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Integration of Community Health

Satisfaction on the Training program

} Highlights {

An Assessment of the Terrorism

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF HUMAN-SOCIAL SCIENCE: H

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By David Urassa & Pius Chaya

Muhimbili University

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Keywords: community health, health systems, community health worker, kirkpatrick model, satisfaction.

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Integration of Community Health Workers into a Formal Health System of Tanzania- Measuring Satisfaction on the Training Program using Kirk Patrick Model

David Urassa [α] & Pius Chaya [σ]

Abstract- This study aimed at   assessing the satisfaction of Community Health Worker (CHW) -students with the training programme from Kahama and Shirati Health Institutes. It employed Kirkpatrick's Model- focusing on Level 1 and a cross- sectional design. The study sampled a total of 153 Community Health(CHWs) by Simple Random Sampling, and a total of 14 tutors from Kahama and Shirati Health Institutes by purposively sampling. Data were collected using i) CHW survey-using questionnaire-Kirkpatrick tool ii) Focus Group Discussion (FGD) - for the tutors. Quantitative data were processed, edited and descriptively analyzed using SPSS version 20. The Likert scale (1-5) was used for the computation of weighted scores. The majority (66%; weighted score =4.5) were strongly satisfied with the course content. Call for curriculum review should go hand in hand with putting in place on job training programmes for tutors to enhance their teaching methodology skills.

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I. Introduction

Community Health is now becoming a public policy agenda. This is also triggered by a shift from treatment to prevention, promotion and education. Tanzania and other countries have invested heavily in the area of capacity building of Community Health Workers (CHWs) as part of WHO recommendations to integrate them into the Health systems. Measuring satisfaction of the training process of Community Health Workers (CHWs) who are integrated into the formal health system cannot be ignored in this era of formalizing the Community health worker cadre. While numerous studies have attempted to measure CHW students reaction to training programmes in the context of learning and teaching environment, the content of the curriculum and it relevance to the career, tutors competence and adaptability to changing world (iHeed Institute (2013);Asnake and Tilahun (2010); Lehmann and

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Sanders (2004) and Lim et al., (2002), yet there are still gaps in terms of evidence on CHW reactions to the learning. In Tanzania, frontline CHW are uniquely positioned to bridge the country's critical shortage of human resources for health.   The CHWs have increasingly been recognized as an important frontline cadre in improving access to basic healthcare services, and mobilizing community actions to address health needs is of great concern once they have graduated and been deployed into the health system (Javanparast et al, 2012). The Primary Health Care (PHC) approach, identified in the Alma Ata conference in 1978, has put also more emphasis on the role of CHWs in addressing community health needs (WHO, 1978). Training and evaluation of CHWs practice is becoming one of the key aspects that generally seek to develop new knowledge and skills related to specific task,s and to increase CHWs' capacity to communicate with and serve local people across marginalized communities and underserved areas. Countries that have been delegating tasks to community level health workers have more recently been considered as a response to the global shortage in human resources for health and a key strategy to improve access to quality health services (WHO, 2008).

Massive training of CHWs that take place globally is driven by acute shortage of health workers. The World Health Organization (WHO) also estimates that more than 57 countries face critical health worker shortages, of which the majority (63%) are in sub-Saharan Africa (WHO, 2006), that calls for the deployment of Community Based Health approaches. Evidence also suggests that globally, about 1 billion people will never see a health worker during the course of their lives (Bhutta et al., 2010) and this is still exacerbated by shortage of human resources for health. There is further a current deficit of about 7.2 million skilled health professionals globally. A projection model driven by population growth would lead to a global deficit of about 12.9 million by 2035 (WHO, 2014) if no serious investments are made on Human Resources for health. The shortages on human resources for Health globally have prompted many countries not only to

adopt the integration of Community Health Workers (CHW) into health systems (WHO, 2014) but also to formalize the training of the CHWs. Training of CHWs is one of the main components of the integration of CHWs into the health systems and it is widely recognized as part and contribution to the WHO health systems strengthening building blocks. Despite the fact that, CHW initiative is commonly government run and countries like Ethiopia, Gambia, Malawi, as well as other countries like Kenya, Niger, South Sudan, Tanzania, and Uganda rely entirely on for CHW training (Funes et al., 2012; Giwa and Shirazi 2011), yet most countries in Africa still struggle to make it formal and mostly the deployment of CHW has been donor driven to a large extent.

In Tanzania, ratio of the health worker per population is around 14.5 per 10,000 population something that is still far below the WHO recommended ratio of 22.8 per 10,000 population (MOH, 2014a). In addition, the shortage of HRH in the country stands at 52% where rural areas are mostly underserved (MOH, 2014b). This shortage has necessitated Tanzania to support the Community Based Health care programme through community health worker initiatives. Despite the fact that many NGOs and other health stakeholders have been using the CHWs in many of their interventions, yet the type of training that they have been providing for so long has not been well coordinated. Moreover, every partner has been using different contents and curricula to train CHWs and there has been some inconsistent systems of measuring the capacity of trained CHWs.

In Tanzania, while the support on training CHWs started since independence, yet there has been insignificant improvement on CHW capacity to provide health services over decades. A number of initiatives such as Mtu ni Afya (Health for People) campaign of 1972, the Arusha Declaration of 1967 and the Ottawa Charter of 1986 put the Community health initiative into a good position. All of these also supported the implementation of the Primary Health Care (PHC) initiatives. In all these initiatives, the CHW cadre though was streamlined in addressing health issues, yet received little capacity building and recognition in the employment systems. In 2000, and following the MDGs, the community based health care was still well emphasized, however, little attention was given to the training of the CHWs and their promotion.

In the same note, Tanzania Poverty Eradication strategy I and II have taken care of the need for supporting the primary health care through use the CHWs. Also, the Primary Health Care Strengthening Programme (2007-2017) commonly known as MMAM an acronym adopted from Kiswahili words Mpango wa Maendeleo ya Afya ya Msingi has reiterated the need of CHW in the primary health care delivery. In addition, there has been a number of policies, strategies and acts formed to date to support the implementation of Millennium Development Goals(MDGs), and recently the Sustainable Development Goals(SDGs) namely Health Policy (1990, 2003, 2007), Tanzania Community Development Policy (1996), Human Resource For Health Strategic Plan (2008-2013; 2014-2019),National Information and Communication Technologies Policy (2003), Tanzania Development vision, 2025, National Water Policy (2002) and Public Health Act (2009), Big Results Now in Health sector (2014), Health Sector Strategic Plan 3 and 4, National Community Based Health Policy Guideline (2014), National Community Based Heath Care Strategic Plan (2014 – 2020), and Curriculum for the training of new cadre of CHWs. All these provide supportive environment towards implementation of community based health care delivery in Tanzania (MOH, 2014a, b).

In 2014, Tanzania decided to nationally address these challenges by formalizing and integrating the practice of CHWs into a national CHW cadre that will be trained for nine months (1 year). Since 2014 there are more than 3000 students in health schools who pursue certificate in Community Health. Despite these efforts undertaken by the Ministry of Health and its Task Force since 2014 to date, yet there are limited studies on the satisfaction of the CHWs who are either in school or they have graduated on the way the training programme has been conducted. This study therefore aimed at investigating the satisfaction of CHWs students and alumni with the training programme by taking the case of Kahama and Shirati Health Institutes.

II. Theoretical Framework

This paper utilizes the Kirk Patrick Model level 1 to assess the level of satisfaction among CHW with the training contents and tutors competence. The use of Kirkpatrick's (1976) framework in evaluating training has received popularity since 1950s. Despite being old, this model is still working very well in evaluating training programmes across the world. Kirkpatrick's model remains to be the best framework or conceptual model developed to guide evaluation of training an capacity building projects(Bates, 2004;Alliger et al. 1997, Omar et al. 2009 and Morgan et al. 2000). The Kirkpatrick model identifies four levels of training outcomes that can be evaluated: reaction, learning, behavior, and results (Kirkpatrick, 2006). The reaction level assesses how well trainees appreciates a particular training programme. The learning level assesses how well trainees have acquired intended knowledge, skills, or attitudes based on participation in the learning event. It is usually measured in the form of tests. The behavior level addresses the extent to which knowledge and skills gained in training are applied on the job. Lastly, for the results level, evaluators try to capture the impact that

training has had at an organizational level. This includes changes in health outcomes.

Despite the such value addition of the model, it still has the following limitations: Specifically, Kirkpatrick (1977) reports that the usefulness of stage one evaluation depends upon the honesty of the learners who complete the questionnaire and feel comfortable to tell the truth about the programme whether it has been successful or not. There is also the potential issue of social desirability whereby the learners feel that they have to respond in a particular way (Darby, 2006) especially if they are asked to complete their evaluation in front of the trainer or fellow learners. There is also a risk that the evaluation focuses too heavily on enjoyment rather than on how useful the training has been to them (Hamblin, 1974) which is most frequently in the form of 'happiness sheets (Bramley and Kitson, 1994).

III. Methodology

a) Study Area

This study was carried out in two institutes and covered 230 CHW students who were in year 1 and those who had graduated (out of school). The researcher decided to choose two institutes namely Kahama (Public) and Shirati (Private) from Lake Zone due to the fact that there had been more promotion of update of Community Health Course in Lake Zone. It is expected that, those from Lake Zone are more informed about the programme than those from other Zones in the country. In addition, most of the donors are supporting students for the scholarship from Lake Zone compared to other regions, and Kahama and Shirati have been receiving some CHWs who are under the sponsorship scheme (Kahama Institute Database, 2016; Shirati Institute Database, 2016).

b) Study Design

The study used cross sectional design to collect data only once at a point of time among the CHW students and alumni (Kothari, 2006). This design was chosen since it is capable of describing the characteristics of units of inquiry and be able to compare them.

c) Study Population

This study covered 193 CHWs in the two institutes apart from those 20 used in the pre testing from Kahama for on- going CHWs. There were 114 CHWs and 99 CHWs enrolled at Kahama and Shirati respectively who were in school and those who had graduated. Out of these, 42 and 70 students had already graduated from Kahama and Shirati Institutes respectively, while 72 and 29 students were in the first year of their study from Kahama and Shirati schools respectively. The study also covered 16 tutors, of whom 8 came from each institute.

d) Sampling and Sample Size

For the students to participate in quantitative part of the evaluation, a simple random sampling was used whereby the sampling frame for this was the list of all CHW students except those picked for pre testing at the respective school. For quantitative data, sampling used the target population of 193 active students in two schools to estimate sample size without the pre testing units. The formula proposed by Kothari (2006) for the estimation of sample size for simple random sampling was proposed.

$$n = N/1 + N (e)^2$$

Where: = Sample size

N = Sampling frame
e = Desired precision of 5% (0.05).
Thus, n = 193/1 + 193(0.05)2 = 139

After adjusting for non-respondents by using the formula n * 10/100, that gives 139 *10/100. Then , a sample size was adjusted to a minimum sample size of 153 of CHW students and graduates in the two institutes. In order to get the sample size in each school, the proportion from each school was calculated based on the number of students in the school. Thereafter, for Kahama, the sample size was 114/213*153 = 82 while for Shirati was 99/213*153 = 71

The sampling interval for the students was also computed based on the fact that the list of the students was known i.e 213/153 = 2, so two students were skipped in the sampling based on the register of students who were serially ordered. Since the CHW out of schools were difficult to trace, the study used the list and contacts of graduated students from the school. The telephone interview was used to get the CHW alumni satisfaction on the programme. In case the mobile numbers provided by the schools were not reachable, the researcher used the contacts of their classmates to trace them.

e) Sampling School Administrators

In order to triangulate the study findings, the study sampled purposively 8 tutors from each school to be part of the study. The tutors to be sampled are those who are engaged in the training programme of Community Health.

f) Data Collection Methods and Tool

The study collected primary data from the students, and graduates. The quantitative data were collected through self-administered interview with the Kirkpatrick Model collection tool for students while qualitative data were collected using focus group discussion (FGD) from tutors. There were two FGDs done through ought the course of the study, where one from each school.

g) Ethical Consideration

This study has limited cases of ethical considerations. However, in order to monitor issues of confidentiality and consent to participate in the data collections, the consent form was designed and handled to the respondents to sign before they participated in the study. In addition, the researcher obtained clearance form from the MUHAS before embarking on data collection. The researcher also requested permission from the respective institutes before embarking on data collection.

h) Data Processing and Analysis

Prior to data analysis, data were cleaned by the researcher while still in the field. Thereafter, data from questionnaire were entered into SPSS amenable for analysis. Quantitative data were classified and organized according to institute in order to make comparison association to other demographic characteristics. Moreover, completeness and consistency of data were inspected so as to rectify missing information and any outliers. For qualitative part, data from focus group discussion were transcribed and coded. Transcription was done by experienced transcriptionists. Data coding and analysis were facilitated by the use of Nvivo 8, a computer software package specifically designed to manage, search, and retrieve qualitative data.

i) Computation of Weighted Score or Mean

Quantitative data were analyzed by SPSS version 20. The Likert Scale of 1-5 was used and it was divided into 1- Strongly Dissatisfied (SD), 2- Dissatisfied (D), 3-Neutral (N), 4- Satisfied(S) and 5-Strongly Satisfied (SS). Descriptive analysis was performed to get weighted score/mean and percentages. The cut off point was 3 where above this it implied that students were satisfied with the programme based on the parameters of interest such as content, tutors capacity etc and the magnitude of satisfaction tended to increase based on the scale. In addition, any weighted score above 4.5 was rounded off to 5 and vice versa was true.

The step wise approach for the computation of weighted score as from Likert scale 1-5 (Kothari, 2006) was as follows:

Step 1: Decide on the size of the likert scale(LS), let say 1-5(LS-D, SD, N, S, SS)

Step 2: Find out the responses for each satisfaction aspect for each respondent (F)

Step 3: Multiply the sum of the aspect with the likert scale for each aspect (LS*F)

Step 4: Sum the product in step 3(sum of LF*F)

Step 5: Divide the sum in step 4 with the total of the frequencies of the parameters of interest to get the weighted score(Sum of LF*F /Sum of F)

Step 6: Find the over all weighted score for the training aspect e.g Content, etc by finding the average of all individual weighted score (Sum of weighted score/ Number of aspects).

Step 7: Decide on the decision rule as per Likert scale of 1-5

Strongly satisfied=5, Satisfied=4, Neutral =3, Dissatisfied=2, Strongly dissatisfied =1: In case the Weighted score are in decimals, the following decision rule and cut off points were used: 3=Neutral; Less than or **equal** to 1 =strongly dissatisfied; 2-3 =Dissatisfied; At least 3 to 4 =Satisfied; At least 4 to 5 =Strongly satisfied

j) Content Analysis for Qualitative Data

The qualitative data from FGDs were transcribed. Transcripts were carefully read to identify themes, followed by summarizing and regrouping the data and interpreting them looking for similarities and differences and describing them. Data analysis started during data collection procedures, by reading the transcripts and discussing the data with the research team. At the end of the data collection, transcripts were finalized and the research team analyzed them. Data were analyzed using content analysis with the aid of matrices.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

a) Characteristics of the Respondents

Findings on demographic characteristics of respondents show that 53.6% (n=82) and 46.4% (n=71) of students were contacted from both Kahama and Shirati health institutes respectively. Gender wise, 44% (n=78) and 56% (n=85) of the respondents were males and females respectively. Also, in terms of age, 92.2% (n=141) and 7.8 % (n=12) had ages ranging between 16-24 years and 25-30 years respectively. In terms of whether the respondents were in school or had graduated, the findings show that 32% (n=49) and 68% (n=104) of the respondents were in school and those who had graduated respectively. On the basis of those still in college, 57% (n=28) and 43%(n=21) of the respondents were from Kahama and Shirati institutes respectively. For those who had graduated, 51%(n=54) and 49% (n=50) of the respondents were from Kahama and Shirati institutes respectively.

Despite the fact that this study focused on the satisfaction of students pursuing Community Health Course, yet understanding their social and demographic characteristics was key.Based on the students that the study managed to contact for the self-administered questionnaire and telephone interview, majority of them were from Kahama Health institute compared to Shirati Health Institute (HI). In terms of gender, majority of the students interviewed were males compared to females. Age wise, the majority of the respondents were between 16-24 years old, and most of these were those who had just completed form four or completed form four in the past few years. In addition, majority of the respondents

interviewed were those had completed school, with the reason that the first batch of the enrolment to CH course was receiving many applicants.

b) *Satisfaction of CHW Students with the Content of the Programme*

Using a five point Likert scale(1-5), weighted score for the satisfaction of CHW students with the content of the programme was 4.5 . This means that most of the students were strongly satisfied with the CH programme content. Using specific parameters of the content, it was found out that most of the students (66%) were strongly satisfied with the course content of the programme (Table 1). To be specific, 64.1% (weighted score=3.3) and 83% (weighted score=5) of students were strongly satisfied with the fact that the course content was well prepared to present the needed theories and included critical issues currently occurring in the community. In the same analysis, results show that 71.9% (weighted score=4.7) and 75.8% (weighted score=4.7) of the respondents had the opinion that the course content managed to significantly present materials that could be applied and the curriculum itself was provided to students as a reference document. In addition, 54.2% (weighted score=4.5) of the students reported that the course content was well prepared to enhance learning and 69.9% (weighted score=4.7) of the students were strongly satisfied with the content since it was prepared to support or address critical issues in the community. On the other note, the study found out that about 64.1 % (weighted score=4.6) of the students had strong opinion that the course content was well structured to add value in terms of the needed skills. It is only 42.5 %(weighted score=3.9) of the students who were satisfied with the materials provided during learning.

In addition, out of 21 students who were from Shirati institute, 71.4 %(n=15) were satisfied with the programme while 28.6% (n=6) were strongly satisfied with the programme. For those who had graduated from Shirati 52% (n=26) were strongly satisfied with the programme, 38% (n=19) were satisfied while the rest were not satisfied. In Kahama, for those still in college, 61.1 % (n=33) were satisfied, 3.7%(n=2) were strongly satisfied, 29.6%(n=16) were dissatisfied and only 5.6% (n=3) were strongly dissatisfied with the programme. For those who had graduated from Kahama, the satisfaction was as follows: 42.9%(n=12) of the students were dissatisfied, 39.3%(n=11) were satisfied with the programme , 14.3%(n=4) of the students were strongly satisfied and only 3.6%(n=1) was strongly dissatisfied).

Since the inception and formalisation of the Community Health Programme and its associated one year training, there have been a number of initiatives undertaken to understand whether the programme is effective or not. Using the Kirk Patrick Model for level 1,

with 5 points Likert scale it is evident that most of the students who were doing the CH programme had a feel that the   course content of the programme would meet their expectations. This implies that the course content was well prepared in such a way that the theories and principles that were presented demonstrated the critical issues occurring in the community. More specifically, the course content that was then in use was prepared in such a way that presented clearly the materials that could be applied. Furthermore, the content was well prepared to enhance learning, and to support or address critical issues in the community; well-structured and so it added value in terms of the needed skills. Evidence from FGD conducted among tutors still implied training process went well for the first batch, though it was the first time for the tutors to teach such a programme. The time for the programme was too short given the nature of the curriculum which unfortunately missed some relevant topics like palliative, preventive, curative, rehabilitative courses. The current curriculum covers three areas namely community health, social welfare and medical attendants that seem to be over ambitious and not focused. The career progression of this course is not clear, like progressing to diploma and degree level, this has affected the enrolment of students for the second batch. One tutor was noted saying:-

''There are some competences such as preventive skills which were missing in the curriculum. We are however happy to be part of teaching this first batch though we are not familiar with the curriculum. There is a need for the government to invest in orienting tutors on how to best teach this new cadre. (Tutor-Shirati, 2017).

By comparing those who were from Shirati, majority of them were satisfied with the programme in terms of the content, the way the curriculum was structured and the duration of the course. In the same analysis, graduates and those still in the college were both satisfied with the programme. For Kahama, half of the graduates were satisfied with the programme, though this number appeared   to be almost the same to those who were not satisfied with the programme. This might have been contributed by the fact that there were challenges with the accommodation for the students compared to Shirati, and that was the time when the government ceased to provide meal in school, so students started to pay out of their pockets for the accommodation.

These findings relate to what was reported by Partners in Health (2001), Minnesota International Health Volunteers (2004) and Pathfinder International (2005, 2011) and Lim et al., (2002) in other countries that CHWs who had been trained using short term programme, had strong feel that the programme was useful and the training content and manual were prepared in such as a way that the knowledge and skills had been imparted to help them do better.

c) Satisfaction of Students with Instructors' Competence and Teaching Methodology

Using a five point Likert Scale, it was generally found out that most students were strongly satisfied (weighted score of 4.6) with the tutor's capacity and their teaching approaches. But, to be specific, about 72.% (weighted score=4.8) of students were strongly satisfied with the way tutors managed to state the course objectives well, 42.5% (weighted score=3.9) of the students were satisfied with the adequacy of the course objectives 72.5% (weighted score=4.7) of the students were strongly satisfied with the well preparedness of the tutors 85% (weighted score=4.9) of them had opinion that the tutors had the capacity to teach and 77% (weighted score= 4.8) of the students reported strongly that the tutors used participatory methods of teaching inside and outside the classes. For those still in school and those who had graduated and using the cross tabulation, results show that – for those from Shirati, 66.7 %(n=14) of those still in college had an opinion that the tutors had the capacity to train them and 33.3 % (n=7) of them reported to be satisfied with the tutors' competence. For those who had graduated from the such institutes, the results show that 84 %(n=42) of them were strongly satisfied with tutors' capacity while 16%(n=8) of them were satisfied with the programme. For Kahama, those who were still in school, 92.6% (n=50) were strongly satisfied with tutors' competence and 7.4 % (n=4) had an opinion that the tutors had capacity to train them. For the CHWs who had graduated from Kahama, the results show that 85.7 % (n=24) of them had the strong opinion that the tutors had the capacity to train while 14.3%(n=4) of them had the opinion that the tutors had the capacity to train their students.

It is therefore a matter of fact that students' competence and mastery of the subject matters depends on a number of factors including the presence of tutors who are eager and motivated to work hard. Most CHW students were happy with the capacity of the tutors and their teaching methodology in a way that where the tutors managed to triangulate approaches in teaching such as group work, simulations, games, role model and guest speaker as well as practical sessions. The capacity of tutors is not only a matter of experience but also the entry and recruitment criteria set by National Council on Technical Education (NACTE) that make all institutes to abide. Tutors were capable to stimulate learning among CHWs and this eventually contributed to their overall good performance. Even though the tutors managed to do their best to make CHW learn and perform well, yet majority of them had not received any refresher course on how to teach this new course, and few of them were part of the curriculum development.

V. Conclusion

Investment of Tanzania in Community Health is now underscored. The shift from treatment to prevention and control has to do with the way Ministry of Health prepares Health work force that can work in the community on either voluntary mode or on salary mode. This study that was carried out in six months to understand the reaction of CHW students who are in the pursuit of CH course on the program. It is a matter of fact that there is a strong sense of satisfaction and motivation among the CHW students with the community health programme in particular the way the training is run, and the competence and motivation of the tutors. Despite these success stories, yet the programme is constrained by having a curriculum that does not capture all required contents, some tutors not well oriented on teaching the new programme. The success of Community Based Health Programme and Policy (CBHP) in Tanzania calls for strong Public and Private Partnership. In addition, the need for curriculum review should go hand in hand with putting in place on job training programmes for tutors so as to enhance their teaching methodology skills.

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Towards an Interdisciplinary Approach to Food Accessibility Research

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Abstract- An approximately 54.4 million people or 17.7% of the U.S population live in areas without nutritious food outlets, have low access to a vehicle and have challenges accessing a nutritious food outlet. The lack of access to nutritious food outlets mainly affects low-income residents of both urban and rural areas and remains a challenge because the deprived residents mostly depend on innutritious food outlets such as neighborhood convenience stores, which can be detrimental to their health. Researchers of varying disciplines have examined the problem of food access, however, in a piecemeal nature. This paper, therefore, critically examines research across two disciplines concerned with food accessibility - geography and public health to create a more comprehensive approach to food accessibility research based on their perspectives and approaches. Although some dissimilarities exist between the perspectives and approaches employed in food accessibility research by the two disciplines, common grounds are established via the identification of the concept of place and socio-economic characteristics of people as the main driving factors of food accessibility research among the disciplines. These perspectives are integrated along the common driving elements to form an interdisciplinary research approach and construct a comprehensive understanding of the problem of food accessibility.

Keywords: food desert, food accessibility, interdis-ciplinary research, food and health.

GJHSS-H Classification: FOR Code: 130205

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Towards an Interdisciplinary Approach to Food Accessibility Research

M. R. Abubakari

Abstract- An approximately 54.4 million people or 17.7% of the U.S population live in areas without nutritious food outlets, have low access to a vehicle and have challenges accessing a nutritious food outlet. The lack of access to nutritious food outlets mainly affects low-income residents of both urban and rural areas and remains a challenge because the deprived residents mostly depend on innutritious food outlets such as neighborhood convenience stores, which can be detrimental to their health. Researchers of varying disciplines have examined the problem of food access, however, in a piecemeal nature. This paper, therefore, critically examines research across two disciplines concerned with food accessibility - geography and public health to create a more comprehensive approach to food accessibility research based on their perspectives and approaches. Although some dissimilarities exist between the perspectives and approaches employed in food accessibility research by the two disciplines, common grounds are established via the identification of the concept of place and socio-economic characteristics of people as the main driving factors of food accessibility research among the disciplines. These perspectives are integrated along the common driving elements to form an interdisciplinary research approach and construct a comprehensive understanding of the problem of food accessibility.

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I. Background on Food Accessibility

In recent years, there has been a rise in public and scholarly interest in food accessibility and food deserts in the United States. While food accessibility refers to the ability of individuals to access food stores physically, a food desert represents a low-income neighborhood where residents do not have access to nutritious food outlets within a walk able distance or over a mile to 10miles distances, and also, faced with inadequate access to vehicles (Hubley, 2011; McKenzie, 2014; USDA 2017). Residents of food deserts often rely on food outlets which do not offer healthy choices, (such as fresh fruits and vegetables), and may be at a higher risk of experiencing food-related health complications than high-income residents within the country (Caspi, Kawachi, Subramanian, Adamkiewicz, & Sorensen, 2012; Eckert& Shetty, 2011; Hubley, 2011; Inagami, Cohen, Finch, & Asch, 2006;Lee, 2012; Morland, Diez Roux, & Wing, 2006). Approximately 39.4 million people reside in areas classified as food deserts

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in the United States, and about half of such residents (19million people) have difficulty in accessing nutritious food outlets within a range of 1 mile to 10 miles. At a reduced range of 0.5 to 10 miles, about 83.5 million people live in areas with low access to a vehicle and nutritious food outlets. Within the same range, 54.4million people or 17.7% of the U.S population have challenges accessing nutritious food outlets and may rely on innutritious food outlets, which can be detrimental to their health (Lee, 2012; USDA, 2017).

Studies that attempt to compare food accessibility between neighborhoods of different socio-economic characteristics have varying conclusions. Whereas the majority of the studies suggest low-access to nutritious food outlets for low-income neighborhoods compared to high-income neighborhoods, some studies indicate inexistence of disparities in the level of access to nutritious food outlets between communities of different socio-economic characteristics. (Adeigbe, Baldwin, Gallion, Grier, & Ramirez, 2015; Cannuscio et al., 2013; Eckert & Shetty, 2011; Gustafson, Lewis, Wilson, & Jilcott-Pitts, 2012; Hubley, 2011; Lee, 2012; McKenzie, 2014; Meltzer & Schuetz, 2012; O'Connell, Buchwald, & Duncan, 2011). Irrespective of the outcomes of such comparisons, the problem still exists for some residents and is notably worse for residents of minority concentrated inner-city neighborhoods and Native American communities because of segregation and economic forces that consider such neighborhoods detrimental to profit maximization (Dawson, 2012; Meltzer & Schuetz, 2012; O'Connell et al., 2011; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016). Also, low-income residents of rural communities who do not have cars and grocery stores nearby, remain extremely challenged with the problem of food inaccessibility due to limited or inexistence of public transportation (Hubley, 2011; McKenzie, 2014; USDA, 2009).

Furthermore, neighborhood food environments and food affordability influence peoples' choices of food; people may utilize food options closer to their residence instead of traveling long distances (Lin, Ver-Ploeg, Kasteridis, & Yen, 2014; Rahkovsky & Snyder, 2015; Vaughan, Cohen, Ghosh-Dastidar, Hunter, & Dubowitz, 2016). Therefore, residents of food deserts who do not have adequate access to vehicles may rely on innutritious food outlets such as convenience stores and fast food chains or travel longer distances for nutritious food compared to residents with nutritious

food outlets nearby (Auchincloss, Riolo, Brown, Cook, & Diez Roux, 2011; Black, Moon, & Baird, 2014; Hilmers, & Dave, 2012; Inderbir Sohi, 2014; Sohi, Bell, Liu, Battersby, & Liese, 2014). Convenience stores and fast food chains primarily sell processed or canned foods with high fat, sugar, etc., which are not considered healthy choices. (Black et al., 2014; Handbury, Rahkovsky, & Schnell, 2015; Morland et al., 2006; Vaughan et al., 2016). Where convenience stores have some nutritious food, the food is often more expensive compared to same food sold in grocery stores or supermarkets within the same area (Liese, 2007). Indeed, health issues such as obesity are more prevalent among residents of low-income neighborhoods, Black people, and Latinos with poor access to grocery stores compared to Whites and residents of high-income areas with adequate access to grocery stores. (Auchincloss et al., 2011; Inagami et al., 2006; Caspi et al., 2012; Rutten, Yaroch, Patrick, & Story, 2012).

Not with standing research efforts by scholars of varying disciplines such as geography, planning, public health, community sustainability, social work, and sociology to unravel and surmount the challenge of food deserts or accessibility, the problem persists in several communities across the country (Abubakari, 2017; USDA, 2009, 2017). The attempts of planning authorities at local, regional and national levels to solve the problem have yielded modest successes as several neighborhoods remain classified as food deserts in the USDA food desert atlas. (Abubakari, 2017; USDA, 2009, 2015, 2017). Efforts of public health and nutrition professionals in educating the public on food choices have proven futile due to lack of food options within some low-income neighborhoods. Specific interventions include the 2008 Farm Bill that aims at supporting the provision of nutritious food through rural farming with the leadership of the United States Department of Agriculture and food pantries by nonprofits across the country (Abubakari, 2017; USDA, 2009; Karpyn, Young, & Weiss, 2012). Even politicians like the Former first lady, Michele Obama called for, and supported initiatives that provided grocery stores for some neighborhoods in the country through her non-profit focused on food accessibility (Karpyn et al., 2012). Apart, some investors still shy away from some communities because of high poverty rates and fear for recurrent supply cost, without inherent profit organization (Dawson, 2012; Diao, 2015). In a nutshell, these interventions and research have been piecemeal and may partly contribute to the persistent existence of food deserts across the United States. When a complex problem such as food accessibility is studied in piecemeal function (disciplinary, or multidisciplinary), various components of the issues are left unaddressed (CohenMiller, Faucher, Hernández-Torrano, & Brown-Hajdukova, 2017; Choi & Pak, 2006).

Whereas disciplinary studies view issues and inform research in a singular perspective or approach, multi-disciplinary research involves little interactions, contrasting or sharing of knowledge between two or more disciplines, or drawing insight from two or more disciplines without fully integrating them (Choi & Pak, 2006; CohenMiller et al., 2017; Repko & Szostak, 2017). The inadequate and piecemeal assessment of the problem of food accessibility limits the understanding of the causes and even the impacts of the problem as well as interventions to improve food access. An interdisciplinary approach, therefore, would help address the challenges associated with the disciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches by synthesizing and integrating existing knowledge to form a complete picture of food accessibility in the country. With an interdisciplinary approach, researchers and institutions would be able to probe this complex subject of a food desert and accessibility, draw and integrate insights from multiple disciplines to comprehensively understand and choose the best approach in solving the problem sustainably.

Therefore, this paper offers a critical review of research transcending two significant disciplines and provides an integrated understanding of the issue of food accessibility in the United States. Research from geography and public health are reviewed in this paper. These two fields are selected because they have taken center stages in the research and discussion of food deserts, food accessibility, and food-related health complications and remain the parent disciplines of most of the other disciplines that study and attempt to solve the problem of food accessibility. As a paradigm shift from the existing single disciplinary research, however, this paper provides a direction towards an interdisciplinary research approach that could expand perspectives and approaches in a food desert, food accessibility, or food-health related research. Specifically, the study integrates perspectives, theories and approaches to food accessibility research from the disciplines of geography and public health to form a new and more comprehensive perspective and approach for food accessibility research.

II. A Comparison of Insights on Food Accessibility between Geography and Public Health

Geographers and public health researchers and practitioners view the problem of food accessibility in two distinct perspectives; whereas geographers mainly consider food access as a physical location issue, public health academics and professionals largely view it as a factor that can affect the health and well-being of individuals. These distinct views are implicated in the way the disciplines conceptualize and approach studies on food desert or food accessibility. Here, research from

geography and public health is reviewed. Specific emphasis is placed on the perspectives, fundamental theories, and approaches employed by the two disciplines in investigating the issue of food accessibility in the United States.

III. Conceptualization of Food Accessibility Studies

The term food desert by definition is devised from geographic perspectives and reflects some underlining themes of studies in geography such as location, place, human-environmental interaction and movement (Chen, 2017; Dawson 2012; Ron Johnson, 2016; Widener et al., 2017). Geographers view food accessibility as a location factor and assume that the absolute and relative location of nutritious food outlets and residential neighborhoods affect peoples' level of access to nutritious food (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Dawson, 2012; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016; Thatcher, Johnson, Zenk, & Kulbok, 2017). An absolute location, in this context, reflects the exact point on earth's surface where a place is positioned, and relative location defines the setting of a place relative to its surroundings (Dempsey Caitlin, 2017). Geographers view access to nutritious food as a matter of place and human-environment interaction, whereby the physical and socioeconomic characteristics of a place determines the kind of food stores available for the residents of that place. (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Parece, Serrano, & Campbell, 2017; Shannon, 2016; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016).

Crucial to this perspective is the central place theory compounded by Walter Christaller in 1933. The theory assumes that the concept of a 'threshold' is the determinant of the location of services such as food stores. The threshold concept suggests that services such as grocery stores will be situated in neighborhoods with the local capacity to support profit maximization, hence the existence of food deserts (Dawson, 2012; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Ron Johnson, 2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Furthermore, in line with the geographic theme of movement, it is assumed that consumers shop within ranges of stores and would travel to the nearest market closest to their residence because individuals have interest in reducing travel cost and time (Dawson, 2012; Johnson, 2016; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Shannon J., 2014; Thatcher et al., 2017; Widener & Shannon, 2014; Widener et al., 2017).The focus of geographers therefore, is on the relationship between the location of food stores, travel distance and neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics when measuring food accessibility. (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Parece et al., 2017; Shannon, 2016; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016; Widener et al., 2017; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Also, geographic studies on food access remain focused on spatial

accessibility and the concept of food desert, which are defined by areal divisions such as census tracts and block groups, with USDA food desert map forming the basis of identifying existing food deserts at any city or county level for geographers (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Parece et al., 2017; USDA, 2015, 2017; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Geography-based papers examining food deserts indicate several dimensions to the issue, ranging from neighborhood or individual socioeconomic characteristics to type of settlement (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Shannon J., 2014; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016; Thatcher et al., 2017; Widener & Shannon, 2014).

At the neighborhood level, studies suggest that low-income neighborhoods and communities of color often have restricted access to supermarkets and grocery stores, which are considered nutritious food outlets (Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Parece et al., 2017; Shannon, 2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Comparably, there have been different directions on the disparities in food accessibility; while many indicate that low-income and communities of color have less access to nutritious food outlets compared to white and high-income neighborhoods, others indicate no difference in the level of access to nutritious food outlets between White communities and communities of color. (Abubakari, 2017; Dutko, Ploeg, & Farigan, 2012; Parece et al., 2017; Shannon J., 2014; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Convenience stores and fast food outlets which are categorized as innutritious food sources remain the dominant food outlets in low-income and minority neighborhoods compared to White and high-income neighborhoods (Abubakari, 2017; Dutko et al., 2012; Widener & Shannon, 2014). The dynamics change when considering rural and urban communities in the country, although rural areas are predominantly White occupied, several studies have indicated that low-income rural settlements have very restricted access to grocery stores compared to equally poor urban settlements (Dutko et al., 2012; Thatcher et al., 2017; USDA 2009,2015).

At the individual level, individual choices amidst transportation systems or travel distance as a factor of accessibility play a significant role in discussing the dynamics of food accessibility among geographers (Shannon, 2014, 2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Individuals with access to vehicles, and/or live within walkable distance to nutritious food outlets turn to have more access to fresh fruits and vegetables compared to individuals with limited access to healthy food outlets or vehicles (Dutko et al., 2012; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Therefore, individuals with lower socioeconomic statuses are most likely to be affected by the problem of food accessibility compared to individuals with higher socio-economic statuses (Abubakari, 2017; Dutko et al., 2012; Shannon J., 2014; Thatcher et al., 2017).

On the other hand, public health research on food accessibility primarily focuses on epidemiology (distribution, patterns, and determinants of diseases) and the etiology (causes) of individual health conditions related to food(Halpern et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky, Battista, Roche, Lee, & Johnson, 2017).Embedded in food accessibility research of scholars in the public health discipline is the perspective that there is an underlining cause of health conditions affecting individuals(Deller, Canto, & Brown, 2017; Halpern et al., 2017). Researchers in this field assume that certain health conditions such as obesity and diabetes have causal and preventative elements that may occur differently among people of different places (Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky et al., 2017).Moreover, based on the ecological theory of health, it is assumed that the causes of health issues are confounding and includes both individual and environmental factors, where an individual's food choices remain influenced by the individual's food environment, which then leads to individual health or ill-health (Deller et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Leung, Laraia, Tester, & Yen, 2017).Therefore, studies on food access by public health scholars and professionals largely focus on the distribution or patterns of health conditions such as obesity, and the visible differences in the distribution of these conditions in relation to place and availability of nutritious food sources for residents (Deller et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017).Also, extensively studied is the food-retail environment of neighborhoods and how they might influence peoples' decisions on nutrition, with emphasis consigned on the availability of fruits and vegetables in the food outlets within the neighborhoods (Campbell et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Leung et al., 2017; MacNell, Elliott, Hardison-Moody, & Bowen, 2017).

Public health studies suggest a relationship between health issues (obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular disease) and individual socioeconomic characteristics (such as income, race, educational level, age, and sex), which stand influenced by the individual's food environment(Deller et al., 2017; Drewnowski & Darmon, 2005; Heval et al., 2016).Underprivileged persons have a higher risk of being overweight or obese compared to persons of high-income status due to lesser consumption of nutritious food among the disadvantaged (Halpern et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Drewnowski & Darmon, 2005). Individuals of minority racial/ethnic categories such as Blacks and Hispanics have lower access to nutritious food and also have a higher probability of being obese compared to other races, especially White(Halpern et al., 2017; Drewnowski & Darmon, 2005; Romano et al., 2017). Furthermore, individuals with lower levels of educational attainment utilize minimal amounts of nutritious food and are at higher risk of being obese compared to individuals with higher educational attainment. (Halpern et al., 2017; Drewnowski & Darmon, 2005).

At the neighborhood level, public health researchers suggest that neighborhood socio-economic contexts (racial/ethnic and income composition and education) correlate with the presence of nutritious food outlets (Bonica & Story, 2017; Deller et al., 2017;Heval et al., 2016). Specifically, areas with a concentration of people with lower socioeconomic characteristics have less available nutritious food outlets compared to areas with a concentration of people of higher socioeconomic characteristics (MacNell et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Rummo et al., 2017; Williamson, McGregor-Shenton, Brumble, Wright, & Pettinger, 2017).An unavailability of a healthy food outlet within a neighborhood may also translate to higher rates of health concerns within that neighborhood(Cooksey-Stowers, Schwartz, & Brownell, 2017; Deller et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017).

Public health scholars recognize the confounding nature of the causes of health concerns, therefore, explains that other social factors such as workplace and lifestyle may contribute to obesity either than food choices or accessibility. (Deller et al., 2017; (Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky et al., 2017).Nonetheless, attempts to measure the relationship between obesity and other factors such as workplace while controlling for neighborhood socioeconomic factors have shown varying results and have continued to be an issue investigated in the field. Whereas some results question the validity of the notion that neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics determine the rate of health issues, several studies have established a relationship between neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics and health concerns, hence guiding the research of neighborhood food accessibility in the public health field(Bonica & Story, 2017; Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Deller et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Wright, Gerassimakis, Bygrave, & Waldstein, 2017).

Furthermore, some indicate that gender plays an important role in health issues such as obesity as it relates to neighborhood context. Most of the studies suggests a higher prevalence of eating disorders and obesity among women compared to men and others suggest a high prevalence of obesity and eating disorders among men compared to women (Chao et al., 2017; Flegal, Kruszon-Moran, Carroll, Fryar, & Ogden, 2016; Hudson, Hiripi, Pope, & Kessler, 2007; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Ledikwe et al., 2005). Apart, sections of public health researchers also believe that peoples knowledge or perception about nutritious food as it relates to the environment in which they reside is a contributing factor to their food choices that could affect their body mass index. In this regard, individuals with adequate knowledge of the significance and availability of nutritious foods such as fruits and vegetables are

most likely to consume them compared to individuals without a proper understanding of the existence of these nutritious food sources (Drewnowski & Darmon, 2005; Halpern et al., 2017; MacNell et al., 2017; Nutbeam, 2000).The consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables are considered highly relevant by public health researchers and practitioners because an increase in the consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables together with proper dieting may result to a reduction in body mass index among individuals (MacNell et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Williamson et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017).

IV. Approaches of Food Accessibility Research

There exist some differences between the approaches employed by public health scholars and geographers in studying food desert as a geographic issue or as a health concern. The geography-based research employs geographic information systems in measuring food accessibility. These approaches can be categorized into two types; individual-based and place-based approaches. Studies that apply the individual-based approach examine the relationship between socio-economic characteristics of persons such as income, vehicle ownership, race, etc. and distance or access to food stores (Shannon, 2014, 2016). The place-based approach, which appears as the commonly used approach in measuring food accessibility among geographers focuses on neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics and how they are related to access to food for residents (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Parece et al., 2017). Often considered variables under the place-based approaches which reflect the geographic themes of place and movement include distances to food stores, transportation or walkability, travel time, neighborhood poverty, and racial composition (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Parece et al., 2017).

On the contrary, public health researchers mainly employ epidemiological and ecological approaches to understanding food access and its relationship to health conditions (Deller et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017). The distribution of health conditions remains measured based on two categories; individual or neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics and food environment. The primary variables studied include obesity, income levels and racial composition of individuals, number of healthy or unhealthy food stores within neighborhoods, and the content of food stores (Bonica & Story, 2017; Campbell et al., 2017; Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Deller et al., 2017; Leung et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016). Ecological studies mainly focus on the food environment and how it affects individual choices of food. Studies here are mostly qualitative in nature and seek answers from consumers

on their food choices in relation to lack of access to nutritious food stores or quantitatively measuring store contents (Campbell et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Leung et al., 2017; MacNell et al., 2017; Williamson et al., 2017). Bonica & Story, (2017) pursued a unique approach by using an experiment; they restricted a subject to eating from only convenience stores to test how eating from convenience stores can affect individual health.

Several studies also look at the neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics (income, race, gender, age, etc.) distinctly and how they relate to the prevailing health conditions among neighborhoods (Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2017). In measuring the socio-economic characteristics in relation to health, some researchers use GIS methods as well, showing some level of mixed method approach in public health (Halpern et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Rummo et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017). Areas with higher rates of a condition such as obesity and higher concentrations of individuals with lower-socio economic characteristics are mainly the targets of the research questions of such studies (Campbell et al., 2017; Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Halpern et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Romano et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017). The neighborhood approaches appear geared towards identifying racial or economic disparities or injustices in food environments of people based on socio-economic status(Romano et al., 2017; Rummo et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017).

V. Common Ground: Food Accessibility Research between Geography and Public Health

The fields of geography and public health have no specific counter-arguments regarding food accessibility and how it affects people across the country. The perspectives, theories, and approaches, however, that guide their studies on food accessibility demonstrate certain dissimilarities between the disciplines. Geographers mainly focus on travel distances, location characteristics, transportation options and other factors that define the level of accessibility to food stores (Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Shannon, 2016; Slocum & Saldanha, 2016; Parece et al., 2017; Widener & Shannon, 2014; Widener et al., 2017).One the other hand, Public health professionals pay more attention to the content of food stores (fresh fruits and vegetables), individual diet choices and how they relate to obesity and other health concerns among people in a place (Bonica & Story, 2017; Campbell et al., 2017; Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Deller et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Leung et al., 2017; MacNell et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Williamson et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017).These

difference in focus is explained by the theories guiding the studies.

Geographers primarily use retail geographical theories such as the central place theory and perspectives that mostly delve into understanding places and how they shape location of services or contribute to decisions on food store locations(Dawson, 2012; Ghosh-Dastidar et al., 2017; Johnson, 2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Such perspectives significantly inform their concentrations of studies on location and distance to food stores. In the same context, geographers concern has been on consumer travel origin and destinations, thus, where consumers shop, and how far they are willing to travel from their homes to access services such as fruits and vegetables. The focus on place and travel patterns mainly generate studies on proximities and densities of food stores within certain kinds of neighborhoods among geographers (Abubakari (2017; Shannon, 2014,2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014).

Unlike geographers, public health researchers principally utilize ecological and behavioral theories and perspectives in understanding how individual circum-stances and residential neighborhood environ-ments relate to health conditions (Deller et al., 2017; MacNell et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Williamson et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017). Accordingly, studies from this field ought to unravel the content of food stores within convenient locations to residents and how the food environment affect eating patterns among people with the anticipation of comprehending the problems that contribute to health complications such as obesity among a defined population (Halpern et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Rummo et al., 2017).

Apart from the existing differences in perspectives and approaches, some researchers from geography and public health undertake to some extent, studies that transcend their main disciplines to incorporate some worldviews from the other discipline(Abubakari, 2017; Dai & Wang, 2011; Halpern et al., 2017; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2017; Rummo et al., 2017; Shannon J., 2014). The inclusion of perspectives from different disciplines, however, is largely piecemeal and is best described as multidisciplinary studies instead of interdisciplinary (Choi & Pak, 2006). They are multidisciplinary because insights expended remain partial or unintegrated; they are often employed in providing an explanation or support for certain fragments of the problem or inquiry(Choi & Pak, 2006; Repko & Szostak, 2017). For instance, geographers often feature research findings from public health studies that establish a link between access to nutritious food outlets to obesity, to purposively construct a background and rationale for measuring travel distances to food stores, and or densities of food stores within neighborhoods

(Abubakari, 2017; Chen, 2017; Parece et al., 2017;Shannon, 2016; Widener & Shannon, 2014). Likewise, public health researchers utilize geographic findings on food deserts, food store density and travel distances to build a context and justify the need for research into neighborhood food contents, the kind of food people consume and how it relates to body mass index and other health concerns of the field (Bonica & Story, 2017; Cooksey-Stowers et al., 2017; Halpern et al., 2017; Heval et al., 2016; Kolodinsky et al., 2017; Wright, Gerassimakis, Bygrave, & Waldstein, 2017).

Furthermore, inferencing from the studies reviewed above, there exist some eminent mutual cognitive factors that drive food accessibility research between geographers and public health scholars or practitioners (Figure 1). Primarily, the concept of 'place' appears as a cross-cutting factor between both disciplines. Place is significant in ecological theories, and perspectives, thus, guide public health research. As stated in the earlier part of this inquiry, public health professionals view the etiology of health concerns such as obesity to contain both individual and environmental factors, and where (places) people live, and the kind of food they have access to within these spaces could have an effect on their health. Hence, the constant research on the link between food environment and obesity rates of neighborhoods among public health scholars and practitioners. Again, place is one of the fundamental themes of geography and virtually defines the perspectives and approaches of research in that field. Primary retail geographic theories such as the central place theory are place-based, and remain one of the guiding pillars of research into locations of food stores in relation to where people live and shop in food accessibility studies. Therefore, both geographic and public health perspectives, theories, and approaches of research expressively recognize the importance of place in people lives and agree on the importance of locating nutritious food outlets within places people live.

Entrenched in both public health and geography works on food accessibility and population health is socio-economic characteristic of individuals and neighborhoods (Figure 1). Both fields examine elements such as income, race, age, gender, etc., except that geographers mainly focus on physical access and density of food outlets and health researchers primarily focus on health concerns such as obesity. Specifically, both fields extensively attempt to examine disparities in food accessibility between individuals of lower socioeconomic status and individuals of higher socioeconomic status; the focus of both fields in that regard is on income and race. As examined earlier, both geographers and public health scholars and practitioners suggest that people of low socioeconomic characteristics are unduly disadvantaged when considering the location of nutritious food stores and distribution of health

complications such as obesity. Hence, the existence of an additive inclusion of perspectives from each other on the issue of food access and obesity.

Moreover, per the literature, minorities, especially Blacks and Latinos remain the most disadvantaged regarding access to nutritious food outlets compared to White and non-Black/Latino populations. Similarly, obesity rates are higher among minorities (Blacks and Latinos) than among White and non-Black/Latino populations in the US. With regards to income, low-income residents of any type of settlement (rural/urban) have disproportionate lack of access to nutritious food outlets compared to high-income residents of any community (rural/urban). Underprivileged residents also have higher rates of obesity than high-income residents. Therefore, both geographers and public health researchers agree on an intersectionality of poverty and race when discussing food deserts or access to nutritious food and health complications such as obesity. These agreement forms the common grown between both disciplines in this paper, and stand as the bedrock for integration of the disciplinary perspectives and approaches in examining food accessibility.

Even regarding the scope or scale of the studies, both geographers and public health researchers measure food accessibility; be it by distance, density, food contents, or health complications based on socio-economic characteristics at the individual and neighborhood levels. Essentially, geographic perspectives and approaches combined with that of public health will provide a complete framework of food accessibility research that will ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the problem spanning from place to health. Therefore, the proposal advanced further in the following sections of this paper and illustrated in Figure 1, is an interdisciplinary outlook that combines geographic theory and public health theories, or perspectives to form a new form of perspective that would implement both views in a complete study on food accessibility. In the context of this paper, as illustrated in Figure 1 below, central place theory and ecological model combined would provide a more comprehensive framework and understanding of food accessibility; spanning from individual and neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics, location, place, and movement, to food choices and health consequences.
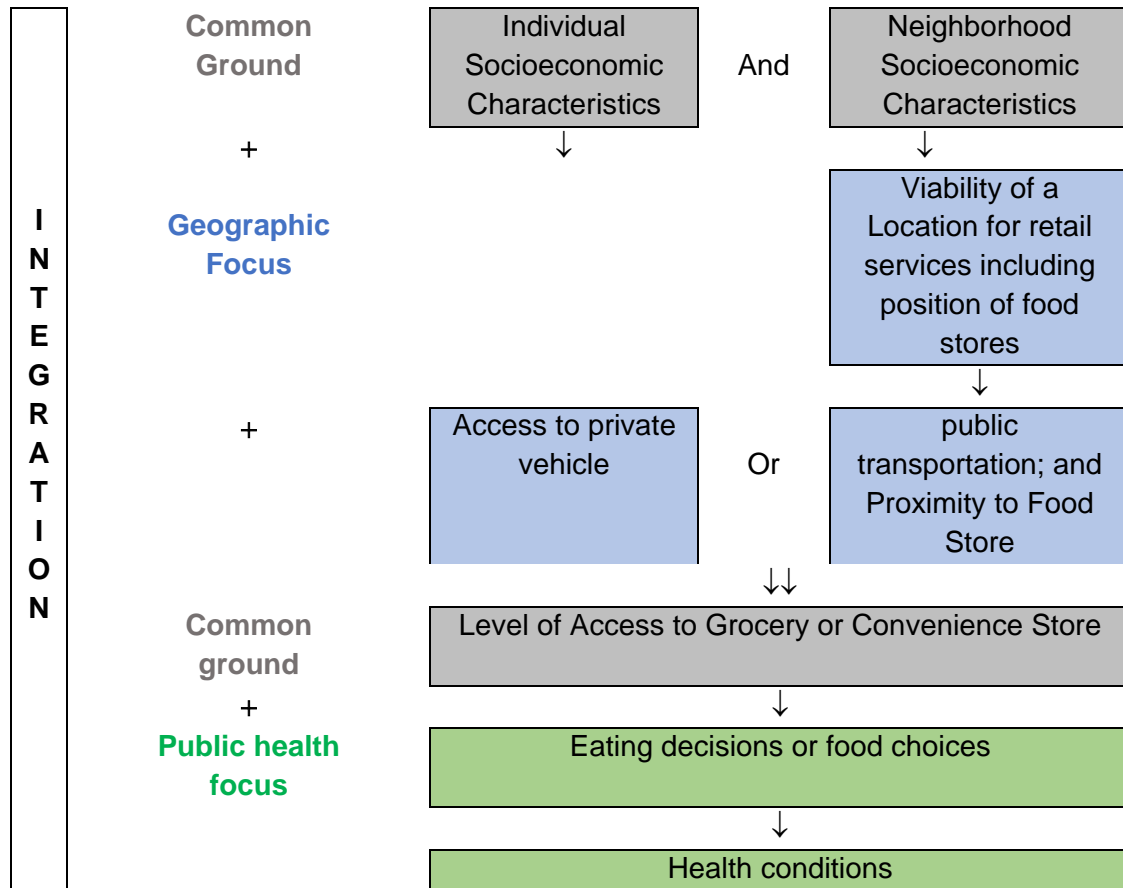

Figure 1: Interdisciplinary Food Accessibility Framework

VI. An Interdisciplinary Approach in Examining Food Accessibility

The issue of inadequate access to nutritious food stores within neighborhoods affects several people in the US, and as indicated by both geographers and public health researchers, low-income residents in both urban and rural settlements are affected the most. There is also a common knowledge about research findings that indicate that low-income residents across the country often rely on food outlets without healthy options and that utilization of unhealthy food also relates to health concerns such as obesity. Therefore, Figure 1 defines the problem wholly, with all the components and perspectives such as place, socio-economic characteristics, and health included, it explicitly illustrates the complexities of food inaccessibility and the need to view it with interdisciplinary lenses. This approach will also mean integrating perspectives, and some fundamental theories and procedures of the disciplines of geography and public health to enable a comprehensive understanding and solution to the problem. In a more precise way; the following are suggestions regarding an integration between geography and public health for the interdisciplinary study of food accessibility expended in Figure 1.

The geographic central place theory and the ecological model that guides research in public health appear useful in fully understanding the problem of food accessibility as it relates to poverty and health. In combining those two perspectives, Figure 1 illustrates that food accessibility is an issue that includes business decisions with regards to the location of food stores, individual and neighborhoods socio-economic characteristics, transportation, personal food choices and a health factor. Therefore, an individual's socioeconomic characteristics including income and race determine where the individual resides. People with low incomes are most likely to settle in areas with low housing values due to their inability to live in high-income areas. The neighborhood in which a person resides may play a significant role in determining the person's food-retail environment. The food-retail environments of poor residents are often without nutritious food options because retailers usually place grocery stores within neighborhoods or in proximity to communities, which can yield higher dividends or support profit maximization. As a consequence, low-income residents with adequate access to a vehicle, and understanding of the importance of healthy eating can travel farther distances to access nutritious food. Residents unable to access nutritious food stores are most likely to rely on neighborhood convenience stores, which do not provide nutritious food like fresh fruits and vegetables, hence maybe at a higher risk of developing food-related health complications such as obesity and diabetes. Thus, a complete definition that mathe-matically incorporates all perspectives from geography and public health, and essential for researchers to consider it entirely when designing research on food accessibility.

Based on the comprehensive problem definition provided and illustrated in Figure 1, researchers should consider incorporating both geographic and public health perspectives more comprehensively when designing studies. That is, adopting the description of the problem provided and also integrating both aspects from the review of the literature, research questions, methods, results, and conclusions. For instance, instead of just asking a question that intends to measure only physical access to food stores by distance, researchers should have follow-up questions that probe the individual level factors that define accessibility, including transportation availability and shopping decisions as well as health conditions in relation to the eating choices. This approach will reveal the various facets of the problem defined above and would help researchers to unravel the issues bordering food accessibility completely. This approach also implies that researchers should go beyond using geographic information systems, statistics, or qualitative research to a more community-based interdisciplinary mixed method approach that will incorporate several of these methods. Whereas Geographic Information System technologies can measure the questions on physical distance, statistics will be useful in measuring availability and density, and qualitative methods such as focus group discussions are appropriate for gathering insights from individuals about health issues and food access.

VII. Discussion and Conclusion

The problem of food accessibility appears very complicated and attempts by various disciplines especially geography and public health to unravel it has been piecemeal. Despite growing public interest in food deserts, the fragmented approaches of research do not stimulate a complete assessment of, or even a holistic approach in solving the problem, hence the unending nature of the problem in the country. A geographic or public health based study with additive insights from other disciplines cannot fully unpack the issue, hence the need for an interdisciplinary approach. Synthesi-zation and integration of knowledge from different disciplines, which forms the bedrock of an interdisciplinary study are essential for probing a convoluted issue such as food desert or food accessibility. This approach as shown in Figure 1, amalgamates the various perspectives of the problem of food access and helps to create a new and more comprehensive understanding of the problem.

The reviewed literature demonstrates that the lack of food accessibility indeed falls within the confines of research in geography and public health as it is both

a geographic concern and public health concern. Whereas geography is concerned with place and how people within such spaces live and move around their day to day activities, and for that matter grocery shopping, public health finds it essential that the food people eat affect their wellbeing. Studies by researchers from these distinct disciplines, however, barely take into consideration perspectives and even approaches from the other discipline when studying either part of the problem. Meanwhile, there is a common population of interest; low-income and minority residents who reside within food deserts. In order to comprehensively understand the problem and possibly identify solutions to solve the problem entirely, this study calls for an interdisciplinary approach in examining food accessibility. Here an amalgamation of geographic perspectives and approaches with public health perspectives and methods in studying food accessibility is encouraged. By so doing, researchers can comprehensively address the issue by using geographic theories in understanding location, places and how people circulate within places to access food, and extensively utilize public health perspectives and approaches in measuring people's decisions and eating habits and their health implications on the people.

Although piecemeal multidisciplinary studies exist on food accessibility, they do not comprehensively unpack the issue, as several neighborhoods remain food deserts in the country. This interdisciplinary approach, therefore, is a complete system of merger where both disciplinary approaches stand utilized from conceptualization of the problem, literature review, methodologies, to interpretation and application of results of the study. An adoption of this approach will hopefully translate into viable information not just for academia but information that will be useful for decision-making bodies and institutions such as the United States Department of Agriculture. The information will also contribute to a full understanding of the complexities of the issue of food accessibility in a particular community and yield possible direction for sustainable solutions to surmount the problem in the United States and World Over.

Acknowledgement

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Social Cognition a Tool to Build a Peaceful and Democratic Society in South Asia: In Organizational Context

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Abstract- The South Asian region comprises of SAARC Nations Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Maldives and Srilanka. The former two are predominant Muslim countries but the others have a population from different backgrounds. All the nations so needs to build a mutual understanding among themselves to realize the basic values for a peaceful environment. Peace building means having democracy and equality since it gives the fundamental rights to be practiced by the population. The liberalism policies, free trade and a view of economic development the industrial growth took place and therefore the organizations expanded themselves out of the territorial boundaries leading to a diversified work force. The human capital is a real asset to the organizations and this is the reason they must be provided an environment without discriminations. Trade Unions and government plays a crucial role in this. This paper discusses about the functions of Trade Unions, Governments and the HRM department in maintenance of peace in the organizations. Besides this it also introduces Social Cognition, a psychological concept which can help in bringing peace and prosperity among the individuals. Peace is considered as a psychological feeling. It comes gradually when the individuals are happy in their social life. It is not a matter of compulsion. It is essential to treat it at solitary level and then to the regional level.

GJHSS-H Classification: FOR Code: 160899

SOCIALCOGNITIONATOOLTOBUILDAPEACEFULANDDEMOCRATICSOCIETYINSOUTHASIAINORGANIZATIONALCONTEXT

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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Dr. Kokila Saxena [α] & Ms. Shalini Prakash [σ]

Abstract- The South Asian region comprises of SAARC Nations Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Maldives and Srilanka. The former two are predominant Muslim countries but the others have a population from different backgrounds. All the nations so needs to build a mutual understanding among themselves to realize the basic values for a peaceful environment. Peace building means having democracy and equality since it gives the fundamental rights to be practiced by the population. The liberalism policies, free trade and a view of economic development the industrial growth took place and therefore the organizations expanded themselves out of the territorial boundaries leading to a diversified work force. The human capital is a real asset to the organizations and this is the reason they must be provided an environment without discriminations. Trade Unions and government plays a crucial role in this. This paper discusses about the functions of Trade Unions, Governments and the HRM department in maintenance of peace in the organizations. Besides this it also introduces Social Cognition, a psychological concept which can help in bringing peace and prosperity among the individuals. Peace is considered as a psychological feeling. It comes gradually when the individuals are happy in their social life. It is not a matter of compulsion. It is essential to treat it at solitary level and then to the regional level.

I. Introduction

The South Asian region comprises a highly diversified population of different cultures. It is the world's largest and most diverse continent. The geographical territories encompassed by the south Asian countries have an enormous diversity related to language, costumes, culture and religion. The population in this region is distributed unevenly due to migration. The present countries which make up south Asia are Afganistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Pakistan, Nepal and Srilanka. The southern region of the Asian continent consists of number of ethnic groups. Although they have similarities due to the similar homeland to which they hail from but later on migrated to other nearby places as a consequence of partition of territorial boundaries. The people so started creating history as their generations or groups having similar characteristics. Their generation grew up on the places to where they migrated .The variation in the Asian countries gradually took place for the reason of exodus.

Here, the word gradually means time or ageing. Thus the ageing of the people makes a varied society. Growing and Ageing is composed of distinct social experience and practice of the tradition and inheritances which further from particular group of people. Like this peculiar societies developed in the south Asian region. These helped in forming the society strata.

The countries included in the southern Asian region are also known as SSARC countries. The eight nations are the members of this organization. The first SAARC summit was held in Dhaka 1985 when this organization was established. The main priority of the organization is to accelerate the economic growth and cultural development along with peace, democracy and integrity among the country members. The other co operations related SAARC which are responsible for regional cooperation and harmony are: SAARC Chamber of Commerce and Industry (SCCI), South Asian Association for Regional Co operation in Law(SAARCLAW), South Asian Association Federation of Accountant(SAFA), South Asia Foundation (SAF), South Asia Initiative to End the Violence Against Children (SAIEVAC), Foundation of SSARC Writers and Literature (FOSWAL).

II. Meaning of Social Cognition

Social cognition is psychological process of interpreting the thoughts, emotions, feelings and desires of the individuals of the society and then to react on them. There can be different stages of the development of social cognition as we grow up like a new born baby, a day old can recognize and react on the different faces he see. The social cognition developed with a good understanding and interpreting feature can be seen in the ages as the individual grows. This happens because social cognition is a neurological process where the brain acts to the various kinds of stimuli around us. Social cognition literally can be explained by the dictionary meaning of both the words. Social means the activities and individuals around us and cognition means the conscious thinking process. Therefore, social cognition is storing the social information, encoding, transmitting the information to the brain through neural receptors, decoding by the brain and then finally acting to it.

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Social cognition thus helps to know how to respond to the actions of other. It makes the individual to become psychologically sensitive to the state of other. The process of social cognition is the war of interaction of an individual to the society. An individual responds to the activities happening around him gathering information through his prominent sense organs and then this information is perceived in different ways. Then decisions are made by the brain to what towards a particular perception. Social cognition empowers the individuals to become a part of the society. Social cognition is actually a process of interaction which starts from sensing the signals symbols and expression of the external world. In the second stage these sensed information are being carried to the brain through the receptors and then the perception is made by the brain. Third stage is the reaction of the individual, which he performs after what has been perceived.

III. Social Cognition as a Process

Social cognition can be used to understand the dynamics of disputes in the multicultural work groups.

Social cognition demands the understanding of the personality traits and act in a sensible way so that his response do not harm anybody and proves fruitful for both individuals, one who acts i.e. who gives a stimuli to react and the other who reacts on the stimuli. Actually the response of the other individual can become a stimulus again for the former person or other person in the society. Social cognition is a process which influence by other terms also like observation, perception, learning, memory, alternation and action planning. All of these are important in interaction with the society. Moreover ace of these are interrelated consecutively in the process of social-cognition. We have already seen how the sense organs sense the information from the external world and then the brain decides the action (response). Considering the above terms in social cognition process it can be featured as in the fig.4 below-

IV. Social Cognition Process

Figure 4
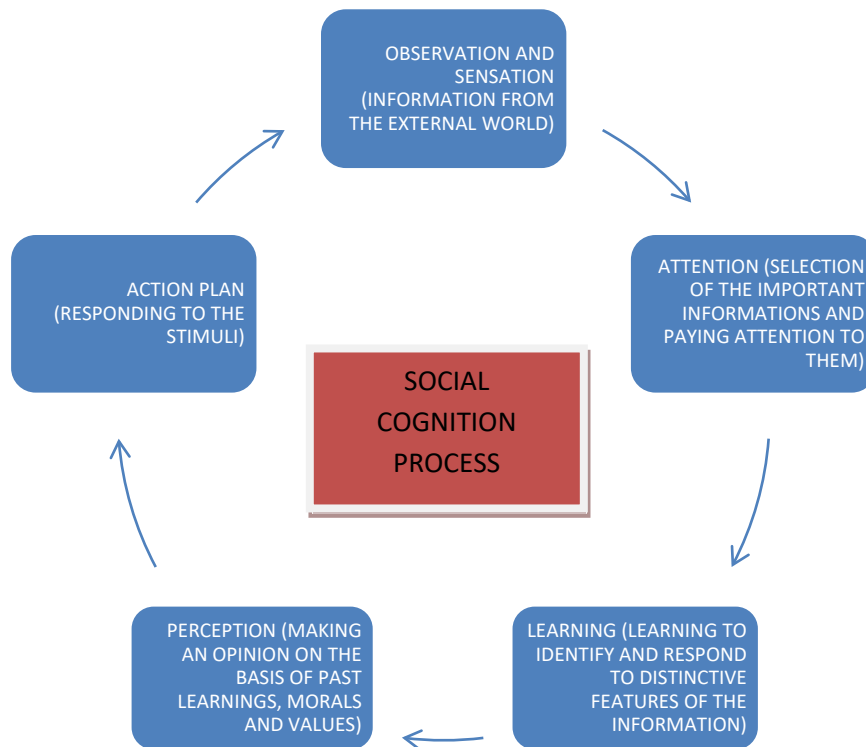
- Observation and sensations- The external information is taken into by the human beings with the observation and sensations. The information seeked visually can be considered as observations

- and the information seeked by the other sense organs can be considered as sense organs.
- Attention- Attention can be explained as a selective process. It is the power to carefully select from the

existing information, the most valuable. It is just to pay more concentration on the relevant information.

- Learning- learning can be divided into two parts- first is extracting and the second is distillation. The former one means to identifying and distinguishing the common components and the later one means to filter out the irrelevant components from the information. Apart from this learning also constitutes of behavior and observation experienced in the past.

- Perception- Perception is becoming aware of the external information and then having an opinion about the information. It is a thought, a feel and knowledge about the perception of others in the society. It is the interpretation of the facts of the peripheral environment which is unusual.

- Action plan-Taking up action plan is the final step of the social cognition which is the backtalk stage. It can also be said as a hindmost stage where, the observer responds to the antecedents. These responses become information again for the other individuals and so the process of interacting, perceptions and responds goes on.

V. The Emergence of Industries and Heterogeneous Workforce in the saarc Countries

The countries in the south Asian region have the four major religions in the world. The Islamic religion as a dominating one in the countries like Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan and Pakistan with Sikhism also in some parts of Pakistan; Hinduism in India and Nepal; and Christianity, Islamic, Budhhism in Maldives which is an island in the Indian Ocean and same religions in Srilanka Including Hindus also. This shows that all the countries have the uniform population of all the religions. The industrial and business relations expanded in the south Asian region among the countries and it resulted in a variety of workforce entering into the organizations. The SAARC Chamber of Commerce which is the apex body of SAARC established in 1992 became the reason for the elevation of the industries and commerce in the member countries and consequently it elevated the migration of the labour force also. The most pressing areas of this organization constituted of working of the governments, NGO's and Trade Unions hand to hand to safeguarding the economic and social interests of the labours or the employees, harmonization of customs and trade facilitation and providing services to its members. It promoted free trade talks between the SAARC countries. So the being the establishment of SAARC the industries developed besides this the reasons for the feathered population of the south Asian region are territorial shifts due to wars , Liberalism, Globalization, Open Talent Era. Figure 1 shows the flow of workforce from the major Asian countries.

VI. Out flows of Workers from Selected Asian Countries
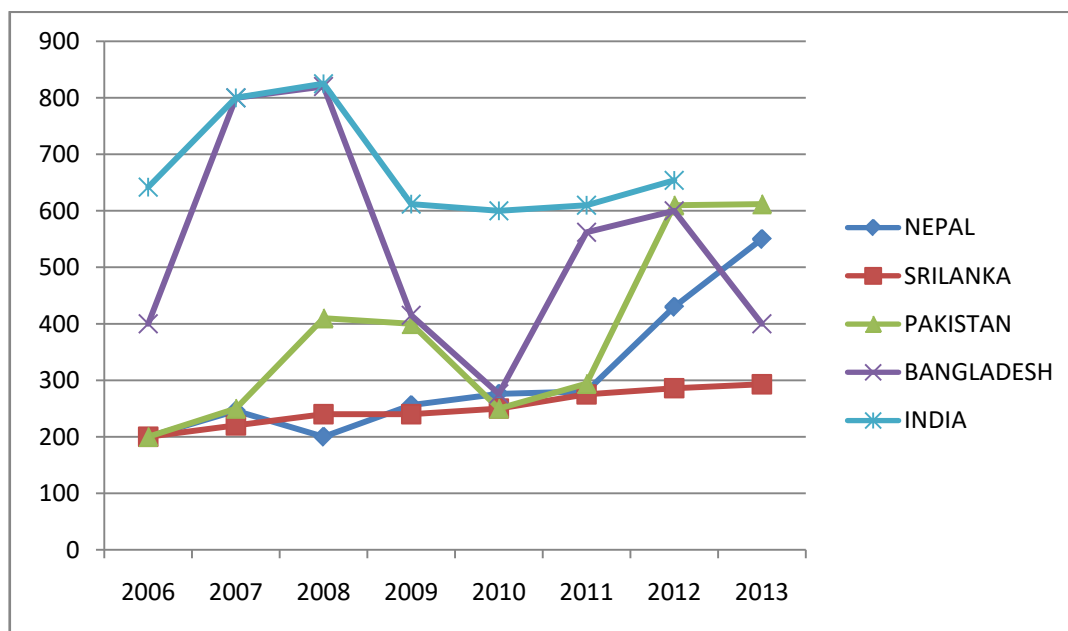
Source: National Authorities Statistics on deployment or placement of workers ILO

Figure 1

VII. Peace and Democracy in a Multicultural Organization

The population in the region of south Asia is multicultural and similar is found in the organization of this region. The employees in the organization have different background. They have been brought up differently. They have learnt different values; they have different customs and different mental states, different principles of life. And if they have to work in same place for attainment of same goal it becomes difficult to administer them. They must be handled and tackled such that there is peace in organization and they all work sincerely towards the goodness of organization. It is essential to build up a harmonious ambience to work with others without any clashes within the social environment of an organization.

Karl Popper has defined democracy in the contradiction of dictatorship. His ideology of democracy was related to social democracy. With social democracy he meant the interference of political, social and economic ideology to promote social justice. The visual meaning of democracy is that the authority with supreme power of ruling is rested in the hands of people and exercised by them through a system. The global characteristic of democracy means legal equality, social equality and authority to lowest levels also.

The democracy in the workplace was enunciated with the term "Industrial Democracy". This term included the democratic form of Trade Unions having a democratic structure and which worked for the welfare of the labour force. In the context to industrial democracy that is democracy in work place , the word democracy means that all the employees must be treated equally and have equal opportunities regardless from where they belong in the south Asian region where the organization recruit their people with an open talent market. To develop the company the workers should have the feeling of belongingness not even to the in which they are residing but also to the organization in which they are putting their efforts, knowledge and talent. Democracy in the organization would bring peaceful environment to work with others and also would satisfy them psychologically further in the succession of attainment of organizational goals. My view of Industrial Democracy broadens itself to the external and internal Democracy. It can be segregated into two parts. One is the democracy within the organization and the other is the democracy outside the organizations. Considering the early concept of industrial democracy related to the Trade Unions which come under the head of external industrial democracy and Human Resource Management department under the head of internal democracy.

Fig.1 shows the industrial democracy divisions. The function of each medium which can create peace and harmony in the organization and among the nations can be subdivided as follows:

1. Political democracy- Political democracy means political power is equally shared by the citizens. Citizens have the real power to legislate and elect their representative.
2. Social democracy- Social democracy means providing social services.
3. Economic democracy- Economic democracy means that the contribution to production must be entitled respective equal shares according to their positions.

Table 1

		FUNCTIONS		
		POLITICAL	SOCIAL	ECONOMIC
Industrial Democracy	External Democracy by Trade Unions and Government	1. Ensuring the execution of the industrial policies. 2. Formation of personnel policies.	1. Negotiating for the social welfare like provision of health facilities, sanitation, quarters. 2. Equal treatment without discrimination	1. Fair wages and salaries.
	Internal Democracy by Hrm Department or Management	1. Equal right to give opinion.	1. Empowering women employees. 2. Access to all the facilities. 3. Indiscriminate handling of grievances.	1. Performance based increments. 2. Fair share in profits.

VIII. Trade Unions in Creating Organizational Peace and Democracy

The economy like India which is developing itself, as a great investment market for the other countries. The European countries like America with companies such as Microsoft since 1990, Nestle from Switzerland since 1912, Procter and Gamble since 1964, Citi group from America since 1902 and many more are considering India as a super market. This is for the reason that India is a very vast country amongst the other Asian countries with variety of culture within different states. This is a symbol of good economic development. Therefore economic development of a country largely depends on industrial development. The Asian market is accelerating with an attribute of

multicultural workforce. It is essential that there is industrial peace and democracy among the Industrial actors.

The trade Unions plays ponderous appearance in bringing out peace in organization. They help externally, besides the Human Resource Management department in maintaining peace and harmonic relations by solving the conflicts into the organizations. The trade Unions represents the entire workforce in an industry. They work in favor of its members who are the employees of the organizations. They have the domination power to dominate the employers through their bargaining skills. Sometimes it happens that their proposal is fully accepted and sometimes they negotiate and bargain over the issue so as to maintain the dignity of both the parties. Therefore the trade unions maintain peace and harmony through its functions. Since the markets expanded and the workforce has become more mobile. There emerged a need of more active and serious organizations and unions in the South Asian region to protect the rights of the employees and labours. However, many such organizations have been established who have powers not only within the countries but they are entangled with world organizations also so as to work for peace and democracy in the South Asian countries.

The South Asian regional trade union council (SARTUC) in its most recent news read that Kathmandu-South Asian regional trade unions council discussed with Nepal to gather the workers concerns about the amendment in the employment Act 2064. Apart from this Kathmandu, SARTUC also supported from international trade union confederation- Asia and pacific campaign, which aimed at raising the awareness on minimum standards and migration issues in Nepal.

IX. Role of Government in Safeguarding the Labour Rights

The government is playing an important role in maintaining the peace and democracy among the diversified workforce present in the South Asian region by co-operating with the organizations and trade unions which work on an international background. The government must have to understand it accountability and responsibility if the people of one country are going to earn in other neighboring countries and are being exploited there. The workforce is a medium of production they just want to be paid for their work; they should not be mixed up in any disparities of war between the nations. The governments of the member countries (SAARC members) have to be serious in its legal standards and ensure that the MNC's in their countries are answerable to any exploitation to the host country and its own country also along with the international stage.

X. Role of Human Resource Departments in Maintaining Peace and Harmony

The management of any organization is responsible for the maintenance of good relations among its employees and the employers and among the employees within their peer group also. This gives a feeling of belongingness to the workforce and so they work with loyalty and dedication bringing good times for that organization. With this a question arises that what is the need of Trade Unions then if management or the Human Resource Department can do this? There is slight difference between both of them and both have their own significance .This can be answered as the Trade unions are indulged in solving the industrial issues on a large stage. They work to negotiate with the employers and the government. On the other hand the Human resource department carries out its functions on the organizational level only. It is responsible of making personnel policies internally only and solving the grievances inside the organization. There is no collective bargaining for the issues instead the issues are solved by the management or even the superior designated personnel also. The HRM department can be more obligatory towards the peaceful and democratic environment because it is most closely attached to the employees. Both of them share same ambience so the workforce and their problems can be better understood by the HRM department. To that end the functions of HRM department to bring peace and social equality among the diversified workforce down from the equal performance based increments to all the employees, safe and good working environment for all the employees, equal treatment and social respect and access to all the facilities to all the employees, equal chance of career development and gender equality which is an indispensible issue in the south Asian countries. This is because the culture in these countries is still male dominated and women needs to be empowered if they work together with their male colleagues.

XI. Labour Migration in South Asian Region

The south Asian region has 8 nations. According to the recent statistics of ILO the most migrated destination country is India. India has a labour force combined of the other south Asian countries like Nepal, Bangladesh and Sri-Lanka, Maldives also. The recent years do not show any migrations from the countries like Afghanistan, Bhutan and Pakistan due to political and war reasons. However, this doesn't mean that India does not have the people from these countries into it. The people who already had migrated to India before the partition contribute to the work force in India.

They are now considered as Indian nationalities. Excluding these countries India has a open border policy with Nepal. Open border policy allows the free movement of people and goods between the two countries. India has reported about 596,696 Nepali's in the census of 2001.India is considered as the safest country to work in for the reason of its democratic structure and policies. People of other countries percept India as a peaceful place to live in and earn.

XII. Indian Partition and Migration

In 1947 British India was segregated into predominant Hindu India and predominant Muslim Pakistan. This partition resulted in an immense migration of people which was estimated up to 18 million which gradually increased to several more years. This was a two way migration. During the war with Pakistan in 1971, Bangladesh emerged as a new nation and again many refugees came to India who were Hindus mostly. There were around 10 million people who came to India. Some states in India like Tamil Nadu, Kerala and Andhra Pradesh. These states have a historic connection with the Gulf countries; additionally they also have Muslim populations. This multi cultured population was made in 1970's.

According to United Nations, Department of Economic Social Affairs (2013). The top ten countries of origin in migration includes India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Afghanistan figure 2 shows the estimates in number of people migrated to other countries. But the data for Srilanka as origin country is not available. The same source also revealed the destination countries of South Asia as India and Pakistan figure 3. India is still facing irregular migrations from its neighbouring nations like Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan for the reason that these nations emerged from India only.
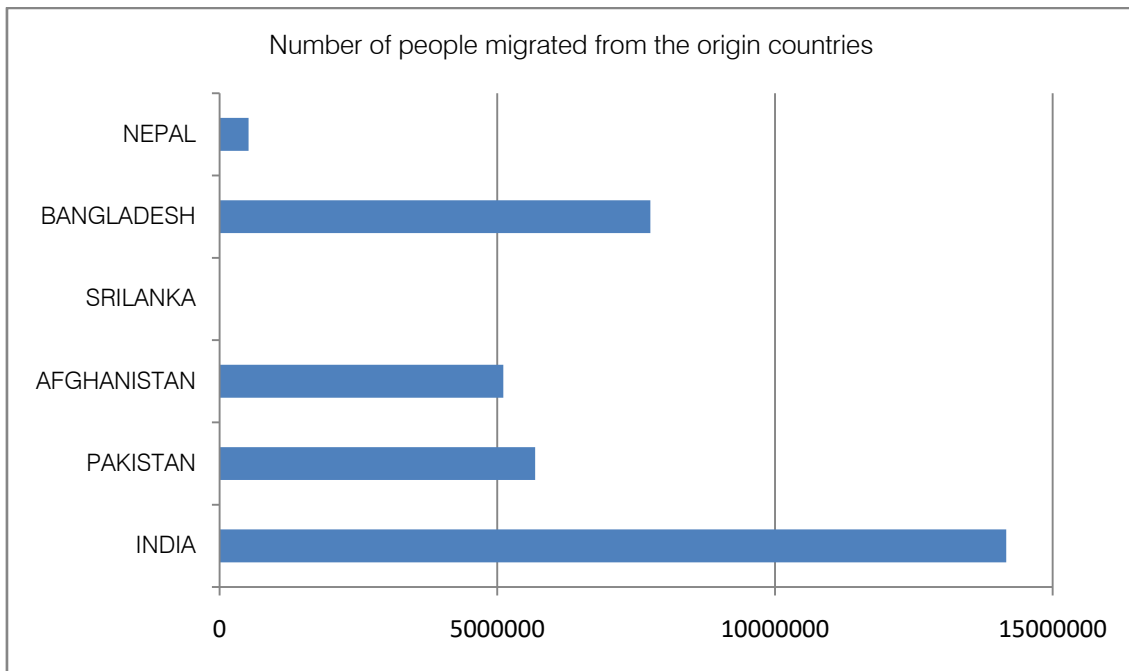
Source: United Nations Department of Economic Social Affairs (2013)

Figure 2

Number of people migrated to destination countries

4080766   5338486

■ INDIA
■ PAKISTAN
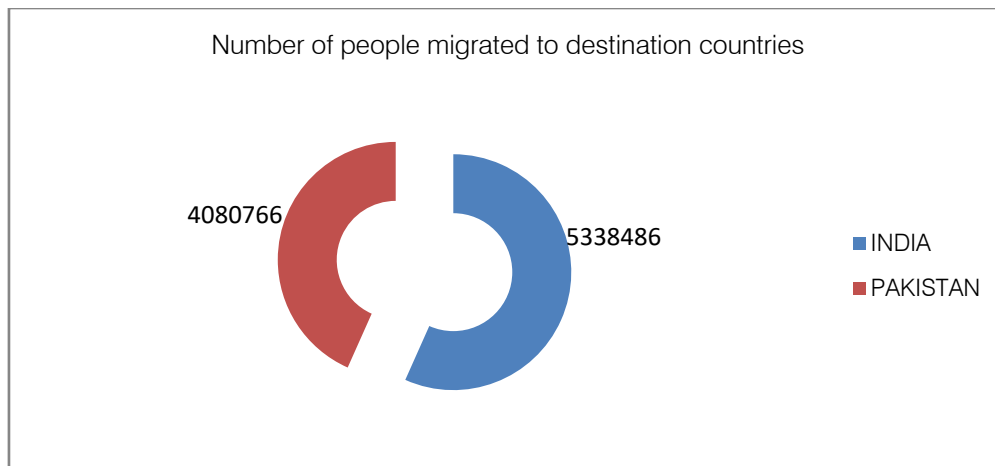
Source: United Nations Department of Economic Social Affairs 2013)

Figure 3

XIII. Linking Social Cognition to Peace and Democracy

Social Cognition is a psychological process which can also play an important role in the establishment of peace and democracy of the society. The above discussion brought out the importance of Trade Unions, government and the HRM department in maintaining peace and democracy among the diversified workforce in the organizations in south Asian region. These are the man made efforts done to create a peaceful environment. But there are some questions to be asked with ourselves only. Can the peaceful environment be made only through compulsions? Is it really not needed by all of us and so it is to be created by pressure? Every human being wants to live freely like he can speak freely if not hurting anyone, he wants that he should be treated fairly with the others who live in that society and accepted by them, the other people in the society would understand him respect him and like this everybody lives in peace, harmony and with equal fundamental rights so that it becomes a democratic society. So peace can actually be created if people start to understand each other, to respect each other's traditions, religions and values. Therefore to create peace and democracy in a region first it is to be created among the individuals and then in the society. One should always remember that treat the others in same way as you yourself want to be treated. For this it is necessary that individuals that they perceive the people around them well. This will further help not only to solve the conflicts between them but would not even let the situation of conflict to arise.

Social cognition therefore is favorable for the individuals so that they can survive in the society. It makes the communication process better. If the communication process is better then people can understand the values of emotions and construct a world of peace.

XIV. Social Cognition in Multi Cultured Organization and Attainment of Goals

Social cognition in the diversified workforce prevents the internal conflicts among the work groups. Giving respect to each other and considering the view point of each employee in a team will make them feel democratic even if they are working in the nation other than theirs. A wise perception of the conflict situation from the seniors will result in a result judgement. Not only this, but the accountabilities can be fixed. Realizing the values and morals of the employees from other tradition and nations would inculcate the feeling of loyalty among the employees. It is important that the employees must be felt of belongingness so that they work with the feeling of homage and devotion for the organization. It is the duty of male members that they give regards to their female colleagues so that they can have a fair share of their contribution, feel secured even in other countries.

India as the most diversified nation in workforce whether internally or externally has this in its organizations. The organization whether small medium or large values all the religions. These are holidays for all festivals. There are maternity leaves for working females. There are working women hostels also for their ease and crèches are also there in some organizations. Social cognition is helpful in the attainment of organizational goals. Taking the process of social cognition the way round that is starting from the inner feeling of the goal. The employees in the organization works to achieve a goal it can be personal like earning money and it can be organizational also like the aims set by the organization and social goals like earning respect from the colleagues. Achievement of these goals gives the feeling of completeness to the employees. Except the personal goal the other two goals are shared goals because they need two individuals or groups. To attain

these goals both the parties/individuals must have a shared attention on the information available to them. They must share the perception to each other the perception then go further and became the action plan of some task which they have to perform together or may be some part of the tasks done by each of them. This will be consequence in attainment of the shared goal. However, if the perceptions of the partied are clashes then the task will also differentiate. For example- there is a team of 25 employees and each 5 have goal to complete the designing of a floor in the project of the building. All have them have shared the organizational goal to complete the project; each 5 of them have different tasks. They may perform the tasks at different working hours or with different priorities but the alignment of goal is same for all. During this project they have to share their observations and perceptions so that the goal of completing the project is aligned automatically.

XV. Social Cognition and Self Awareness

Social cognition is the process which is fulfilled with certain traits of personality and other mental activities. An employee in an organization works with his colleagues of different personality traits who belongs to different regions and have different principles. They have learnt different values and thus all this formed their personality. Self awareness let the employees know themselves that how will they react on a certain action. It makes the employees matured enough to control their emotions and act in a wise and intelligent way on the situation. This in return prevents the situations of conflicts in the organizations and creates peace. Employees in the organizations with diversified workforce learn new behaviours , values and sometimes also bring changes in their rigid perceptions. By learning new behaviours they make themselves diverse and according to the present environment. They bring changes in their judgments regarding a particular race or group. Then the morals which already exists in them starts working and a feeling of respect and equality is emerged. By their good behavior they not only increase the people's belief in them but also inculcate the motivation power to make the organizational environment of serenity.

XVI. Conclusion

The region of south Asia consists of the population from one origin, even after this there are disparities due to the religions only. The countries like Afghanistan and Pakistan do not become the choices of the labours and workforce to migrate into them for the reason they are mostly Muslim dominating countries and people there do not share other religion than Islam. Moreover, there is no internal democracy and peace

there. Other nations have a large number of migrants which constitute their workforce. Among these India is the nation with uttermost ethnic groups in its workforce. The paper shows that the different agencies can help in maintaining peace and democracy. Trade Unions, Government and the HRM department must have to make themselves more responsible regarding their efforts and duties to create harmony. However sometimes they may fail to do so because of lack of legal rigidities of the nations and leadership.

There is a need of creating peace and democracy in the organizations among the employees. The human capital is an important factor of production which provides its services by applying their knowledge and physical efforts for the development of the economy. So there is a need to return them a peaceful and a libertarian environment to work in. Peace and democracy are actually related to the feelings and emotions. They are psychological sensations and should be first obtained at micro level and then at micro level. They can be accomplished if the employees in the organizations have a wise understanding of the mental states and feelings of their colleagues. They must be capable of realizing the difference between the traits, like aggression and mildness, flexibility and rigidity, respect and disrespect. Social Cognition is the process by which a socially developed environment can be achieved in the organizations. It facilitates the interpersonal negotiations for managing and solving the organizational conflict. However, the employees would have to master themselves in interacting; they would have to learn to be adaptive according to the situations. Better social cognition processes results in peace and make the employees proactive. Peace and democracy can be achieved by mutual understanding more, rather than on relying on the external world mediums.

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An Assessment of the Nigerian Terrorism Prevention Act and its Impact on National Security

By A. T. Akujobi

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Abstract- Terrorism is the use of violent acts to frighten a target person or persons in a given area as a means of trying to achieve a political goal. Its notoriety is known nationally and internationally. This paper,using doctrinaire approach,x-rays some provisions of the Anti-Terrorism Act 2013, (as amended) concerning issues on human right, jurisdiction, arrest, terrorist funding. This is with a view to finding a better way of ensuring minimal impact of terrorist acts on the nation and checkmating international terrorism.

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ANASSESSMENTOFTHENIGERIANTERRORISMPREVENTIONACTANDITSIMPACTONNATIONALSECURITY

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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I. Introduction

The internal affairs or policies guiding the safety of a country, and its citizens are important and sensitive issues to the stability and sustainability of a country's peaceful existence. More often than not, people who have lost faith in the system of governance or method of adjudication for peaceful negotiation with the governing authorities, base on security or imbalance method of allocation of natural resources, resolves to apply brute force, as militia gang or freedom fighters. This act is generally interpreted as 'terrorism'.

Terrorism is tantamount to an armed uprising and, it is a thinly-veiled attempt to overthrow a political order. However justifiable the motives or intentions of a terrorist gang may be, the action or in-actions of the terrorist organization is vitiated by the method(s) it employs in fighting its cause. The intention of terrorism reflects the common saying that: "the road to hell is paved with good intentions".

The concept of national security is an issue in any discussion of terrorism. The concept denotes protection and preservation of the nation- state from imminent, threatened or actual attack on any of its physical structures such as boundaries, properties, economy and the environment.

Security, on the other hand is the state of being free from danger or threat. Thus, national security relates to those activities which are directly concerned with national safety, as distinguished from the general welfare[1]. Generally, terrorist activities constitute a serious threat to peace or stability of the state and, it

hinders the entrenchment of a strong or virile state. The word terrorism comes from French word 'terrorisme' which in English means, great fear. It appeared as a vocabulary in English dictionary in 1798 and in it, it means, a systematic use of terror as a policy.

The maintenance of international peace and security is a categorical imperative of the contemporary world. In fact, nowadays, the non -use or threat of use of force is a norm of *jus cogens*. That is to say, a peremptory norm of general international law from which no derogation is permitted and it can only be modified by a norm of similar character. When this is coupled with the rule of *pactasuntservanda*, which entails the requirement of faithfully observing treaty obligations, it is self-evident that the international community had no choice but to put in place a series of treaties aimed at containing the ogre of terrorism.

According to Kofi Annan the former Secretary General of United Nations:

'Terrorism is a direct attack on the core values, the United Nation stands for namely; human rights and the rule of law, the protection of civilians; mutual respect between people of different faiths and cultures; and peaceful resolution of conflicts'

II. Terrorism

Terrorism is defined as, "the use of violent acts to frighten the people in an area as a way of trying to achieve a political goal"[2]. Put in another sense, terrorism can also be seen as a systematic use of terror, or a means of coercion or "the use or threat of violence to intimidate or cause panic, especially as a means of affecting political conduct"[3] The United Nation Security Council defines terrorism as

"An anxiety- inspiring method of repeated violent action, employed by semi -clandestine individual, group or state actors, for idiosyncratic criminal or political reasons whereby in contrast to assassination-the direct target of violence are not the main target"[4].

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[1] *Cole v Young* 351 US 536 Us 1956

[2] Being a keynote address to the closing plenary of an International Summit on Democracy, Terrorism and security delivered on 10th March 2015, Madrid, Spain.

[3] The word comes from French 'terrorisme' meaning great fear. It was first recorded in English-Language dictionaries in 1798 and in it, it means a systematic use of terror as a policy.

[4] Black Law Dictionary 8th edition, page 1512

In a way, terrorism is a senseless act of wanton destruction of lives and properties without any justifiable reason[4].Since the twin bombing of 11th September2011, measures to monitor terrorism have been enhanced by nation states, with more watch on financial transactions, supervision of border patrol and monitoring of suspected terrorists.

Section 14(2)(b) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999(as amended in in 2011) provides that "The security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose or responsibility of government". This underlines the constant amendment of the Anti-Terrorism Act by the legislature to provide a durable legal framework, which will guide the nation against terrorism.

Terrorist as an act is usually intended to elicit behavior, which ordinarily might not be in agreement with the will of the victims, but, targeted towards a certain political end(s), entails the illegal use of force or threat of the same. To all intent and purposes, terrorism manifest fear or feeds on fear, which usually results in the incapacitation of the victim, and in the eyes of the victim, the terrorist adorn the garb of impunity and invincibility.

The United Nations in Resolution 1373, which was adopted after September 11, 2001 attack, refers to terrorism as;

"Criminal acts, including against civilians, committed with the intent to cause death or serious bodily injury, or taking of hostages with the purpose of provoking a state of terror in the general public or in a group of persons or particular persons, intimidate a population or compel a government or an international organization to do or to abstain from doing an act"[5].

That resolution though, with local variation, serves as template and model for restoring international peace and security.

Not with standing the above definition, member-states still struggle with the question of the scope of the exception to the definition of terrorism. According to some, there is a need to distinguish between acts of terrorism and the right of people to self- determination. Even, the controversy associated with the extent or the scope of terrorism and when it can be regarded an act of self- determination has not been resolved, the same enjoin member states to:

"…..criminalize the willful provision or collection by any means, directly, of funds by their nationals or in their territories with the intention that the funds should be used or in the knowledge that they be used, in order to carry out terrorist acts and ensure

that the financing planning, preparation of terrorists acts….are established as serious criminal offences in domestic laws and regulations and that the punishment duly reflect the seriousness of such terrorist acts".

The difference in shades of opinion as to the extent of terrorism and when an act of terrorism should be construed as self-determination does not appear to exist in Africa. This is because; the African Union, have a united stand on the definition of terrorism. This is contained in the Africa Union Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism, 1999 which was supplemented by a Protocol in 2004. That Convention defines terrorism as;

"Any act which is a violation of the criminal laws of a state party and which may endanger the life, physical, integrity or freedom of or cause serious injury or death to, any person, any number or group of persons or may cause damage to any public or private property, natural resources, environmental or cultural heritage and is calculated or intended to intimidate, put in fear, force, coerce or induce any government body, institution, general public or segment thereof, to do or abstain from doing, or to adopt or abandon a particular standpoint, or to act according to certain princi-ples…any promotion, sponsoring, contribution to command, aid, incitement, encouragement, attempt, threat, conspiracy, organizing, or procurement of any person with the intend to commit any act[6] referred to in paragraph (a)(i) to (iii)".

The question to be asked from these definitions is how does one come to the conclusion that a committed actamounts to terrorism? The question is necessary because; terrorism easily falls prey to change that suits the interest of a particular state at a particular time. For instance, the *Taliban* and Osama Bin Laden *ALQueda*, were once called freedom fighters (Mujahideen) and backed by the CIA, when they were resisting the Soviet occupation of Afganistan. Now, they are on top of international terrorist watch list as a terrorist group. The United Nations view Palestinians' agitators as freedom fighters, struggling against the unlawful occupation of their land by Israelthough, the resistance has the backing of the United Nation, as a legitimate resistance movement, Israel regards them as terrorist. Similarly, the *Hizbollah* group in Lebanon is regarded as terrorist by Israel, though most of the Arab countriesregard it as a legitimate resistance group, fighting Israel occupation of southern Lebanon.

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[5] The UN Security Council 1373(s/res/1373(2001)

[6] See, Paragraph (a)(i) to (111)of the AU Convention

III. The Anti – Terrorist Act

The Anti-Terrorism Act 2011[7] defined a 'Terrorist' to mean, any natural person who:

i. Commits, or attempts to commit, terrorist acts by any means, directly or indirectly, unlawfully and willfully;
ii. Participates as an accomplice in terrorist acts;
iii. Organizes or directs others to commit terrorist acts; or
iv. Contributes to the commission of terrorist acts by a group of persons acting with a common purpose where the contribution is made intentionally and with the aim of furthering the terrorist act or with the knowledge of the intention of the group to commit a terrorist act.

There is no doubt that acts of terrorism are criminal acts directed against a state or intended to create a state of apprehension, anxiety or terror in the minds of particular persons or group of persons, (general public) in other to arm-twist, intimidate, subdue, or control the government in authority for approval of a particular agitation[8]. Terrorist acts include but is not limited to act which constitutes an offence according to the following agreements:

United Nation General Assembly Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy;
Convention for Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft, 1970;
Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, Including Diplomatic Agents, 1973;
International Convention Against the Taking of Hostages, 1979;
Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material, 1980; Convention for Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation, 1988;
International Convention for the Suppression of Terr-orist Bombings, (1977).

Furthermore, terrorist acts also include any other acts intended to cause bodily injury to a civilian, or to any other person not taking an active part in the hostilities in a situation of armed conflict, when the purpose of such act, by its nature or context, is to intimidate a population, or to compel a Government or an international organization, do or to abstain from doing any act.

TThe Anti- Terrorism Act sought amongst other things to prohibit all forms of terrorism, all forms of financial transactions aimed at aiding terrorism, provide federal jurisdiction to prosecute acts of terrorism carried out within Nigeria, prohibit conspiracies in Nigeria to commit terrorism abroadand provide for appropriate penalties for offenders.

IV. Check-Mating Terrorism Against the Interest of International Human Right Law

Every society is inherently conflictual and the maintenance of peace and security or internal order, is dependent on the existence of rules prescribing what can be done or not. Thus, just as the existence of law is a *sine qua non* for the survival of a community, state or country, and to a large extent the survival and well-being of the international community at large. The guiding principle in this regard is the latin maxim *Ubisocietaslbi jus meaning a* society of individuals requires the law for its smooth running. Nations of the world with different political and economic backgrounds have formed a true community that requires standard rules for its orderly developments.

Thus, at the international sphere, a crime committed against a member state is a crime against all, most especially, where, it touches on a set of rules recognized by civilized nations as governing their conduct towards each other citizens and terrorism is one contemporary area in which individuals are subjects of international law. This is because terrorist activities are carried out by individuals and group. Another area with such bilateral agreement includes human trafficking, illicit drugs trade, financial crimes, etc.

The United Nations Charter contains the purposes of the organization and it provides that the organization shall:

1. Maintain international peace and security and to that end; to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means and conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international dispute or situations which might lead to breach of the peace;
2. To develop friendly relations amongst nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of people, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace.
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion, and
4. To be a center for harmonizing the actions of nation as in the attainment of these common ends.

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[7] Cap C38 LFN 2004; See, section 2 of the Anti – Terrorism Act, 2013
[8] Section 1(2), (a),(b) *Ibid*

This more or less depicts the responses of the UN to international terrorism. A deduction from the above objectives show clearly that terrorism runs contrary to the basic purposes of the United Nations.

In 2007, Nigeria made the news headlines when a 23 years old Nigeria Farouk Abdul Mutallab attempted to blow up a Detroit-bound Delta airline with what experts call Pentaerythritol tetra nitrate (PETN)[9]. The aftermath of this infamous act was the listing of Nigeria on the United States Terrorist Watch List as one of her special (security) interest[10].

Indeed, the bombing United Nations office in Abuja by Boko Haram on Friday, 26 August 2011, which killed at least twenty one and wounded sixty was a direct attack on the international community. The bombing of markets and embassies, hijackings, kidnappings, mass killings, etc are acts of aggression, which not only constitute threats to peace and security, but also violates basic human rights and fundamental freedom.

Since 2002, when Ustaz Mohammed Yusuf, the sect leader of an armed group officially known as *Jama'atu Ahlis SunaLidda' awatiwaljinad,* which means in English, "people committed to the propagation of Prophet's Teaching and Jihad started is its war campaign in Nigeria, the criminal of the group has unabated. Apart from Boko Haram, there are other terrorist groups such as Fulani herdsmen and armed ethnic militias who have been unleashing terrors on Nigerians in alter disregard to the provisions of the Terrorism Prevention Amendment Act, 2013.

The framers of the 1999 Constitution gave legal backing to the second stanza of our Country's National Anthem, which states "To build a Nation where peace and Justice shall reign" by enshrining Sec. 14(2)(b) of the Constitution. That section states that "security and welfare of the people is the primary purpose of government'.

It is in the bid to attain the desired peace and security, for the nation that the office of the National Security Adviser is charged with the responsibility in Sec. 1A. (1) of the Terrorism Prevention (Amendment Act,2013), charged the office of the National Security Adviser, to act as coordinating body for all security and enforcement agencies on the war against terrorism.

The Terrorism Prevention (Amendment Act 2013) stipulates in Section 2(a)-(h) that:

"A person or body corporate who knowingly in or outside Nigeria directly or indirectly willingly:

a) does attempts or threatens any act of terrorism.
b) commit an act preparatory to or in furtherance of an act of terrorism.

c) omit to do anything that is reasonably necessary to prevent an act of terrorism.
d) assists or facilitate the activities of persons engaged in an act of terrorism or is an accessory to any offence under this Act,
e) participate as an accomplice in or contributes to the commission of any act of terrorism or offences under this Act,
f) assists, facilitates, organizes or directs the activities of persons or organizations engaged in any act of terrorism,
g) is an accessory to any act of terrorism, or
h) incites, promises or induces any other person by any means whatsoever to commit any act of terrorism or any of the offences referred to in this Act, commits an offence under this Act and is liable on conviction to maximum death sentence".

It is worthy to note that the Terrorism Prevention Act 2013 goes a step further to provide for extra-territorial application of the Act and terrorist financing offences. The amended Act substituted various sections of the principal Act and it takes care of the previous unforeseen situations. This means that the 2013 Amended Act is viral and pro-active.

V. Human Rights issues and Terrorism Prevention Act 2011

The enactment of the Principal Terrorism Act in 2011(as amended in 2013), generated concerns from human rights circles because some aspects of the Act were seen as constituting serious threats to some of the fundamental rights guaranteed in chapter 4 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999. For instance, the Act gave broad and sweeping powers to security and intelligence officers, without any judicial oversight. For example, section 25 (a-e) of the Act, empowers the National Security Adviser or Inspector General of Police to enter and search any place, persons, or vehicle "without warrant," if the officer has reason to suspect that an offence is being committed. The officer may also search, detain, and arrest any person if he has a reasonable suspicion that the person has committed or is about to commit an offence under the Act.

Section 26, of the Act empowers the Attorney-General of the Federation, the National Security Adviser or the Inspector General of Police "for the purposes of the prevention or detection of offences or the prosecution of offenders give such direction as appear necessary to any communication service providers in intelligence gathering"[11]. Section 28(1) also allowed the detention of a terrorism suspect for 24 hours by security officers without access to any other person except the

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[9] A whitish explosive that resembles sugar or salt and requires to be hammered or ignited for it to go off.
[10] Other countries on the list include Algeria, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Yemen, Syria, Libya, Pakistan, Lebanon, Cuba, Sudan, Afghanistan.

[11]See, section 26(1), of the TPA 2O11

suspect's medical doctor and the detaining agency's lawyer.

The wide powers conferred on the government to proscribe organizations were also of a concern to human rights activists, as such powers were considered as capable of being abused, particularly in declaring opponents as terrorists.

Though the Terrorism and Prevention Act, 2013 brought about some changes which address some of the human rights issues, nevertheless, some of the amendments still leave much to be desired. For example, section 27(1), which provides that

The court may, pursuant to an ex-parte application, grant an order for the detention of a suspect under this Act for a period not exceeding 90 days subject to renewal for a similar period until the conclusion of the investigation and prosecution of the matter that led to the arrest and detention is dispensed with

This is contrary to the right to personal liberty guaranteed under section 35 of the Nigeria Constitution. This is especially so if one considers subsections (1) (c), (4) (a) (b) and (5). Moreover sub-section (1) (c) permits deprivation of a person's liberty, in accordance with a procedure permitted by law, "for the purpose of bringing him before a court in execution of the order of a court or upon reasonable suspicion of his having committed a criminal offence, or to such extent as may be reasonably necessary to prevent his committing a criminal offence", sub-section (4) provides that such a person shall be brought before a court of law within a reasonable time, and if he is not tried within a period of:

a) *Two months from the date of his arrest or detention in the case of a person who is in custody or is not entitled to bail; or*

b) *Three months from the date of his arrest or detention in the case of a person who has been released on bail, he shall (without prejudice to any further proceedings that may be bought against him) be released either unconditionally or upon such conditions as are reasonably necessary to ensure that he appears for trial at a later date. According to sub-section 5, the expression ä reasonable time" means…..*

c) *In the case of an arrest or detention in any place where there is a court of competent jurisdiction within a radius of forty kilometers, a period of one day; and (b) In any other case, a period of two days or such longer period as in the circumstances may be considered by the court to be reasonable".*

The new section 28(1) of the amended Act, provides that;

"where a person is arrested under reasonable suspicion of having committed any offence under this Act, the relevant law enforcement or security officer may direct that the person arrested be detained in custody for a period not exceeding forty-eight hours",

This potentially contravenes section 35(4) (5) of the Constitution which stipulates "in the case of an arrest or detention in any place where there is a court of competent jurisdiction within a radius of forty kilometers".

The new section 28(4), which provides that where a person arrested under the Act is granted bail by a court within the 90 days detention period,

"The person may, on the approval of the Head of the relevant law enforcement agency be placed under a house arrest and shall – (a) be monitored by its officers; (b) have no access to phones or communication gadgets; and (c) speak only to his counsel until the conclusion of the investigation".

But house arrest, without a valid court order or, in this case, in defiance of a court order, is illegal and undermines the authority of the courts.

It is important to note that the sweeping powers conferred on the National Security Adviser, the Inspector General of Police and the State Security service under the Principal Act[12] are now curtailed and reposed in the Attorney General of the Federation who is now designated as the authority for the effective implementation and administration of the Act. In this regard, the Attorney General has the responsibility of strengthening and enhancing the existing legal framework in order to ensure conformity of Nigeria's counter-terrorism laws and policies with international standards and United Nations Conventions on Terrorism. The Attorney Generalis also charged with the responsibility of maintaining international cooperation required for preventing and combating international acts of terrorism. It is the further responsibility of the Attorney-General to ensure the effective prosecution of terrorism matters[13]

The Attorney General of the Federation reserves the power to delegate his power to any agency charge with responsibility of terrorist investigation to institute criminal proceedings[14]. A special power is conferred on the Attorney General of the Federation, to initiate a judicial process for the reduction of sentence imposed on a convict where such a convict has before any proceedings, made possible or facilitated the identification of other accused persons and their sponsors or who, after commencement of the proceedings has made possible or facilitated the arrest of such persons. The court has the discretion to reduce the sentence as it may deem fit. However, it is important to note that the powers conferred on the Attorney General are enormous and could lead to incompetency arising from too much work load, and abuse of power.

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[12] See, The Terrorism Act 2011
[13] See, section 1A(2)(a)(b)and (c) of the amended Act 2013.
[14] Section 30(1) Ibid

Currently, the office of the National Security Adviser (ONSA) is now the coordinating body for all security and law enforcement agencies in matters relating to terrorism. The office also has the mandate to ensure the effective formulation and implementation of a comprehensive counter-terrorism strategy for Nigeria, build capacity for the effective discharge of the functions of all relevant security, intelligence, law enforcement and military services under the Act or any other law on terrorism in Nigeria. The National SecurityOfficer is further conferred with the omnibus power "to do such other acts or things that are necessary for the effective performance of the functions of the relevant security and enforcement agencies"[15].

Sadly, the effectiveness of the National Security Officer is not very pronounced as the ability of the terrorists to plan, develop and execute their attacks without detection clearly exposes his inefficiency.

VI. Financing of Terrorism

Section 13(1) of Terrorism Prevention Act 2013 provides for funding of terrorism in situations where a person or entity solicits, acquires, provides, collects, receives, possesses or make available funds, property or other services by any means to terrorists or terrorist groups directly or indirectly intending that it be used in full or in part for the purpose of committing or facilitating the commission of a terrorist act Such a person is liable upon conviction to imprisonment for life[16].

There is a distinction between terrorist funding and money laundering. Money laundering is a crime which proceeds have to be disguised in order to conceal the illicit source which in the case of terrorist financing, money would be from either legitimate or illegal sources.

Section 14 of the Act imposes an obligation on financial institution or designated non-financial institution to report suspicious transaction relating to terrorism to the Financial Intelligent Unit (FIU). The Nigerian FIU was established in 2005 by the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (Establishment) Act 2004 (EFCC).It draws its powers from the money Laundering (Prohibition) Act 2004 is the central agency for the collection, analysis and dissemination of information.

It is commendable to say that where an entity is convicted of an offence under the Terrorism and Prevention Act (as amended), such as entity is liable to the forfeiture of any assets, funds, or property used or intended to be used in the commission of the offence and the court may issue an order to wind up the entity or withdraw the license of the entity and its Principal Officers or both[17]. Where the court orders the entity to be wound up, its assets and property shall be transferred to the Federation Account[18].

Section 32 of the Terrorism Prevention Act 2011 vests the jurisdiction to try and punish terrorist offences on the Federal High Court "located in any part of Nigeria, regardless of the location where the offence is committed". And as a corollary of the jurisdiction to try offenders under the Act, the Federal High Court is empowered to impose sentences of varying degrees and fines to individuals found culpable[19]). In addition, a convict under the Act may be required to forfeit any asset used to commit the offence or connected with it.

In order to forestall delay in hearing terrorism cases, the Act empowers the Federal High Court to "adopt all legal measures necessary to avoid unnecessary delays and abuse in the conduct of matters[20]. One measure prescribed by the Act itself is for the court to refuse to entertain applications for stay of proceedings until judgment is delivered[21]. This is because by the time judgment is delivered, it is doubtful if there would be any proceeding to be stayed. And, in any event, the court would have become *functus officio*. This point was well made by Kabiri –Whyte, JSC (as he then was) in *Sanusi v. Ayoola*[22] when the learned Justice opined that a court, on disposing of a cause before it, renders itself *functus officio* as it ceases to have jurisdiction over such case.

The apprehension about the jurisdiction of the Federal High Court, nevertheless is that, the court is already overloaded, especially, with regard to the long list of items contained in section 251 of the 1999 Constitution and other statutes over which it has power to exercise jurisdiction.

One of the amendments affected in respect of the jurisdiction of the Federal High Court is the power of the court to try terrorist offences whether or not the offence was committed in Nigeria and completed outside Nigeria". In *State v. Okah*[23] *SS94/2011*the accused, who was resident in South Africa, was tried and convicted for his involvement in the planning and organizing of two car bomb attacks in Nigeria wherein several people were killed and many injured. The South African Court predicated its authority to hear and determine the case upon the fact that "South Africa is a member of the United Nations and therefore committed

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[15] Law enforcement and security agencies are identified as the Nigeria Police Force, Department of State Security Services, Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), National Agency for the Prohibition of Traffic in Persons (NAPTIP), National Drug Law Enforcement Agency, National Intelligence Agency, Nigeria Customs Service, Nigeria Immigration Service, Defence Intelligence Agency, Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) Nigerian Armed Forces and Nigeria Prisons Service and any other agency empowered by an Act of the National Assembly[15]). Also see s. 1A (a)(b)(c) and (d)
[16] See, section 13(1)a-b

[17] Section 25(11)Ibid
[18] See section 25(3) Ibid
[19] Section 32(2)Ibid
[20] Sec.32(5)Ibid
[21] Sec.32(6)Ibid
[22] (2000) 1FWLR 208 .

to executing its obligations in terms of international instruments dealing with terrorism and related activities." Moreover Nigeria is signatory to all the relevant Conventions and Protocols

VII. Conclusion

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[24] Section 25(11)Ibid
[25] See section 25(3) Ibid
[26] Section 32(2)Ibid
[27] Sec.32(5)Ibid
[28] Sec.32(6)Ibid

[29] (2000) 1FWLR 208 .

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Sources of Development of Aviation bases in Ukraine: 1xx-Xxc. Personalities and Memorable Places

By M. Timoshenko, N. Semiroz & V. Simonenko Architector

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Summary- The article deals with the problem of determination, maintenance and inventor activity of world aviation developers. They were born in Ukraine, as real cradle of aviation specialists having trained thousands of experts, which have been working in Ukraine and in almost 90 countries over the world. Planes and gliders, developed in Ukraine set world records.

SOURCESOFDEVELOPMENTOFAVIATIONBASESINUKRAINE1XXXXCPERSONALITIESANDMEMORABLEPLACES

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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M.Timoshenko [α], N. Semiroz [σ] & V. Simonenko Architector [ρ]

Summary- The article deals with the problem of determination, maintenance and inventor activity of world aviation developers. They were born in Ukraine, as real cradle of aviation specialists having trained thousands of experts, which have been working in Ukraine and in almost 90 countries over the world. Planes and gliders, developed in Ukraine set *world* records.

Keywords: history aviation ukaine, construction airport. Personalities.

I. Introduction

Although Ukrainehas a long difficult history of existence though historical way and everyday problems it is the country that develops and produces aircraft and space technology, as well as preparing qualified professionals for the world aviation. Ukraine always tried to support and carry about its sons, especially those who wished to lift humanity by the wing, which makes us proud.

One of the Ukrainian ingenious philosopher Volodymyr Verna sky (1843–1945),considereda person as the high value of the system evolution of the Universe, wrote in the main scientific essay of his life "Scientific thought as a planetary phenomenon" (1943): "We can see as a permanent the same discovery the same idea again emerging in different parts of the globe, in different ages, without any possibility to take over". The main goal of this short assay was to test this opinion.

Looking at the map of Ukraine help us to find the marked places of birth and creative activity of the famous aviation figuresboth theoretic and practices, namely, the first aviators, engineers and pilots, creators of aircraft for flying to both the Earth atmosphere and space. There is a large number and dispersion of the places of the coryphaeus, founders, and leaders of aviation in Ukraine. They arecities, towns and villages, namely: Kyiv, Zhytomyr, Poltava, Kharkiv, Odessa, Feodosia, Yalta, Voronovytshi, Chervone and others.The famous aviators of the XIX–XX centuries such as O. Mozhaiskiy, I. Sikorskiy, P. Nesterov, F. Tereshchenko, S. Utochkin, O. Franko, K. Artseulov, S. Korolov, O. Antonov and others were born and worked in Ukraine.

Studying the ways of their life as the developers of world aviation, we can mark their close relationship with the native people, culture, and high level of civilization in Ukraine, which corresponded at the same time with simultaneous efforts of humanity in the implementation of the global industrial revolution.

Alexander Mozhaiskiy(1825–1890) is the descendant of the Russian Navy Admiral family after 35-years experience of the marine life circus. When Mozhaiskiy was 40 years old, he began to work for the dream of all his life. It was to make the aircraft heavier than air. During all the years of service in Navy he perfected his project, which was planned in 1876.At the same time in France, the construction of vapour-planes was worked out by Du Temple, Kliment Ader and Samuel Henson. In October 1890, when Ader'svapour-plane took off, it was titled as the beginning of aviation era. We could read in the monograph by N.V.Spitsyn "Ballooning in 100 years" (1884) following opinion: "The aeronautic shell created by Mozhaiskvis one of the first in the world that was build in real size and lifted from the land with person on board". This famous event took place at the Mozhaisky' sestate in Voronovytsi (Podillya). Nowadays there is the Mozhaisky's estate, the park, the palace with 45 rooms (2500 m2). The paintings drawn by Alexander, Mozhaisky were alsokept. The most valuable monument of culture are two airplanewagon shop where Mozhaisky were developing kites, which were using for own flying and later he developed the aeronautic shell with steam engine. In Voronovytsi Mozhaiskylived and worked for eight years. He carefully managed his estate, which belonged teenager, who was his nephew. According to the rights of inheritance Mozhaisky was his guardian. He had never sold or hypothecated this estate any way, when he needed money to build a "flying vapour-train" when he sold all own property and sold the marriage ring and even the officer uniform. The genius of Mozhaisky, as leader of aeronautics is that before him all inventors were using natural ornithological analogues, and Mozhaisky used

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another way of flying mechanical devices development. Our generation, which the independence of Ukraine has allowed to review and evaluate the aristocratic families sons' contribution and all the national elite to the world aviation, must reconstruct the Mozhayskiys' estate.

The U.S.A. president still is flying by helicopter, developed by the resident of Ukraine inhabitant of Kyiv IhorIvanovych Sikorskyi (1889–1972). He was born in a large family of a doctor and a noblewoman on the corner of Ivan Franko and Yaroslaviv Val streets. He made his first helicopter at the age of twelve years old in family estate, in the workshops, in the park. Ihor Sikorskiy had gotten the encyclopedic education; he could virtuously play the piano and was fond of theater and visual arts that have played a fateful role in his life and work. Sikorskiy had leaved Petersburg Cadet Corps.

When he was twenty he visited Paris and could work with Louis Blerio to create a flying machine and flew over the La Manche in June 1909. In 1911 he returned to Russia and got a diploma of pilot. He developed giant airplanes "Vityaz", "Ilya Muromets", and flew by them. It was settinga world speed record when he flew from St. Petersburg to Kyiv. He made PR flights and promoted aviation. In 1912Sikorskiy's sister became the first woman in the world who flew in the sky. He had gotten the prizes of the military aircraft competitions. All Kyiv residents admired him. The First World War and the Revolution began. In February 1918 Ihor Sikorskiy flew from Arkhangelsk to London and Paris and later in March, with a small amount of money, he immigrated to the United States. His fate leaded him,as a music fan, to visit the concert of Sergei Rachmaninoff. The Sergei Rachmaninoff made a contribution to the restructuring of roost into air workshop, but also allowed to give his name as a brand "Rachmaninoff Aero Engineering Corporation". Superior intelligence, kindness, which was laid in childhood and allowed Ihor to become not only the president of a successful company, but also to rally around himself the minded people. He was married and had four sons. 15 types of aircraft were developed by the Sikorskiy's company till 1939. That yearhe returned to his Kyiv childhood dream, to develop helicopters "Vought – Sikorsky". Nowadays the civil and military helicopters with single screw and automatic bias circuit are flying all around the world. Ihor's descendants come to Kyiv and visit National Aviation University, to his parents' homestead, where the blind childhood home of our famous countryman looks at them by walled windows. The wagon house in the yard of Yaroslav's Val street number 15 needs our protection.

Ukrainian land hascherished in its cradlea lot of talented, multi-faceted genius. There are a lot of extraordinary things, and mysteries in the life of this man, so it is difficult to open even hundredth part of his achievements and sufferings in this brief essay. His name was Alexander Shamray, but he was hidden by pseudonym "Yuri Kondratyuk" andspenthis life in exile. His name has written by golden letters in the fame hall of the space museum in Alamahordi and on one of the Moon side there ishis name too. His mother was the teacher of Kyiv-Pechersk school. She was born in the family of Von Schlippen bach, her name was Ludmila Shamray. Because of the Bolshevik repression, as the royal army officer, he should get the pseudonym Yuri Kondratyuk. In 1916 he graduated gymnasium with a silver medal in Poltava and entered to the Petersburg University. And in 1918 hebe came an officer of the Russian army, then as white officer was forced to change name and surname. In 1925–26 Kondratyuk was working on Krylovskiy elevator. And he wrote the book "The conquest of interplanetary space", which became the main scientific work of his life and direction for the space exploration in the world. The author developed the theory of intermediate space stations (rocket bases) in the form of satellites, the theory of these issues. Y. Kondratyuk' scalculations were used by Americans in the development of theMoon improving programs. Y. Kondratyu kregardless of K. Tsiolkovskiy developed problems of aerodynamics, put the basic equation of rocket flight, presented his theory of multistage rockets, and the most importantly offered to provide rockets of solar fuel. During global crisis in 1927 in Novosibirsk the Ukrainian genius built the famous elevator "Mastodon", its capacity 13 tons, and it was from wood without any nails.

The genius vision has clearly been seen in the ability to think strategically, globally, foresee future energy crisis of XXI century and the need to switch on to alternative energy sources. Together with P. Horchakov and M. Nikitin he designed the powerful wind farm to the Crimea. He volunteered to the front, and was killed in 1942. Only now humanity comprehends, understands and uses his ideas.

Aerofoil "Poltava" highly appreciated the role of his friend: Poltava Space Museum is named by his surname; his monument is installed in Komsomolsk. The famous aviators' cohort included the name of pilot from Odessa Sergey Isaevich Utochkin (1876–1916). The first aviator from Odessa, versatile athlete in the early twentieth century was the perfect pilot, who made over 150 flights to 70 cities over the country. He was born in Odessa in the family of a merchant. His childhood was harsh, teenager was full of enthusiasm in going for different kinds of sports, especially bicycle bike, and ocean yacht racing. He attached to his car the wings and tried to fly. Sergei Utochkin and Josef J. Drevnyt sky made their first flight on the balloon in 1901, over Odessa. In 1902Sergei Utochkin began to build his private plane. He flew to Egypt on balloon. He left Egypt for Paris to learn piloting by Wright and Blerio and returned to his native Odessa with a desire to build an airplane.

In the Russian Empire the first pilot, who took off in the sky, was M. Yefimov. He flew on the French device.In March 1910 Sergei Utochkin became the next one. By the end of the year the pilots group consisted of 30 people. Utochkin became tester pilot, set the records, received prizes and awards, his flights were national public holidays. The life of the pilot ended tragically in 1916 in a psychiatric hospital. He was buried in St. Petersburg. His merit is popularization of the piloting art, he aroused among young people interest to aviation, inspiring to transform the military aviation into civil one. The monument with inscription «Famousand favourite personfrom Odessa, balloonist and dreamer Sergei Utochkin" stayedin the Derybasivska Street on the steps of his house. Streets and squares were namedby his name. Kyiv was rightly considered a center of aviation in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century's. There was Aeronautics Company, which was headed by student of M. Zhukov sky, professor of KPI M. Delaunay.

E.G. Adler, F. Anero, D. Grygorovych, K. Kalinin, O. Karpeka, three brothers Kasyanenko, O. Kudashev, P. Nesterov, I. Sikorsky, F. Tereshchenko began their pilot activities in the city on the Dnieper.

At Pechers'k house number 5 was remained in the Moscows' ka street. The family of the famous pilot Petro Mykolayovych Nesterov (1887–1914) lived in this house, the memorial plaque is posted on one of the house's wall. The elite of society took part in aviation, literature, theater and music discussions. Participants were heard from the gramophone. In this house of Kyiv Syretsky airport Petro Nesterov with G.M. Neklyudov worked to develope of their airplane without a vertical plumage. Petro Nesterov flew by the airplane "Newport – IV» and carried out his first "loop" well-known in the world. And in 1914 he together with his mechanic S. Rudenko flew to Odessa, Sevastopol, Moscow, St. Petersburg. Kyiv Governor presented him the golden token with which Mr. Nesterov did not part until his death. And he met his death in the Western Ukraine in 1914, during I World War near the village of Vola-Volots' ka, he was shoot down with battering ram "back again" the plane of Austrian baron-pilot. There were not parachutes at that time and as result four pilots were dead. He was posthumously awarded the Order of St. George of IV degree. His children Margaret and Petro grew up in Kyiv. His remains were moved from Askoldova Mohyla to the Lukianivka cemetery in 1939, where tombstone was found on the money of O. K. Antonov. F. Tereshchenko from the family of famous oligarchs.

F. Tereshchenko came from Hlukhov on Slobozhanshchyna, was the member of the Kyiv Society of Aeronautics, which was headed by Petro Nesterov. He studied at KPI,the Mechanical Faculty and admired the construction of aircraft. In 1909 the family acquired the estate in Chervone village on Podill'a. Tsar Nicholas II visited this estate to learn the building experience of the vehicles for aeronautics in the workshops of Tereshchenko for military purposes. Here in the heart of Ukraine in 1916–1917 aircraft series 1.7 "Tereshchenko" were constructed and flown. Fedir Tereshchenko has received a number of global patents, personally led the aircraft. Tillnowa days the palace, the park, the avia workshops are preserved in Chervone. And strange it seems that these monuments of Ukrainian culture moved to the Moscow Patriarchate and nunnery was developed in the estate.

The pilot Kostyantyn Kostyantynovych Artseulov (1891–1980) was the member of the Kyiv Aeronautics Society. He was born in Yalta in the family of the engineer-shipbuilder; he studied drawing; graduated St. Petersburg Marine Corps, Kacza aviation military school; received the military pilot title. In the summer 1916 at Kacza airport, for the first time the" mad warrant officer" performed a flight of prohibited dangerous forms of "spin"three times in a row.He became a glider pilot, tested aircraft, and was the first pilot of civil aircraft in aerial photography from 1927 to 1933 under the Soviet government. At the same time, this multi-faceted personality attended so glorious high art such as book graphics, and he was a member of the Artists' Union. He survived the exile and died in 1980, he was 90 years old.

Oleh Kostyantynovych Antonov (1906–1984) was born in Troitsy village in Podilskyi district in the family of thebuilding engineer. He made his first glider in the children's club and took part in Koktebel gliding competitions. Where he received high awards. Hewas 24 years old, when he headed the design bureau of Tushynskiy airport. Then Oleg Antonov headed the Yakovlev constructor bureau Novosibirsk branch. In 1952 he started to work first in GCOCB-473, thenat Kyiv mechanical factory, which was transformed Constructor Bureau named by O.K. Antonova after his death in 1984. Gliders, multi-transport and passenger planes, including AN-2, AN-22 Antaeus, AN-122 Ruslan were developed with the guidance of Antonov. Some of them constructs and operates today. Oleh Antonov's high merit were honored by many awards. Over 30 years Oleh Antonov lived in Kyiv, but memorial places must be more significant and have more architectural expression; in the Museum of NAU students and visitors should be able to see his personal things, paintings, sketches and drawings. As long the heirs have been living this must be done!

Serhiy Pavlovych Korolov (1906–1966) started his life in same year that Antonov in the Zhytomyr region in the family of the teachers. In the age of three years old he lived in Nizhyn, and in 1914 the family moved to Kyiv. He received two diplomas: one in Germany and one at the KPI, as well as diploma at the Odessa professional school. When Serhiy Korolov was 17 years old hereceived a diploma for the project of glider K5. In

1926 Serhiy Korolov entered and later successfully finished the aeromechanical faculty of Bauman Institute (Moscow).He was the student of A. Tupol'ev. Korolov was hard working in the business aircraft building. In1931, he started to work with F. Tsander. In 1937 he became the head of the rocket devices office… and then was sent goto exile in Kolyma. He as the constructor had gone from making of glider aircraft to missiles. He was a world-class organizer. From1946 he was appointed chief designer in NDI KB (Ballistic Missile Institute).

In October, 1957 humanity applauded to the message about the withdrawal to the orbit ofthe Earth artificial satellite by this CB, and in 1961 about Haharin's flight. Korolov was still quite young when hedied in 1966 in Moscow.

II.   Conclusion

Ukraine is proud of itsson, and his merits are marked by descendants: he was buried in the Kremlin walls, his monuments adorn cities, there is his museum in Zhytomyr, many streets and schools were named by his surname. This short essay does not allow adequately and fully describe the depth, talent, global significance, historical heritage and value of Ukrainian world aviation leadersand most accurate expression was phrase from academic Volodymyr Vernadsky's diary: «You , howas for me Ukraine is very native and the Ukrainian revival is as deeply as it gets to my national and own world view... I believe in the future. » (1945).

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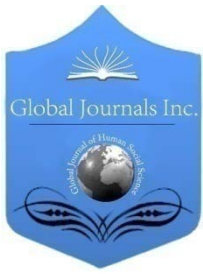
Participation of Uniformed Women in Peacekeeping Missions in Liberia and East Timor

By Ndlovu Sikhulekile & Kurebwa Jeffrey

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Abstract- This study sought to assess uniformed women's participation in United Nations peacekeeping missions with specific reference to Liberia and East Timor. The study was qualitative in nature and a case study research design was used. To achieve its objectives, the study drew nine (9) research participants from uniformed personnel particularly from the Zimbabwe Defence Forces, Zimbabwe Republic Police and Zimbabwe Prisons and Correctional Service who have previously served in United Nations peacekeeping missions in Liberia and East Timor. In addition, two other key informants were drawn from local offices of United Nations Women and Southern African Development Committee Regional Peacekeeping Training Centre. The study found out that despite being a key ingredient for successful operational impact in any peacekeeping mission, the participation of uniformed women in peacekeeping missions was low due to a variety of factors. The study also noted that uniformed women peacekeepers were grappling with a plethora of challenges ranging from language and cultural barriers, low number of female peacekeepers, gender stereotypes to non-family status of most UN peacekeeping missions.

Keywords: participation, uniformed women, peacekeeping missions, gender mainstreaming.

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PARTICIPATIONOFUNIFORMEDWOMENINPEACEKEEPINGMISSIONSINLIBERIAANDEASTTIMOR

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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Keywords: participation, uniformed women, peacekeeping missions, gender mainstreaming.

I. Background of the Study

Since the establishment of the United Nations (UN) in 1945, the practice of peacekeeping has become an increasingly important tool for international interventions (Behr, 2011). Peacekeepers are deployed into war zones, political uprisings, humanitarian crises and natural disasters. According to Boehme (2008) building lasting peace and security requires women's participation hence modern peacekeeping has thus evolved into multidimensional peace operations. Resultantly, the number of female police officers in U.N. peacekeeping missions around the world has also increased. Noteworthy is the passing of the United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 in 2000, which remains, landmark recognition of the significance of gender issues in peacekeeping operations (Vayrynen, 2004). The resolution emphasizes the need to mainstream gender into peacekeeping operations as well as increasing the participation of female personnel in all UN peacekeeping operations. According to Vayrynen (2004), women peacekeepers have proven in all aspects of peacekeeping that they can perform the same roles, to the same standards and under the same difficult conditions, as their male counterparts.

Women have been deployed in all fields of peacekeeping in areas such as police, military, correctional services and civilian components and have made a positive impact on peacekeeping environments, both in supporting the role of women in building peace and protecting women's rights (Boehme, 2008; Odanovic, 2010; Dharmapuri, 2013; Jennings, 2011). Bridges and Horsfall (2009) noted that women peacekeepers have proved to be role models to other women. Women from Timor Leste and Burundi acknowledged that women peacekeepers act as their role models as they inspire them to either join the local police or the military. More interesting is that literature on women and multidimensional peacekeeping missions has found that the inclusion of women in peacekeeping operations brings about numerous benefits which include improved support for the local population, improved behavior of male peacekeepers; expansion of the mission's skills, approaches and perspectives (Boehme, 2008). For instance, the deployment of the first ever all female Indian Formed Police Unit in Liberia in 2007 is touted as having scored remarkable successes.

Protracted intra-state conflicts in Liberia and East Timor were marked by widespread sexual and gender-based violence, which continued in the aftermath of the civil wars and was typically accompanied by impunity for the perpetrators (Kember, 2010). In 2004, a UN report criticised peacekeepers in Liberia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Haiti for the sexual abuse of young women by trading food and money for sex (Bridges and Horsfall, 2009). Top UN officials credited the arrival of women peacekeepers for

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helping improve behaviour among UN peacekeepers. According to Bridges and Horsfall (2009), the perception and reputation of peacekeepers in the field are essential in a peacekeeping mission's outcome. Female peacekeepers are generally well regarded by members of host countries; this is a fundamental advantage. The uniform commands a level of respect and authority; simultaneously, women's presence normalises the force and reinforces the peacemaking agenda of the UN peacekeeping troops.

Despite the crucial role played by women's participation in peacekeeping, the number of women participating in peace operations sadly remains quite low. International efforts also appear to be less significant as women make up barely 2% of UN military positions, 10% of UN police, and are conspicuously rare in senior leadership (McCarthy, 2011). Building lasting peace and security requires women's participation. However, women remain underrepresented in peacekeeping missions. The needs and perspectives of women continue to be overlooked in post-conflict disarmament, demobilisation, and reintegration processes as well as in security sector reform, rehabilitation of justice, and the rule of law (Dharmapuri, 2013). Rebuilding democracy and creating a stable society in war-torn states shall remain elusive if women continue to be under-represented in peace-building processes.

a) *Purpose of the Study*

To assess the role and challenges faced by uniformed women participating in peacekeeping missions in Liberia and East Timor.

b) *Research Design and Methodology*

A case study research design and qualitative methodology were used for this study. The major rationale for using a qualitative approach in this study was to explore the experiences, benefits and challenges of uniformed women peacekeepers particularly in the performance of international assignments of peacekeeping. A qualitative research approach was also considered the most appropriate way to capture experiences and voices of uniformed women, particularly those who have served in peacekeeping missions. In this study, a sample of nine (9) uniformed personnel comprising six (6) women and three (3) men were selected out of the entire population of three hundred and forty-six (346) women who according to the consolidated database at UN Women office in Harare have taken part in various UN peacekeeping missions between 2006 and 2014. Purposive sampling was used to obtain research participants who have previously served in UN peacekeeping missions in either Liberia or East Timor between 2006 and 2014. Key informants were nine (9) uniformed personnel comprising six (6) women and three (3) men who were purposively chosen from the Zimbabwe Defence Forces

(ZDF), Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) and Zimbabwe Prisons and Correctional Services (ZPCS). Two other key informants were local representatives of the SADC RPTC and UN Women in Zimbabwe. The key informants were asked to share experiences and knowledge on their peacekeeping stints in Liberia and East Timor. They were also asked to highlight challenges encountered by uniformed women in peacekeeping as well as giving recommendations on how the participation and role of uniformed women can be enhanced.

II. Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

This study reviewed an array of literature from various authors and scholars relevant to the topic under study. The study elaborates on the concept of peacekeeping, women's role in peacekeeping as well as the role of uniformed women participation in UN peacekeeping missions. Two case studies of previous UN peacekeeping missions in Sierra Leone and Ivory Coast are also discussed.

a) *Feminist Standpoint Theory*

This study was premised on the Feminist Standpoint theory. It postulates that social sciences such as international relations should be practiced from the standpoint of women (Calás and Smircich, 2006). The theory reflects on both the formation of subjectivity and the creation of knowledge (Calás and Smircich, 2006). It also analyses how identities are constructed through social practices, such as work by focusing on inequality, power, and patriarchy (Gherardi, 2003). The experiences of women's everyday life are the starting point (Gherardi, 2003). In doing so, a feminist standpoint is essential in examining the systemic oppressions in a society that standpoint feminist say devalues women's knowledge. This perspective leads to an awareness of societal expectations on gender relations, which interact with organizational rules and practices (Gherardi, 2003). According to Vincent (2003), standpoint feminism claim that theories or practices have been inadequate because they have failed to take into account the standpoint, activities and experiences of women. In order to correct gender blindness, it is necessary to identify a set of experiences, activities as well as patterns of thinking, feeling and acting which can be characterized as female and to make these visible (Vincent, 2003).

Furthermore, organisational structures and dynamics correspond with gender lines in a number of ways. Daily procedures and decisions segregate, manage, control, and construct hierarchies in which gender, class, and race are involved (Calás and Smircich, 2006). At the same time, gender is also a driving force for organisational change (Acker, 1992). The requirements for management positions increasingly include soft skills, which are traditionally

assigned with female attributes, such as empathy, communications skills, and team spirit (Cockburn, 1991). Flexibility and communication skills are valued in today's organisations, the United Nations included. Thus, the claim of standpoint theory that men and women are different but should be equally valued is increasingly recognised (Calás and Smircich, 2006). This is quite valid in the current discussion on contemporary peacekeeping in which the participation of women has increasingly become more important and thus deserves recognition. Stiehm (2001) observes that without women in senior positions in multi-dimensional UN peacekeeping missions, the needs and potential of half of the population is ignored. Gender-balanced uniformed peacekeeping troops, for instance, symbolise a democratic power sharing in security institutions. In this regard, UN peacekeeping units become role models for local police and military services as well as for all political institutions in the host society (Bastick and de Torres, 2010).

Similarly, Tickner (1992) argues that International Relations is gendered to marginalise women's voices and stresses that women have knowledge, perspectives and experiences that should be brought to bear on the study of international relations. For instance, peacekeeping has been for time immemorial been projected in the male perspective and women's contribution largely remaining tokenist. The Standpoint Feminist theory thus challenges those participating and defining the key terms and issues in international relations, by critically asking them if the normative perspectives and working vocabulary are broad enough to effectively accommodate issues affecting women (Tickner, 1992). The Standpoint Feminist theory was no doubt relevant to the current study as it allowed a critical interrogation of male dominated systems obtaining within international politics especially on the international peacekeeping arena where female voices and experiences continue to be miniscule and marginalised.

b) The concept of peacekeeping

Fortna (2008) defines peacekeeping as the deployment of international personnel to maintain peace and security. Thus, peacekeeping attempts to separate the disputing parties and maintain a state of non-violence. Peacekeeping operations are military operations undertaken with the consent of all major parties to a dispute, designed to monitor and facilitate implementation of an agreement (cease fire, truce, or other such agreement) and support diplomatic efforts to reach a long-term political settlement (UN, 2002). Peacekeeping is generally a multilateral activity, and all of these missions involve military personnel, although many include substantial civilian components as well (Fortna, 2008).

A UN Security Council resolution is needed in order to carry out peacekeeping operations and the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) is the operational manager of peacekeeping missions (UN, 2006). Similarly, the Secretary General of the United Nations carries overall responsibility of the operation. United Nations member-states provide the financing, personnel and equipment required for peacekeeping operations (Forsyth, 2005). The functions of peacekeepers are broad and may encompass the observation of a ceasefire, the establishment of a buffer zone and the organisation of elections (UN, 2002).

Since the evolution of peacekeeping in 1946, UN peacekeeping missions have become complex and multidimensional as mandates now require the provision of operational support to national security sector institutions; protection of civilians and critical infrastructure as well as provision of support to reconciliation and reconstruction efforts (Kember, 2010). The composition of modern peacekeeping missions frequently comprise robust military components and a large civilian contingent of specialists in policing, human rights, disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration of combatants, humanitarian assistance, economic development, and institutional reform and reconstruction (UNDPKO, 2002).

i. *United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) 1999-2001*

The conflict in Sierra Leone began in 1991, when the Revolutionary United Front (RUF), a rebel group, invaded the country (Lamp and Trif, 2009). With the Sierra Leonean government too weak to militarily defeat the rebels, the RUF managed to gain control of large parts of the country. It was only in 1995 with the help of Executive Outcomes, a private military company that the Government managed to halt the RUF rebels' advance on Freetown, Sierra Leone's capital (Hirsch, 2001).

The RUF illegally exploited the country's resources, especially diamonds, and committed unconscionable atrocities against the civilian population in the areas under its control. The Government of Sierra Leone signed a peace agreement with the RUF which was called the Lomé Agreement. This peace agreement granted the RUF a blanket amnesty and substantial political power as well as important cabinet posts in the new government. In addition, the Lomé Agreement specifically requested the United Nations to authorise the deployment of a peace-keeping force in Sierra (Lamp and Trif, 2009).

The United Nations Security Council established UNAMSIL through Resolution 1270, of October 22, 1999. The resolution also authorised UNAMSIL to assist parties to the Lomé Agreement in the implementation of the Agreement, in particular, the disarmament of rebels and pro-government paramilitary forces, as well as the planned elections. In February 2000, the Security Council expanded UNAMSIL's tasks to, inter alia,

providing security to key locations in Freetown, while it reaffirmed the mandate to protect civilians (UN, 2001).

In addition, the Council authorised the expansion of UNAMSIL's military component to 11,000 troops, up from the 6,000 authorized in Resolution 1270. In August 2000, the Security Council changed UNAMSIL's mandate and in 2001, UNAMSIL began to venture into RUF-held territory. UNAMSIL further conducted robust patrols into RUF-controlled areas and later permanently deployed to key locations throughout the country, forcing the rebels to dismantle their military positions and disarm in the process (Lamp and Trif, 2009). By January 2002, all rebels had been disarmed and UNAMSIL's mandate was terminated on December 31, 2005 after a successful mission (Hirsch, 2001). Sierra Leone had been returned to civilian rule and the RUF had been vanquished.

ii. *United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI) 2004 – 2005*

Côte d'Ivoire remained de facto split between two spheres of influence by early 2006 with the south held by government forces loyal to President Laurent Gbagbo and the north, conquered and administered by the Forces Nouvelles rebels (Lamp and Trif, 2009). To the astonishment of neighbouring countries and the international community, these decades of prosperity were replaced by a cycle of violence, human rights abuses, successful or failed coup d'état(s), and a general descent into ethnic and religious divides.

In response to the growing demand for UN involvement and recognising the volatile situation in Côte d'Ivoire, on February 27, 2004 the Security Council established the United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI) through UNSC Resolution 1528, starting from April 4, 2004 (UN, 2004). UNOCI's authorized military strength amounted to 6,240 personnel, including military observers, staff officers and up to 350 civilian police officers. The mission was mandated to protect civilians under imminent threat of physical violence, within its capabilities and its areas of deployment (Hirsch, 2001). The Resolution also provided for the coordination of UN forces with the French Licorne soldiers (approximately 4,000 troops) and requested the latter to offer full support to UNOCI particularly with respect to security issues within the areas of activity and military interventions either in support of the mission, or against belligerent actions outside its scope (UN, 2004).

Despite the deployment of peacekeepers, the situation in Côte d'Ivoire further deteriorated, straining UNOCI's resources and flatly revealing the mission's incapacity to ensure the safety of civilians within the boundaries of its deployment area (Bullion, 2001). On March 25, 2004 in Abidjan there was a crackdown by state security forces on an opposition-led demonstration which resulted in at least 120 people killed, 274 wounded and disappeared (Hirsch, 2001). After two days of social unrest, with the help of international mediators such as ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States), the African Union and the UN Secretary-General the tension was diffused and the parties returned once again to the negotiation table. Due to multiple tasks and limited personnel UNOCI had limited potential for regular patrols, a factor which increased the vulnerability of Ivorians living within the buffer zone. Overall, UNOCI was effective in fulfilling its mandate (Lamp and Trif, 2009).

c) *Gender Mainstreaming in UN Peace Operations*

Gender mainstreaming refers to the process of assessing the implications for men and women in any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels (UN, 2000). It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated (UN, 2002). Mainstreaming gender is therefore about achieving gender equality.

Integrating gender perspective into UN peace support operations relies on international humanitarian and human rights law, as well as other UN instruments that provide the foundation, rationale and international standards for gender mainstreaming (Olsson and Tryggestad, 2001). The Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 and the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (DEVAW) made in 1993 provide internationally recognized standards that can be used to legally define violence and discrimination against women. In 2001, the United Nations Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security. The central goal of 1325 was to ensure that the contributions, needs, and priorities of men and women would be taken into account in the planning and implementation of peacekeeping operations- in a manner that creates greater equality and access to resources and benefits for all (UN, 2001).

Women's active participation in peace processes was seen as imperative to achieving international peace and security hence Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security sets clear standards for integrating gender perspectives into peace operations (Odanovic, 2010). The resolution reaffirms the 'important role of women in the prevention and resolution of conflicts and in peace-building', and stresses the 'importance of their equal participation and full involvement in all efforts for the maintenance and promotion of peace and security, and the need to increase their role in decision-making with regard to conflict prevention and resolution' (UN, 2001).

Resolution 1325 is a step in a chain of attempts to mainstream gender in the UN discourse on peace operations. Since 2000, five additional resolutions (1325, 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960 and 2122) have been adopted creating what is known as the UN Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Framework. Together, they form the basis for advocacy, education, reform and capacity building on gender equality and women's rights, as they relate to peace and security operations (Lamp and Trif, 2009).

i. *The Role of Women in Peacekeeping Missions*

Analysis of the role of women in peacekeeping and peace-building processes is particularly scant as sex-disaggregated data in many cases has only recently begun to be collected (Kember, 2010). However, the United Nations Secretary General's Report (2002) outlines women's roles and functions in peace and security related processes and activities as among others:

i. The importance of women participating in the design, writing and inception of mandates. The absence of women during this process increases the possibility of their absence during the implementation of the mandate. This should start at national level if we want it to succeed in the international arena.

ii. The role of female civilian police officers is vital ensuring that security needs for women are addressed properly. The participation of female police in the establishment and training of new police forces such as East Timor sets a critical example to the local population.

iii. Female public information officers collect, analyse and disseminate information that is gender balanced and that addresses the information needs of women.

iv. Women in uniform are in a better position than civilian women to gain access to military resources needed to establish refugee camps, provide logistic support and liaise with their civilian counterparts during complex humanitarian crises. More women should therefore be included in all peace/humanitarian and disaster relief exercises and activities.

v. Women legal officers should be included in the development of constitutional and legislative reform.

vi. Women peacekeepers should participate in the total disarmament programme. The safekeeping of weapons and armaments is often one of the most important tasks left to women in conflict situations.

vii. The identification and registration of women and girl combatants should be eased when women peacekeepers are involved.

viii. Women should take the lead in the design and implementation of Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR) programmes to address the specific needs of female ex-combatants.

ix. Female officers play a critical role in providing women's groups and networks with the necessary liaison and communication links to the formal military structures.

Key to the role of women in peacekeeping was further buttressed by the passage in 2000 of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security (Dharmapuri, 2013). Among its provisions are calls for increased representation of women at all decision-making levels in institutions addressing conflict; expansion of the contribution of women in United Nations peacekeeping operations, especially among military observers, civilian police, human rights and humanitarian personnel; the incorporation of a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations; and special measures to protect women and girls from gender-based violence, particularly rape and other forms of sexual abuse (UN, 2000).

In her study on the women's participation in peacekeeping, Kember (2010) noted that the inclusion of women in peacekeeping operations brings about an array of operational benefits. As a result of active participation of women in peacekeeping there is improved support for the local population, improved behavior of male peacekeepers; expansion of the mission's skills, approaches and perspectives. McCarthy (2011) also concurred with this assertion by pointing out that the significant presence of female peacekeepers has the potential to mobilize host country women to increase participation in political processes. Other benefits include enhanced information-gathering capacity; increased attention to women's and children's security; modelling of gender equality; and even a reduction in conflict (Hudson, 2000).

In 2003, Ministers of the Council of Europe's Steering Committee for Equality between Women and Men agreed that rebuilding democracy and creating a stable society in war-torn states is not possible if women are omitted from the peace building processes (Bridges and Horsfall, 2009). In addition to reducing negative aspects of UN peacekeeping, a critical mass of female personnel has the potential to promote a more tolerant, non-violent, political culture in war-torn areas (Pupavac, 2005).

d) *Benefits of Uniformed Women's Participation in UN Peacekeeping Missions*

The increased participation of women in peacekeeping operations has numerous benefits which include:

i. *High levels of discipline among peacekeepers*

It has been observed that participation of women in the peacekeeping operations contributes to a higher level of discipline among the male staff members of the mission and decrease in number of cases of sexual exploitation and abuse of women in which the members of the peace keeping missions are involved

(Bridges and Horsfall, 2009). By having a civilising effect on their male colleagues, women's presence ensures a better-behaved, less-corrupt and less-abusive PKO. Furthermore, with regard to the problem of sexual exploitation or abuse committed by UN personnel, women are less likely to be perpetrators, thus lowering the overall level of sexual exploitation or abuse committed (Marks and Denham, 2006).

ii. *Intelligence Gathering*

Through direct contact with their local community, women have an opportunity to gather information indicating growing tensions and potential for conflict outbreak, and local women's organizations often appear as mediators between the parties in war, the Government and the United Nations (UN, 2002). Bearing in mind that women establish contacts among themselves more easily, participation of women in peacekeeping operations facilitates establishment of contacts and cooperation with the women in local community, which allows for the opportunity to obtain the information otherwise unavailable to male staff members of the peacekeeping missions.

iii. *Enhanced operational effectiveness*

In addition to serving the goal of gender balance, increasing the number of women in peacekeeping operations has been shown to have positive operational impact. Security is measured by the ability of a population to be mobile, to have access to resources and infrastructure, and to be free from physical violence. The primary task of peacekeepers is to contribute to that security. Data from a 2010 DPKO-sponsored study on women peacekeepers based at the U.N. Mission to Liberia (UNMIL) shows empirical evidence that mainstreaming women in peacekeeping roles can have an impact on security for the population (Kraus, Enholm and Bowen, 2011).

In the cultures in which the physical contact between men and women is forbidden, the tasks such as body search of women and search of premises where women stay would be much more difficult if they are not entrusted with female staff members. Similar problem occurs with provision of medical help to women. It is often not allowed to attend to women unless there are female doctors in the medical team (UN, 2006). The all-women Indian FPU also set up Women and Child Protection Units (WCPUs), highly accessible and secure police stations across the country, staffed with female police (Kraus, Enholm and Bowen, 2011). By working alongside local women, female peacekeepers serve as resource for building the capacity of the community to sustain national security structures and also emphasize transparency and inclusivity for those structures.

iv. *Greater trust and Protection*

Participation of uniformed women in peacekeeping operations contributes to a greater trust in the mission, not only among the local women but also men. When contacting with the local population female mission members often show greater level of understanding for local cultural and religious peculiarities and they are more successful in establishing dialogue, which encourages trust and cooperation of the local population with the peacekeeping mission staff (Odanovic, 2010). Peace Keeping Operations with more women peacekeepers are able to protect citizens, especially women and children, because women peacekeepers bring a greater awareness of and sensitivity to their particular needs and challenges, and because women peacekeepers are less intimidating or provocative than men peacekeepers (Jennings, 2011).

v. *Inspiration and Role Models*

The presence of women peacekeepers "inspires more women to join their local police services (Marks and Denham, 2006). As national police and military institutions evolve to include more women, they can gain credibility. Women peacekeepers in Liberia lead recruitment of women for the National Police which boasts of almost 20% women (Dharmapuri, 2011). The presence of women in evolving security structures enhances overall national stability in the transition to peace. Women peacekeepers become role models for local women in challenging social and cultural context, both within and outside of the security sector. Having female and male peacekeepers working side-by-side can be catalytic in breaking down traditional views that discriminate and marginalize women (Giraud, 2004). By giving an example to the local community that women can be successful in police, military or other tasks within the peacekeeping operation, it is possible to have an indirect impact on the local population's gender based stereotypes of social roles of women (Kraus, Enholm and Bowen, 2011).

vi. *Sensitivity to the host nation*

Female staff members of the peacekeeping operations are more sensitive to the needs and problems that women in local communities are facing, therefore the women and the girls who had been exposed to sexual and physical violence are more likely to report these cases to the female personnel of the mission (Marks and Denham, 2006). Liberian President Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf has asserted that women bring extra sensitivity and more caring to the security sector, these are the characteristics that come from being a mother, taking care of a family, being concerned about children, managing the home (Kember, 2010). By creating the atmosphere in which the women are unafraid to speak openly about the problems they are facing, especially about sexual violence, the feeling of increased security is created among the local population, particularly among the women and children. Women peacekeepers ensure a more compassionate or

empathetic response to victimised women and children, especially those that have been sexually assaulted; it is often claimed that it is "easier" for a raped woman to talk to another woman about her assault (Norville, 2011).

vii. *Acceptance of UN's Presence*

The presence of female peacekeepers can increase local communities' acceptance of a UN force. For example, a study based on the missions in Namibia, South Africa, and Rwanda found that in all of these operations, women police peacekeepers were seen by locals as less threatening, more willing to listen and soldiers can often access and interview more elements of a local population, that is, the women, boys, and girls, especially in cultural contexts that are conservative and do not allow men outside the local community to interact with the community's women (Kraus, Enholm and Bowen, 2011). This increased access to the population by and better able to diffuse potentially violent situations (Kember, 2010). Force acceptance and improved communication with the local population are vital to addressing the problem of sexual violence in conflict. Local women are also more likely to report incidents of sexual violence to female officers (Jennings, 2011).

e) The role of uniformed women in peacekeeping

Uniformed women peacekeepers that were deployed to the two missions of Liberia and East Timor highlighted that their competences and skills were very handy especially in dealing with issues involving vulnerable groups such as women and children. In addition, uniformed women peacekeepers also assisted a great deal in the arrest of female offenders as well as in the management of female inmates in prisons and correctional facilities.

A female police Superintendent who served in East Timor who was a Community Policing Advisor highlighted that her duties involved training and advising the local police. Despite being deployed in a remote district of Manufahi in East Timor, she assisted the local police (National Police of Timor Leste) cultivate good relations with the public through series of meetings with local traditional and religious leaders (Suco Chiefs). The Superintendent was also involved in the UN Police/ National Police co-location programme whereby the UN Police worked together with local police monitoring how they performed police duties. She said,

"During my tour of duty the few female officers in the mission area demonstrated strong ability and also proved competencies to effectively and efficiently execute responsibilities on international peacekeeping assignments."

Another female police peacekeeper (Inspector) from East Timor pointed out that she was elevated to a higher position after just serving for two months. She was later deployed in the Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding Department and was part of the UN Team that carried out evaluation of the Joint Development Plan (JDP) of the East Timor National Police. The JDP was aimed at assessing the National Police's progress towards resumption of full police duties without the assistance of the UN Police. This role was quite demanding and involved intense travelling across East Timor, writing progress and evaluation reports. The police Inspector further stated that,

"Due to my exceptional performance, I was rewarded by getting an extension of my tour of duty by an additional six months from the initial one year. By the way, UN peacekeeping missions are reluctant to give extensions hence are given in exceptional cases."

A female correctional peacekeeper (Principal Prison Officer from Zimbabwe) who was deployed in Liberia also acknowledged the important role played by uniformed women in peacekeeping missions. She pointed out that,

"Uniformed women like me were also being assigned guard and patrols duties among many other operational tasks our male counterparts were undertaking during the co-location phase with the local prisons authorities in the mission area."

A key informant from the UN Women highlighted that uniformed women were much better in terms of emotional intelligence and empathy thus were not aggressive but rather more willing to negotiate. She further pointed out that in matters of sexual violence, uniformed women peacekeepers provided a better alternative to men in many respects, for example, survivors of rape or sexual assault are more comfortable to share their ordeal with women peacekeepers than male. She also underscored the fact that given the motherly nature of women, most uniformed peacekeepers were better positioned to understand problems affecting the elderly and children, even beyond what the survivors express in words because they are used to handling such cases back home.

The above findings are in congruent with a study by Kember (2010) who noted that uniformed female peacekeepers have proven that they can perform the same roles, to the same standards and under the same difficult conditions, as their male counterparts. Kember (2010) also established that uniformed women peacekeepers deployed in areas such as police, military, correctional services and civilian have made a positive impact on peacekeeping environments, both in supporting the role of women in building peace and protecting women's rights. Vayrynen (2004) further buttresses the above findings by asserting that uniformed women peacekeepers have a comparative operational advantage in sensitive situations such as female body searches, working with women's prisons, providing escorts for victims and witnesses of sexual violence, and screening of female combatants at disarmament, demobilisation, and reintegration sites.

This view is also shared by Bridges and Horsfall (2009) who observed that female police and soldiers often access and interview more elements of a local population, that is, women, boys, and girls, especially in cultural contexts that are conservative and do not allow men outside the local community to interact with women. This increased access to the population by female officers expands the ability of peacekeepers to gather comprehensive information that can contribute to overall mission effectiveness.

The Commissioner General of the Zimbabwe Republic Police also echoed similar sentiments in a speech made at a welcoming ceremony for returning police peacekeepers contingent from Liberia (The Herald, Zimbabwe, 27 April 2016). The article highlighted that the Commissioner General of the Zimbabwe Republic Police said,

> "I would want to applaud the returning female officers who like their predecessors, have been faithful stewards of the organisation's distinguished professional record. The outpouring of commendations from the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations [UNDPKO] with regards to the outstanding and sterling work done is quite commendable indeed."

The Police Chief went on to commend women police peacekeepers for their focused commitment, diligence and integrity as they had managed to decisively assert themselves on the demanding international arena and also exhibiting undoubted professionalism. Commissioner General of the Zimbabwe Republic Police's remarks further buttressed the competency of women as he stated that,

> As a matter of record, one of our female officers Assistant Commissioners, recently took up the post of Police Commissioner for Darfur on 14 March 2016. The appointment of the senior officer adds to the roll of honour of other female senior officers who have previously distinguished themselves on these high level competitive appointments, among whom was another Senior Assistant Commissioner who successfully executed her mandate as Operations Strategic Coordinator for the United Nations Mission in Liberia. (The Herald, Zimbabwe, 27 April 2016)

f) *Selection criteria of uniformed women as peacekeepers*

All the nine peacekeepers interviewed during this study pointed out that selection for UN mission was based on an individual's length of service and good performance. In the two UN mission areas of East Timor and Liberia, deployment to various posts was based on an individual's work and academic profile. In addition to the academic profile, job interviews were also conducted to ascertain a candidate's competence to hold the post. Six (6) of the peacekeepers interviewed

served for one year six months each while the other three (3) peacekeepers who had long term contracts served between two to four years. The above views are in sync with various requirements set by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations when calling for peacekeeping personnel from troop contributing countries. The DPKO requirements outline skill sets and experts' profiles for all UN peacekeeping components in field missions (DPKO, 2002).

g) *Challenges affecting uniformed women in participating in peacekeeping missions*

  i. *Few women in peacekeeping missions*

All the ten peacekeepers acknowledged that during their various tours of duty there were few women in the mission. This resulted in the few numbers being deployed to a few districts and units. For instance, a female police Superintendent who served in East Timor said,

> "Out of more than thirty (30) UN Police officers in the district we were only three women. We were forced to play football with men as there were no other females to interact with."

This view is similar to earlier findings by Bridges and Horsfall (2009) who noted that the most obvious gap in recruitment for UN peacekeeping is the lack of women. The United Nations Police Division believes that police and correctional services should represent the societies they serve given the significant role they play in their communities. Women's participation in police and correctional peacekeeping empowers the communities in restoring peace and security and in reconstructing not only their police services, but also their societies.

  ii. *Gender Discrimination*

The uniformed police peacekeeper (Inspector who served in East Timor) highlighted that the other challenge she encountered was gender discrimination, which in some instances had racial undertones. According to her, at times this was quite evident in the poor distribution of resources. She stated that,

> "The vehicle that I was given was unreliable and constantly broke down. Male counterparts in my unit were not willing to exchange vehicles hence I always had mobility challenges unless when assisted by one of my fellow countrymen from a different unit. This made life a bit difficult because in a conflict state we (as peacekeepers) were supposed to be mobile most of the time"

This view is consistent with the findings of a research study on Enhancing the Operational Impact of Peacekeeping Operations by UN which acknowledged that barriers impacting on the participation of women in peacekeeping operations include gender discrimination. This is largely based on the societal prejudice and stereotypes that women do not have required psychological and physical abilities to perform

successfully in the peacekeeping operations (UN, 2006). Due to entrenched patriarchal systems, some sections of society have a negative perception of women as they regard them as weak and unfit for uniformed services duties such as military and police. There is need to continue educating members of the society especially conflict ridden states in order to remove gender stereotypes so that women are also viewed as equals (UN, 2006).

iii. *Lack of acceptance by male peacekeepers*

The other challenges which uniformed women peacekeepers encountered were lack of acceptance by male counterparts especially when women are in positions of authority. Some of female research participants noted that a few male peacekeepers always tried to make things difficult either by failing to execute tasks as directed simply because the instructions are coming from women. Another female defence forces peacekeeper (Fight Lieutenant who served in Liberia) bemoaned that,

"In some instances, as uniformed women, they were victims of sexual harassment although it is usually done in a subtle way thus making it difficult to report or bring to the attention of authorities."

The above observation is in congruency with the perception that socialization processes and belief systems are some of the barriers that continue to influence adherence to gender-specific stereotypes. In addition, cultural resistance within military and police institutions and in society as a whole remains a major barrier to instituting gender equality (Norville, 2011). The UN Secretary General also acknowledged that women were also being unfairly treated in some peacekeeping missions on the grounds that they should not work in dangerous situations, while on the other hand, some host countries do not readily accept women in decision-making positions (UN, 2002).

iv. *Language Barrier*

Most uniformed women peacekeepers that served in East Timor highlighted that language was a barrier especially given that some locals (Timorese) who were assigned as Language Assistants (LAs) for UN peacekeepers had difficulties communicating in English. Furthermore, some of the male LAs were not comfortable assisting female UN Police due to cultural stereotypes hence, the relationship tended to be constrained. On the other hand, due to the diverse background of personnel in the peacekeeping mission in Liberia, research participants noted that language was one of the major barriers as some of the peacekeepers had difficulties in expressing themselves in English which is the official language for United Nations. De-Groot (2008), observed the impact of language barrier in peacekeeping missions. He observed that language and communication are most obvious challenges in any activity drawing together

hundreds of people from countries with different languages and cultural frames of reference especially deployed alongside national counterparts to build sustainable peace through strengthening host countries' institutions and organizations (De-Groot, 2008).

v. *Marital Challenges*

Some of the uniformed women police peacekeepers from Liberia said,

"That some of their female colleagues encountered instances where the UN would extend tours of duty due to good performance and demand for their skills. However, spouses of the uniformed women peacekeepers back home did not approve of such developments hence culminated in the contracts being terminated."

Another uniformed women peacekeeper (a Chief Superintendent) who also served in Liberia, highlighted that,

"One of the challenges we encounter as women peacekeepers is that most UN missions are non-family duty stations. This is maybe because of the ongoing conflicts hence as peacekeepers we are not allowed to bring our family members or to fall pregnant during tour of duty. You see this affects many women peacekeepers especially when they are deployed for long periods of two – four year contracts. I hope the United Nations might review such policies in future."

Kember (2010) buttresses the above viewpoint by asserting that many UN peacekeeping missions are non-family duty stations. This means that peacekeepers are not allowed to travel to the peacekeeping mission with their families. As a result, family and personal relations tend to suffer. It is also true that more uniformed women than men may self-select against particular jobs and types of operations based on their familial responsibilities to dependants (UN, 2002).

h) *Measures to increase participation of uniformed women in peacekeeping missions*

i. *Sustained recruitment of women into national security services institutions*

Two uniformed women police peacekeepers who served in East Timor highlighted the need for sustained recruitment of women into national institutions such as military, police and prisons and correctional services in order to increase the pool for subsequent deployments to peacekeeping duties. One uniformed police peacekeeper (Superintendent) from East Timor stated that,

"There is need to ensure that for every UN deployment, a 50/50 gender balance is observed among all contributing countries. This will allow more women to be deployed in peacekeeping missions and also give them the opportunity to fully

demonstrate their competences in the mission area."

Another uniformed police peacekeeper (Inspector who served in East Timor) suggested that,

"Countries contributing peacekeepers to the United Nations should put in place policies that ensure that there is gender balance which should be adhered to whenever there is selection and deployment of peacekeepers."

The key informant from UN Women pointed out that,

"In response to the global and regional calls for increasing the number of women in peacekeeping operations in line with UNSCR1325, the UN and member states are giving priority to female peacekeepers in the uniformed forces to take part in peacekeeping operations. As such the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations has set the benchmark for female peacekeepers in each country to be 20% as a measure to ensure that women are systematically integrated in peacekeeping operations. However, because of the gender positive measures used in recruiting peacekeepers, some countries, for example Zimbabwe have surpassed the DPKO's baseline, and Zimbabwe is the highest provider of female peacekeepers at 35%."

The above recommendations are similar to findings in a UN (2006) Report on Enhancing Gender Balance in Peacekeeping which acknowledged that besides serving the goal of gender balance, increasing the number of women in peacekeeping operations has shown to have positive operational impact. It is therefore of paramount importance that the United Nations continues to vigorously appeal to contributing countries to send more uniformed women to serve in peacekeeping operations in order to enhance gender balance.

ii. *Enhancing safety and security for peacekeepers during deployment*

Safety and security issues are critical and often have detrimental effects on force generation and recruitment of peacekeepers. A uniformed woman police peacekeeper (a Superintendent who served in Liberia) said,

"The UN should ensure that there is reduction in the number of casualties among peacekeepers by putting in place sound safety and security mechanisms that enhance the protection of peacekeepers in conflict zones.

The above assertion is in sync with the views of Dharmapuri (2013) who pointed out that UN peacekeeping missions by nature are established in complex and insecure environments which have a potential of rapidly deteriorating and where threats are likely to evolve. She further observed that contributing countries do not usually have a direct national interest in the ongoing conflict into which their personnel are deployed resulting in a very limited appetite for any casualties. Security risk thus remains a key factor in the reluctance of many countries to contribute forces to UN operations. The risk of loss and the perceived inability of the UN to mitigate such risks constrain generation and sustainability of troop contributing countries deploying peacekeepers (Odanovic, 2010). However, in the literature review, it was noted that Kember (2010) stated that female peacekeepers tend to be deployed to the safest missions and not to places where the security situation is most fragile such as Darfur, Syria, Iraq, among others. She further pointed out that countries willing to deploy female troops and police send them to more economically developed places or in missions with fewer peacekeeper deaths.

iii. *Conducting robust pre-deployment peacekeeping training*

A key informant from the SADC RPTC said,

"Given that some contributing countries continue to lack the capacity to prepare their uniformed personnel in a self-sustaining manner for peacekeeping duties, there is critical need for troop contributing countries to undertake robust pre-deployment training. It is important to realize that pre-deployment training enhances competencies of peacekeepers including gender perspectives, which are key to their work in UN peacekeeping missions. Pre-deployment training also assists uniformed personnel to understand what gender mainstreaming means and its role in every activity of a peacekeeping operation."

The above recommendation is consistent with the observations made by the UN DPKO, which noted that one emerging challenge for UN member states identifying and nominating officers to UN missions, is that of providing adequate training for staff (UN DPKO, 2012). Similarly, Kember (2010) underscores the fact that pre-deployment training should also play a key role in instilling confidence in uniformed women peacekeepers to act as role models in the peacekeeping missions.

III. Conclusions

In view of the research findings, the study draws some conclusions. The participation of uniformed women in peacekeeping missions has been recognised as a key ingredient for the successful operational impact of any peacekeeping mission. The study established that uniformed women peacekeepers deployed in areas such as police, military and correctional services civilian were making a huge impact in peacekeeping environments, both in supporting the role of women in building peace and protecting women's rights. The findings from this study and the review of related

literature have also demonstrated that peacekeeping missions that have been successful in the past have had close to equal numbers of males and females participating. Studies undertaken by the United Nations on peacekeeping operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cambodia, El Salvador, Kosovo, Namibia, and South Africa to analyze in-depth case studies of the involvement of women noted that female service personnel provide roles in host nations that males cannot provide (Bridges and Horsfall, 2009).

The advantages of the uniformed women's participation in peacekeeping operations are numerous, and at the same time, vital for the establishment of sustainable peace and stability in conflict zones. This study has shown that women in states of conflict confide in uniformed female peacekeepers and are understood better by them. When at least 30 percent of peacekeepers are female, local women become more involved in the peace process. Further investigations into women's roles revealed that female service personnel are able to work with women and children who have endured conflicts with gender-based violence as well as those who have been victims of rape and sexual exploitation.

IV. Recommendations

This study recommends that:

i. There is a greater need for UN contributing countries to robustly strengthen the recruitment of more women into national institutions such as military, police and prisons and correctional service in order to increase the pool for subsequent deployment to peacekeeping duties.

ii. There is need for UN contributing countries to enhance capacity building of uniformed women so that they compete equally with their male counterparts for senior and decision making posts in UN missions.

iii. There is need for the United Nations to review some of its policies on the non-family status especially on uniformed peacekeepers. This will reduce the negative impact caused by the prolonged absence of peacekeepers away from their families.

iv. The United Nations and its member countries should provide financial and logistical support for mentoring programmes within troop contributing countries that send mixed or all-women units into peacekeeping missions so that the experiences of returning women peacekeepers may be properly utilised.

v. The United Nations should promote the involvement of women in peacekeeping operations more by emphasising the contributions of uniformed women, which would motivate a larger number of women to participate in peacekeeping operations. At the same time, UN member states should work on continuous affirmation of gender equality through creating conditions for genuine equality and equal opportunities for women and men.

vi. Uniformed women peacekeepers should impart their peacekeeping knowledge and mentoring skills in their respective women associations and networks in order to encourage others.

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Addressing Knowledge Gaps among Nurses in Health Care in Tanzania: Use of Mlearning Platforms in Tanzania

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Abstract- Penetration of ICT in the health system has received due attention. Globally, penetration of smart phones has fueled health systems to use it in bridging information gaps among Health Care workers. This paper presents the end-line evaluation findings conducted in 2015 to measure the "reaction" and "learning" among the Nurse-Midwives who benefited from the Jibu mLearning project under Amref Health Africa Tanzania. The study used Kirkpatrick model for levels 1 and 2 that aimed at assessing the perception and degree of learning among Nurses at work and nurses in school who were using mLearning platform. The study used case and cross-sectional design with a mix of data collection methods such as self-administered interview, telephone interviews, and documentary review. The study sites included six regions namely Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Mtwara, Mbeya and Dodoma. The regions and sites were selected based on geographical disparity and diversity of users.

Keywords: mlearning, innovation, amref, kirkpatrick model, nurse midwives, sexual and reproductive health and rights.

GJHSS-H Classification: FOR Code: 920506

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Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

Addressing Knowledge Gaps among Nurses in Health Care in Tanzania: Use of Mlearning Platforms in Tanzania

David Urassa [α], Pius Chaya [σ] & Joseph Pilot [ρ]

Abstract- Penetration of ICT in the health system has received due attention. Globally, penetration of smart phones has fueled health systems to use it in bridging information gaps among Health Care workers. This paper presents the end-line evaluation findings conducted in 2015 to measure the "reaction" and "learning" among the Nurse-Midwives who benefited from the Jibu mLearning project under Amref Health Africa Tanzania. The study used Kirkpatrick model for levels 1 and 2 that aimed at assessing the perception and degree of learning among Nurses at work and nurses in school who were using mLearning platform. The study used case and cross- sectional design with a mix of data collection methods such as self-administered interview, telephone interviews, and documentary review. The study sites included six regions namely Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Mtwara, Mbeya and Dodoma. The regions and sites were selected based on geographical disparity and diversity of users. The units of inquiry comprised of 45 active users, 67 dormant users, nine training of Trainees (ToT), nine coordinators, 190 mentors, 45 tutors, 345 district nursing officers, nine school principals and, 9 IT officers. At the regional level, multi -stage random sampling was used to select districts, health facilities, and schools. The study contacted 428 trained users and who had registered in 21 sites in six regions of Mtwara, Dar es Salaam, Mbeya, Dodoma, Tanga, and Kilimanjaro. Out of the 428 users, there were 108 active users and 320 dormant users. There was a clear agreement that the program was relevant, useful, and it has made significant achievements. Most of the respondents figure out mlearning as a well-designed platform to facilitate easy access to learning materials, make learning and teaching more interesting, encourage more interaction in learning and enhance self-direct learning. mLearning platform for nurses in school and those out of school proved to be successful regarding increasing access to Sexual and reproductive health, and right information. However, limited ownership of mobile phones and capacity to use the existing platforms call for revamping the mhealth governance system in Tanzania.

Keywords: *mlearning, innovation, amref, kirkpatrick model, nurse midwives, sexual and reproductive health and rights.*

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I. Introduction

The growth of mobile health (mHealth) has triggered the utilization of mobile learning (mLearning) as a cost- effective tool to increase healthcare providers' access to medical information and resources, especially in resource-limited settings(Chang et al. 2011; Zolfo et al. 2010). There are serious challenges related to transfer of health- related information and training among African medical teams, and this has been associated with a suboptimal delivery of healthcare to a substantial portion of the world's population (Pakenham-Walsh et al. 2009). There is no doubt now that mobile devices and wireless networks allow resource-limited countries like Tanzania to implement capacity building programs by circumventing low bandwidth and substandard computer resources.

Human Resources for Health (HRH) is one of the most key components of any health system. Most countries like Tanzania suffer acute shortages, and the available health workers are not adequately utilized to provide quality health services. Though there have been significant efforts by the ministry of health and development partners as well as NGOs, yet utilization of health workers remain a critical challenge in serving special population groups.

Nurses and midwives provide the majority of primary care, maternal care, and emergency obstetric care in Tanzania. Nurses and midwives are considered an essential part of the healthcare workforce in sub-Saharan Africa; particularly for delivering health outcomes in rural settings. Enhancing the ability of nurses and midwives to deliver quality services to their clients remains a critical priority issue for governments and many stakeholders in the health sector. Nurses and midwives are required to be adequately prepared to deal with specific health care needs of their clients and adolescent in particular.

Health management systems have shown to improve the quality and efficiency of healthcare provision. Additionally, well designed Health Information System(HIS) allow nurses and midwives to work as knowledgeable workers. The knowledgeable worker role has been found to increase nurses' feelings of autonomy and accountability, which has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Selection of the appropriate

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technology and thoughtful design is critical to the success of any implementation.

An emerging area of HIS is mobile health, or mHealth, which is means the use of mobile technology, such as cellular phones, wireless devices, or radio frequency identification tags, for healthcare or health services. Precisely, m-Learning is learning through mobile devices such as smart phones etc, while eLearning is learning through electronic devices such as laptops etc.

In Tanzania, the adoption of m-health for nurses and midwives has been rare despite the fact that there are national guidelines and strategies to enforce it. The government has recently introduced m-health among the clinical officer cadre, and this is still under the pilot phase. The mLearning project, dubbed Jibu, implemented by Amref Health Africa Tanzania (May 2014-April 2015) aimed to provide nurses and midwives with access to sexual and reproductive health and rights information, through using their mobile phones. This paper aims to provide some perception of the users of the mhealth platform in Tanzania.

II. Methodology

a) Study Sites

This study took place in six project sites of Amref in the following regions: Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Mtwara, Mbeya and Dodoma. The selection of these regions and study sites based on geographical disparity and diversity of users. The unit of inquiry comprised of active users, dormant users, Trainers of Trainees (ToTs), coordinators, mentors, tutors, district nursing officers, school principal, and IT officers. Also, the active and dormant users involved nursing students and nurses at work.

b) Study design and sampling procedure

The study used a case design. It also used Multi stage random sampling to select districts, health facilities and schools. We used Simple random sampling to select respondents from the list of active and dormant users of m-Learning. Researchers used Purposive sampling to obtain respondents (beneficiaries) from health facilities and nursing schools. The selection of two districts from each region based on geographical disparity i.e. one urban and one rural. We decided to include all health facilities from the selected districts. The study collected quantitative data from from project beneficiaries [both active and dormant users] of m-learning. The researchers administered Self-administered questionnaires to a total of 108 active users and 320 dormant users. The study interviewed a total of 21 key informants comprising m-learning coordinators, mentors, Information Technologist (IT), tutors, Training of Trainees, District Nursing Officer, and school Principals. Out of 21 informants 12 were female

and 8 were males. The study reached a total of 885 respondents.

c) Data Collection Process and Analysis

Data collection took place using open and closed ended questionnaires and interviews guide. The researcher designed a questionnaire to capture information regarding **reaction** and *learning* from m-Learning active and dormant users. Questions meant to capture respondent's general views and opinions about specific and general aspects of the project. Questionnaire/ Score-chats captured information regarding program impact/ outcome, achievements and effectiveness. Interview guide was developed to capture information regarding program impact, achievement, effectiveness, lessons learned, cost effectiveness and efficiency as well as recommendations. The researcher used interview guide to collect data from Trainers of Trainees (TOTs), Coordinators, Mentors, District Nursing Officers, school principals and IT officers. We also used Telephone interviews to respondents whom during data collection were not found in the study sites. The transcribing of Qualitative data took place in the field using framework analysis using Atlas.Ti version 7 computer software. We used SPSS software to analyze data from individual questionnaires.

III. Findings and Discussion

a) Awareness creation and Ability to Own a Mobile Phone for learning

Awareness creation in learning has been instrumental to stimulate uptake of the platform among different users. Stakeholders including the District health managers as well as the users of the platform were well informed about the platform. The project team conducted introduction sessions as well as sensitization meetings with nurses on m-learning before embarking on the training program and use of the platform. The study involved stakeholders from Ministry of Health and regional as well as district level from the inception and during the implementation of the program. For example one of the District Nursing officers pointed out that *"I am very aware; I was involved since the baseline, introduction, content development, training, and making follow up. Moreover, I am using the platform to remind myself of important topics and during my work as a supervis*or*"*.

Participation to m-learning platform was determined by the ability to own a mobile phone. One of the determinants for owning mobile phone was income. In this evaluation- income was crossed with the type of a mobile phone owned by target group members for m-learning. As indicated in Table 1, most of the users with smart phone were those with less income and most of them were students. Most of the dormant users seemed to be willing and ready to use the platform but some were affected by several factors such as lack of mobile

phone, lack of appropriate mobile phones for program, not received the password, failures of some passwords and inadequate technical support. The readiness of the target group members to use the platform was supported by their experience in using other platforms for learning. Some of the platforms used by some of the target group members were: google, MEDSCAPE, youtube, Whatsapp, adobe reader and students' psychiatric dictionary, just to mention a few. In addition, regarding affordability, in this evaluation- income was crossed with the type of mobile phones owned by target group members for m-learning.

Evidence suggests that for the nurses who were using the platform, most of them had smart phones and some had normal phones that can access internet, and therefore appropriate to be used for m-learning. As one of the key factors, mobile phones owned by target group members were crossed with ability of the phones to access internets. Also both active and dormant users had mobile phone that can access internets. In addition, dormant users were able to participate in the m-learning platform using their mobile phones. All active users had suitable phones and used them for m-learning platform. It was only few target group members who did not have mobile phones.

In the same analysis, the use of mobile phones for m-learning is determined by the ability to afford airtime that enables the internet facility to function. M-learning requires that the mobile phone is connected to the internet to facilitate installation of the software that supports the program. Internet subscription was afforded through different means. In addition, there was a strong ownership of the platform since majority of the users used to pay for internet airtime on their own.

Table 1: Relationship between income and type of the phone owned by target group for M-Learning

Dormant users						
Mobile Device Type	Monthly Income in TZS					Total
	Below 450,000/=	450,000 - 900,000	900,000 - 1,350,000	Above 1,350,000	No monthly income	
A Cell/Mobile Phone	30	24	11	1	88	154
Smart Phone	24	29	14	2	91	160
Total	54	53	25	3	181	314
Active Users						
A Cell/Mobile Phone	3	1	1	6	0	11
Smart Phone	16	15	4	62	0	97
Total	19	16	5	68	0	108

b) Suitability of the mobile phone on M-learning Platform

A suitable mobile phone for m-learning refers to the phones' ability to access internet. Such mobile phones can be a smart phone or other normal mobile phone. Most of the target group members had smart phone and some had basic phones that can access internet, and therefore appropriate to be used for m-learning. As one of the factors- mobile phones owned by target group members were crossed with the ability of the phone to access internets. Findings indicated that most of both active and dormant users had mobile phones that can access internets. This finding implies that most of the dormant users were able to participate in the m-learning platform using their mobile phones if motivated. All active users had suitable phones and they used them for m-learning platform. Six (6) target group members did not have mobile phones. Table 2 shows the number of both active and dormant users who owned mobile phones and their ability to access internet.

Table 2: Owned mobile phones and ability to access internet

Aspect	Mobile device with ability to access internet			
	Dormant Users		Active Users	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Owned Mobile Phones	213	98	108	0
Total	213	98	108	0

c) Affordability of Airtime for M-learning

The use of mobile phone for m-learning is determined by the respondents' ability to afford airtime that enables the internet facility to function. M-learning requires that the mobile phone is connected to the internet to facilitate installation of the software that supports the program. For instance for active users 76% of respondents said that in average they spend less than Tanzanian Shillings (Tshs) 25,000/= for internet subscription per month. This was lower than the 24% spent between Tshs 25,000/= to 50,000/=. None of the respondents was able to spend above Tshs 50,000/=. For dormant users, 83% of respondents were able to spend below Tshs 25,000 for internet subscription per

month, and 13 percent were able to spend between Tshs 25,000/= and 50,000/=. Only 4% of dormant users were able to spend above Tsh. 50,000 for internet subscriptions. Respondents were asked who pays for their internet subscription. Results show that 94.4% of active users and 88.5% of dormant users consulted during this evaluation- purchase airtime on their own. About 3.7% active users and 7.7% dormant users get airtime through friends and relative support while 1.9% active users and 3.8% dormant users got through other means.

d) Reaction of Active Users of M-learning

Active users of m-learning platform were trained and registered for the program. Findings show that in health facilities where active users were found- training was conducted at different times. It also appeared that training was conducted in different batches. In the first batch, respondents were trained in all sampled health facilities with active users except for Machame nursing school. Participants at Machame nursing school were only trained in the second batch. This reflected the statement from the coordinator who pointed out that the training was only conducted in the last one month of semester and that most of the students were yet to receive their log-in and password.

The study also revealed that some health facilities with active users received training more than once while some received training only once. The facilities that received training only once were Ligula, Machame, Mawenzi, Mbalizi, Mkomaindo, and Pasua. All other facilities with active users received training more than once. It is important to note that as indicated in Figure 1, active users were only found in 17 out of 22 visited health facilities. In some facilities, respondents were not able to recall when the m-Learning training was provided to them.
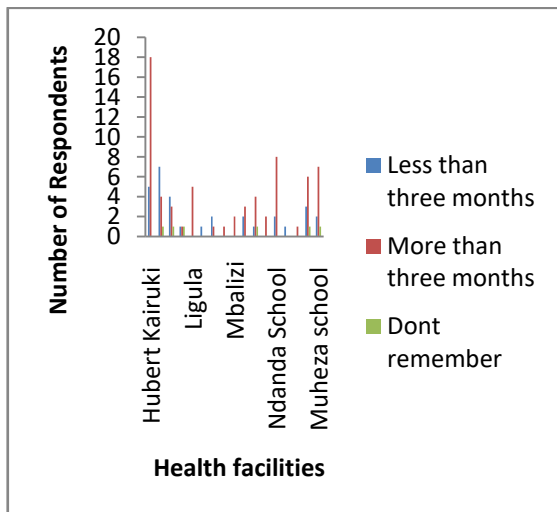

Figure 1: The Period and the Number of Times for the Training

e) Registration to mLearning platform

As indicated in the previous section, registration to m-learning was a process. It began during the training where a list of participants' names including their mobile numbers were written down and taken over by AMREF project manager. Thereafter usernames and passwords were sent back to participants through their mobile phone. Regarding active users, findings indicate that the registration process was well done as respondents were successfully registered immediately after the training. As indicated in Figure 2, the number of active users covered in a period more than three months is very much closer to the number of users who began to use m-learning platform in more than three months period. The number of active users who have been using m-learning platform in more than three months was about 40 respondents out of 108. The number seemed to grow up to more than 50 after training in a period less than three months. This is an indication of a successful registration process to some of the trained target group and program as a whole.
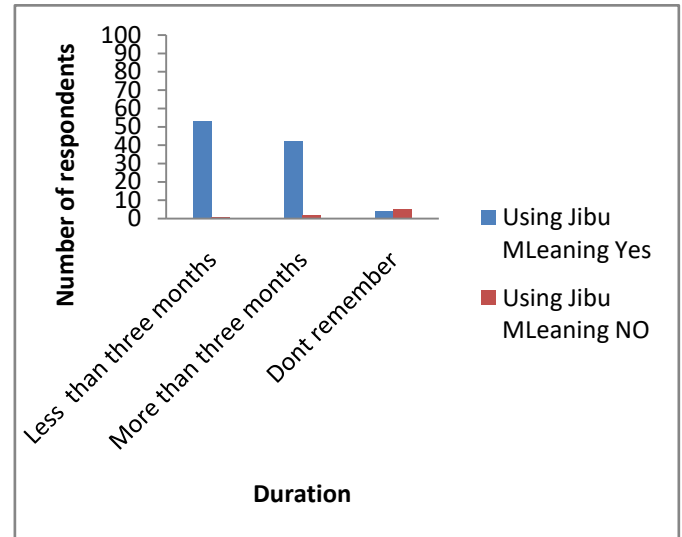
Figure 2: Period in which Participants have been using the M-learning Platform

f) The use of other Applications for Learning

It was also interesting to know the type of mobile applications used by active users. Findings indicated that different active users have used different mobile applications for learning. However, the mostly used applications were Google (40%) follow by MEDSCAPE. Figure 3 shows a variety of other applications that were used by active users. This shows that some of the active users were already interested in using mobile application for learning.

Figure 3: Other Mobile Application used by some of the Active Users
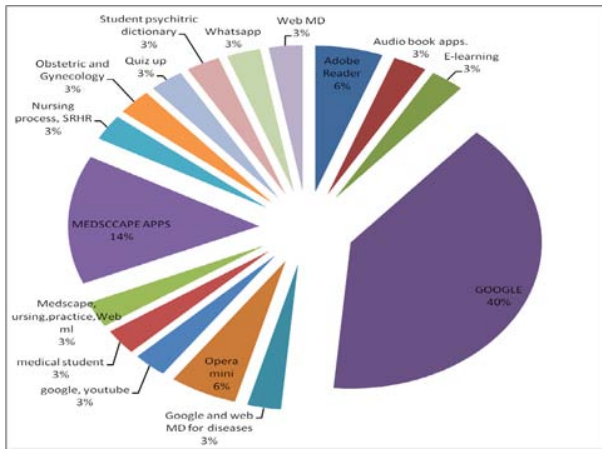
g) *Effectiveness of the M-learning Platform to the users*

The methodology used in m-learning, reliability and the quality of the materials were considered as factors that were likely to influence the use of m-learning platform. A number of aspects were evaluated to determine effectiveness of m-learning platform. Respondents were asked to rate the aspects on the basis of: strongly disagree, disagree, no opinion, agree and strongly agree. The m-learning platform was evaluated in terms of: the extent to which target group members considered platform adds value to their learning; reliability, provide effective learning aid, considered as effective method for personalized learning, perceived as convenient, supplementary to what they used to get in their courses, provided access to practical medical skills, and provided access to medical guidelines. Findings in Figure 5 indicate that a large percent of respondents "*agreed*" that the platform managed to create effective learning for the few users. However, many people were trained to use the application but only few were using. The major factor limiting the use of m-learning was unsuitable phones and limited internet connectivity. "*The benefits might not match because there are few users. For example, there was a class of many students we taught m-learning, but only three students had Smartphone, while the others liked the program but did not have the Smartphone*" said one tutor.

The program was utilized by active members to access the modules provided through mLearning platform. Some of the modules accessed were mentioned to have been accessed by target group members were: Health Services Management, Pharmacology, Nursing Process, Research, SRHR and Peer learning. The modules were accessed on daily, weekly and monthly basis. The stakeholders had conflicting views about the achievement of the m-learning. Some had views that it is too soon to notice program achievements and others had opinions that the

program had already yielded some results. Some of the achievements mentioned by the stakeholders included improvement of skills and knowledge among users, simplification of accessibility to learning and teaching materials and timely support obtained through charting platform. One tutor pointed out that "*it has improved knowledge and skills of nurses, especially students have been happy with the program. Also those who are studying through e-learning have made efforts to get Smartphone, and can access the contents of m-learning*".
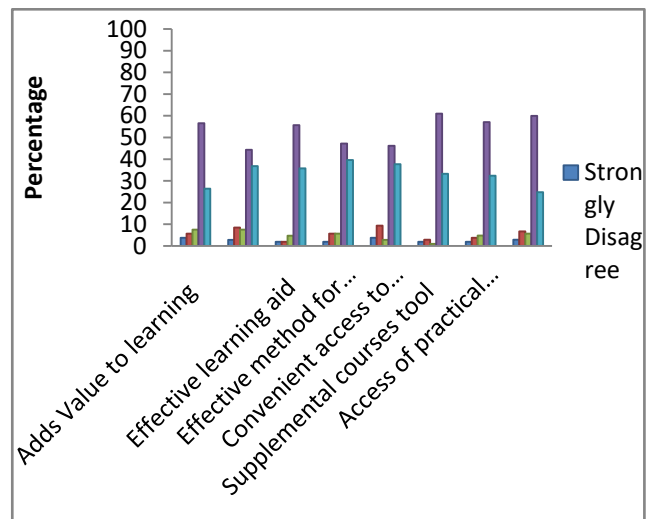

Figure 4: Effectiveness of the M-Learning Platform to the Target Group

h) *Efficiency of the M-learning Platform to the Target Group*

The efficiency of the platform was evaluated by asking respondents a number of aspects regarding the platform. The aspects included: logic organization of the models and modules contents, easy to work with, provide quick access to information, easy to remember, easy to read on the phone, and if the screen have right amount of the information. Respondents were required to provide their responses in terms of: "*strongly agree*", "*agree*", "*no opinion*", "*disagree*", and "*strongly disagree*". All aspects received all these responses at different levels. The larger percent of active users "*agreed*" and "*strongly agreed*" that the m-learning platform was an efficient tool for learning. They appeared to be satisfied that the platform was efficiently designed to enable the users to easily use it. Only small percent of active users-had "*no opinion*" about the efficiency of the platform. Also another small percent disagree and strongly disagree that the platform was efficiently designed. Figure 6 indicates the percent of active users' views in all the aspects used to evaluate efficient.
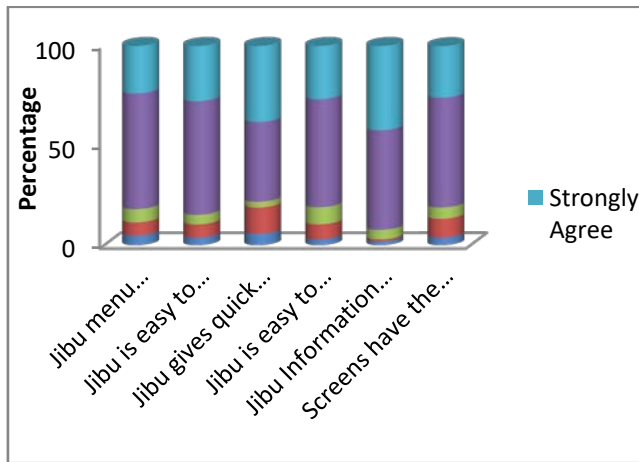
Figure 5: Active Users View on Efficient of the M-learning Platform

i) Effect of M-learning on Knowledge and Skills on Active users of platform

A set of five practical questions were designed to test knowledge and skills of active users on materials (aspects) covered through m-learning platform. These questions were placed in the last part of the questionnaire and were administered in the form of a quiz. The quiz was later marked and the score placed in each of the respondents' paper. It is important to notice that the quiz was provided in the form of surprising test and that respondents did not have time for preparation. Findings show that 76% of active users scored between 3 and 4 marks- which in this evaluation was labeled as "*good*" and 17% of active users scored all 5 marks- which was labeled as very good. Only 7% scored between 1 and 2 marks which was labeled '*fair*'. The asked questions required that respondents had updated knowledge and skills on how to perform some nursing practices. This evaluation indicates that active users [nurses and students] have update knowledge and skills on nursing practices which is an indication of having access to updated learning materials provided through mLearning platform. There is some evidence and perspective that the program has had effect to learning among nursing professionals. The knowledge and skills test conducted to active users showed that most nurses at work and students have good knowledge and skills in nursing. About 76% of the active users were able to score 3-4 marks out 5 questions designed to test knowledge and skills. Another 17% were able to score 5 out of 5 questions which were very good.

Knowledge and skills test results support some of the perspectives given by stakeholders on the effect of the program to nurses and students. Some of the achievement with the program included: increasing knowledge and skills to both nurses and students; Because of expertise in mortality- have been reduced; has increased the number of nurses graduating from their program- as the number of failures has been

reduced; and students performance has improved. In general most of stakeholders think m-learning program has made significant achievements to nurses at work and students. They also think that the program can have more positive effective to nurses and students if some of the challenges will be addressed and suggestions for improvement will be put into practice.

j) Reaction and Experience of mlearning Dormant Users

Questionnaire was administered to a total of 320 dormant users from health facilities in the six sampled regions to evaluate their reaction and experiences on m-learning platform. The respondents were both nurses at work and nursing students. The aggregate was that: 43 % were not in services [mostly students]; 19% had 1-2 years' experience at work; 13% had 3-4 years at work; and 25% had above 4 years at work. All dormant users were trained and registered to M-learning platform. There have been variations on their experiences with m-learning. Some of the dormant users seemed to have used m-learning for a short time and others did not use at all. For instance 91% said they have never used m-learning while 9% said they used for a while. Those who have used for a while- seemed to have used at varied timeframe. Of the 9% - 19 respondents said they used in a period of less than three months; 5 in the period more than three months and 5 could not remember when they stopped using the platform(see Figure 8).
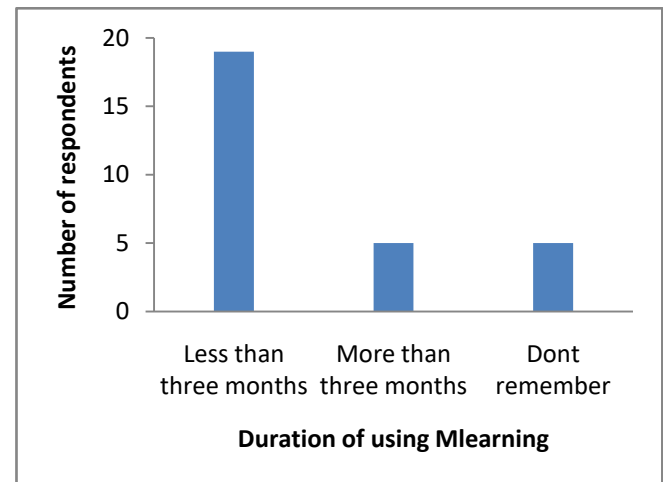
Figure 6: dormant users who have used m-learning in Different times

k) Reasons for Not Using the platform or Stop Using m-learning Platform

Respondents were asked as to why they were not using the platform or stopped using the m-learning platform. Figure 7 indicates percentage of such factors in undermining utilization of the m-learning platform. In order to identify some of the factors that negatively influenced the use of m-learning platform. The responses were categorized into: lost my mobile phone,

my phone has no ability to install the program software, do not have a mobile phone, inability of password to log in, did not receive password and lack of technical support. Findings indicated that most of respondents did not have mobile phones with the ability to install m-learning software. Only very few failed to use due to lack of technical support.

Figure 7: Factors influencing Dormant Users not to use m-learning Platform

IV. CONCLUSION

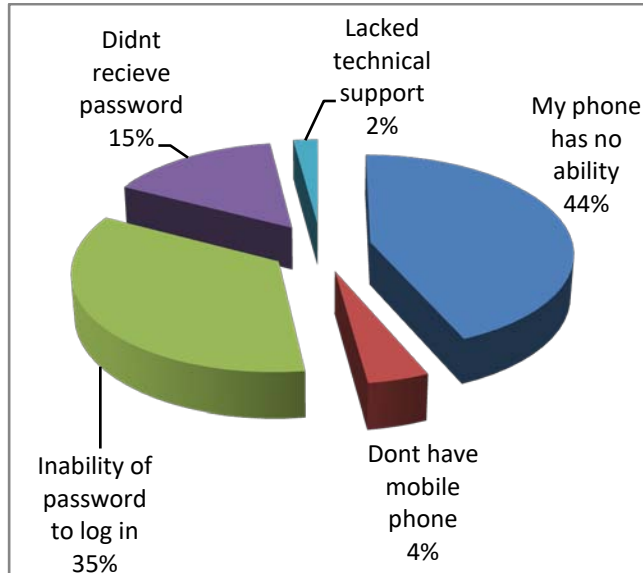The uptake and scale up of mlearning tools has been taking place slowly in Tanzania. In the mLearning project funded by Amref Tanzania, there were notable achievements on the areas of awareness creations, motivation to users to buy and use the application as well as Increasing knowledge and skills of users. However, the use of the platform has been limited by less income of target group to own a mobile phone with high capacity, lack of support when needed and ability to buy internet bundles. This calls for the government and development patners to support the sustainability of projects of similar nature.

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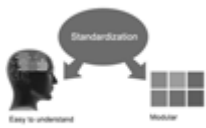
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The IBOARS can organize symposium/seminar/conference in their country on behalf of Global Journals Incorporation (USA)-OARS (USA). The terms and conditions can be discussed separately.

The Board can also play vital role by exploring and giving valuable suggestions regarding the Standards of "Open Association of Research Society, U.S.A (OARS)" so that proper amendment can take place for the benefit of entire research community. We shall provide details of particular standard only on receipt of request from the Board.

The board members can also join us as Individual Fellow with 40% discount on total fees applicable to Individual Fellow. They will be entitled to avail all the benefits as declared. Please visit Individual Fellow-sub menu of GlobalJournals.org to have more relevant details.

We shall provide you intimation regarding launching of e-version of journal of your stream time to time. This may be utilized in your library for the enrichment of knowledge of your students as well as it can also be helpful for the concerned faculty members.
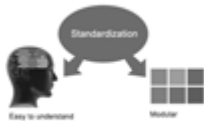
After nomination of your institution as "Institutional Fellow" and constantly functioning successfully for one year, we can consider giving recognition to your institute to function as Regional/Zonal office on our behalf.
The board can also take up the additional allied activities for betterment after our consultation.

The following entitlements are applicable to individual Fellows:

Open Association of Research Society, U.S.A (OARS) By-laws states that an individual Fellow may use the designations as applicable, or the corresponding initials. The Credentials of individual Fellow and Associate designations signify that the individual has gained knowledge of the fundamental concepts. One is magnanimous and proficient in an expertise course covering the professional code of conduct, and follows recognized standards of practice.

Open Association of Research Society (US)/ Global Journals Incorporation (USA), as described in Corporate Statements, are educational, research publishing and professional membership organizations. Achieving our individual Fellow or Associate status is based mainly on meeting stated educational research requirements.

Disbursement of 40% Royalty earned through Global Journals : Researcher = 50%, Peer Reviewer = 37.50%, Institution = 12.50% E.g. Out of 40%, the 20% benefit should be passed on to researcher, 15 % benefit towards remuneration should be given to a reviewer and remaining 5% is to be retained by the institution.

We shall provide print version of 12 issues of any three journals [as per your requirement] out of our 38 journals worth $ 2376 USD.

Other:

The individual Fellow and Associate designations accredited by Open Association of Research Society (US) credentials signify guarantees following achievements:

➢ The professional accredited with Fellow honor, is entitled to various benefits viz. name, fame, honor, regular flow of income, secured bright future, social status etc.

- In addition to above, if one is single author, then entitled to 40% discount on publishing research paper and can get 10%discount if one is co-author or main author among group of authors.
- The Fellow can organize symposium/seminar/conference on behalf of Global Journals Incorporation (USA) and he/she can also attend the same organized by other institutes on behalf of Global Journals.
- The Fellow can become member of Editorial Board Member after completing 3yrs.
- The Fellow can earn 60% of sales proceeds from the sale of reference/review books/literature/publishing of research paper.
- Fellow can also join as paid peer reviewer and earn 15% remuneration of author charges and can also get an opportunity to join as member of the Editorial Board of Global Journals Incorporation (USA)
- • This individual has learned the basic methods of applying those concepts and techniques to common challenging situations. This individual has further demonstrated an in–depth understanding of the application of suitable techniques to a particular area of research practice.

Note :

"
- In future, if the board feels the necessity to change any board member, the same can be done with the consent of the chairperson along with anyone board member without our approval.

- In case, the chairperson needs to be replaced then consent of 2/3rd board members are required and they are also required to jointly pass the resolution copy of which should be sent to us. In such case, it will be compulsory to obtain our approval before replacement.

- In case of "Difference of Opinion [if any]" among the Board members, our decision will be final and binding to everyone.
"

PREFERRED AUTHOR GUIDELINES

We accept the manuscript submissions in any standard (generic) format.

We typeset manuscripts using advanced typesetting tools like Adobe In Design, CorelDraw, TeXnicCenter, and TeXStudio. We usually recommend authors submit their research using any standard format they are comfortable with, and let Global Journals do the rest.

Alternatively, you can download our basic template from https://globaljournals.org/Template.zip

Authors should submit their complete paper/article, including text illustrations, graphics, conclusions, artwork, and tables. Authors who are not able to submit manuscript using the form above can email the manuscript department at submit@globaljournals.org or get in touch with chiefeditor@globaljournals.org if they wish to send the abstract before submission.

Before and during Submission

Authors must ensure the information provided during the submission of a paper is authentic. Please go through the following checklist before submitting:

1. Authors must go through the complete author guideline and understand and *agree to Global Journals' ethics and code of conduct,* along with author responsibilities.
2. Authors must accept the privacy policy, terms, and conditions of Global Journals.
3. Ensure corresponding author's email address and postal address are accurate and reachable.
4. Manuscript to be submitted must include keywords, an abstract, a paper title, co-author(s') names and details (email address, name, phone number, and institution), figures and illustrations in vector format including appropriate captions, tables, including titles and footnotes, a conclusion, results, acknowledgments and references.
5. Authors should submit paper in a ZIP archive if any supplementary files are required along with the paper.
6. Proper permissions must be acquired for the use of any copyrighted material.
7. Manuscript submitted *must not have been submitted or published elsewhere* and all authors must be aware of the submission.

Declaration of Conflicts of Interest

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Plagiarism is not acceptable in Global Journals submissions at all.

Plagiarized content will not be considered for publication. We reserve the right to inform authors' institutions about plagiarism detected either before or after publication. If plagiarism is identified, we will follow COPE guidelines:

Authors are solely responsible for all the plagiarism that is found. The author must not fabricate, falsify or plagiarize existing research data. The following, if copied, will be considered plagiarism:

- Words (language)
- Ideas
- Findings
- Writings
- Diagrams
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- Illustrations
- Lectures

- Printed material
- Graphic representations
- Computer programs
- Electronic material
- Any other original work

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2. Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.
3. Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

Changes in Authorship

The corresponding author should mention the name and complete details of all co-authors during submission and in manuscript. We support addition, rearrangement, manipulation, and deletions in authors list till the early view publication of the journal. We expect that corresponding author will notify all co-authors of submission. We follow COPE guidelines for changes in authorship.

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Unless specified in the notification, the Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed before making the major change in the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

Declaration of funding sources

Global Journals is in partnership with various universities, laboratories, and other institutions worldwide in the research domain. Authors are requested to disclose their source of funding during every stage of their research, such as making analysis, performing laboratory operations, computing data, and using institutional resources, from writing an article to its submission. This will also help authors to get reimbursements by requesting an open access publication letter from Global Journals and submitting to the respective funding source.

PREPARING YOUR MANUSCRIPT

Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.

Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.

Format Structure

It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals should include:

Title

The title page must carry an informative title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) where the work was carried out.

Author details

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Keywords

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

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

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

Numerical Methods

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Abbreviations

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

Formulas and equations

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

PREPARATION OF ELETRONIC FIGURES FOR PUBLICATION

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution at final image size ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs): >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

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TIPS FOR WRITING A GOOD QUALITY SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH PAPER

Techniques for writing a good quality homan social science research paper:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

2. Think like evaluators: If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

3. Ask your guides: If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

4. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of homan social science then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

5. Use the internet for help: An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.

6. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

7. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

8. Make every effort: Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

o Single section and succinct.
o An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
o Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
o Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

o   Explain the value (significance) of the study.
o   Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
o   Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
o   Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

o   Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
o   Describe the method entirely.
o   To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
o   Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
o   If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

o   Resources and methods are not a set of information.
o   Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
o   Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- o Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- o In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- o Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- o Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- o Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- o Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- o Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- o Do not present similar data more than once.
- o A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- o Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

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Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

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o   You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
o   Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
o   Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
o   One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
o   Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

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Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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

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