same issue as the Turkish case with regard to normal value:

they were not able to obtain any documentary evidence or reliable information with regard to domestic price in the subject countries.....The applicant has also stated that the raw materials are based on the market conditions and are being sourced from state-owned enterprises.⁴⁵

⁴⁰ In 2006, the Saudi General Investment Authority established the National Competitiveness Centre, which is responsible for advising the various Saudi investment authorities and departments in order to improve competition inside the Saudi market to the international standards required. This centre has frequently organised international conferences in Saudi Arabia in this legal/economic area, so that experts can discuss how to achieve the best standards. There is evidence that the Saudi government is doing its best to create a good competitive atmosphere inside the Saudi market and not as mentioned in the anti-dumping statement against the Saudi companies. For more information about this centre, see the website http://www.saudincc.org.sa/, accessed 1 December 2012.

⁴¹ The Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures, Apr. 15, 1994, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization, Annex 1A, The Legal Texts: The Results of the Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations 231 (1999), 1869 U.N.T.S. 14., Article 1, para 1.1 (a) (2)

 $^{^{42}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 4.

 $^{^{43}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 4.

⁴⁴ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201. Article 2.4.

⁴⁵ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, 2 para 7.

These allegations against Saudi companies and others are further detailed later in the Preliminary and Final Findings of this case.

With regard to normal value, the Indian authorities applied the same method as the Turkish, i.e. referring to GATT. It is mentioned in the Preliminary Findings:

...whether the domestic sales of the subject goods by the responding exporters in their home markets were representative and viable permitting determinations of normal value on the basis of domestic selling prices and whether the ordinary course of trade test was satisfied as per the data provided by respondents, [is] subject to verification...⁴⁶

However, the authority notes, regarding the Supreme Court of India case of M/s Reliance Industries Ltd., that the single weighted average for normal value should be separated for each of the subject countries: "...then determine a separate single weighted average Normal value for each of the subject countries as a whole and the same is compared with the ex-factory export realisation of each cooperating respondent". ⁴⁷ Based on the above information, the normal value for each Saudi industry was given separately as follows:

- With regard to M/s Advanced Polypropylene Co. : " ...Considering the fact that the prices of petroleum in general and as well as of the subject goods fell significantly during this period......the authority has proceeded to construct the normal value on the basis of the unit cost [to] make and sell ...". ⁴⁸ The authority aimed to find in this statement a way to protect its domestic industries by applying antidumping duty to exported products, especially from Saudi Arabia. However, there is no relationship between the price of petroleum and the normal value, as the price of petroleum is globally priced. This means, the authority has not professionally determined the normal value correctly.
- With regard to the M/s Saudi Polyolefins Company, the authority determined the normal value based on total domestic sales, as it was provided with the

details of the selling price, which is agreed to be legally acceptable. $^{\rm 49}$

- With regard to M/s Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC), the authority was described as non-co-operative, because it did not provide any details as required. However, in this exanimation, there is no mention of what basis the authority used to calculate the normal value and the other elements related to it.⁵⁰
- With regard to M/s Exxon Mobil Chemical Asia Pacific - Saudi Arabia, the same statement was made as for SABIC; namely, that the company did not co-operate with the Indian authority in this matter.⁵¹ Here too there was no method shown to explain how the authority would determine normal value.

In the Indian case, the dumping margin was clearer than in the Turkish and EU cases. After the authority considered the exporting price and normal value, as discussed above, a dumping margin was applied to the Saudi petrochemical Industries. The margin was 53.59% for the Advanced Polypropylene Co., 1.89% for the M/s Saudi Polyolefins Company, and 185.68% for the non-cooperative producers and exporters. The only comment made in regard to the dumping margins was in relation to M/s Saudi Polyolefins Company as well as M/s Advanced Polypropylene Co. The first company's percentage was regarded as de minimis, 52 and the authority did not apply any anti-dumping duty on the goods exported by this company. The second one could not understand how the authority linked the price of petroleum and normal value. This price would be expected to have no effect on normal value as it is globally price and there is no interference by government.

ii. Like product and the domestic industry

In order to apply anti-dumping provisions, it is important to identify like products, as well as the domestic industry for similar products. According to the GATT and the implementation of Article VI, the like product must be identical in all respects in order for anti-

⁴⁶ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 6 of these Preliminary Findings).

⁴⁷ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014,(page 6 of these Preliminary Findings).

⁴⁸ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 7 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁴⁹ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 7 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁵⁰ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 7 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁵¹ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 7 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁵² Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 5.8.

dumping regulations to be applied.⁵³ However, in the case of the domestic industry, reference must be to domestic producers of like products, unless there is a relationship between the exporting and domestic industries.⁵⁴ Nonetheless, in practice, domestic industries must deliver more than 50% of the total 55 for like products in anti-dumping cases. Therefore, on this particular point, there were no issues related to identifying like products within the domestic industry, as like products were identical in all three cases and clearly domestic industries were also producing alike products. In some cases, however, the definition of "like product" could be raised as an issue between parties: "Since the definition of 'like product' has not been settled in the anti-dumping context, administering authorities enjoy much discretion in determin[ing] the product scope of anti-dumping investigations".⁵⁶ However, in some cases, as in the footwear case between China and Indonesia, it was not easy to distinguish between slippers and outdoor shoes, and the court "...had to be satisfied in order to consider slippers and outdoor shoes as one product". 57 The case failed because these were not deemed identical products: "The test failed in the other direction (i.e., the Commission could not determine that outdoor shoes could be replaced by slippers for outdoor use, due to slippers' 'usual flimsiness'". ⁵⁸ Even though both can be regarded as shoes, the use of shoes was the deciding factor, suggesting a difference in products.

- EU case number 2011/c 49/10

Returning to the EU case against Saudi Arabia and Oman, the product was Polyethylene Terephthalate. This product was identical in all respects to the domestic product as clarified in the intuition: "The product subject to this investigation is Polyethylene Terephthalate having a viscosity number of 78 ml/g or higher, according to the ISO Standard 1628-5".⁵⁹ However, the Committee of Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) industries filled this case on behalf of the union industries, "...by the Committee of Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) Manufactures in Europe (CP-ME)...on behalf of the producers representing a major proportion, in this case more than 50% of the total Union production of certain polyethylene terephthalate". ⁶⁰

Before examining another case, however, it is important to mention the process of "Sampling". A huge number of Union producers are involved in the antidumping cases, in order to end these cases on time the commission typically selects one producer as a representative of Union producers; i.e. "The commission has decided to limit to a reasonable number the Union producers that will be investigated by selecting a sample (this process is also referred to as 'sampling'). The sample is carried out in accordance with Article 17 of the basic Regulation".⁶¹ This statement shows no conflict between this Article and the anti-dumping regulations in the GATT agreement. It is a kind of process and an acceptable way of organising the allegations between interested parties.

- Turkish case number2008/40

The same applied in the Turkish case, concerning Monoethylene Glycol, which referred to the product under the Turkish Custom Tariff Authority. Moreover, it was clarified further; i.e."...the formula (CH2OH) 2, which MEG, glycols is the smallest compound to colour less, odorless, clear and very hygroscopic syrup liquid".⁶² In addition, the legal percentage under the WTO in the anti-dumping cases referring to domestic similar producers was clearly mentioned in the initiation.

- Indian case number14/5/2009-DGAD

In the Indian case, the product name was mentioned clearly:

The product under consideration is 'Polypropylene (i.e., homopolymers of propylene and copolymers of propylene and ethylene)'. This subject goods are classified under Custom Headings 39021000 and 39023000. ⁶³

Moreover, the initiation pointed out the different uses of the subject product "...The subject goods are used as woven sacks for cement, food-grains, sugar, fertilizer, bags for fruits & vegetables, TQ & BOPP films, containers etc.". ⁶⁴ As a consequence of these two

⁵³ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 2.6.

⁵⁴Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 4.1 (i) and footnote 11 of this Article.

⁵⁵ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 5.4.

 ⁵⁶ Konstantinos Adamantopoulos and Diego De Notaris, "The future of the WTO and the reform of the anti-dumping agreement: a legal perspective", 2000-2001, *Fordham International Law Journal*, 24:30, 63.
 ⁵⁷ Konstantinos Adamantopoulos and Diego De Notaris, "The future of the WTO and the reform of the anti-dumping agreement: a legal perspective", 2000-2001, *Fordham International Law Journal*, 24:30, 37.
 ⁵⁸ Konstantinos Adamantopoulos and Diego De Notaris, "The future of the WTO and the reform of the anti-dumping agreement: a legal perspective", 2000-2001, *Fordham International Law Journal*, 24:30, 37.
 ⁵⁹ Case number 2001, *Fordham International Law Journal*, 24:30, 37.
 ⁵⁹ Case number 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/16.

 $^{^{60}}$ Case number 2011/c 49/10, $EU\ v$ Oman and Saudi Arabia [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/16.

⁶¹ Case number 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/18.

 $^{^{62}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569, 1.

⁶³ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 1of the Initiation Notification).

⁶⁴ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009]

statements, the initiation clearly addressed the identical nature of the two products, thus.

There are no differences either in the technical specifications, quality, functions or end-uses of the dumped imports and the domestically produced subject goods and the product under consideration manufactured by the applicant. The two are technically and commercially substitutable and hence should be treated as 'like article' under the anti-dumping Rules.⁶⁵

However, the case was raised by one of the domestic producers on behalf of the domestic similar industries "The application has been filed by M/s Reliance Industry Ltd. on behalf of the domestic industry". The total number of industries and similar producers reached the legal percentage to continue an anti-dumping cases"...the total domestic production of the like article and is more than 50% of Indian production of the like article".⁶⁶

Accordingly, it can be seen that the authorities in the anti-dumping cases against Saudi products applied the anti-dumping regulations in the right way and the domestic regulations relating to GATT on anti dumping were applicable. However, the Indian case was legally clearer in regard to identification of the like product, as it mentioned the diversity of uses of the like product, which can be considered the correct legal written formula and procedure on this particular point.

iii. Injury and causal link

This section is one of the most important and difficult in relation to application of anti-dumping regulations. Without these two elements, anti-dumping provisions could not be applied. However, dumping itself is not illegal but is penalised if it causes or threatens material or other injury to an established industry or one that is planned. Before examining the cases, it is important to consider both these elements in relation to the implementation of Article VI of GATT.

With regard to injury, Article VI states that dumping can cause injury or threat to a domestic industry: "...if it causes or threatens material injury to an established industry in the territory of a contracting party or materially retards the establishment of a domestic industry...". ⁶⁷ Thus, it must be based on positive evidence and involve an objection in order to examine

the volume of dumped imports and the effect of pricing on domestic producers. ⁶⁸ The authority should check two points: increases in quantities dumped and the price undercutting of like products in the domestic market. However, the causal link must be between the low price for importing the product and the injury or threat as known at this point. It is agreed that the cause of dumping is the importing of the product, but not the product itself, otherwise this might mean that any imported product could be regarded as dumped, which is not the case. It is the low price of the imported product that causes injury.

- EU case number 2011/c 49/10

This initiation details the identified injuryas

Injury means material injury to the union industry or threat of material injury to the industry, or material retardation of the establishment of such an industry. A determination of injury is based on positive evidence and involves an objective determination of the volume of dumped imports, their effect on prices on the Union market and the consequent impact of those imports on the Union industry.... ⁶⁹

However, the initiation mentioned an increase in the imported product in terms of market share:"The Complainant has provided evidence that impacts of the product under investigations from the countries concerned have increased overall in absolute terms and have increased in terms market share".⁷⁰ Consequently, this caused a negative impact on the dumped Saudi Arabian product, which"...had a negative impact on quantities sold, the level of the prices charged and market share held by Union industry, resulting in substantial adverse effects on the overall performance, the financial situation and the employment situation of the Union industry".⁷¹

In this initiation, and as provided by the Union's complainant industry, the injury could be classified into three particular points, quantities sold, price charged and market share by union industries. Yet, this must be linked to the low price of an imported similar product, if anti-dumping duty is to be applied. However, this case was withdrawn by the complainant after the initiation, so it will be difficult to examine the three points of injuries and find a casual link.

www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 1& 2 of the Initiation Notification).

⁶⁵ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 2 of the Initiation Notification).

⁶⁶ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 1 of the Initiation Notification).

⁶⁷ General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), 55 UNTS 194; 61 Stat. pt. 5; TIAS 1700, Article VI.

⁶⁸ Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 3.1.

⁶⁹ Case number 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/18.

⁷⁰ Case number 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/16.

⁷¹ Case number 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union C 49/16.

Turkish case number 2008/40

Referring back to the Turkish case; the authority examined if there was an increase in the volume of Saudi exported products. It demonstrated that there was an increase during the period of time under examination, and also that the dumped imports effected the prices of domestic producers. It was stated that the value increased in this period affecting Turkish domestic producers. Moreover, the Turkish authority examined the economic indicators for domestic production: sales, exports, market share, inventories, capacity, employment, fees, productivity, domestic price, costs, cash flow, growth, capital increase and increase in investment; all were evidence of the effect of dumping on the domestic industry although not evidence of dumping itself. 72

- Indian case number 14/5/2009-DGAD

In this case, the initiation stated that the applicant had put forward all the related evidence regarding the injury

The applicant has furnished evidence regarding the injury having taken place as a result of the alleged dumping in the form of increased volume of dumped imports, price underselling, price suppression, and substantial decline in profitability, return and cash flow for the domestic industries.⁷³

However, in the Preliminary Findings, and after the authority had examined all the evidence, it found an increase in imports from 100 (in 2005-06) to 164 in the period under investigation.⁷⁴ With regard to demand and market share, the imports from these countries continued in the range of 5% to 6%, and the market share of the domestic industry improved. ⁷⁵

Thus, capacity fell in the period of investigation compared to previous years, and the sales volumes of both importing and domestic industries were enhanced.⁷⁶ There was also an increase concerning

iv. Whether there is any "subsidising" for Saudi products as well as for the domestic products of the importing countries

It is important to examine whether there are any kinds of subsidies from the Saudi government for the products in the three anti-dumping cases. Usually as there are two different implementation processes for anti-dumping and anti-subsidy under the GATT agreement, in practice cases have to be dealt with separately, even if in some circumstances they are related. By checking the WTO reports with regard to subsidy cases, there was no case found against Saudi Arabia dealing with anti-subsidy regulations. Nonetheless, this does not mean there is no any allegation with regard to this point, because it may be integrated within the antidumping cases.

Thus, if we look back at the Turkish case mentioned above, two issues were reported in this case. One in regard to market conditions and the other in relation to the involvement of the state (Saudi Arabia) in its domestic market, which affects the export price. As shown in the definitions of subsidy regulation, a subsidy is deemed to exist, among other conditions, if: "... there is any form of income or price support in the sense of Article XVI of GATT 1994...". ⁷⁸ Thus, this expressed the involvement of the Saudi government in the domestic market to affect the export price as a kind of subsidy.

Having examined many of the WTO members' legal actions with regard to anti-dumping and antisubsidy, the research shows more attention is generally paid to the former than the latter. The anti-subsidy cases under the DSU numbered only 102 cases.⁷⁹ Thus, it is recommended that the WTO takes more action on this point and activates the Agreement on Subsidy and Countervailing Measures more fully.

v. Termination of these anti-dumping

At the end of this section on analysing antidumping cases against Saudi Arabia, it seems that the

 $^{^{72}}$ The Turkish Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 2008/40 and 2010/11, Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569.

⁷³ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 2 of the Initiation Notification).

⁷⁴ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 17 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁷⁵The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 17 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁷⁶ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 17 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁷⁷ The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia: 14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21 February 2014, (page 17 of the Preliminary Findings).

⁷⁸ The Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures, Apr. 15, 1994, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization, Annex 1A, The Legal Texts: The Results of the Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations 231 (1999), 1869 U.N.T.S. 14. Article 1.1 (a) (2).

⁷⁹ See the official WTO website in regard to disputes related to Anti-Subsidy, http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/dispu_e/dispu_agreem ents_index_e.htm?id=A20, accessed 23 February 2014.

European Union commission has been very careful in making its decisions with regard to anti-dumping regulations, more so than the authorities in the other cases (the Indian authority in particular). The argument and use of language in the European case was very strong and more specific in terms of details than in the Indian case. The European Union's authority used an element considered evidence of the dumping itself, unlike the Indian case. Thus, it can be seen that the Indian case was abusive in its application of the regulation, meaning that it might not have been wholly in compliance with the GATT regulation and Article VI implementation.

However, these cases were terminated with many different reasons; however, after this the Saudi Arabian government put political pressure on these countries in a different way. As was clear in the termination of each case. In the EU case, the complainant withdrew from allegations on 12th of October, 2011.⁸⁰ In regard to the Turkish case, the thanks Saudi Government expressed its and appreciation to the Turkish government after termination of anti-dumping duty against the Saudi petrochemical products mentioned in the case.⁸¹ This was achieved through the regular weekly council of ministries, which met on 26th of March, 2012. From the Turkish side, there were no official document demonstrating the reason for terminating anti-dumping duty against the Saudi petrochemical product.

Moreover, the Indian case included a very unique termination. The Indian anti-dumping decision for the case was dated 9th of August, 2012; the Indian authority retained the anti-dumping duty on Oman and Singapore and dropped it from the Saudi petrochemical products. It was mentioned in this decision, that:"On December 30, 2011 the Central Government has withdrawn the duties imposed on the imports from Saudi Arabia by Notification 130/2011...".⁸² Thus, based on the previous statement and the close of dates between the termination of these cases, it can be seen clearly that Saudi Arabia put political pressure on the committee assessing theanti-dumping. This may have led to increased priority to negotiatein future antidumping cases against the Saudi products. Finally, all three cases have a direct impact, whether to the alleging countries or to Saudi Arabia, as will be seen later in this paper.

IV. Cases Against Saudi Arabia at the International Level

In the dispute settlement report on antidumping cases, ⁸³ no disputes were found against Saudi Arabia. However, Saudi Arabia has been involved in a total of 20 cases under the Dispute Settlement Understanding (DSU) as a third party.⁸⁴ Thus, antidumping cases against Saudi Arabia have continued to further the DSU level under the WTO agreement. By examining the previous statistics from the anti-dumping Global Database about anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabia, ⁸⁵ it is evident that there are against Saudi Arabia, but at the national level only, so they did not take any further actions. In this research, the reasons for not pursuing such cases against Saudi Arabia at the international level under the WTO may be as follows:

a) WTO Membership

The majority of the anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabia were established before Saudi Arabia joined the WTO. According to the statistics from the Global anti-dumping Database, 11 cases out of 34 occurred before Saudi Arabia joined the World Trade Organisation at the end of 2005 (that equates to 32.35%).⁸⁶

In addition, Saudi Arabia fought for about ten years to become a member of the WTO, ⁸⁷ and these cases were not considered a negotiation priority. The priority was to fulfil the conditions and requirements of being a member of the WTO, while membership was still not achieved, and more steps were required. Thus, most Saudi companies faced these cases without any real support from the Saudi government, as Saudi Arabia did not regard anti-dumping actions as a threat to its industries.

However, the Saudi Arabian government acted by appointing a committee (under the Ministry of Petroleum), ⁸⁸ to address and negotiate in these cases. This committee aimed to terminate anti-dumping cases

⁸⁰ Case number 2011/835/EU, *EU* v *Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], official Journal of the European Union L 330/45.

⁸¹ See the Report by the Saudi Council of Ministers in the official Saudi Press Agency website, http://www.spa.gov.sa/minister_of_concil.php? cid=29&pg=1, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁸² The Indian Anti-dumping case against Saudi Arabia:14/5/2009-DGAD, India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore [2009] www.co mmerce.nic.in, accessed on 21st of February, 2014,(page 6 of the Indian Anti-dumping decision date 9 August 2012).

⁸³ WTO Dispute Settlement: One-Page Case Summaries, 1995-2011, 2012 Edition. See the WTO official website, http://wto.org/englis h/res_e/publications_e/dispu_settlement_e.htm, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁸⁴ Dispute Settlement by Country, the WTO official website, http://wto.org/english/tratop_e/dispu_e/dispu_by_country_e.htm, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁸⁵The Global Anti-dumping Database under the World Bank, http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEAR CH/0,,contentMDK:22574930~pagePK:64214825~piPK:64214943~t heSitePK:469382,00.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

⁸⁶The Global Anti-dumping Database under the World Bank, http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRESEAR CH/0,,contentMDK:22574930~pagePK:64214825~piPK:64214943~t heSitePK:469382,00.html, accessed on 21 February 2014.

⁸⁷ Ministry of Commerce and Industry, http://www.mci.gov.sa/, accessed on 23 February 2014.

⁸⁸ The committee was headed by HRH Prince Abdul-Aziz bin Salman, who is the Assistant Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources for Petroleum.

against Saudi Arabian products overseas, where they involved petro chemicals product. However, protecting Saudi industries domestically, was the responsibility of another department, under the Ministry of Commerce. ⁸⁹ It can be seen in this research, that whether an antidumping dispute is inside or outside Saudi Arabia it should be dealt with by the same department in order to establish knowledge and understanding in such cases.

b) Experience

Saudi Arabia is still a new member of the WTO and has limited experience of how to deal with antidumping cases, whether locally or overseas. Even in regard to cases of anti-dumping against its products after the joining the WTO in 2005, it has minimal experience of how to deal with such cases. As a result of this, Saudi Arabia was not involved in any antidumping cases at DUS level. On the other hand, in some of the anti-dumping cases mentioned above, the Saudi petrochemical companies did not follow up matters seriously, or participate in a trial in the country where the allegation was made⁹⁰: In general, Saudi companies preferred an alternative way to resolve antidumping cases.

c) Saudi Arabia's interest in the oil sector

Saudi Arabia had no interest in focusing on industries in general or petrochemical industries in particular, to enable these industries to receive government support in cases of dumping. Their entire focus was on the oil sector, as it generates the primary important income in the country. However, Saudi Arabia realised the importance of diverting national revenues in order to manage fluctuations in the oil price and insure stability in national revenues without focusing on oil profits.⁹¹ Moreover, the Saudi government planned to extend and develop the production of petrochemicals, ⁹² although these cases can be an obstacle to free trade and the movement of goods between countries.

d) Saudi Arabia's special policy

Some of the Anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabia were connected with political actions, even relative to legal matters at. For this reason, Saudi Arabia has a special political approach that differs entirely from that of other countries. ⁹³ Its political view is that in order to achieve a successful outcome internationally, the political approach must be very quiet and the focus needs to be on the larger political issues only. For this reason Saudi Arabia has not paid substantial attention to anti-dumping cases, as these have generally been small issues related to Saudi industries, when compared to the major political issues that were deemed to be more important. On the other hand, Saudi political policy does not support international escalation, such as with anti-dumping cases, because it prefers to maintain a good relationship with countries worldwide as much as possible. Thus, Saudi industries, which faces cases like these, must address such matters alone, and in some cases without any kind of government support.

e) Alternative solutions

As mentioned above, the Saudi government has not been interested in anti-dumping legal matters, meaning that those Saudi industries facing these cases have dealt with them independently. For this reason some alternative solutions to resolving such cases have developed. One of these solutions is exiting the importing country's market or at least stopping exports to that country for a short period of time until a legal alternative is found. Another solution is to form a union or coalition with local industries in the importing country, or to establish a Saudi industry in that country, owned by the Saudi industries. Typically, this has involved buying the entire shareholdings of companies inside the importing market.⁹⁴ This means that it would be difficult for the importing country to then apply anti-dumping regulations against Saudi companies as they would then be in conflict with Article 4 of the implementation of Article VI. GATT.95

For the above reasons, it is logical not to engage in anti-dumping cases at DSU level against Saudi Arabia, and instead just to inform the WTO. Saudi industries cannot support their actions in the WTO

⁸⁹ Ministry of Commerce and Industry, http://www.mci.gov.sa/, accessed on 23 February 2014.

⁹⁰The Anti-dumping cases between Saudi Arabia and EU, Turkey and EU. Indian case: 14/5/2009-DGAD, *India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore* [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21st of February, 2014. Turkish case: 2008/40 and 2010/11, *Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria* [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569. EU case: 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.

⁹¹ Dr. Eid Al-Juhani, *The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia after one hundred years*, Dara King Abdul-Aziz, v 14, 257.

⁶²The National Industrial Strategic for Industry 2020. See the Saudi Industrial Development Funds website, http://www.sidf.gov.sa/, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁹³ The Saudi foreign policy, The Ministry of Foreign Affiance official website,http://www.mofa.gov.sa/sites/mofaen/KingdomForeignPolicy/ Pages/KingdomPolicy34645.aspx, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁹⁴ SABIC has purchased many petrochemical industries in China, the EU and other regions of the world. It plans to further develop this industry in Saudi Arabia as a means of obtaining considerable income and benefits, as well as to escape from the imposition of anti-dumping allegations in cases such as the ones under discussion. Moreover, on the TV programme "Special Interview" on the Al Arabya news channel, on 4 December 2012, Mr Yang Fo Tshang, the then Chinese-Deputy Foreign Minister and former adviser to the Centre for the Chinese-Arab Cooperation Forum, stated that Saudi Arabia had invested a considerable amount in the petrochemical sector in China and that the exchange rate between Saudi Arabia and China was around 65 billion US Dollars last year. See SABIC official website, www.sabic.com, accessed 23 February 2014.

⁹⁵Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201.Article 4.1 (i) and footnote 11 of this Article.

setting without assistance from the government, which has not been available.

IV. The Impact of the Anti-Dumping Cases

Anti-dumping has an impact on both sides (importers and exporters), and for this reason, the contracting parties have agreed to the prohibition of illegal actions as they result in unfair competition. However, the impact on the importing and exporting countries share similarities on some points and differ on others; however, how anti-dumping cases will impacton the Saudi petrochemical industries is under discussion here. The following section clarifies the impact legal actions on Saudi Arabia. It considers that, just as there is an impact from dumping, the applying of antidumping duty on exporting countries can have a direct impact on domestic industries as well. Therefore, the impact is on both sides, not only on the importing countries. However, these regulations should be applied with careful consideration.

a) The impact from the legal side

Repeated use of anti-dumping action, without legal justification or strong proof of necessity, undermines the credibility of the legislation and the legitimate aims for which it was created. It is therefore essential that its use be in accordance with correct legal procedures and standards set under the WTO agreement. The aim of the legislation is to ensure fair competition between products in the international markets, which helps to accelerate the pace of trade between nations and foster it. However, the frequent use of such legislation to give the best opportunities to local producers or to monopolise the local markets ahead of international producers, renders regulations valueless.

It can be seen in this research that the frequent use of anti-dumping processes is to allow unfair competition, albeit in a new way and with legal cover. Due to the increasing frequency of legal issues of this nature between contracting parties and since the global economic crisis, it has become necessary for countries, which are parties to GATT to review texts in accordance with their new economic circumstances and to investigate the abuse of laws. In reviewing these laws, therefore, it is necessary to impose sanctions, or at least achieve a legal right against a state that is using these legal actions in an abusive way or in bad faith. This course would promote the use of such laws in accordance with the aims for which they were developed, as legal safeguards exist in practice; i.e. to complain to the WTO as well as to the investigator and decision-maker in such cases. In other words, these are not sufficient to achieve a legal trial with results that will satisfy all parties concerned.

These anti-dumping cases have a direct impact legally on Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia directly

established a negotiation committee to find a legal solution to allegations through direct negotiations. 96 This is a major step on the part of the Saudi government, as there is currently no governmental involvement in such cases. Saudi Arabia has realised the negative direct impact of anti-dumping cases on its industries, particularly the petrochemicals sector. For that reason, it is now applying a technique of using a negotiation committee to discuss this legal matter with other parties. The importance of this negotiation committee to the government, is evident as one of the governmental officials responsible for the committee succeeding in its duty is a Royal Prince. 97 Moreover, Saudi Arabia has seen the importance of making an amendment to the legal anti-dumping system under the GCC, as this was done on 28 January 2013.98 This change was to make the regulation more compatible with the WTO, and to strengthen the protection of similar products inside Saudi Arabia domestic from competition.

b) The impact from the economic side

It is important also to examine the impact of this from thee conomic side in order to understand the scope of the legal issues and to discover how far they might affect the economies of the countries concerned. The law protects rights and regulates people's lives in many different areas, and in this section there will be a discussion of the impact of legal action from different perspectives: price, competition, sales quantities, production, development and national plans, employment, and finally, impact on the national income.

i. Price and profit

The first impact to consider is that on price, which is the main element or tool of dumping. Thus, the first element to examine is whether we are considering export price, normal price or domestic price, so as to be able to calculate the dumping margin. In order to understand the impact of dumping on price and profits, three hypothesis points will be considered:

 In cases where the price of an exported product is lower than the cost of a similar domestic product, the latter will beaffected and will be considered as dumping if it comes with injury and a causal link. This is similar to the guidelines in the anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabia mentioned above. However, this price should have a direct impact on the profit and other economic elements related to it. Moreover, it will not represent proper competition between the products. Conversely, the exporter will

⁹⁶ A Royal Decree was issued to establish this committee on 13 April 2011.

⁹⁷ The committee was headed by HRH Prince Abdul-Aziz bin Salman, who is the Assistant Minister of Petroleum and Mineral Resources for Petroleum.

⁹⁸ The Saudi Press Agency, http://www.spa.gov.sa/, accessed 23 February 2014.

accrue more profit as well as strengthening the presence of products in the importing market.

- In cases where the price of an exported product is similar or a little lower than the cost of a similar domestic product, it will be difficult to allege dumping, as it might be a case of deminimisor negligence. ⁹⁹ However, the domestic industry for a similar product will not be able to attain a profit as well as develop its industries as a whole. On the other hand, there will be no difference as they are both close to each other, although the exporter might have greater opportunity to be more accepted in the domestic market of the import country.
 - In cases where the price of an exported product is similar or a little higher than the cost of a similar product, the domestic industry for that similar product will be able to make a profit and develop its industry as soon as the selling quantity moves in the right direction. However, the competition between the domestic product and the exported product will be high, as well as meeting the aim of the GATT agreement, which will favour the consumer.

Nonetheless, in the previous hypothesis, there were few changes to prices. Most importing countries, which complained about Saudi products, had a suitable level of pricing inside their domestic markets, and so were able to continue making a profit. However, Saudi Arabia was effected by these anti-dumping cases targeting its petrochemical product, and suffered an anti-dumping duty. It has been reported that Saudi Arabia lost around 5 Billion Saudi Riyals in 2013 because of anti-dumping cases against its petrochemicals products. ¹⁰⁰ Consequently, the price has been raised, which will have a direct effect on competitive ability of competition and sales volumes.

ii. Competition

There is a direct impact proceeding from competition between these products. This will have an immediate effect on domestic industries, because they are targeted by the exporting producer. The competition would then not be as good as it should to be. Initially, the domestic producer will try to compute as much as possible using such tools as pricing or offers, but it will not then be able to continue competing. In contrast, the exporting producer in the importing country will find it easier to exert their influence to their own benefit.

In regard to the anti-dumping cases against Saudi Arabian petrochemical products, the competition continues at the same level, as all have the ability to compete inside the complainant's markets. It can be seen that competition has not really changed, yet, there has been an effect exerted by some elements from the domestic Saudi market. Fixing prices and cheap raw materials have been the two most important elements domestically inside Saudi Arabia; these have a direct effect on the competition and other products in the international markets. Thus, even with the ability to compete with Saudi products, this was not in the right legal way under the WTO agreement.

iii. Selling quantities

The selling quantities are in an inverse relationship between the domestic industry and exporting producers. While the exporting producer's selling quantities increase in a dumping situation, the selling quantities of the importing country decrease. However, this will not be the situation in every dumping case, only when there is a high level of dumping.

In the cases involving Saudi Arabia, the selling quantity between the Saudi producers and importing countries was unpredictable, sometimes it increased and at other times not.

iv. Industrial producing

In the case of dumping, domestic industrial producers are typically unable to increase production and might either decrease or cease to produce a particular kind of product. Conversely, the exporting producer may choose to make more of a similar product, as it would be expected to sell better inside the importing country, or continue to sell at the same level. However, the domestic industrial producer might not be significantly affected, and in such a case the effects then relate to the amount of dumping. The impact of dumping might not relate to industrial production at all, as stated in the dumping definition in Article VI: "...or materially retards the establishment of a domestic industry...". ¹⁰¹ In fact, most cases against Saudi products have not mentioned that the establishment of their domestic industry was materially retarded as a result, and they were still able to continuing with the similar products.

v. Development and national plans

There is clearly a direct impact on the development of the domestic industry as well as on national strategy plans in regard to industries of this kind, especially if the particular industry is important to the importing nation. The dumping will retard the future plans for both the industry and the country itself. However, anti-dumping duty has an effect on export industries as well as on the national strategy plans.

Regarding Saudi Arabian cases, these may directly affect a company's plans, especially the

⁹⁹Agreement on Implementation of Article VI of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade 1994 (Anti-dumping Agreement), 1868 U.N.T.S. 201. Article 5.8.

¹⁰⁰ Alsharq Alawsat Newspaper, Report about the Anti-dumping cases against the Saudi Petrochemicals products, http://classic.aawsat.co m/details.asp?section=6&article=724839&issueno=12558#.Uy8zz55 _suc, accessed 23 February 2014.

¹⁰¹General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), 55 UNTS 194; 61 Stat. pt. 5; TIAS 1700, Article VI.

strategic plan for 2020. ¹⁰² The aim of this plan is to increase the production ability, which can be done by entering new international markets to sell these petrochemical products. Thus, anti-dumping cases against these products will weaken their ability to compete in international markets, hindering the plan.

vi. Employment

In the cases considered above, it was mentioned that dumping by Saudi producers had not affected the employment processes undertaken by these industries or the importing countries. However, they might affect the Saudi supply side, due to the producers not hiring additional employees in the absence of future plans. The effects in this regard, however, are limited and not so well recognised as those applying to other areas.

In addition, as mentioned above, the strategic plan for 2020 aims to have more capacity of hiring more employing to this sector in Saudi Arabia. However, if this anti-dumping duty has continued in the Saudi petrochemicals product, it will effect negatively in thee xpansion of recruitment in this sector as it is planned. For that, the Saudi government has taken all necessary steps to stop terminating anti-dumping actions against Saudi petrochemical products.

vii. National income

There is an indirect effect from dumping cases that effects both exporting and importing countries, especially where the industries involved are important. Petrochemicals production is not an easy kind of industry to manage, and costs a great deal, whether is it run by the private or public sector. Overall, dumping has an indirect effect on national income for both exporters and importers. First, dumping may reduce the selling quantity in the importing country or threaten the development of the sector, which will in turn affect taxes being collected, and so the national income.

In the case of Saudi Arabia, national income might be affected by the application of duty, as petrochemicals are an important source of national income, after income from selling oil and gas. It is evident, therefore, that there will be an indirect impact from anti-dumping regulations on both the exporting and importing countries.

c) The impact from the political side

There is no particular anti-dumping case that has a direct or indirect impact on political relations between both exporting and importing countries. However, it is not impossible that this can happen; potentially leading to political conflict:

For example, when the United States recently announced that it was placing tariffs on Chinese automobile tires under the WTO's safeguard provision (7), China announced only two days later that it would be initiating an anti-dumping investigation into whether exporters in the United States were dumping automobile and chicken products into China (8).¹⁰³

This statement shows the extent to which politics can effect anti-dumping cases between WTO contracting parties, which can then lead to political issues arising between the conflicting parties.

In the case of Saudi Arabia, the country's media reported the anti-dumping case with India as a high profile disagreement; some sections of the media were asking that the Indian workforce be expelled from Saudi Arabia as a way to defend Saudi petrochemicals. This there forehad some potential to affect international relations between Saudi Arabia and India. However, both parties agreed to start negotiations between themselves, pursuing diplomatic approaches to find a solution.

The GATT refers to negotiation between countries or "contracting parties", as an important tool that can have a considerable effect. It may result in the parties being ordered to close the case without investigation or even after anti-dumping duty has been applied, as arose in the seanti-dumping cases.¹⁰⁴ Political pressure means direct political negotiation between governments to apply diplomatic methods to end the conflict or dispute. Some countries,¹⁰⁵ prefer to negotiate in these cases, and negotiation can be done by appointing a committee of experts with real authority and experience in finding a solution to such cases.

However, negotiation might not be with a government directly; it might be with the domestic industries themselves, through their representatives. This is generally easier than negotiating with a government, which may need to consider governmental policy and procedures, lengthening the time spent in negotiation. However, in some circumstances, it might be necessarily for a negotiation to be with the government itself, ultimately depending on the facts of the cases and the political atmosphere.

In these cases, the negotiations between Saudi Arabia and EU, Turkey and India on anti-dumping investigation resulted in the termination of all

¹⁰²The National Industrial Strategic for Industry 2020. See the Saudi Industrial Development Funds website, http://www.sidf.gov.sa/, accessed 23 February 2014.

¹⁰³Reid M. Bolton, "Anti-dumping and Distrust Reducing Anti-dumping Duties under the W.T.O. Through Heightened Scrutiny", *Berkeley Journal of International Law*, 2011, 66, p.67.

¹⁰⁴ The Cases between EU, Turkey, India and Saudi Arabia. Indian case: 14/5/2009-DGAD, *India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore* [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21st of February, 2014. Turkish case: 2008/40 and 2010/11, *Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria* [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569. EU case: 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.

¹⁰⁵ e.g. Japan.

investigations and duties.¹⁰⁶ This result was positive, and so negotiation is suggested as an important step to be followed prior to investigation or trial. This step can help limit the increasing numbers of anti-dumping cases among the WTO members and also makes it possible to find alternative solutions. This approach should be legalised under the GATT agreement.

V. Conclusion

This paper has shown that there have been many anti-dumping cases against the Saudi Arabian petrochemical products at the national level. Some of these cases were analysed to answer the question on the effect of these cases in Saudi Arabia. The responsibility for compatibility is on the domestic legal systems of the countries making allegations, who should check the applicability of the regulations. In this analysis, all the countries concerned observed the WTO agreement and its implementation in terms of antidumping regulations. However, in applying these regulations to facts, it was apparent that on some points the parties did not follow the WTO provisions, giving more space to domestic producers inside the market ahead of the exporting producer. This kind of action is referred to in this research as new unfair competition, but it falls within the law and the WTO umbrella. The problem lies not in the regulations, but in their application to the facts, as some contracting parties have sought to apply them in a way that abuses of the exporting producer. Thus, it is argued that contracting parties should reform anti-dumping and anti-subsidy regulations to avoid this kind of misuse of these regulations.

In addition, it should be noted, that although cases against Saudi Arabian products are few, they are important as they often relate to the petrochemicals sector, which is one of the most significant industry sectors in Saudi Arabia after oil. Until recently, however, the WTO has not distinguished between a country like Saudi Arabia, which has considerable resources in regard to petrochemical elements and raw materials, and other countries; this an important point to address with regard to these cases. In general, the petrochemicals sector around the world has faced many cases of this kind, and alternative solutions to prosecution need to be found, to move the global economy forward.

This paper has also considered the impact of anti-dumping allegations on countries. The anti-

dumping action can have a direct effect on all parties, which can harm the economy of the conflicting parties. If such regulations are applied against the exporting country, this can affect the industries of that country, and also harm the importing county and its industries. As mentioned, anti-dumping cases could become an obstacle to the free movement of goods and products between nations, which means that there needs to be further reform in the regulations between contracting parties or replacement with another set of regulations.

¹⁰⁶ The Cases between Saudi Arabia and EU, Turkey and India. Indian case: 14/5/2009-DGAD, *India v Oman, Saudi Arabia and Singapore* [2009] www.commerce.nic.in, accessed on 21st of February, 2014. Turkish case: 2008/40 and 2010/11, *Turkey v Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Bulgaria* [2008] Turkish Gazette 27 092 – 27 569. EU case: 2011/c 49/10, *EU v Oman and Saudi Arabia* [2011], Official Journal of European Union c 49/16.



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

The Sri Lankan Civil War: From Conflict to Peace Building

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University of Chicago Press, Sri Lanka

Abstract- The present study approaches the hypothesis according to which, the Sri Lankan war was very hard to handle. On the 25th of July 1983, a date which is also known as "Black July", groups of Sinhalese civilians brutally attacked the Tamil community, provoking numerous deaths, fires and robberies. This is commonly considered the beginning of the civil war, which has officially ended 26 years later, in 2009.

It could not be settled even after several rounds of peace talks, international mediation with India and Norway as facilitators, and a very supportive international context. It is very important to note that failed and inconclusive mediation not only did not put an end to the war, but made it re-escalate to a level of terror unprecedented in the history of the country - the LTTE was labeled as a terrorist organization by 32 countries.

The present study conviction is that there is one factor in particular that can be considered a huge obstacle in the way of ethnic reconciliation and sustainable peace: the unaddressed ethnic issues which caused the war in the first place. The military victory over the LTTE left these issues still not brought up for solution, since state actors were oriented towards "solving the problem" and ending the war at all costs, and promoted it as a successful defeat of terrorism. This does not guarantee that their conflictive potential has been entirely spent.

Keywords: civil war, conflict management, peace process, reconciliation

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 160699p



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I. INTRODUCTION

Post colonial Sri Lanka revealed a land of tensions: two different cultures fighting for survival. As it was soon going to become evident thorough the Sinhalese and Tamil decisions and behavior, the colonial period in Sri Lanka had made the two groups conscious of their distinct identities. Introducing the European element in the island's body was perceived as a threat and eventually determined a reaction of protecting one's culture from being absorbed. The identity crisis that the Sinhalese and the Tamil communities experienced during the colonial period led to the need to establish national identities. In the process, their ethnical, linguistic and religious differences surfaced.

The 1981 census revealed the following ethnic Composition of the population: Sinhalese 74%, Sri Lanka Tamils 12.6%, Sri Lanka Moors 7.1%, Indian Tamils 5.6%, Malays 0.3%, Burghers 0.3%, Others 0.2%.¹

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The Sinhalese speak Sinhalese, an Indo-European language which is not spoken anywhere else in the world. They claim Indo-Aryan origin and are in their big majority Buddhist (93%).

The Tamils speak Tamil language, a Dravidian language spoken by Tamils all over the world. They claim Dravidian origin and are mostly Hindu. We can distinguish two groups of Tamils living in Sri Lanka: Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils. The first group shares a long history with the Sinhalese and is located in the north and east parts of the island. About 80% of them follow Hinduism. Indian Tamils were brought by the British in the 19th century to work on plantations and are concentrated in the central part of Sri Lanka. 80% of them are Hindu. They consider themselves however separated by the Hindu caste system, the latter being seen as "low caste.²

Even though after the independence both Sinhala and Tamil leaders have interpreted and presented the written history in a very biased way, in order to emphasize the all time existence of two distinct groups, it seems that prior to the colonial period Sri Lankans were not so much aware of their different identities. There were wars in between them, but they "did not take the form of communal violence as seen after independence in 1948"³, and ethnicity was not the dominant criteria: "Tamil speaking soldiers were crucial elements of the armies of the Sinhala kings, even acting as guards of the temple of the tooth in Polonnaruwa."⁴

The British colonization left a polarized society between the Sinhalese and the Tamils. Especially in the fields of employment, a process of raising racial awareness began. Most probably in order to avoid any risk of giving too much power to the already majority Sinhalese, the British placed the Tamils in better administrative positions. Moreover, the Sinhalese were also deprived of the high educational facilities the missionaries established in the schools of the Jaffna peninsula. The good education that the Tamil people were provided with allowed them to get good jobs,

¹ "Census of Population and Housing, Sri Lanka". Retrieved 07.03.2013 from http://www.statistics.gov.lk/

² Kearney, Robert, "Ethnic Conflict and the Tamil Separatist Movement in Sri Lanka" in *Asian Survey*, University of California Press, Vol. 25, No. 9, 1985, pp 898-917.

³ Wanigasooriya, P.R., *The Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka: a Clash of Civilizations*, Kansas, 1997, p 27, retrieved 07.03.2013 from http://www.dt ic.mil/cgi-bin/GetTRDoc?AD=ADA331785

⁴ Spencer, G.W., *The politics of plunder: the Cholas in eleventh century Ceylon*, JAS, 1976, vol. 2, pp 410-416, apud.

which undoubtedly made the Sinhalese feel that the minority had too many privileges and was given too much power. Soon after the independency, Sinhalese nationalists would make a purpose out of rectifying the situation.⁵

The racial dimension that the Sinhalese and Tamil identities acquired in the 19th century was backed by the rise of racialist theories in Europe, which linked linguistics to origin. The similarity of Sinhalese with Sanskrit and north Indian languages created a connection between the Sinhalese people and the Aryan race. They started to develop anti-Tamil feelings.⁶

In the efforts of retrieving their ethnic heritage and reaffirm their position as majority, the Sinhalese political elite adopted a series of discriminative laws against Tamils. In 1949, Indian Tamils have been disfranchised, dropping the Tamil voting power in the Parliament from 33% to 20% and leaving them with an ineffective opposition.

In 1956 the "Sinhala Only Language Act" was adopted, which made Sinhalese the exclusive language of the country. This led to several riots which determined the Prime Minister to negotiate with the Tamil Federal Party and recognize Tamil as a minority language. This pact was contested by the Buddhist clergy, sustaining it was an act of betrayal. More riots followed in 1958.

The constitution of 1972 gave Buddhism a superior status, shaking even more the already fragile communal relationships.

Two years before the independence, in 1946, Tamils represented 33% of the Cevlon Civil Service, 40% of the Judicial Service and 31% of university students. The Sinhalese-dominated governments tried to "balance" these facts and began eliminating the Tamils from governmental positions. To the same purpose, the university admission system has also been modified. Entrance on merit was replaced by a weightage system, a clear discrimination against Tamils. Moreover, the Sinhalese government fueled the Tamil distrust by colonizing areas that the latter considered to be their historical homeland. Sinhalese resettlement was seen as a conspiracy to divide the Tamil ethnic concentration and delegitimize their claims. In response, the Sinhalese insisted on the ancient civilization of Anuradhapura region. They were also concerned about the proximity of the region to the Tamil Nadu, which they believed reinforced Sri Lanka Tamils; surprisingly enough, the Sinhalese had a complex of minority in majority.

In 1970, the government banned the import of Tamil films, books, magazines etc from Tamil Nadu, India, cutting the cultural ties between them and the Sri Lanka Tamils and stating it was part of a socialist project of encouraging local economy and self-sufficiency. However, most Tamils did not believe this and considered this measure an act against their cultural survival.⁷⁸

Feeling, much as the Sinhalese, that the symbols of their ethnic group were threatened, Tamil people stood up to defend them in the political arena. In 1951, the Federalist Party pronounced itself for a federalist state with increased autonomy for the Tamil regions, declaring the following: "the Tamil-speaking people in Ceylon constitute a nation distinct from that of the Sinhalese in every fundamental test of nationhood, firstly that of a separate historical past in the island at least as ancient and as glorious as that of the Sinhalese, secondly by the fact of their being a linguistic entity entirely different from that of the Sinhalese, with an unsurpassed classical heritage and a modern development of language which makes Tamil fully adequate for all present day needs, and finally by reason of their territorial ambition of definite areas which constitute over one-third of this Island."9 The keywords of the declaration seem to be "distinct", "separate" and "entirely different".

Many Sinhalese argued they were pushing for a separate state. Yet the demand came two decades later, as a result of the frustrations accumulated by the minority. Alienated by the change of the name of the island from "Ceylon" to a Sanskrit name – "Sri Lanka" and by a new constitution which did not meet their federalist demands, and angered by the special status of Buddhism and Sinhala language, many Tamil youngsters turned to arms.

In response, a "Prevention of Terrorism Act" was adopted, which is believed to have made legal many abuses and right violations against the rebels. Enabled for the first time in 1976, the document allowed police officers "to arrest any person, enter and search any premises, stop and search any individual or any vehicle, vessel, train or aircraft and seize any document or thing" without a warrant.¹⁰ This law has been highly criticized. The International Commission of Jurists drew the attention to it, stating that "No legislation conferring even remotely comparable powers is in force in any other free democracy operating under the Rule of Law, however troubled it may be by politically-motivated

⁵ Kearney, Robert, *Op.cit.*

⁶ Tambiah, S.J., *Buddhism Betrayed? Religion, Politics, and Violence in Sri Lanka*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1992, apud.

⁷ DeVotta,Neil, ., "Control Democracy,Institutional Decay, and the Quest for Eelam: Explaining Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka" in *Pacific Affairs*, University of British Columbia, Vol. 73, No. 1, 2000

⁸ "Origins of the Sri Lankan Civil War", Retrieved 08.03.2013 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Origins_of_the_Sri_Lankan_civil_war

⁹ Ilankai Tamil Arasu Kadchi (meaning Federal Party in Tamil Language), "The Case for a Federal Constitution for Ceylon: Resolutions Passed at the First National Convention of the Ilankai Tamil Arasu Kadchi", Colombo, 1951, p.1, apud.

¹⁰ Government of Sri Lanka, "Prevention of Terrorism (Temporary Provisions)", retrieved 12.03.2013 from http://www.lawnet.lk/sectio n.php?file=http://www.lawnet.lk/docs/statutes/stats_1956_2006/index s/Vol2/1979Y0V0C48A.html

violence."¹¹ Even nowadays many international actors, like the Asian Human Rights Commission, ask for it to be repealed.

When a new constitution was adopted and Sinhala and Tamil became both "national languages", the question had become far more serious to be calmed down by this concession. Therefore, in 1976, TULF (Tamil United Liberation Front) asked officially for an independent Tamil state – "Eelam", supported by many Tamil groups, among which one called Tamil New Tigers (TNT), which would become the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) in 1976. By 1985, this group would impose itself as the only Tamil movement representative after systematically eliminating all those in favor of a political solution.¹²

On the evening of July 23rd 1983, the LTTE ambushed a military patrol in Jaffna and massacred 13 soldiers. Not to draw the attention, the government decided to bury the soldiers in Colombo on the 24th, skipping the formal procedure of burying army members in their home villages. However, Sinhalese civilians who had found out about the ambush formed mobs and began attacking the Tamils, burning their cars and their properties. It was widely believed that the authorities were also involved, since the attackers had voter registration lists which helped them accurately identify the Tamil homes. Another famous example sustaining this theory would be the case of over thirty Tamil prisoners detained under the Prevention of Terrorism Act who were murdered by Sinhalese prisoners using knives. The controversy created around the event is based on the accusation of some survivors which claimed that the police officers allowed for it to happen, giving the keys to the Sinhalese, whereas the authorities claimed the keys had been stolen. Some Sinhalese tried to save lives by sheltering Tamils in their houses or in temples. But, despite the emergency curfew declared by the government on the evening of the 24th, violence continued and rapidly spread with ferocity all over the country. Tamils were being beaten and killed. Nowadays this event is referred to as "Black July".13 The war had begun.

II. MANAGEMENT OF THE INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT: PEACE NEGOTIATIONS AND INTERNATIONAL MEDIATION

Edward Azar, a reference in the conflict resolution domain, developed the theory of protracted social conflict, introducing the following definition: "In

brief, protracted social conflicts occur when communities are deprived of satisfaction of their basic needs on the basis of communal identity. However, the deprivation is the result of a complex causal chain involving the role of the state and the pattern of international linkages. Furthermore, initial conditions (colonial legacy, domestic historical setting, and the multi-communal nature of the society) play important roles in shaping the genesis of protracted social conflicts."¹⁴

Mediation is often used as intervention strategy in conflict management and resolution. "Mediation is a third party-assisted, or third party-initiated and led, communication between representatives of conflict parties, in order for them to directly talk to each other, discuss issues, reach an agreement and make decisions together."¹⁵

Protracted social conflicts can't easily be solved through mediation because "the process of protracted social conflict deforms and retards the effective operation of political institutions. It reinforces and strengthens pessimism throughout the society, demoralizes leaders and immobilizes the search for peaceful solutions. We have observed that societies undergoing protracted social conflict find it difficult to initiate the search for answers to their problems and grievances. As the protracted social conflict becomes part of the culture of the ravaged nation, it builds a sense of paralysis which affects the collective consciousness of the population. An environment of hopelessness permeates all strata of society, and a siege mentality develops which inhibits constructive negotiation and any resolution of society."16

As indicated by the facts presented so far, the Sri Lankan civil war is a protracted social conflict case as well and, given the complexity and the reproduction capacity of such conflicts, it couldn't be solved through mediation either.

To illustrate the difficulty of the international mediation process, we will focus on the role Norway played in the attempt to reach a peace accord.

Prior to Norway's involvement, India had also tried to mediate the conflict and was until 1987 very active in diplomatically approaching the matter through political meetings. In secret, it also supported the LTTE providing them with weapons and training. In 1987, the Indian Prime Minister and the Sri Lankan president signed the Indo-Lanka accord. The Sri Lankan government agreed to give the Tamils increased regional autonomy if they renounced to the secessionist

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<sup>16</sup> Azar, E., Op. Cit., apud.
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¹¹ Sieghart, Paul, *Sri Lanka: A Mounting Tragedy of Errors*, vol. II, International Commission of Jurists, March 1984, apud.

¹² Senanayake, Darini R., "Disfunctional Democracy and the Dirty War in Sri Lanka" in *Asia Pacific Issu*es, East West Center, no 52, 2001

¹³ "Black July", Retrieved 09.03.2013 from http://en.wikipedia.org /wiki/Black_July

¹⁴ Azar, E., *The Management of Protracted Social Conflicts: Theory & Cases*, Aldershot, Dartmouth, 1990, p12, apud.

¹⁵ Mirninamova, Natalia, Mediation and Dialogue: Official and Unofficial Strands, International Alert, 2009, p8, retrieved 10.03.2013 from http://www.initiativeforpeacebuilding.eu/pdf/Mediation_and_Dialogue_ Official_and_Unofficial_Strands.pdf

claims. It also agreed to the presence of Indian military forces in the north-east of the island in order to enforce the agreement. However, the LTTE did not sign the agreement and refused to cede arms to the Indian Peace Keeping Forces, which led to an intense confrontation. Instead of calming the situation, the IPKF presence resulted in an escalation of violence and terrorism. Meanwhile, Sinhalese nationalists became more concerned of the prolonged Indian instance on Sri-Lankan soil. Facing Sinhalese accusations and rising hostility from the Tamil population, Indian troupes eventually had to withdraw. India put an end to its involvement in the conflict in 1991, when a suicideattack planned by the LTTE and carried out by a Tamil woman assassinated the Indian Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi.17

So Norway's task was not an easy one by far. Taking into account the previous experience with India, someone with no political and economical interest in the region was considered more suitable for the task. India's failure opened the path for a smaller, more neutral and trustworthy country which would not be perceived as a treat by any of the parties of the conflict.

Norway accepted to play this role and became officially a mediator in 2000. Two years later, on the 22nd of February of 2002, it managed to get a Ceasefire Agreement signed by both parties. Six more rounds of talks between the Sri Lankan government and the LTTE with Norway as a mediator followed in the next year and the situation looked promising. The LTTE chief negotiator – Anton Balasingham decided to drop in September 2002 the demand for a separate state and give a serious thought to the option of autonomy. By December 2002, both parties declared themselves interested in the concept of a federal solution.

Unfortunately, very soon the achievement would prove unsustainable, since both actors had different understandings of the federal solution. When the LTTE was not invited to the preparatory meeting for Japan's donor conference, therefore not recognized as an international player (the conference was held in the US, which had proscribed the LTTE as a terrorist organization), they reacted by withdrawing from the peace negotiations.

Mediation was temporarily suspended. Despite Norway's ulterior efforts to reinitiate the procedures towards reaching a peace accord, the mistrust between the two parties and the non-negotiability of their demands proved to be stronger.

In 2004, Sri Lanka was hit by a devastating tsunami, yet not even the natural catastrophe or Norway's efforts to seize the opportunity for cooperation were able to produce a constructive dialogue. On the contrary, both the LTTE and the Sri Lankan government started rearming and the violence increased.

In 2006 they met at Geneva to discuss the implementation of the Ceasefire Agreement, which had been violated many times. The meeting resulted instead in mutual accusations and the refusal of LTTE representatives to take part in future rounds of talks.

However, Norway remained officially a mediator until 2009, even though it did not achieve significant performance in peace building and violence decrease. A reason was the death of Anton Balasinghan in December 2006, which severely altered the communication in between Norway's team and the LTTE.

Since April 2003, when the talks were suspended, all Norway's efforts failed to revive the peace process. Therefore, it can be considered the key moment of the mediation failure. Instead, after the window of opportunity of 2002 and the suspension of talks in 2003, parties adopted less negotiable positions and the conflict escalated.

One month after the temporary suspension of peace talks, the government sent the Norwegians a proposal that made minimal concessions in terms of administration of the LTTE controlled areas, offering no more than a North-East Development of Reconstruction Council. As it was to be expected, the LTTE refused it. The next proposals showed more steps back, getting even further from the federal solution parties had initially agreed upon. In response, the Tigers sent in November 2003 a proposal on the same matter which didn't mention once "federalism" and which was easily interpreted by the government as a reinforcement of their demand of a separate state in the north-east of the island. So, after a moment in which both sides showed interest in negotiating their strategic objectives during the mediation, the suspension of talks resulted in both parties shifting back.

Moreover, since 2004, violence increased and even though the Ceasefire Agreement was still in place, the LTTE attacks became more and more frequent. On the other side, we assist a revival of Sinhalese nationalism and critics of international mediation became even more radical.¹⁸

Given these facts, how plausible is international mediation in interethnic conflicts?

From Uyangoda's point of view, "failed and inconclusive attempts at resolving the conflict have not led to sustainable de-escalation but have instead reconstituted the conflict, redefining its parameters and making the possible paths to peace narrower. Peace negotiations have been occasions for the government of Sri Lanka and the LTTE to discover new differences,

¹⁷ Bouffard S., Carment D., "The Sri Lanka Peace Process: A Critical Review" in *Journal of South Asian Development*, 2006, pp 163-164

¹⁸ Destrady S.; Johannes V., *The Consequences of Failed Mediation in Civil Wars: Assessing the Sri Lankan Case*, Giga, 2012, retrieved on 10.03.2013 from http://www.giga-hamburg.de/dl/download.php? d=/ content/publikationen/pdf/wp202 destradi-vuellers.pdf

explore new enmities and reinforce existing antagonisms."¹⁹

III. A FAILING PEACE PROCESS? THE Persistence of the Conflict and its Cost

As shown in the previous chapter, peace negotiations have failed in producing an agreement. Parties turned back to war even after several rounds of talks, international mediation and a natural disaster which affected all communities of the island.

What made the protracted conflict in Sri Lanka intractable? Why was it so hard to settle, resisting even the most serious attempts of resolution despite the supportive international context?

In his book entitled "Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka: Changing Dynamics", Jayadeva Uyangoda approaches the parties' "incurable habit of returning to war". According to him, there has been a popular resistance to reaching a peace agreement due to "arousing ethnic passions" and "ethnic-emotional mobilization", very common in societies traumatized by violence acts such as mass ethnic killing. He draws several conclusions.

First is that, even though necessary, mediation is not sufficient as long as the parties are unwilling to compromise on the issue of power. Secondly, he makes a clear distinction between the concepts of "ethnic conflict" and "ethnic war". Whereas "ethnic conflict" is fought on a more flexible ground, which does not exclude the possibility of bargaining and compromising, the second has produced two "war machines" whose agendas exclude each other leaving no space for negotiation. As long as Tamil nationalism is keen to achieving a separate state and Sinhalese nationalism is committed to preserve a unitary one, the war cannot be ended through a political solution. The author's third conclusion is that negotiations between the Sri Lankan government and the LTTE could deescalate the conflict only as long as they address the ethnic issue. A compromise would work only if openly supported by all ethnic communities and social and state reconstruction should be done respecting ethnic lines.

Finally, he states that stable peace in protracted ethnic conflicts can only be achieved through a "transformative process". A ceasefire agreement or even a peace agreement does not guarantee long lasting peace in this type of conflicts which are often "unending". A perfect peace cannot be achieved all of a sudden. It would be, therefore, unrealistic to expect a conflict of Sri Lankan civil war's dimensions and complexity to end unless conditions for permanent peace are created and efforts are made to work on the possible peace, even though imperfect. $^{\rm 20}\,$

The unsuccessful conflict management of the Sri Lankan civil war had tragic consequences on the population. The persistence of conflict despite all peace attempts meant a terrible human loss and sacrifice for all ethnic communities living on the island. Although hard to estimate, we will try however to illustrate the cost and impact of an ethnic problem turned into a violent war.

According to a document published by the Ministry of Defense of Sri Lanka, the LTTE used children soldiers in front-line troops, being considered according to UNICEF "the world's worst perpetrator of child soldier recruitment". It is believed that, since 2001, more than 5000 children fought for the LTTE.

Not only children, but women as well died for the cause of the Tamil Tigers. It is estimated that 20 to 30% of the fighting cadre were women. More than 4000 have been killed and a significant number died in suicide attacks.

All LTTE recruits carried a cyanide capsule and had specific instructions to swallow it if captured. No disengagement was accepted and those who disagreed with the views of the leader – Prabhakaran were immediately suppressed.

The LTTE was suspected of collaborations with terrorist organizations, like al-Qaeda which seems to have been inspired by the LTTE, especially after the attacks on the United States of 11th September 2001. "The LTTE invented the modern suicide bomber and deployed it against political, military and civilian targets. Islamic groups copied the LTTE by carrying out similar suicide attacks." stated Glen Jenvey, specialist on international terrorism. For the methods adopted in the war, LTTE was also labeled by 32 countries (India, US, Malaysia, UK, European Union and Canada) as a terrorist organization under the allegation that they committed crimes against humanity. They attacked civilians in several occasions, targeting villages, trains, buses, mosques and temples. Besides civilian massacres, assassinations carried out by the Tigers include as well political personalities which had been perceived as opponents, like Rajeev Gandhi, Prime Minister of India (1991) and Ranasinghe Premadasa, president of Sri Lanka (1993). Tamils have also been victims of LTTE attacks if they tried to pursue a peaceful solution. One of the most frequently used tactics was suicide bombing.

Another tactic LTTE has been blamed for is "ethnic cleansing", that is removing by force the Sinhalese and the Muslims from the areas controlled by them.

In order to get resources and cover its financial needs, the Tigers got involved in a series of criminal

¹⁹ Uyangoda, Jayadeva, *Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka: Changing Dynamics*, East-West Center Washington, Washington D.C., 2007, p viii

²⁰ Uyangoda, Jayadeva, *Op. Cit.,* pp 45-47

activities which includes sea piracy, human smuggling, passport forgery and drug trafficking. An important means to get money was extortion. Tamils living abroad were asked to send money and threatened that they and their relatives will suffer if they did not comply. Most of them were too afraid to refuse: "Ninety percent of people, even if they don't support the LTTE, they are scared. The killing doesn't just happen back home in Sri Lanka. It happens in Paris, in Canada. (...)It's everywhere, all over the world." (Tamil community activist, Toronto, January 2006).²¹

The government has also been accused of abuses and human rights violations. In 2011, United Nations published the "Report of the Secretary-General's Panel of Experts on Accountability in Sri Lanka." The report stated that the military operations conducted by both the LTTE and the Sri Lankan government took place "with flagrant disregard for the protection, rights, welfare and lives of civilians and failed to respect the norms of international law."

The report found credible several allegations related mostly with the final stage of the war. More precisely, "the Panel found credible allegations that comprise five core categories of potential serious violations committed by the Government of Sri Lanka". The first is "killing of civilians through widespread shelling". The Sri Lankan army used heavy weapons to shell No Fire Zones where it had previously advised civilians to go. The government is held responsible for most civilian deaths that occurred during the last months of the war. The second refers to "shelling of hospitals and other humanitarian objects" and points out to the fact that a lot of civilians who had come to the hospital to get treatment were either re-injured or killed through repeated governmental targeting. Third allegation accuses the Sri Lankan Government of "denial of humanitarian assistance", implying that the government has deliberately deprived civilians living in the conflict zones of food and medical supplies. Moreover, its actions are associated with "human rights violations suffered by victims and survivors of the conflict" and "human right violations outside the conflict zone." There are reasons to think that the Government has detained survivors in terrible conditions and has used torture against suspected LTTE members. There were found photos of naked women that might have been raped. Some suspects disappeared, along with the journalists criticizing those actions.²²

As for the LTTE, the report found credible six allegations. The first one is "using civilians as a human buffer". Civilians were not allowed to leave the conflict

zone and were used as human shields against the Sri Lankan Army. According to the experts, LTTE is also responsible for "killing civilians attempting to flee LTTE control" and for "using military equipment in the proximity of civilians". It seems that the Tigers increased dramatically the number of civilian deaths by shooting anyone trying to escape towards Government-controlled areas as well as by firing from among civilians. Surprisingly enough, the behavior of the LTTE towards Tamils shows that their so called "liberators" have often turned against them. The two next allegations concern the "forced recruitment of children" and "forced labor" and blame the cruel policy of using people of all ages against their will on the battlefield or for hard work like digging trenches. Last but not least, the LTTE is accused of "killing of civilians through suicide attacks" outside the conflict zone.23

Published 2 years after the end of the war (2009), the report found that the causes of the Sinhalese-Tamil conflict were still unaddressed. So are these allegations, considered by the post-war Sri Lankan government biased and fabricated.

"Strategic Foresight Group" also tried to approach the impact of the war and published the "Cost of Conflict in Sri Lanka", portraying a society dominated by human value erosion and low tolerance. According to the document, a large number of children lost their parents, have been exposed to severe brutality and stopped attending school. In 2003 only, 20 children died because of landmines. Women from the north and east part of the island have been repeatedly raped, harassed and deprived of security. About 50.000 women lost their husbands, becoming dependent on NGO and governmental support to make a living and raise their children, since they don't have incomes.²⁴

The press has also pointed to the immense human cost of the Sinhalese-Tamil dispute. In an article published in 2009, The Economist counted "too many heroes", pointing out to the fact that a lot of civilians died during the final three months, when the LTTE were struggling on a stretch of beach in the country's northeast becoming smaller and smaller. Tens of thousands of people found themselves caught in between the Army and the Tigers and traumatized by assault from both sides. As a result, it became almost impossible to distinguish the combatants from the noncombatants, which led to a tremendous number of civilian being injured or killed through government shelling. Their lives were the cost of a speeded-up victory, and their families are still paying the price.²⁵

²¹ Sri Lankan Ministry of Defense, "The LTTE in Brief", Retrieved 16.03.2013 from http://www.defence.lk/pps/LTTEinbrief.pdf

²² United Nations, "Report of the Secretary-General's Panel of Experts on Accountability in Sri Lanka", 31 March 2011, p 49-50, retrieved 11.03.2013 from http://www.un.org/News/dh/infocus/Sri_Lanka/ POE_ Report_Full.pdf

²³ Ibidem, p 50-51

 ²⁴ Strategic Foresight Group, "Cost of Conflict in Sri Lanka", Retrieved 18.03.2013 from http://www.strategicforesight.com/ccinsrilanka.htm
 ²⁵ The Economist, "Too many heroes", 2009, Retrieved 19.03.2013 from http://www.economist.com/node/13794780

Many statistics have been issued trying to estimate the cost of the Sri Lankan ethnic conflict. Whereas the economic cost is easier to approximate and has been estimated at around 200 billion dollars²⁶, the human cost is harder to explain. Of course, figures have been presented counting the number of casualties. But what about the families of the soldiers who died on the battlefield? What about the women that have been raped and assaulted? What about the children that have witnessed such scenes?

Try as they may, all these reports and articles fail in making us understand people's pain and the uncountable tragic stories produced by a 26 years long culture of violence.

IV. The End of the War. Community Recovery and Social Reconstruction

In May 2009, the Sri Lankan president publicly announced victory over the LTTE through military defeat after 26 years of war,²⁷ marking the beginning of a new era: post-war reconciliation. But how is reconciliation reached after a terrible war?

In Sri Lanka, community recovery and social reconstruction were far from being an easy task when shadowed by about 70.000 to 100.000 deaths (depending on the source; some NGOs claim the number is much higher) accompanied by serious allegations²⁸. Therefore truth and accountability needed to be delivered in order to enable trust.

Still, up to present, the Government has been accused of ignoring these accusations, thus making no progress to ensure justice for the victims of the war. Also, the police and the army were blamed for abuse of power, arbitrary arrests and use of torture over suspects in custody. The violence continued. People living on the north-east coast complained that the military forces, still present, interfere too much in their civilian life. Since the army is mostly Sinhalese. Tamils perceive their presence as occupational. Another emphasized problem is the situation of the internally displaced persons. Out of 300.000 people that had to leave their households, tens of thousands still don't benefit of permanent accommodation and many haven't returned to their homes because the regions are still mined. Another key aspect in post-war Sri Lanka is the international influence. Whereas many countries, like India, are pressuring the government demanding accountability, a new element emerged in the scenario - China, which has been investing a lot of money in the economical development of the country and has openly pronounced itself against a Human Rights Council resolution. Although the government set the Lessons Learnt and Reconciliation Commission, critics, e.g. Amnesty International, said it was not a serious attempt and that it failed in promoting post-war reconciliation because of its lack of impartiality and witness protection.²⁹³⁰

Given these institutional flaws, hope seems to come from the civil society. A series of NGOs and projects are promoting ethnic diversity, acceptance and mutual understanding. The list includes, among others, Survivors Associated, which promotes ethnic coexistence as solution to the conflict, Peacebuilding and Development Institute, trying to improve inter-ethnic communication and Peace and Community Action, involved in conflict transformation. One particularly successful example would be Sri Lanka Unites-Youth Movement for Hope and Reconciliation which aims at encouraging reconciliation in schools and among community leaders. Their great merit is the liberal, cosmopolitan and loose approach to reconciliation. They promote reconciliation in terms of social interaction rather than political reform, unlike the government, which is focused on state-society reconciliation.^{31 32}

Despite growing civil involvement in the process of peace building, very recent press articles portray a post-war society which is still hunted by the past and healing its wounds. In an article on Sri Lanka published in December 2012. The Diplomat affirms that the "war is over but tensions run high" and describes violent events in the Northern Province, the part of the island where the last and more brutal stage of the war enfolded. It seems that a group of students from Jaffna University decided to celebrate Martyrs' Day on campus. This day honors every 27th of November the Tamils killed in the civil war. Whereas most Tamils lights lamps in their houses, a group of student decided to complete the ritual there, but were forbidden by security forces, who saw in the gesture an open statement of support towards the LTTE. "Tensions have been shimmering for a while and burst to the fore. (...) Why are we not allowed to moan our dead?" declared a student. ³³This proves how fragile the

²⁶ Asia Economic Institute, "Economic Impacts of Sri Lanka s Civil War", Retrieved 19.03.2013 from http://www.asiaecon.org/special_art icles/read sp/12556

²⁷ Voice of America, "Sri Lankan President Declares Military Defeat of Rebels", retrieved 20.03.2013 from http://www.voanews.com/content/a-13-2009-05-16-voa15-68734572/357880.html

²⁸ These allegations were exposed in the chapter "A failing peace process? The persistence of conflict and its cost"

²⁹ BBC News, "Post-war Sri Lanka", retrieved 20.03.2013 from http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-south-asia-11393458

³⁰ Human Rights Watch, "World Report 2013: Sri Lanka", retrieved 20.03.201 from http://www.hrw.org/world-report/2013/country-chapters /sri-lanka?page=3

³¹ Insight on Conflict, "Sri Lanka: Peacebuilding Organizations", retrieved on 21.03.2013 from http://www.insightonconflict.org/confl icts/sri-lanka/peacebuilding-organisations/

³² International Peace and Conflict, "Reconciliation in post-war Sri Lanka", retrieved on 21.03.2013 from http://www.internationalpeac eandconflict.org/profiles/blogs/reconciliation-in-post-war-sri-lanka-by-dr-oliver-walton?xg_source=activity#.UVVAMhd0wl8

³³ Ramachandran, S., "Sri Lanka: War is Over but Tensions Run High" in *The_Diplomat*, retrieved on 21.03.2013 from http://thediplomat.com/ 2012/12/13/sri-lanka-war-is-over-but-tensions-run-high/2/

situation in the north is, 4 years since the war has ended.

International Crisis Group has also released an interesting document in March 2012, pointing out that the North of the island was "rebuilding under the military." Paradoxically, the military, instead of protecting the people from any potential violence, is alienating them and is perceived as a threat. Overwhelmed by the presence of the Sinhalese soldiers, Tamils feel excluded from the process of reconstruction. Tamils feel also deprived of improvement in their lives despite the immense amount of money invested in the north since 2009 because the army has got involved in commercial and agricultural activities. When these activities were questioned, the army has easily adopted violence against protestors and is accused of severe punishments and disappearances. On top of that, Tamils are living under the impression that Sinhala and Buddhist culture is taking over the region with the purpose of banning theirs. The state has sponsored Sinhalese settling in the north and has built Buddhist monuments.³⁴ This recalls the exact same measure taken immediately after the independence, justifying Tamils' growing anger and disappointment. Is history repeating itself?

Or better yet, is the war really over? I personally received very interesting answers to this question. I went to Sri Lanka in November 2011 and spent two months teaching English as an intern at a college in Colombo. I tried to find out what people thought about the war, their perception and whether they thought it was all really over. I personally met with two sorts of reactions. Coincidently or not, the Sinhalese I asked were comfortable talking about the war and strongly believed the conflict was now behind Sri Lanka. I shared the apartment with a Sinhalese girl of 22 years old at the time. She had no problems in being interviewed by me on the matter. She told me that the war was definitely over, and she believed there were no ethnic tensions left what so ever because " people have learnt lessons the hard way." When I asked her if there was any good outcome of the war, she said no. I asked about the negative outcome and she replied that "it ate everything up, and that the biggest cost was people's lives." I wanted to get her opinion on the allegations brought by the United Nations' Report of the Secretary-General's Panel of Experts. She agreed with all of the accusations brought to the LTTE and with none of those regarding the government.

I decided to get more versions of the story. I asked my colleagues at work, all English teachers, if they agreed to talk to me about the war. They

responded by silence. Since no one was looking at me, I asked again, assuming they didn't hear me. They all promised me that they would and then politely smiled. They never did. After a few days I reminded them about the promise. This time one of them closed the door and asked why I wanted to know about the war. I said I was trying to do a research paper for my master. One of them asked if their names were going to appear in the paper. "Of course", I replied, not realizing yet that they were afraid. Another teacher said that they shouldn't speak about the war and that I shouldn't ask these questions. He told me that it was not safe, especially as a foreigner, to try to get information about what had happened and that they were supposed to say it was something good and not further discuss it. The girls, encouraged by the fact that he had opened up to me, said many journalists had disappeared as of result of their attempts to dig into the past and they were glad I didn't bring it up with "the wrong people". They also encouraged me to ignore any invitation to give my personal opinion about the current situation or the president. They implied that even taxi drivers sometimes can deliberately make you talk about it and then turn you in. I didn't mention it again to them and was surprised by their fear to talk.

My supervisor was a Sinhalese woman. I mentioned this conversation to her and she said that our colleagues' attitude was understandable. She said they were all Tamils and that they had moved to Colombo from Jaffna (the Northern Province, the most affected area). She added that they might be afraid they will lose their jobs if they helped me with my research and that it is sometimes difficult for Tamils to get jobs. From her point of view, they had exaggerated and I had no reason to be scared. Reassured, I also mentioned the warning I was given - not to talk if asked by taxi drivers or anyone to give my opinion on the country's situation. She admitted that it did happen and people avoided saying in public how they really felt and what they thought. I was confused by her attitude. On the one hand, she was trying to convince me that people were free and everything was all right, so I shouldn't worry, on the other she was partially confirming the story of my Tamil colleagues. When I explained that this fact contradicted the principle of democratic freedom of speech, she said "then maybe it's me who doesn't know what real freedom is".

But undoubtedly, the highest peak of my experience in Colombo was during a class when two students started to fight on whether the war had ended. A student insisted the war wasn't over, another colleague contradicted him and it all escalated into a fight. I did not dare to ask to which ethnic group they belonged to.

The two months I spent in Sri Lanka gave me the impression that not everybody was living in the same country. Coincidently or not, the Sinhalese I had spoken

³⁴ International Crisis Group, "Sri Lanka's North II: Rebuilding under the Military", 16 March 2012, retrieved on 22.03.2013 from http://www.cri sisgroup.org/~/media/Files/asia/south-asia/sri-lanka/220-sri-lankasnor th-ii-rebuilding-under-the-military.pdf

to were content with how things had turned out, whereas Tamils were more reserved in making any comments. At the moment, since I had heard parallel narratives about the war and the current situation, I did not know whom to believe. But soon I realized their versions of the story did not exclude each other. People had lived different experiences. Therefore they had different points of view.

V. Conclusions

The Sri Lankan civil war is an example-case of the dimensions intercultural conflicts can acquire, if the root causes are ignored and the management of the conflict is focused on "solving the problem" instead of addressing the issues that have generated the conflict in the first place. Protracted conflicts are not easily solved through mediation and this is the case as well. The military victory of the Sinhalese Army over the Tamil Tigers was achieved with an immense human cost and has left behind a scarred society. Even though the war has officially ended in 2009, it will take many years to heal, if ever.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

A Comparison of Dual and Non-Dual Logic in a Dialectical Method of Analyzing Towards Transcending Intractable and Polarized Political Conflicts

By Andrew Bosworth

Introduction- This paper will found its claims in a philosophy emerging from the systems of phenomenology, moving through monism, pluralism and finding its fundamental assertion in transcendental nondualism. Non-duality is commonly found in Buddhist and Indian epistemological and ontological studies, however I assert that it converges with classical western phenomenological philosophy in a manner that provides fruitful dialectical understandings related to the synthesis of conflicting opposites in instances of political impasse. The underlying assumption on which the integral assertion is founded is that many challenges facing the evolution of a more unified global civilization is based on a single under-considered dialectic of dualism and non-dualism. The failure to adequately understand the implications of these dialectical opposites limits solutions, and limits insights into the conditions of each. The challenges of absolutism within monism, the difficulties of relativism within pluralism can each be aided by non-dualism, while the challenge of subjective ideology in transcendent non-dualism is aided by grounding in the pragmatic conditions created by monism and pluralism. If we apply the approach of which I argue for, to problems in social contexts, a pattern of balancing of oppositional synthesis emerges. To demonstrate the approaches integration of ideology and pragmatism, I will first describe its philosophical basis and then apply the pattern to political conflicts to give support to the assertion that this method can be effectively applied, toward peace or further conflict, as desired.

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 160699p, 369999

A COMPARISON OF DUAL AND NON-DUAL LOGIC IN A DIALECTICAL METHOD OF ANALYZING TOWARDS TRANSCENDING INTRACTABLE AND POLARIZED POLITICAL CONFLICTS

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A Comparison of Dual and Non-Dual Logic in a Dialectical Method of Analyzing Towards Transcending Intractable and Polarized Political Conflicts

Andrew Bosworth

I. INTRODUCTION

his paper will found its claims in a philosophy emerging from the systems of phenomenology, moving through monism, pluralism and finding its fundamental assertion in transcendental nondualism. Non-duality is commonly found in Buddhist and Indian epistemological and ontological studies, however I assert that it converges with classical western phenomenological philosophy in a manner that provides fruitful dialectical understandings related to the synthesis of conflicting opposites in instances of political impasse. The underlying assumption on which the integral assertion is founded is that many challenges facing the evolution of a more unified global civilization is based on a single under-considered dialectic of dualism and non-dualism. The failure to adequately understand the implications of these dialectical opposites limits solutions, and limits insights into the conditions of each. The challenges of absolutism within monism, the difficulties of relativism within pluralism can each be aided by non-dualism, while the challenge of subjective ideology in transcendent non-dualism is aided by grounding in the pragmatic conditions created by monism and pluralism. If we apply the approach of which I argue for, to problems in social contexts, a pattern of balancing of oppositional synthesis emerges. To demonstrate the approaches integration of ideology and pragmatism, I will first describe its philosophical basis and then apply the pattern to political conflicts to give support to the assertion that this method can be effectively applied, toward peace or further conflict, as desired.

Following this introduction, section one contains discussion of the philosophy of phenomenology and the implications of non-dual perceptions. Section two contains discussion of case studies of social conflicts which give evidence for dialectical opposition. Section three contains a synthesis of the first two sections, bridging the analysis to provide support for the fundamental assertion of the paper and comprising the

II. Section One: Non-Dual Transcendentalism – Synthesizing Western and Eastern Phenomenology

This section will attempt to describe the dynamics of and between multiple phenomenological understandings of reality. Appropriately, we begin with an understanding which claims a single reality; this view carries the label of phenomenological monism. We continue with another claim of more than one reality, this is phenomenological pluralism; we will discuss several varieties of pluralism and several dynamics of epiphenomena and link them back to a dualistic monism. From there we will discuss the transcendental phenomenology of non-dual Jain logic and its inherent system of perceptions.

a) Understanding Phenomenological Monism

The perception of a single reality or single understanding of phenomena may be the most easily generalized correlated ideological factor to both peace and conflict. The claim of perceiving the one true understanding of reality or phenomena, for example of god, and the attempt to dominate those who have argued a different perception has arguably been the leading cause of war in human history. Ironically, and more importantly dualistically, the attempt to spread a single unifying theory has also been argued as an imperative of everlasting peace.

In an emergent dynamic this pattern repeats in a whole spectrum of social interactions, not only between the leaders of nations or those in control of armies. Politically, monism correlates to claims of authoritarianism, fascism, despotism, but inversely and dualistically it also correlates to singular virtuous, benevolent actors or imperatives. Monism in ideology leads to claims of absolutism and the negative connotations associated with such a viewpoint.

Monism is subscribed to with regularity within national judicial forums where single deterministic

conclusion summarizing the integral factors of the paper.

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precedents rule. It occurs with regularity in the global monetary arena where zero-sum dynamics ensure that quantitative coherence is maintained. It seems that in finite contexts phenomenological monism exists readily.

Opposing the legal and monetary examples, modern history has largely demonstrated that monism in the public sphere is not wholly appropriate, and has been opposed by pluralism where subjectivity based imperatives, such as individual rights, are valued. It seems however, and we will discuss more, how monism merely led us as a civilization to pluralism, and pluralism to relativism and or epiphenomenal opposites and derivatives. I claim that monism may be usefully perceived as pluralism with a negative opposition, and therefore can be understood as dualistic.

b) Understanding Phenomenological Pluralism

Perhaps the least satisfying solution to overcoming monism has been the sojourn into pluralism. In the political arena pluralism in a positive sense has created a check on absolute power through an opposition party, while in another sense it has limited the ability to govern. In one sense it has given more choices for representation, and in another sense it has limited representation through a weakening of each choice. In a more pertinent comparison dualism and pluralism have directly caused polarization and intractable conflict.

In academia in the humanities pluralism has created space for an ever more increasing amount of theories, definitions and perspectives both to beneficial and negative effects. While perhaps most importantly in the natural sciences Kuhn's claim of an "essential tension" may be argued as evidence of a necessary dualism, despite the general understanding of predominate scientific monism and singular truths of a 'correct' or 'accepted' scientific theory.

Aside from the generalized examples put forth, pluralism itself needs to be further explored as mentioned in the introduction to this section. Pluralism denotes dualistic logic of either multiple absolute perspectives, as in a multiverse theory, or a relative pluralism involving no absolutes but only degrees. Examples of each view can be found in physics and as such neither of these solutions reconciles in a transcendental manner the problems created by each. Kuhn's argued vehemently that the dichotomy of "essential tension" is not relativistic, but could not adequately communicate just what it was (Kuhn, 1962). I claim that this is because he intuitively knew it was transcendental and non-dualistic but could not support such an argument in a manner he or others perceived as valid or acceptable. Regardless of my claim, it was not relativism.

Looking further at two types of pluralistic dynamics, the first being multiple absolute and the second being relative. There is a clear inverted dualism

c) Understanding Phenomenological Non-Dualism (Without Using Definitively Dualistic Descriptions)

Dualistically, pluralism leads back towards monism or further dualistic pluralism rather than to transcendental values. Evidence for this is the success of dialectical trends such as the Marxist historical dialectic or any wave theory. The desire for a transcendental phenomenology stems from the dissatisfaction with the dualistically limited dialectical synthesis comprising of monism or pluralism and their repetition *ad nauseum*. Whether we can actually perceive and demonstrate a transcendental value is a much more complex task.

In the social sphere the dialectic between monism and pluralism occurs with regularity in academia in both the natural sciences and the humanities during ideological discourse in the process of debating definitions used for qualitative analysis. If we extend this pattern into the future we will have an ever increasing amount of definitions each of which correlates to an ever increasing amount of contexts in the humanities, and if we are to use the last 70 years as an example the natural sciences will still be ignoring or failing to reconcile the examples of phenomena such as the wave/particle duality of light photons. This leads us to a lack of satisfaction if coherence is imperative, and perhaps helps grow the volition needed to overcome such paradoxes with novel solutions perhaps inexorable from an evolution of phenomenological awareness.

One transcendent option, of which I nominate in this paper, is of an understanding incorporating nondualism into our conceptualization of reality. Defining non-dualism is a challenge, just ask Thomas Kuhn as the scientifically accepted paradigm of imperatives and theories based in the dualism of monism and pluralism, both oppositional and relative, are well established, while the definition of non-duality may be considered beyond the accepted paradigm. However, it is not merely bias for the status quo which makes non-duality indescribable. As discussed more comprehensively in the next section, non-dual perspectives may give phenomena a paradoxical appearance (hence its appropriateness for describing such paradoxes), it posits from the perspective similar to Wittgenstein that due to inherent inescapable tautologies of logic that anything but a qualified description results in potential fallacy, but in the modern positivist view that very qualification results in usually dismissed contextual half-truth. Non-

dual awareness has produced useable logic systems which we will elaborate upon to give a comparison to dualistic logic. As Wittgenstein demo- nstrated the systemically inherent and maximally general foundation of logic systems (Ogden, 1922) we must compare system against system to see which offers the most appropriate solutions. Unlike binary analytical logic, nondualism we will find transcends at least classical dualistic logic, as it accounts for it within its more encompassing system¹.

The non-dual Jain logic predicates that each of these may be true of phenomena and gives a sevenfold predication: (1). syād-asti—in some ways, it is, (2). syādnāsti—in some ways, it is not, (3). syād-asti-nāsti—in some ways, it is, and it is not, (4). syād-asti-avaktavyaħ—in some ways, it is, and it is indescribable, (5). syād-nāsti-avaktavyaħ—in some ways, it is not, and it is indescribable, (6). syād-asti-nāsti-avaktavyaħ—in some ways, it is, it is not, and it is indescribable, (7). syādavaktavyaħ—in some ways, it is indescribable, (7). syādavaktavyaħ—in some ways, it is indescribable (Grimes, 1996).

The empirical evidence for the existence of a non-dual awareness, is based on new syntheses between anticorrelated structures in the brain and the ability to reorganize in more complex ways (Josipovic Z, 2012). It is appropriate that in this case the physical process parallels the ideological process of a myriad of potential syntheses.

d) A Dialectical Solution

incomplete The dysfunction of an understanding limited to perceptions of phenomenological monism pluralism and when compared to examples of observed phenomena lead us to the necessity of a transcendent understanding. We can chuff off the effort to do so for only so long before the complexity and chaos created by pluralism needs to be reconciled to survive as a species due to its manifestation of polarized conflicts, or simply when the ideological incoherence becomes too strong. We must adapt to our environment, in this case a society governed by structures and imperatives guided by monism and pluralism (and the resulting prevalence of conflict). Part of the reconciliation is identifying the integral patterns which we can use to overcome incoherence, while the deeper ideologically pure philosophical conundrums which have no practical value can be overlooked. This paper is an attempt to argue for a useable discernment of patterns described through phenomenological based philosophy and the dynamics between dualistic logic of monism and

pluralism and a type of non-dual awareness defined by the Jain logic system.

As it's already noted that non-dual logic doesn't allow for an explicit description (as the language used in the description would inherently be dualistic or it may simply be indescribable). The best foundational description of non-dualism may be through a comparison of the logical systems associated with each, or of the varied synthesis solutions created by applying the awareness to the same dialectical equations. As we have already discussed the logical systems, let's look at the difference between dualistic logical awareness and non-dualistic logical awareness applied to a Hegelian dialectical synthesis of monism, pluralism, and transcendentalism. Then we will look at the fundamental synthesis of dualism and non-dualism in relation to the previous syntheses.

i. Dualistic Synthesis 1:

(Thesis) Monism versus (Antithesis) non-monism = (Potential Synthesis) Monism or non-monism

If non-monism then pluralism or transcendentalism?

ii. Non-Dualistic Synthesis 1:

(Thesis) Monism versus (Antithesis) non-monism = (Potential Synthesis) Monism qualified (1) Nonmonism qualified (2) both monism and non-monism qualified (3) monism indescribable and qualified (4) nonmonism indescribable and qualified (5) both monism and non-monism indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

Analysis and anomalies: Noteworthy factors from a dualistic synthesis of monism and its antithesis is the anomalous concept of non-monism, which leads to an undefined alternative

iii. Dualistic Synthesis 2:

(Thesis) Pluralism versus (Antithesis) nonpluralism = (Potential Synthesis) Pluralism **or** Nonpluralism

If pluralism we have further dualism contained in a myriad of epiphenomenal dynamics.

Examples of types of epiphenomenal relationships in pluralism:

Epiphenomenon as absolutes opposed Epiphenomenon as relative spectrum

If non-pluralism then monism or transcend-dentalism?

iv. Non-Dualistic Synthesis 2:

(Thesis) Pluralism versus (Antithesis) nonpluralism = (Potential Synthesis) Pluralism qualified (1) non-pluralism qualified (2) both pluralism and nonpluralism qualified (3) pluralism indescribable and qualified (4) non-pluralism indescribable and qualified (5)

¹ A characteristic of transcendence would be not only replacement of a previous system but its integration and repurposing into a more complex system which limits the contradiction of the transcended system, Jain Logic does this to the inherent dichotomous structure of analytical logic.

both pluralism and non-pluralism indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

The next two syntheses are of paramount importance to the assertion of the paper as it begins an attempt to lineate the defining differences between solutions offered by each dualism and non-dualism, the differences will be offered as the qualities necessary to define transcendental phenomena.

Analysis and anomalies:

V. Dualistic Synthesis 3:

(Thesis) Transcendentalism versus *(Antithesis)* non-transcendentalism = *(Potential Synthesis)* Transcendentalism or non-transcendentalism

vi. Non-Dualistic Synthesis 3: (using the difference in conditions)

(Thesis) Dualism versus (Antithesis) nontranscendentalism = (Potential Synthesis) Transcendentalism qualified (1) Non-transcendentalism qualified (2) both transcendentalism and non-transcendentalism qualified (3) indescribable transcendentalism qualified (4) non-transcendentalism indescribable and qualified (5) both transcendentalism and non-transcendentalism indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

Analysis and anomalies:

vii. Dualistic Synthesis 4:

(Thesis) Dualism versus (Antithesis) non-dualism = (Potential Synthesis) Dualism (T) **or** Non-dualism (F)

viii. Non-Dualistic Synthesis 4: (using the difference in conditions)

(*Thesis*) Dualism versus (*Antithesis*) nondualism = (*Potential Synthesis*) Dualism (1) Non-dualism qualified (2) both dualism and non-dualism qualified (3) dualism indescribable and qualified (4) non-dualism indescribable and qualified (5) Both dualism and nondualism indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

Analysis: The variety of potential synthesis within the dualistic logical awareness remains at two while the varieties from a non-dual awareness can be up to 7. The integral factors to consider in the comparison are the 5 which are not common to both. However, the 5 potential conditions do not themselves explicitly correlate to transcendentalism; rather it is an understanding of the dynamics which allow those conditions to arise as 'truthful' (defined in a dualistic sense) which offers insights into the transcendental nature. The obvious dynamics which are suggest by non-dual synthesis rather than dualism is that phenomena may be and may not be simultaneously, that phenomena may be indescribable (despite all efforts to do so), and the necessity to qualify phenomena do to a contextual perception (paradoxically despite the potential for monism and the other conditions of non-dualism to be simultaneously 'true').

ix. Overall analysis of the 4 syntheses:

If we are to suggest transcendental phenomena or perspectives, it is arguable that we must reconcile the anomalies present in the paradigm which is to be transcended.

The anomalous aspects of dualistic monism were the undefined dynamics surrounding non-monism, and a logical system which necessitates and denotes an antithesis of true to validate claims of what is true. Wittgenstein demonstrates this as tautological. The anomalous aspects of dualistic pluralism were the undefined dynamics of non-pluralism and the nested dualism within pluralism. The anomalous aspect of dualistic transcendentalism is the ignorance of the nontranscendental; as if it transcends something there must be a linking or linear aspect to denote what was transcended, not merely a replacement, this is perhaps where Kuhn got stuck. If transcendental has any evolutionary connotations then part of the denotation of transcendental is a synthesis or replacement which encompasses that which it replaces or simply put the characteristics of that which it replaces must be accounted for.

The synthesis of non-dualism and dualism demonstrates that they are not pure opposites, but rather dualism accounts for the qualities found through dualism, incorporates and transcends the anomalies created by the dualism.

The dualistic anomaly of the potential nonmonism can be interpreted in different ways; however none is a true antithesis of monism and merely a creation to satisfy the inability to conceptualize nonmonism. Through qualification, accepted indescribability or a simultaneity non-dualism offers a variety of syntheses which better satisfies such an abstraction, I would suggest the indescribability of non-monism is an integral solution. The dualistic anomaly of the potential nesting of dualism within pluralism as well as the abstraction of non-pluralism can each be solved respectively by the simultaneity and indescribability offered by non-dualism. While the dualistic transcendental anomaly, based on the failure to account for its antithesis in the transcended phenomena, has already been discussed, lets repeat that non-dual awareness offers the potential for that which is to be transcended to also be represented in a new synthesis.

While there are many other qualities and examples we can use to understand the power of nondualism, I chose Hegelian synthesis because of the theories relationship to the social sciences and its ability to be used to understand patterns of political. The next section will look at instances of dualistic synthesis which have failed to end polarization or conflict.

III. Section Two: Case Studies – Political Conflict as Unresolved Dialectical Synthesis

In the last section we laid out various types of perceptions of reality and some of the dialectical synthesis which can be used to map dynamics between those perceptions. This section will take those dynamics and look at allegorical or literal manifestations of these perceptions in the political and geopolitical realm, especially where excessive polarization or conflict has occurred denoting unreconciled syntheses. The purpose of this analysis will be to demonstrate that dualistic logic leads to an unsatisfactory synthesis, and a further cycle of polarization or stalemate. We will than hypothesis and or give evidence of qualities of non-dual logic which may lead to a satisfactory synthesis.

It is assumed that a solution must be a common to all parties in a best case scenario, and as such this is an exercise to demonstrate that non-dual logic is better at distilling win-win or mutually acceptable solutions from seemingly intractable positions than is non-dual logic.

a) Political – Synthesis Solutions In Instances Of Abnormal Polarization Or Stalemate

i. Case Study 1: Russia – USA/Nato Geopolitical Polarization and Intractability

Synopsis: Mutually Assured Destruction is commonly credited with ending the cold war; this is a perception which has been thrust back to the front of consideration with the annexation of Crimea in 2014 by Russian forces. While this event needn't have been considered a re-instigation of an assumedly inished conflict, it is difficult to ignore the calls of renewed cold war. Let us consider that the conflict at the heart of the cold war never ended because the mechanism which ended it was flawed. Some will argue it was the negotiation process which followed that failed since the disarmament of the nuclear arsenals which underpinned the cold peace was never achieved. Perhaps this is correct, but even if this is true it only ensures that there is a vacuum for a new mechanism to ensure that the conflict is overcome. To rely only on the essential tension of MAD, in a world primed with the emergence of complex adaptive systems which reduces the rationality for assuming rational actors, if only because the ability to predict outcomes accurately decreases and hence incalculable and unpredictable actions increase giving the appearance of irrationality. Complex adaptive systems necessitate a new cooperative theory (Scott, 2008).

With the re-ignition of tensions, balancing mechanism must be ready. I offer a formulaic approach to aid in attempting to identify a win-win loosely termed Mutually Assured Non-Destruction (MAND) scenario by using the integral imperatives of the conflict in dualistic and non-dualistic dialectical analysis then comparing the additional and perhaps transcendent qualities of the non-dual syntheses.

This exercise will identify the integral MAD imperatives and place them into parallel dialectical syntheses from each party's perspectives in both dualistic and non-dualistic logic.

Part 1: Identifying each parties Monism, survival is integral over the destruction of the opponent, hence the integral imperative is non-destruction of each owns country.

USA: (Thesis) Non-USA's Destruction versus (Antithesis) USA's Destruction = (Potential Syntheses) USA's Destruction **or** USA's Non-Destruction

Russsia: (Thesis) Russia's Non-Destruction versus (Antithesis) Russia's Destruction = (Potential Syntheses) Russia's Destruction **or** Russia's Non-Destruction

Part 2: The synthesis of each parties' monism with the other in a dualistic synthesis, leads to a theoretical potential of 4 possible syntheses, however we will use only the 2 put forth and adopted by the MAD doctrine which after synthesis result in the 2 integral imperatives of, *Russia's Non-Destruction and USA's Non-Destruction.*

From here we can work backwards to arrive at the same conclusion without the necessity of first synthesizing the results against the dichotomy of mutual destruction. The question at the outset was how to replace the mechanism of essential tension created by mutual nuclear arsenals, with something more long lasting should disarmament ever occur. By once more starting from the beginning, but this time applying a non-dual logic to the synthesis of the monism's, we can hopefully examine the additional potential synthesis for a condition which matches the desired outcome.

First using the USA's monistic imperative of their non-destruction, we apply a non-dualistic synthesis to find all the potential synthesis which produce the integral imperative. We will then do the same for Russia and then compare the results in the hopes of commonality and reproducing a balance which may create a doctrine of mutually assured non-destruction.

1. USA's integral monistic imperative synthesized with non-dual logic:

(Thesis) USA's Non-Destruction versus (Antithesis) USA's Destruction = (Potential Syntheses) USA's Non-Destruction qualified (1) USA's Destruction qualified (2) Both USA's Non-Destruction and USA's Destruction qualified (3) USA's Non-Destruction indescribable and qualified (4) USA's Destruction indescribable and qualified (5) Both USA's Non-Destruction and USA's Destruction indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

2. Russia's integral monistic imperative synthesized with non-dual logic:

(Thesis) Russia's Non-Destruction versus (Antithesis) Russia's Destruction = (Potential Syntheses) and Russia's Non-Destruction qualified (1) Russia's Destruction qualified (2) Both Russia's Non-Destruction and Russia's Destruction qualified (3) Russia's Non-Destruction indescribable and qualified (4) Russia's Destruction indescribable and qualified (5) Both Russia's Non-Destruction and Russia's Destruction indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

Analysis: Do any of these syntheses provide an interpretable path to the solution of 'Mutually Assured Non-Destruction'? Each of these syntheses gives an option which can be compared directly or argued through qualification. The least preferable are the quailfied destruction options (2) and (5). The indescribable options, (4), (5), (6), (7) are perhaps the next least preferable due to lack of clear variables on which to found a pragmatic solution. So the two options that may fit the necessary requirements are synthesis (1) Non-Destruction qualified and (3) Both Non-Destruction and Destruction gualified. The paradoxical destruction and non-destruction synthesis is a distinct alternative solution which is inherent to non-dual logic. The practicality of the paradoxical condition depends on how we interpret destruction and non-destruction, this could mean changing how we understand destruction or a type of simultaneity which is still undefined. This returns us to option (1) which is non-destruction gualified.

Non-dual logic applied to synthesis has provided the novel concept of the potential synthesis of a solution based on both the destruction and nondestruction. This is not the mutually assured nondestruction which would have been an absolute opposite of mutually assured destruction of which was proffered in the introduction section rather a more complex solution is suggested. The denoted importance of this synthesis, from this analysis is the question of whether the potential for some destruction versus an essential tension where absolute destruction is a potentiality is preferable. Would we rather a dualistic balance where the potential for MAD is real, but unexercised, or where geopolitical complexity allows for both destruction and non-destruction but neither totally?

ii. Case Study 2: Thailand – National Politics

Over the past 11 years Thailand's political arena has become largely divided into a highly polarized dynamic revolving around a succession of power (Montesano, 2014). The failure to balance power or create a working synthesis within an acceptable political framework has resulted in coups, a pattern of major protests and numerous incidences of violent conflicts, as well as appeals to the UN and third party groups and currently the inability to conduct accepted elections or even legal mechanism to begin needed reforms. In this case all conventional legal options have been exhausted and currently only extreme or creative mechanisms are being invoked to try to end the stalemate.

To uncover a solution, we must assume that both parties must arrive at the same solution, in this case demonstrated by a synthesis of the parties' respective suggested solutions. In the Thai case, each party offers a monistic option (denoting a no-solution if there monism is denied):

Party 1: (Thesis) Reform before election versus (Antithesis) no solution = (Potential Syntheses) Reform before election or no solution.

Party 2: (Thesis) Election before reform versus (Antithesis) no-solution = (Potential Syntheses) Election before reform or no-solution

If we compare the results we have two options to further synthesize:

Option 1: (Thesis) Reform before election versus (Antithesis) election before reform = (Potential Syntheses) Reform before election or Election before reform.

Option 2: (Thesis) No solution versus (Antithesis) no-solution = (Potential Syntheses) no solution or nosolution

Due to the monistic perception of each solution, the only acceptable synthesis in the dynamics between all potential syntheses is no-solution.

However, if we insert a non-dual logic into the equation the potential syntheses allow for a large variety of potential solutions to emerge. (I will skip to Option 1, rather than redo each step with non-dual logic, as it's the basic allegorical equivalent of the solutions offered in actual political discourse and from there we can evaluate the potential for synthesis from the currently offered positions of each party).

(Thesis) Reform before election versus (Antithesis) election before reform = (Potential Syntheses) Reform before election qualified (1) Election before reform qualified (2) Both reform before election and election before reform qualified (3) Reform before election indescribable and qualified (4) Election before reform indescribable and qualified (5) Both reform before election and election before reform indescribable and qualified (6) indescribable and qualified (7)

Analysis: As we see above non-dual logic increase the number of potential syntheses from which we can distill practical solutions. If we know that the syntheses using dualistic logic lead to a no-solution or stalemate, we can ignore the qualified solutions (1) and (2) from the non-dual as they are pragmatically the same as the dualistic syntheses, as such let's look at the other syntheses for literal or metaphorical solutions. (3) Provides the option, if interpreted as such, of reform both before and after an election, this is perhaps a candidate for an appropriate solution. (4) (5) and (6) Are difficult due the necessary imperatives of practicality and transparency, although it's worth noting that option (5) has been a position of the PDRC which has been roundly criticized. Synthesis (7) in this case and as always is indescribable, yet paradoxically this does not necessarily denote its invalid nature, simply its ineffability, I think of this as the unforeseeable variable, regardless of what one would think however it definitively couldn't be acted upon but only not acted upon².

The current political stalemate directly relates to the intransigence inherent to dualistic logic, the zerosum monistic solution offered by the dialectically opposed parties does not allow for a mutually acceptable solution. The endgame here involved symmetrical power and each played to a draw. The best minds on each side have yet to offer a viable path out of the stalemate, while some of the absolute monists would rather engage in majority rule winner take all bloody brawls, division of the country or civil war to deem the 'winner'. Such solutions are wholly unacceptable to the peaceful-minded and those with hopes for transcending simple dualism, especially since there is no essential tension maintained by a policy similar to the function MAD provided in the conflict of the last case.

The potential solution stemming from the syntheses possible in non-dual Jain logic, were suggested as being (3) *both Reform before election and election before reform qualified.* This is open to interpretation due to its seemingly paradoxical inapplicable nature, but if we remove the contradicting temporal aspects (of both doing and not doing something before) and follow only what is practical, the solution may be reform before and after the election, something which leads us to an increase in complexity rather than more polarization.

IV. Section Three: Conclusion and Synthesis

In both cases we discussed the potential synthesis based on the third condition of Jain Logic, seemingly paradoxical in nature, which provided what was argued as the best potential for overcoming the intractability and intransigence catalyzed by dualistic logic. It may be easy to argue against the value of the qualities in that synthesis due to inclination to dismiss paradoxical assertions, however with non-dual awareness we must not get trapped by the absoluteness of a truth, as it is the difference between monism, pluralism and their dualistic logic compared to the transcendent phenomenology which gives non-dual logic its comparative alternative value. There are multiple qualities we can identify within the different logics' syntheses, which help us understand the comparative alternative (and perhaps transcendental but certainly transformative) value. In dualism we find only either/or zero-sum solutions, this leads to polarization and conflict. In nondualism we have increased variability, qualification, and indefinability which don't create or manifest as dynamics of opposition. Parallelism and simultaneity are all acceptable mechanism in non-dual logic. If applied pragmatically in a finite circumstance, rather than only abstract ideology, the transformative ability of increasing complexity which is created by the additional variables allows us to transcend intractable dichotomies and even suggest direct solutions based on the integral imperatives at the core of conflicts.

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²In a rational manner we cannot act without knowledge, but paradoxically non-action is an option.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: F POLITICAL SCIENCE Volume 14 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2014 Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA) Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

The Role of National Assembly in Conflict Resolution: A Case of Anti-Subsidy Strikes of 2012

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Abstract- The legislature has added the responsibility of conflict mediation and resolution to its numerous functions. The legislature has established an enviable record of performance in this area. For instance, since 1999 the legislature has positively intervened and settled several government– labour disputes, be it over minimum wage, ASUU demands for better conditions of service in the Universities or most recently, the fuel subsidy strike. The timing of the removal of subsidy from petroleum products by the Executive was most inauspicious. It came at a time when majority of Nigerians were in their various villages and communities for the Christmas and New Year festivities. They were trapped and stranded as they could not afford the huge escalation in fuel price which moved from N65 to N140 per litre of petrol in the average Nigerian community. No one anticipated such sudden sharp increase as Nigerians had planned the budget for their trips based on existing cost parameters and indices. People were thus thrown into unavoidable economic turmoil and even reduced to the level of destitution and beggary.

Keywords: legislature, subsidy, corruption, investigative panel, conflict and conflict resolution and petroleum products.

GJHSS-F Classification : FOR Code : 160699

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The Role of National Assembly in Conflict Resolution: A Case of Anti- Subsidy Strikes of 2012

Eme Okechukwu I.

Abstract- The legislature has added the responsibility of conflict mediation and resolution to its numerous functions. The legislature has established an enviable record of performance in this area. For instance, since 1999 the legislature has positively intervened and settled several government- labour disputes, be it over minimum wage, ASUU demands for better conditions of service in the Universities or most recently, the fuel subsidy strike. The timing of the removal of subsidy from petroleum products by the Executive was most inauspicious. It came at a time when majority of Nigerians were in their various villages and communities for the Christmas and New Year festivities. They were trapped and stranded as they could not afford the huge escalation in fuel price which moved from N65 to N140 per litre of petrol in the average Nigerian community. No one anticipated such sudden sharp increase as Nigerians had planned the budget for their trips based on existing cost parameters and indices. People were thus thrown into unavoidable economic turmoil and even reduced to the level of destitution and beggary. As the representatives of the people, The National Assembly were inundated with barrage of calls and protestations from our constituents all over the country on their worsening economic situation occasioned by the subsidy removal. Confronted with such a terrible situation, the House of Representatives had to convene an emergency session on a Sunday, 8th January, 2012 (the first of its kind in our legislative history). This culminated in the decision of the House to set up the Hon. Farouk Law an led Ad-Hoc Committee on the Investigation and Monitoring of the Fuel Subsidy regime. To address the urgent matter of the impending strike, the National Assembly set up the Patrick Ikhariale Committee to reach out to Labour and arrest the situation. The findings of the Committee have since revealed that the huge funds being misapplied by a privileged few in our society in the name of oil subsidy could have been better and wisely deployed in funding the national budget to provide critical infrastructure and tackle mass poverty. The paper concludes by positing that in spite of the alleged bribery scandal, the report of the Subsidy Committee as adopted by the House remains sacrosanct. We urge the Executive to implement it without further delay. This paper addresses these issues.

Keywords: legislature, subsidy, corruption, investigative panel, conflict and conflict resolution and petroleum products.

I. INTRODUCTION

n a brusque manner that caught everybody, including members of the National Assembly Unawares, the Federal Government, on New Year's Day announced its decision to stop with immediate effect the subsidy on petroleum products. The immediate implication of this awkward New Year gist was the sudden rise in the price of premium Motor Spirit PMS, popularly called petrol here, from N65 to between N141 and N150, a sour taste in the mouth of most citizens. Naturally, the obviously unpopular decision immediately set off a whiff of national anger, with the leadership of organized labour re presented by the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) and the Trade Union Congress (TUC), vowing to shut down the country by January 9 if the federal government failed to retrace its step. It was not as if labour was totally opposed to the deregulation of the petroleum down stream sector, but its anger appeared to have stemmed from the fact that the government would take such critical decision when consultations" on the modalities and timing of its implementation were still on going. Even some lawmakers expressed indignation over what they called the tactical sideling of the National Assembly in "the far-reaching economic decision when the 2012 budget is still under consideration", a decision, which, one senator said "runs against the gains of inclusive and representative democracy" (See Oladesu, et. al, 2011: 1, 2).

As the one week ultimatum labour gave the government to rescind its decision lapsed without the latter budging the nation woke up on Monday January 9 to a crippling national strike as government officers throughout the nation were deserted and private businesses grounded in most cities of the federation. Street protests were also held across the country, as labour and its civil society allies vowed never to retreat until government brought back the price of petrol to its former N65 per liters. On its part, the government insisted that the subsidy removal was irrevocable.

Such was the hard line stance adopted by the two disputants that hopes of any meaningful settlement of the crisis were being dimmed by the day until the National Assembly, which was on its Christmas and New year recess at the time the subsidy removal announcement was made, waded in.

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Although, they too were not carried along in the government decision, the federal lawmakers immediately sprang into action as soon as they resumed with the House of Representatives even cutting short is holiday by two days to hold an emergency session on a Sunday on what was clearly becoming a serious national crisis. But while the House appeared to have used its controversial Sunday resolution to express its anger over the sidelining of the National Assembly in the subsidy removal decision, the Senate, through its leadership led by its President, Senator David Mark promptly initiated a damage control, peace deal between the Federal Government and organized labour though series of mainly nocturnal meetings with each of the disputants in the first instance. The lawmakers later succeeded in brining labour and government officials together to the negotiating table, a move that finally led to the resolution of the crisis one way or the other.

By their action, the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) has aptly demonstrated that it still commands the respect of most Nigerians. We say this considering the substantial compliance of its nationwide strike order in protest of fuel subsidy removal. Expectedly, Nigerians troop out to protest the subsidy removal, which they consider punitive, ill-timed and ill advised.

The nation's economy was literally put on hold while the strike was on. Schools, petrol stations, banks and markets were shut down in compliance of the order. In some major cities across the polity, there were disruptions of movement by anti-subsidy removal agitators who set bonfires on the roads. In most streets in the metropolis, idle youths were seen playing football, while in some areas hoodlums exploited the strike and had a field day. Small trading that went on was only visible in some neighbourhood streets.

Organized labour has insisted that government must go to the former pump price of N65 per litre of fuel before the current deregulated price of N141 per litre of petrol. The House of Representatives on its emergency sitting on Sunday (8th January, 2012) urged government to reverse itself and return to former price of N65 per litre of petrol so that it will go into dialogue with labour (See Olukayode and Kujenya, 2012:2).

The Lower Chamber resolved too that labour should shelve its current call for strike so as to negotiate with government. Regrettably, neither government nor labour heeded the House's call. Labour hailed the House's decision and urged the Senate to do the same.

Not even the launching on Sunday of the 1600 mass transit buses by President Good luck Jonathan and the various appeals by government's agents could make labour to call off the protest. Not even the purported 25 percent cut in salaries of political officeholders can make Nigerians see reasons with their embattled President who decided to wage so many battles against the populace all in one swoop without considering their consequences. All the sermons and rhetoric of fuel subsidy removal appear to have fallen on deaf ears. The people no longer trust this government which in one breathes promised us fresh air and vowed that it will not inflict pains on Nigerians only to inflict the same people with the worst pains ever in the history of Nigeria some hours after the promise.

All governments from Obsanjo's first coming to his second coming have in one way or the other deregulated the oil sector, which we have been made to understand, as price hike in petroleum products. The most notorious were Obasanjo and Ibrahim Babangida regimes (See Eme, 2011).

Now as 100 percent (115 percent) price hike of petrol, Jonathan's regime will appear to be the worst if he does not reverse himself. There is no gain saying that Jonathan came to power with lots of goodwill from Nigerians. He appears to have fritted away all of them.

Nobody believes the president who went to school without shoes. Nobody believes that he is neither Pharoah nor Nebuchednezzar. Nobody believes that Jonathan would rule Nigeria without iron hand. There is no doubt that the transformation train has hit a brick wall and the citizens are resisting the imposition of hardship under the guise of fuel subsidy removal. What Jonathan is doing is against all his campaign promises of turning the economy and making all Nigerians happy. He is inflicting greater pains on Nigerians by his every policy. He does not honour agreement (See Iba, 2009).

In fact, the subsidy removal apostles are economical with the truth. The whole exercise is riddled with fallacies. It is not true that the way Jonathan is going about the subsidy removal is the best way be deregulate the downstream oil sector (See Igbadu, 2002, Oladesu, et.al,:2011).

Nigerians have in the past five days reacted angrily to Government's actions on the fuel subsidy. Nigerians have concluded that their leaders are truly detached from the reality of economic hardship endured by Nigerians. This is so because virtually all high government officials and their families feed and live off tax payers' funds, yet they enjoy outrageous salaries and other emoluments. In some cases the amount budgeted for feeding and catering is as much as N 1. billion. Government officials travel limitlessly around the globe for the flimsiest of reasons collecting esta codes in billions even where the object of most of these journeys can be achieved by simply browsing the internet. Consequently, Nigerians have reacted spontaneously to this unwise and ill-motivated maneuver by demonstrations and other forms of protest nationwide. The aim of this paper is to discuss the role of the National Assembly in conflict resolution using the subsidy removal strikes in Nigeria as a case study.

II. CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

a) The Legislature

The Legislature is the engine of democratic governance as laws made by it set the agenda for the government and regulate the conduct of the people. The legislature in Nigeria, being it the National Assembly or State Houses of Assembly, has a very significant role to play in creating the legal and institutional frameworks for ensuring the existence and sustainability of transparency and accountability in the public service. Abayomi (2003: 12) observed that, Assemblies have increasingly become scrutinizing bodies, the principal role of which is to deliver responsible or accountable government. Most Assemblies have developed institutional mechanisms designed to facilitate this role. Abayomi (2003: 13) also noted that the legislature emerged from the need to make government accountable to the people. This need for accountability has ensured that all activities of parliament are open to public scrutiny. Baldwin (2006: 5) describes the legislature as "the representative body that provides for legitimacy, enacts legislation and oversees and scrutinizes the actions and activities of the executive in a State".

The legislature is an assemblage of the representatives of the people elected under a legal framework to make laws for the good health of the society. It is also defined as "the institutional body responsible for making laws for a nation and one through which the collective will of the people or part of it is articulated, expressed and implemented" (Okoosi-Simbine, 2010:1).

The legislature controls through legislation all economic, social and political activities of the nation. It also scrutinizes the policies of the Executive and provides the framework for the judiciary to operate.

In light of the foregoing, we cannot talk about democracy in any meaningful form or manner without the legislature. Indeed, the legislature is at the very heart of any democratic arrangement or what scholars often refer to as "representative governance".

The significance of the legislature as one of the strong pillars of democratic governance (the others being the Executive and Judiciary), can therefore, be discerned from Abraham Lincoln's classical definition of democracy during the Gettysburg Address of 1863, as "government of the people, by the people and for the people" (Remy, 1994:31-34). Central to this definition is the existence of the representatives of the people due to the technical impossibility of all the people ruling and carrying on the business of government, at the same time, as was the original thinking in the famous Greek City States of old. (Lowi, Ginsberg, Shepsle, 2008:117-128).

Baldwin (1989: 20) categorized legislatures according to their capacity to influence policy.

Consequently, the four types of legislatures can be identified:

- policy making legislatures (active legislatures)
- policy influencing legislatures (reactive legislatures)
- legislatures with minimal or marginal policy effect
- legislatures with no real policy effect or "rubberstamp" legislatures.

Of these categorization, the Nigerian legislatures be they at the National, State or Local Government Council levels are supposedly that of policy-making legislatures which enjoy significant level of autonomy and cannot only amend or reject measures brought forward by the executive, but can substitute for it policy of its own.

However, there are more to legislatures than either formulating policies or influencing the formulation of policies. This is because indeed, a wide-range of functions – some intended and some unintended, can be identified. In the Nigerian context, these functions can be looked upon from the backdrop of its powers and responsibilities. These can be classified into three:

- a) Expressed powers as stated in the constitution
- b) Implied powers arising from extension of the constitution
- c) Assumed powers arising from constitutional lacuna "Consensus building".

In Nigeria, a presidential republic with a bicameral National Assembly consisting of a Senate with 109 members, and a House of Representatives with 360 members, as well as thirty-six State Assemblies and 774 Local Council Legislatures, the legislature has powers and responsibilities enshrined in the statutes especially the constitution through which it can ensure public service accountability.

The influential position of the legislature is expressed by section 4 of the amended 1999 Nigerian Constitution which deals elaborately with legislative powers, enables this arm of government to formulate and express the will of the people through legislation. Specifically, the legislative function as provided in the 1999 Constitution includes the following, among others:

- a) Law making and policy formulation functions
- b) Oversight functions
- c) Investigative functions
- d) Amendment of the constitution and laws
- e) Control of the administration or executive
- f) Representative or constituency
- g) Determination and control of finance (watchdog of public funds).

One of the most important functions of the legislature that is the concern of this work is the check it provides on the other arms of government (Executive and Judiciary) in pursuance of the doctrine of checks

and balances. Thus, for purposes of ensuring accountability in the public service, the legislature acts as an active supervisor or "watchdog" of the activities of the other arms of government as provided in sections 88 and 89 of the 1999 constitution for the National Assembly and sections 128 and 129 for States Houses of Assembly.

Loewenberg (1995: 736) conceptualizes legislatures as "assemblies of elected representatives from geographically defined constituencies, with lawmaking functions in the governmental process."

In the same vein, Jewell (1997: 172) identified two features that distinguish legislatures from other branches of government. According to him, "they" (legislatures) have formal authority to pass laws, which are implemented and interpreted by the executive and judicial branches and their members normally are elected to represent various elements in the population." It is significant to note that legislatures vary in terms of composition, structure and role, from one democracy to another.

It is important to note that despite this close affinity and the close emphasis of law making echoed by most analyst as the principal function of the legislature, the term still faces complex definitional problems as our knowledge about legislatures has become more sophisticated. For instance, it was discovered that legislators in some of these systems had little or no role in law making. It was in consideration of this variation that Mazey (1979: 3) defines the legislature thus:

I think of a legislature as predominantly elected body of people that act collegially and have at least the formal but not necessarily the exclusive

powers to enact laws binding on all members of a specific geo-political entity.

Mazey's thinking is reinforced by the fact that some laws enacted by the legislature are in truly professional sense, delegated. Despite the complexities in definition, this study adopts the definitional model which sees the legislature as a body of people (whether elected or otherwise) who have the powers to make laws which are binding on all members of a society, state or country (Ojo, 19993: 1). The adoption of this definitional model stems from the fact that the legislature in Nigeria has the exclusive power of law-making. Granted that the executive branch and its agencies are privy to proposing legislations, but in the final analysis, the responsibility of overhauling and passing such laws is the exclusive duty of the legislature.

The Nigeria's Presidential Constitution, for the purpose of promoting transparency and accountability in the public service, vests on the legislature the power over appropriation and control of public funds. It is for this obvious reason that the legislature is described as the "watchdog of public funds". In this capacity, it exercises its power to audit public finances as well as the power of investigation into the affairs of government departments or public officers in order to scrutinize the use of such funds for purpose of accountability. The constitutional functions of the legislature with regards to control over public funds for purpose of accountability include among others:

- i. Pre and post-appropriation control
- ii. Authorization of expenditure from the consolidated revenue funds
- iii. Its role in the auditing of public accounts
- iv. Directing or causing to be directed, investigations into "the conduct of affairs of any person, authority, ministry or government department charged or intended to be charged with the duty of or responsibility for disbursing or administering moneys appropriated by the legislature.

What is of particular interest to us in this paper is the role the legislature played to ensure accountability in the recent subsidy face-off between the Presidency and Organised labour in early 2012.

b) Conflict Resolution

Mitchel and Banks (1996) use conflict resolution to refer to:

- i. An outcome in which the issues in an existing conflict are satisfactorily death with through a solution that is mutually acceptable to the parties, self-sustaining in the long run and productive of a new, positive relationship between parties that were previously hostile adversaries; and
- ii. Any process or procedure by which such an outcome is achieved.

Miall et al (2001:21) indicate that by conflict resolution, it is expected that the deep rooted sources of conflict are addressed and resolved, and behavior is no longer violent, nor are attitudes hostile any longer, while the structure of the conflict has been changed.

Conflict resolution is seen by Miller (2003:8) as "a variety of approaches aimed terminating conflicts through the constructive solving of problems, distinct from management or transformation of conflict." Some people may use the term "conflict resolution" to refer to a specialized field of study and practice as in the field of conflict resolution (Best, 2009).

Putting these ideas together, it can be said that in principle, conflict resolution connotes a sense of finality, where the parties to a conflict are mutually satisfied with the outcome of a settlement and the conflict is resolved in a true sense. Some conflicts, especially those over resources, are permanently resolvable. From the point of view of needs, a conflict is resolved when the basic needs of parties have been met with necessary satisfier, and their fears have been allayed. Others, like those over values, may be nonresolvable and can at best be transformed, regulated or managed.

c) Subsidy

It is defined as money that is paid by a government or an organization to reduce the cost of producing goods and services so that their prices can be kept low (Horn by, 2005:1476). According to the writer, subsidies can be granted in agricultural area or housing projects. In his own understanding of subsidy, Agu (2009:286), saw it as a payment made by government to producers of certain goods and services, to enable them produce and sell at lower prices than they would otherwise. Agu was of the view that the policy helps to lower the market prices below the factor costs, so that consumers would have the privilege to pay less for the goods and services than they cost the producer to produce same. In the same vein, Ezeagba (2005:45) believed that subsidy exists in a situation when consumers of a particular commodity are assisted by the government to pay less than the market price of the commodity in question. On the producers' side, Ezeagba saw it as the payment to producers of certain commodities by the government not to produce at all or augment their incomes when the prices of their products are less than break-even point.

In his own definition of the concept, Ovaga (2010:117), stated that it is a device employed by government to assist either the consumers or producers to consume or produce certain commodities at prices below the prevailing market prices. According to him, it is also an incentive given to either side (consumers or producers) to consume or produce more of the goods and services.

Todaro (1980:287), in his own understanding of subsidy, saw the importance of applying it in education sector for the less privileged ones in the society. He was of the view that low income groups should be provided with sufficient subsidies to permit them to overcome the sizeable costs of schooling. The essence of the policy in this circumstance is to reduce the costs of education for the less privileged ones, thereby encouraging them to avail themselves the opportunity of benefiting from the benevolence of the government. Ruffin and Gregory (1983:354-355), saw subsidy as a vital instrument for economic development and growth in a country. They said, when a foreign government subsidizes its exports, the ultimate beneficiaries are the citizens of the country. For instance, United States, which in 1970s had comparative advantage in commercial aircraft, subsidized the export of this very product, through below-market loans to the Boeing and McDonnel Douglas Corporation. It is in the light of the above that the writers claimed that foreign export duties are gifts to the American people.

Fuel subsidy was before the coming of the Jonathan administration, a policy of federal government meant to assist the people of Nigeria to cushion the effects of their economic hardship. Conceptually, fuel subsidy seeks to enhance financial capacity but also to

accept the implied financial capacity but also to accept the implied financial losses by it in the spirit of its national responsibility to ensure the well being of the populace. In other words, if a product, like fuel, is to sell for N141 per litre, but for some considerations, it cannot be sold at that rate but at N97 per litre and if government then accepts to pay the difference between N141 and N97, that is N44, this simply means that there is a subsidy to the tune of N85 for every litre purchased at the filling stations. Hat are particularly significant about the fuel subsidy are its politics and its national and international implications. At the domestic level, both the proponents and opponents of fuel subsidy have valid theses. Secondly, both of them also maintain a non-compromising altitude. That is, while the government is talking about no alternative to removal of petrol subsidy to the opponents insist on no negotiation with government until government restores fuel subsidy which was removed on January 1, 2012 (Ikuomola, 2012).

Thirdly, the disagreement over removal of fuel subsidy has led to a nationwide-strike whose implications have now gone beyond the economic considerations of oil subsidy. In fact, the international dimensions are such that Nigerian's international image has become first victim.

Beyond these considerations, the removal of oil subsidy has provided a good platform for national reflection. One of the issues is the extent of political sovereignty. This is because true sovereignty belongs to the people. The paper concludes by positing that there is no disputing the fact that both the politics of oil subsidy removal and the strike have become a compelling factor for governmental accountability and good governance. It will go a long way in defining the success of President Jonathan in 2015 and the regimes after.

III. Theoretical Framework of Analysis

This work will use the Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) as its framework of analysis. The idea of Alternative Dispute resolution (ADR) is about the search for, and application of, "non-conventional" peaceful methods of setting disputes and resolving conflict situations using the least expensive methods, and in ways that satisfy the parties, as well as ways that preserve relationships after a settlement might have been reached. ADR is specially meant to serve as an alternative to the official conventional means of settling disputes, mainly through litigation and the courts, but with preference for non-violence.

The conflict resolution and transformation spectrum consists of a range of options employable for non-violent management of conflict. These can be classified into two, namely the voluntary processes, and the involuntary processes. The voluntary processes are those in which parties have some control over the outcome. They include fact finding, in-depth research and case studies, facilitation, negotiation, conciliation, mediation and brokerage. The involuntary processes on the other hand, are more often than not, outside the control of the parties to the conflicted. Even though they may be non-violent, the third parties who broker the process may sometimes hand down outcomes, which the parties have to accept either in principle or in law. These options include arbitration, adjudication and law enforcement (otherwise called crisis management) using the coercive apparatus of state.

This diplomatic processes involve the use of discussions, fact-finding methods and bargaining to prevent the escalation of conflicts. Differences are resolved either directly by the contending parties themselves or with the discreet assistance of third parties. In such discussions or bargaining emphasis is on facts; the issue of law does not intrude.

Of all the procedures used to settle differences or manage conflicts, the most common and often the most effective is negotiation which ADR represents. To negotiate is to bargain; it is to confer for the purpose of reaching mutual agreement or understanding. The procedure consists basically of discussions between the interested parties. Such peaceful confrontation of the parties affords them an opportunity to present their own accounts and views of the facts of the dispute, to understand the different positions maintained by the parties and to reconcile divergent opinions. Negotiation does not involve any third party, at least when there is no difficulty in the two parties confronting each other. In this sense, it differs slightly from all the other forms of conflict management (Shaw, 1977:381)

However, the pre-requisite conditions for negotiation apply to all other diplomatic mechanisms of conflict management. The principles underlying successful negotiation also guide effective mediation and conciliation. The skills of a negotiator are germane too for a mediator and a conciliator.

The idea is to have people with institutional memories who can intervene during periods of national crisis. And so when it became imperative for the Senate to intervene we had to approach it from the point of view of maturity, the point of view of national interest and making sure that we gave our country, safeguard our unity so that we can have an atmosphere of peace. And that was why we had to initiate the dialogue between the labour and the federal government.

Information also emerged how the Office of the Special Adviser to the President on National Assembly Matters helped in ensuring that both Chambers of the National Assembly worked together with the Presidency to resolve the crisis.

Beside being seen at most venues of the talks, especially the ones held at the Presidential Villa, the

Presidential Liaison Officer to the National Assembly was visibly shutting between Senator David Mark and Hon. Aminu Tambuwal's Apo Legislative Quarters homes.

Investigation showed that the first role of the Special Adviser to the President on National Assembly Matters, Senator Joy Emodi was to ensure both chambers of the as to the approach to be adopted in resolving the crisis.

In such an important national matter, it would have been taken for granted that he leadership of both Chambers would consult on the approach and date if they had to reconvene, but it was clear from their approaches and the controversial Sunday session by the House that no consultations might have taken place.

Emodi known as the "Joy of the Senate" in her heydays in the Red Chamber, was said to have deployed the goodwill and respect she enjoys among the senators and House members and among their leadership to deploy her superb lobbying acumen towards an amicable resolution of the subsidy face-off.

Giving insights into their influence in the National Assembly, a source said: The good thing about Emodi was that beside being in the good book of the leadership of the Senate who were her former colleagues in the Upper Chamber, she also had sound relationship with both the House Leadership and other power brokers in the House of Representative for instance she worked with Speaker and the Deputy Speaker during the Constitution amendment processes in the 6th National Assembly while she also worked very closely with Hon. Farouk Lawan, who was her counterpart Chairman of the Committee on Education in the House(Eme,et.al,2012b:9).

Shortly after labour called off the strike and street protests, Emodi had acknowledged in unmistakable terms the role of the National Assembly, especially its leadership in resolving the subsidy crisis.

In an interview with news men, the Presidential adviser noted that the resolution of the subsidy dispute had "further crystallized the essence of the existing cordial working relationship between the executive and legislative arms of the Federal Government.

IV. PUMP PRICE ADJUSTMENTS IN NIGERIA AND THEIR FALLOUTS

It is rather ironic to posit that oil wealth which serves as the source of fortune for many countries is the main source of fortune for many countries is the main source of Nigeria's misfortune. At least Nigeria was economically steady and progressive before the so-called oil boom. At least there was no oil money when Nigeria went through a civil war for 30months without borrowing one kobo. Why has oil become oil doom? In his nine years in office as Head of State, General Yakubu gowon took the price of petrol from 6kobo to 9.5kobo per litre. After him was General Murtala Ramat Muhammed who never tampered with the price of oil till his death in 1976. It was General Olusegun Obasanjo who first took fuel price by a leap moving it from 9.5kobo to 15 kobo. The regimes of Shehu Shagari and General Muhammadu Buhari maintained the status quo as they never increased fuel process and Nigeria did not fail as a nation.

When the self-styled military President Ibrahim Babangida took over in 1985, his first focus was oil. It was he who moved the price of petrol from N15kobo to 70kobo in his eight years of governance. But by far the greatest leap of oil priced in Nigeria was introduced by Chief Ernest Shonekan, an interim Head of State who took the price from 70kobo to N5.00 within the 87 days of his illegal rule (See Onanugu, 2011).

Then, General Sani Abacha forcefully hijacked power from Chief Shonekan and moved petrol from N5 to N11 within his five years in office. When Abacha died in 1998, General Abdulsalami Abubakar became the Head of State and virtually concentrated on oil. It was he who took the price of petrol from N11 to N20 within the ten months he ruled Nigeria. When General Obasanjo returned to office as elected President in 1999, his first point of call was oil capitalization on the precedent laid by his predecessor, he went ahead to raise the price of fuel from N20 to N70 within eight years he spent in office. It was this singular action that pushed the masses to start kicking against such actions (Ofichenna, 2011).

Subsidy removal has been on since 2000 during the tenure of former NLC President, Adams Oshiomhole. The Administration of former president Olusegun Obasanjo increased petrol pump price from N11 to N30 per litre. The price hike raised a lot of dust. For eight days; the economy was at a stand still. The government later reduced the price to N20 per litre. The table below x-rays the various petrol adjustments in Nigeria since 1978.

S/No	Date	Administration	Price	Percentage Change
1	1978	Obasanjo	15k	
2	1990	Babangida	60k	300%
3	1992	Babangida	70k	17%
4	1992	Babangida	N3.25k	364%
5	1993	Babangida	N5.00	54%
6	1994	Shonekan	N11.00	120%
7	1994 – 1998	Abacha	N11.00	-
8	1998 – 1999	Abacha	N20.00	82%
9	2000	Obasanjo	N20.00	-
10	2000	Obasanjo	N22.00	10%
11	2001	Obasanjo	N26.00	18%
12	2003	Obasanjo	N40.00	54%
13	2004	Obasanjo	N45.00	13%
14	2007	Obasanjo	N70.00	56%
15	2007 – 2009	Yar'Adua	N65.00	0.07%
16	2010 – 2012	Jonathan	N65.00	-
17	2012 till date	Jonathan	N141.00	117%

Table 1 : Various Petrol Adjustments in Nigeria Since 1978

V. Subsidy Strike: Actors, Issues and Peace Meetings

The nation began to see some silver lining on the sky when on Monday 9, a day to the resumption of plenary, the Senate President, Senator David Mark succeeded in bringing the labour leaders to his Apo Legislative Quarters residence in Abuja. Although that Monday night meeting at Mark's residence filed to convince labour leaders to call off the strike, that was still in its first day, it at least succeeded in bringing out the comrades from their trenches and it marked the opening up of meaningful discussions at the highest level.

Emerging from the Parley, President of the Nigeria labour Congress, Comrade Abdul waheed Omar

said, "When windows are opening, nobody will like to miss that" (Eme, et. al, 2012b: 32) and expressed appreciation to the Senate President for his intervention.

On his part, the Senate President told newsmen that he had "very fruitful discussion" (Eme, ea. al, 2012b: 33) with the labour leaders at the meeting adding, we are making progress and whatever decision we arrive at will be in the best interest of the nation.

But if the Monday night meeting ailed to sway labour, what followed the next day gave some indications that truce was on the way. That day when the upper chamber formally resumed plenary, the senators unanimously mandated the Senate President and the body of Principal Officers to meet President Good luck Jonathan to categorically demand the immediate suspension of the fuel subsidy removal allow the parliamentary mediation to have some verve. The Senators also asked their leaders to press it on Jonathan to shift the implementation of the subsidy removal to April 1, 2012 in the light of the prevailing circumstance.

At a closed door meeting immediately on reconvening, the senators were said to have expressed grave concern about the gridlock and near short down of the national economy which the strike action has caused the nation.

Immediately after plenary, the Senate principal officers comprising Mark, his Deputy, Senator Ike Ekweremadu; majority leader, Senator Victor Ndoma Egba; majority whip, Senator Hayatu Bello Gwarzo; Deputy majority leader, senator Abudul Ningi; Deputy majority Whip, Senator Hosea Agboola; Minority leader, Senator George Akume; Minority Whip, Senator Ganiyu Solomon; Deputy Minority Leader, Senator Abu Ibrahim and Deputy Minority Whip, Senator Ahmed Rufai Sani, got cracking and again got the labour leaders to attend another late evening meeting at the Senate president's residence.

The meeting which lasted more than four hours was described by NLC President Omar as very useful deliberation. Although it also failed to achieve any concrete breakthrough in the move to get the unionist to suspend the strike, the fact that labour even honored the government's invitation to attend the meeting, according to Omar was "an indication that labour is already shifting ground

January 10, however marked the crescendo of the senators' sustained move to help end the labour government face off as they participated in three different meetings, one each separately with labour and the federal government and one together with the two parties.

The dispute was close to resolution as each of the disputants during the three-prong meeting showed sufficient readiness to make concessions, to shift some grounds.

It began with the early morning meeting between Mark and his team on one hand and President Jonathan and his team on the other. After the meeting, the lawmakers held another meeting with the labour at noon at which the later were briefed on the outcome of the early morning meeting, the senators had with the President's team.

Emerging from the noon parley that lasted about 30 minutes, NLC President Omar and Senate President Mark expressed optimism for an early resolution of the dispute.

Mark told newsmen,

Our role actually has been one of trying to get government and labour together to get to round table to talk to reach decision and call off the strike. That has been our role and that is precisely what we are doing. We met with the President in the morning and then we met with labour now and they have agreed to meet and that is a giant step forward. It is really a big step which has not come easy at all. All I can say is that we can we the light of the end of the tunnel (Eme, et. al, 2012a:.8)

On his part, Omar said: we appreciate their intervention and we have just done one leg of this meeting. We are also going to continue the meeting at a different venue at 5pm (Thursday)" (Eme,et.al,2012a:9).

The different venue" alluded to by Omar later turned out to be Aso Villa and the participants included the President's team, the lawmakers and the labour leaders. It was indeed the mother of all negotiations and one which anxious Nigerians believed held the ace to the final resolution of the extant crisis.

However, in continuation of the reconciliatory efforts to stave off further protests by organized labour and civil society groups over the fuel subsidy removal, Mark, after church service on Sunday January 15 hosted another high-powered meeting of government officials at his Apo Legislative Quarters residence in Abuja.

The meeting attended by federal government official and representatives of the Nigerian Governors Forum (NGF), was convened to review government's new position on its negotiation with labour leaders that broke down on Saturday night.

The new position entailed shifting more grounds to labour demand to avert the resumption of the strike the following day after the weekend partial truce.

At the Saturday night's parley between government and labour at the Aso Villa, labour was said to have remained adamant that the price of petrol must revert to N 65 per litre before any meaningful negotiation could take place, a position that was not acceptable to government.

However, emerging from the meeting, which lasted more than three hours, the Chairman of the Governors' Forum Governor Chibuike Amaechi of River State expressed optimism that compromise was on the way and urged Nigerians to exercise patient as "something concrete could still come up between now (3.00 pm that Sunday) and 12.00 midnight" (Eme, et. al, 2012b: 48).

Other who attended the meeting included Speaker of the House of Representatives, Hon. Aminu Tambuwa, Deputy Senate President, Senator Ike Ekweremadu, Deputy Speaker of the House of Representatives, Hon. Emeka Ihedioha, Senate Leader, Senator Victor Ndoma-Egba, Governor Peter Obi of Anambra State, Minister of Labour, Chief Emeka Wogu and his information counterpart, Mr. Labraran Maku.

And just as Amaechi hinted, the truce finally came after the midnight meeting with President

Goodluck Jonathan making an early morning nationwide televised broadcast to announce the historical ceasefire.

Speaking to reporters in an exclusive interview on the role played by the lawmakers in bringing normalcy back to the polity after the week-long standoff, Deputy Senate President, Senator Ike Ekweremadu, who participated actively all the peace meetings, described the role played by the National Assembly as "a historical responsibility'.

He said,

For us in the National Assembly, we consider it our responsibility to intervene when the country seems to be boiling. We have done that in the past and it yielded results during the time when our Late President Umaru Yar' Adua was ill, and the country expected us again in intervene at the critical moment of the fuel subsidy removal crisis (Eme et al, 2012a: 9).

Ekweremadu specially pointed out that what the senators, in particular, did was in tune with the concept of having an upper legislative house. He said, the country expects that in times of national crisis the upper legislative house needs to intervene. In other countries with similar legislative body have the same scenario of more elderly people, more experienced people occupying seats in the Senate. In the U.S, Senators are elected for years. So, when as a senator you've been there for three to four terms, you are looking at about 20 to 30 years being in the Senate. In other places, senators are elected for life like in Canada and the United Kingdom where you have the House of lord. The idea is to have people with institutional memories who can intervene during periods of national crisis. And so when it became imperative for the Senate to intervene we had to approach it from the point of view of maturity, the point of view of national interest and making sure that we gave our country, safeguard our unity so that we can have an atmosphere of peace. And that was why we had to initiate the dialogue between the labour and the federal government.

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Shortly after labour called off the strike and street protests, Emodi had acknowledged in unmistakable terms the role of the National Assembly, especially its leadership in resolving the subsidy crisis.

In an interview with our correspondent, the Presidential adviser noted that the resolution of the subsidy dispute had "further crystallized the essence of the existing cordial working relationship between the executive and legislative arms of the Federal Government.

Emodi, who also hailed the maturity and understanding shown by President Jonathan and the leadership of organized labour, aid members of the National Assembly proved themselves to be true representative of the people with national interest at heart.

Emodi who described President Jonathan as a democrat committed to the wellbeing of the masse and cordial executive and legislative relationship, which her office has been working to promote, said the manner in which both arms of government rallied to resolve the dispute had reaffirmed her position that the executive and the legislature need to always work together as partners in progress to move the nation for ward.

a) Now, What Next?

After the resolution of the crisis, the next question is: What is the way forward now in the light of the present circumstance? President Goodluck Jonathan in his speech enunciated several policy actions, which, according to him, would ameliorate the pains of the eventual total removal of subsidy. That being the case; what will be the role of the National Assembly in the circumstance, especially against the backdrop of the role in played in bringing about the settlement of the subsidy dispute?

In this regard, the House of Representatives seek to work in partnership and harmony with the Senate of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to legislate for the common good and in the greater interest of the Nigerian people. They also seek the cooperation of other arms of government, particularly the Executive, in order to improve living conditions in Nigeria and make the government more responsive to the needs of the people. The legislative agenda of the House of Representatives for instance aim at reviving and diversifying the economy, generating employment, strengthening our national security, curbing corruption, tackling the electricity crisis and general infrastructural decay that confront us, improving our health and educational sectors and work to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The agenda also emphasised the importance of amending the Constitution to address several areas of concern. Our legislative agenda will be people-centred and correspond to the expectations of Nigerians.

Therefore the National Assembly seeks to do things differently and reverse the notion of business-asusual approach that has been a source of worry to our people. According to the House, it promised to be sensitive to what the Nigerian people want and increase the public sensitivity quotient. Put differently, The Seventh House of Representatives seeks to build a new image for the legislature – a strong, vibrant and effective legislature, able to assert itself as an important partner with other arms of government in the delivery of good governance, due process and rule of law.

Senate's spokesman, Senator Enyinnaya Abaribe, who was confronted with these posers, said the way forward now is that subsequent budgets would have to be tinkered with in the light of the President's speech. He said, precisely, what will be done is to reduce the recurrent expenditure and increase the capital budget, particularly in roads and infrastructure in view of the anticipated increased in the Medium Term Expenditure Framework. It will also reflect the change in the oil bench mark, which will be increased from \$ 75 per barrel of crusade oil. All these he stated are measures that have to be fast tracked to take care of the painful effect of subsidy removal (Eme, et.al, 2012a: 12).

Again Abaribe said the efforts would assuage the fears of the people that the recent settlement of the dispute was pyrrhic and one that will not last. The Senate spokesman however assured that the Senate on its own would tighten its oversight functions, to bring it in tandem with the renewed commitment to sanitize the system and fight corruption. He concluded that the Senate will channel the oversight function properly especially focus in the petroleum industry to checkmate

VI. Recommendations

Based on the above analysis, the underlisted recommendations are recommended:

The National Assembly and the Nigerian People certainly have challenges particularly in the areas of oil theft, the economy and security and for the polity to make progress and win the hearts and minds of the people, government must intensify the provision of social amenities in those areas where they are lacking. To achieve this, the National Assembly must do everything possible to address squarely, socioeconomic needs of our people with determination and sincerity, honesty and transparency.

More than ever before, the populace expects the National Assembly to adopt a bipartisan approach and to rise above narrow and parochial considerations in its deliberations.

The National Assembly pledges to stand by the Nigerian people, at all times and in all circumstances; this is the least they can and must do. This commitment to patriotically stand with the people as their elected Representatives and should also influence every moderating intervention they make to stabilize the polity.

The National Assembly should review legislative branch budget in line with the requirements of openness, effectiveness and accountability in order to reduce cost of governance in Nigeria.

The National Assembly should review the 1999 Constitution in all relevant areas to facilitate the implementation of the Senate and House of Representatives legislative agenda and in line with the aspirations of Nigerians and engage actively with other arms of government to restore public order and national security, and

The National Assembly should institution- alise mechanisms that will facilitate more effective engagement with various stakeholders including constituents and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and those indicted by National Assembly investigative panels on subsidy scam should be prosecuted.

VII. Conclusion

Government appears adamant in the quest to remove fuel subsidy. The people are equally resolved in its opposition to the removal of subsidy. Nigeria is up for the rough times ahead. The time has come for the final determination whether those in government derive their power from the people or whether they are independent and owe their stay in power to other entities other than the people.

It is unfortunate that the populace must at this point in time be forced to confront government as a result of the latter's unviable and self serving economic policies. Government is not in the business of making a profit for itself and her cronies and sponsors who are in the oil industry. If anything untoward happens in the course of this protest, then the blood of innocent Nigerians is on the head of President Jonathan. In every democracy, a leader or leaders must govern according to the will of the people. No leader has a monopoly of knowledge of wisdom over and above the people that put him there. At all times government must remain respective and accountable to the will of the people or face the consequences.

I am deeply impressed by the brilliant leadership and resilient mediatory support of the National Assembly leadership in the course of the whole impasse and it is my expectation that this experience will strengthen our democracy and usher in a new path in our quest for national development.

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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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