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TAHIR, HUSSAINI MAIRIGA

ABSTRACT
This study tried to determine the speed of adjustment; production, price and cross elasticities of yams and cassava in Nigeria between 1983 and 2008 through the application of the Nerlovian dynamic adjustment model (NEDAL). Secondary data from the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) statistical database, FAOSTAT; and the Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NIMET) were used. Estimation was carried out using the Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance Estimator. The estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment for yam and cassava were found to be -1.105; and -0.408; thereby indicating a very fast speed; and slow speed respectively at which farmers respond to changes in variables of study in their hectrage allocation decision to the production of yam and cassava. Production and price elasticities and their corresponding cross elasticity estimates for yam hectrage response were 0.461 and -0.063; and 0.012 and 0.162 respectively, while the production and price elasticities and their corresponding cross elasticities were 1.413 and -0.039; and 0.210 and 0.225 respectively for cassava hectrage response. Except for the hectrage of cassava which was highly production elastic, the crops were neither production nor price elastic. The scenario is consistent with apriori expectation that the crops’ hectrage would be relatively inelastic to changes in price and non-price factors. It is recommended that the scope of the presidential initiatives on agricultural crops be broadened to accommodate more staple food crops in view of the supposed positive impact of the initiatives on cassava productivity; and policies which center on enhanced crops productivity, farm income and food security be promoted and sustained.

Keywords: Hectrage response, Nerlovian dynamic adjustment model, Heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation consistent covariance estimator, Elasticities and cross elasticities.

INTRODUCTION
Nigeria is one of the largest Countries in sub-Saharan Africa with a land mass of about 98.3 million hectares out of which 71.2 million hectares (72.4%) are cultivable but only 34.2 million hectares (34.8%) are under use (Daramola, 2004). Its diverse physical, climatic and soil conditions made up of three ecological regions- humid, forest and sub-humid regions permit the growth of wide variety of crops and breeds of livestock (Riks, 2003). Thus, agriculture has made a substantial contribution to the economic development of the country especially in the sixties. Prior to exploration of oil in Nigeria in the seventies, agriculture contributed over 70% of the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ashinze and Onwioduokit, 1996) and greater proportion of the population depend on the agricultural sector for their livelihood and the rural economy is still basically agricultural (Mike, 1998). And as Anigbogu et al. (2014) observe, agriculture remains the mainstay of the Nigerian economy despite its decline in the 1970s. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) (2005), the sector accounted for over 60%, on

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average, to the GDP, 70% of her total export, and substantial part of the country’s foreign exchange earnings. The sector also provided basic food crops to feed her growing population and nurtured its nascent industrial sector for effective take-off by providing raw materials to the sector, as well as serving as a potential market for industrial products (Anyanwuocha, 2006; Ogen, 2007).

However, in recent years, the growth of the agricultural sector has been unable to keep pace with the growing demand for food due to increase in the rate of population growth. This has led to a wide gap between domestic production and consumption, thus, giving rise to increase in the level of importation of food and industrial raw materials (Tahir, 2012). Anigbogu et al. (2014) attributed the declining trend of agricultural sector in Nigeria to factors, such as its neglect during the hey days of oil discovery in commercial quantity; climate variability and structural rigidity, which has been intensified by the current global warming; international price volatility which has created extreme uncertainty in farmers’ income and led to inefficient allocation of resources; and most importantly, poor domestic macroeconomic environment, which adversely affected productivity in the sector. In line with the aforementioned circumstance, the federal government formulated policies and programmes aimed at reviving the agricultural sector. The policies were pursued through various means, such as subsidy on prices of improved seeds, fertilizers and agro-chemicals and provision of low interest credit to small-scale farmers among others (Haruna, 2002); and to complement these measures, more areas of land were cultivated for increased production of arable crops; efforts that led to tremendous increase in output (Nkonya et al., 2010).

Root crops are well known for as ‘insurance’ crops and safety shields in time of drought and other disturbances, but in recent years, root crops have also become important economic drivers. The production capacity and markets are such that root crops have moved into being industrial cash crops. Countries seeking economic drivers turn to the promotion of root crops production. Recent examples are Ghana and Nigeria who’s Presidents launched presidential initiatives on cassava as stimulus to agricultural growth and development (Hartmann, 2007). According to the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (2011), about 200 million poor farmers in developing countries use roots, tubers, and bananas (RTB) for food security and income. RTB are a key source of food, nutrition, and income in some of the poorest countries and regions and for the most marginalized populations. Though often neglected, RTB serve as critical elements in a strategy to diversify global food supplies, buffer against market shocks, and reduce the risk of food shortages around the world. The production of RTB in developing countries has increased from 247 MT to 685 MT over the last four decades (2.3% annually); and this trend is projected to continue (FAO, 2010). The overall growth in the production of root crops in Africa (3 percent), to cereals’ (2.5 percent) also reflects its position (Hartmann, 2007).

Maize, sorghum, cowpea, groundnut, yam and cassava are some of the most important staple arable crops produced in the Nigeria. Annual output of these crops has been observed to increase over the years, and hectarage under their production still have great potentials for expansion with resultant increase in output (Nkonya et al., 2010). Root and tuber crops account for the largest share of production in the country, due to their much higher yields per unit land area. Yam and cassava are grown extensively in the humid southern part of the country. Nigeria is the largest producer of cassava in the world and has a high potential to gain from exporting processed cassava (Vision 20; 2020 NTWG, 2009; Oni et al., 2009; Nkonya et al., 2010). FAO (2004) had also indicated that Nigeria has comparative resource advantage in the production of cassava and is the world’s leading producer with 33 million metric tons of fresh tubers per www.flelearning.co.uk
annum; while the crop is very important in Nigeria based on its enclosure use especially as a staple food to most Nigerians (Abdullahi, 2003). Production of root and tuber crops have met domestic need and are even been exported.

An important characteristic of agricultural production is the time lag that it involves. Outputs are obtained months after planting operations are begun. Therefore, some of the most important decisions in agricultural production, such as what crops to grow and on how much land to grow them, must be made without certain knowledge of future rainfall, yields and prices. It is also a known fact that, the nature of farmers’ responses revolves around the ecology and economics of agricultural production, both of which are usually influenced by future occurrence whose probability distribution cannot be determined empirically or otherwise in advance (Tahir et al., 2011). But, economic theory suggests that prices are important determinants of economic behavior and rational farmers should sufficiently react to changes in prices of output (Narain, 1965). And according to Moraes (2006), the expected signs of the estimated coefficients of variables are derived from simple logic. An increase in a crop’s own price is expected to have positive impact on the crops acreage, while increases in the price of land competing crops are expected to have a negative impact on the crop’s acreage. Hence, it is generally assumed that farmers behave rationally and react to circumstances in a way that maximizes their utility in the context of opportunities, incentives and risks as perceived by them (Nayarana and Parikh, 1981). Haile et al. (2014) in their work “Agricultural supply response to international food prices and price volatility: a cross-country panel analysis” conclude that in general, production, acreage and yield responses to own prices are positive and statistically significant, while the statistically significant cross-price elasticities have negative signs consistent with economic theory. Farmers are therefore expected to respond positively to changes in price and other economic incentives in allocating their limited resources among competing crops.

However, it is the view that farmers in less developed countries are not responsive to changes in relative prices and/or they are less responsive than those in the developed countries (Narain, 1965). And Mytilli (2006) asserts that there are many arguments to support the notion that farmers in less developed countries do not respond to economic incentives like price and income. During the last five decades, a large volume of literature on supply response indicated that the response is much weaker. Non-price factors seem to dominate over price factors in farmers’ decision problem (Krishna, 1962; Narain, 1965; Askari and Cummings, 1976; Gulati and Kelly, 1999). Reasons cited for poor response varied factors such as constraints on irrigation, infrastructure etc. to lack of complementary agricultural policies (Mytilli, 2006); poorly integrated markets, more variable and difficult weather conditions, inefficient institutions and low level of technology (Schiff and Montenegro, 1997). The poor performance of the agricultural sector in Nigeria has been ascribed to the existence of these constraints (Phillip et al., 2008) leading to the supposed irrational economic behavior of farmers. This kind of behavior suggests that farmers do not take into account prices and returns while allocating their limited resources to various competing crops or enterprises.

In view of the overriding need to enhance the level of agricultural productivity, particularly of food grains, in the face of increasing population, declining agricultural output and the supposed poor response of farmers to economic incentives (price and non-price factors) in developing countries such as Nigeria, the importance of determining empirically quantitative relationships that provide estimates of changes in output, hectrage and yield associated with
input use and in prices and vice visa cannot be overemphasized. Formulation and execution of agricultural policies that are tailored to suit farmers’ local environment must take into consideration increased motivation of the farmers. This requires the empirical determination of hectarage response, profitability level of arable crop production vis-à-vis resource adjustments possible to boost food crop production. Furthermore, the necessity for making subjective forecast places a limit on distance into the future for which farmers and policy makers can plan in a meaningful manner. All these influence the extent of policy formulation; and underscore the need for research into the field of supply responsiveness of farmers especially in the developing countries. And as Chaudhary et al. (1998) noted robust estimates of the coefficients of supply elasticities can serve as a solid basis in determining effective policy relevant interventions for promoting production, equity, efficiency and increase income distribution in the farm sector of the economy. This study therefore tried to determine the speed of adjustment; production, price and cross elasticities of yam and cassava in Nigeria between 1983 and 2008 through the application of the Nerlovian dynamic adjustment model (NEDAL).

One of the motivating factors for conducting this study was the dearth of literature on farmers’ hectarage response to economic incentives in Nigeria. Previous studies such as Nkang et al. (2007), Rahji et al. (2008) and Ogazi (2009) focused mostly on output response especially of cereal crops thereby neglecting other crops, viz legumes and root and tuber crops. This study aimed at bridging this gap.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Speed of Adjustment; Production, Price and Cross Elasticities.

The concept of elasticity tries to answer the question “by how much, quantity of produce or supply will change when there is a change in variables of production such as; land area, inputs, and management vis-à-vis the demand for the produce” (ACA, 2003). Hence production elasticity measures the responsiveness of output to a change in the total land area cultivated among other variables. In this case, it is the ratio of the percentage change in output to the percentage change in total land area cultivated (Ande, 2005). Elasticity is measured using the coefficient of price or output as the case may be. Production is elastic when small change in area of land cultivated, among other variables, lead to a greater change in the output of the crop. In this case, elasticity co-efficient is greater than one or unity, i.e.1<E<infinity. However, production is considered inelastic if a large change in total land area cultivated, among other factors, leads to a small or slight change in the quantity of output of crop produced, i.e. 0<E<1. Similarly, cross elasticity can be measured using the co-efficient of cross elasticity of output. Cross elasticity of production refers to the proportionate change in the quantity of output of a crop say (x) over the proportionate change in the quantity of output of another crop say (y) (Ande, 2005). Cross elasticity of production is applicable mainly to goods (crops) that are close substitutes as well as complementary goods.

In this study, the coefficient of the price of the investigating crop explains the price elasticity of the crop while the coefficient of the price of the competing crop provide the cross elasticity of the competing crop i.e. the change in area cultivated of investigating crop resulting from change in its price and the price of the competing crop respectively. In the same vein, the coefficient of the yield of the investigating crop explains the production elasticity of the crop while the coefficient of the yield of the competing crop provide the production cross elasticity of the competing crop i.e. the change in area cultivated of investigating crop resulting from change in its yield and the yield of the competing crop respectively.

The coefficient of the lagged dependent variable also known as the estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment explains the speed at which farmers adjust to changing prices, yields www.flelearning.co.uk
and other factors for the difference between the hectrage they would like to plant and the hectrage actually planted in the previous year.

The major problems of agricultural development are centered on supply response, i.e., the relationships between output quantities and resource use and price. Agricultural supply models may help in understanding these problems in that, through appropriate quantitative relationships, they may provide estimates of changes in output, acreage, and yield per hectare associated with changes in input use and in prices, which may be useful for forecasting (IBRD, 1968). It therefore, becomes imperative for researchers, planners and policy makers to make proper assessment of areas under the production of the selected arable crops as well as their yields and responsiveness to changes under certain economic environments which would serve as a basic frame work for policy making, future planning and development.

Krishna (1961) Studied farm supply response in the Punjab prior to partition, analyzing the case of cotton and wheat. He found that peasants’ response to relative price variations was always positive. Joshi and Dhhekney (1954) had pointed out however, that agricultural production in India is largely inelastic with respect to price and that it would not be safe to rely on the controlled working of the price mechanism alone.

Stern (1964) discussed the determinants of cocoa supply in West Africa for the period prior to 1945 and found evidence for Nigeria that the price of cocoa influenced the planting decision. Statistical relationships for other West African countries for either the pre- or postwar periods and those for Ghana and Nigeria in the post-1946 era were not found significant. The introduction of the time trend into the equation changed the sign of the harvested acreage from positive to negative.

Welsh (1965) studying the response to incentives by Nigerian rice farmers tested two hypotheses: (1) that peasants in a traditional agriculture respond to economic incentives by allocating very efficiently the factors of production at their disposal, and (2) that their savings and investment decisions tend to maximize returns to scarce resources. Welsh complain perhaps rightly that too many experts in agricultural development have too eagerly adopted the idea that peasant farmers are not rational economic men, as an easier explanation to the lack of development. Welsh’s conclusion appears to be in agreement with Schultz’s (1964) hypothesis as well as other findings.

The next step in the field of research was to incorporate the elements of risk and uncertainty. In a case study of four major crops in Thailand from 1937-1963, Behrman (1968), attempts to capture the influences of variability of prices and yields on supply response functions. Along with such variables as population and the death rate from malaria, he introduces the standard deviations of price and yield in the three previous periods to give an idea of farmers’ reaction to risks. Nowshirvani (1971) developed a theoretical model for farmers’ decisions on land allocation that accounts for uncertainties in prices and yields. Nowshirvani shows that incorporating risk in the analysis of agricultural supply may show a negative area-price response, implying that stabilization schemes may sometimes be more effective than price in bringing about area shifts among crops.

Narayana and Parikh (1981), deviating from the traditional Nerlove model estimated acreage response for different crops by using expected revenue instead of expected prices as proxy for expected prices. The essential data for estimating the acreage response consist of area, production, yield, irrigation, prices and rainfall. The revenue expectation functions for different crops were then inserted into the Nerlovian model for the estimating of the acreage response.
equations. An ARIMA model was postulated; and Box Jenkins methodology used in estimating these functions.

Mythilli (2008) asserts that the Nerlovian framework is superior to alternative models in that they facilitate computing short run and long run responses and the speed of adjustment in moving from actual to desired level of land and other inputs. Further, alternative model like the profit-maximizing framework which involves joint estimation of output supply and input demand functions requires detailed information on all the input prices which are difficult to obtain. And Utuk (2014) notes that most of the empirical estimates of aggregate agricultural supply response have been largely based on Nerlove’s 1958 formulation. These studies include those carried out by Reca (1980), Bapna (1981), Chhibber (1982), and Bond (1983). These studies produced broadly similar results with short-run aggregate supply elasticities around 0.2 and long-run elasticities of about 0.4 (Elamin and Elmale, 1997).

The traditional Nerlove approach widely utilized for estimating agricultural supply response has been criticized on the ground that many time series are non-stationary and the use of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) on non-stationary time series may produce spurious regression hence the introduction of time series technique of cointegration; which can be used with non-stationary data and avoids spurious regression. Technique of cointegration introduced by Granger (1981) and Engle and Granger (1987) allows the investigator to specify an equation in which all terms are stationary, and so allows the use of classical statistical inference. It does not impose any restrictions on the short run behavior of variables. It only requires an establishment of a stable long run relationship, which formally implies that there exist a linear combination of variables that is stationary even though each single variable may be non-stationary. Johansen’s approach (1988) provides likelihood ratio tests for the presence of cointegration vectors among the series and produces long run elasticities. The model is a form of error correction model (ECM) and where only one cointegrating vector exists; its parameters could be interpreted as estimates of long run cointegrating relationship between the variables (Haliam and Zanoil, 1993). Therefore the estimated parameter values from these equations, when normalized on acreage are long run elasticities.

Some of the most recent works on agricultural supply response in Nigeria include Olubode-Awosola et al. (2006); using Johansen’s approach to cointegration analysis, tests the theoretical hypothesis that only price, non-price and natural disincentives respectively pose problems for agricultural growth. Results show that the long run price elasticity of supply was 0.13 and capital shift supply; 18 percent indicating that agriculture is still less responsive to price incentives, while capital and credit have a relatively insignificant effect on the shifting of supply.

Nkang et al. (2007) addressed concerns about whether farmers are responsive to economic incentives and to what degree, as well farmers response to price depends more or less on the nature of the price variable (nominal or real) used. The response of maize farmers to real price was found to be very high with an estimated elasticity of 2.5299 in the short run and 1.5038 in the long run. The response of maize supply to the real price of rice was equally high with a cross price elasticity of -4.6414 in the short run and -2.5798 in the long run which are clearly larger than -2.6771 and -1.8033 in the short and long-run correspondingly obtained with nominal prices.

Rahji et al. (2008) examined the response of rice supply to its demand in Nigeria for the period 1967-2004. The study applied the Nerlovian adjustment model to the Nigerian rice data set for the period 1967-2004. The estimated trend equations showed that time had significant influence on output, area and yield of rice over the period and sub-periods at 1% level mostly.

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The results tend to imply that almost all growth in output has been due to increases in area cultivated to rice. The time trend variable used to represent the policy intervention point had no significant effects on the variables of interest in this study. Hence, rice supply does not seem to have responded to rice production policies before and after 1986. The S/R and L/R price response elasticities are inelastic as they are all less than one. The estimated coefficient of adjustment ranged between 0.23 and 0.33; hence, the speed of adjustment by the variables is said to be sluggish. Measures that will lead to productivity increases in rice production were therefore, necessary.

Ogazi (2009), analyzed farmers responsiveness to real price changes and the impact of government fiscal policies as supply shifters and their effectiveness in inducing positive response from farmers both in the short and long term. The error correction version of the autoregressive distributed lag approach to cointegration was employed. Results of the analyses carried out show that the coefficient of the lagged long run price elasticity was 0.271. The short run price elasticity was positive, but insignificant. Weather and area were statistically significant at 1%; trend was significant at 5% while lagged price of maize was negative and not significant at any reasonable level. It was concluded that pricing policy in the form of economic incentive alone is not a sufficient instrument for effecting domestic rice farmers’ response.

Joseph and Adanna (2013) considered the limiting response of Nigeria cassava expansion initiative to climate changes, economic growth and some policy instruments, to ascertain the response of cassava output expansion to rainfall, temperature, imports, exports, credit allocation to agribusiness, exchange rate, nominal interest rate, inflation and GDP from 1970 – 2012; and examined the short and long run effects of these variables to cassava output so as to know how much adjustment it makes to reach the equilibrium. Auto-regressive modeling regression, with the error correction model (ECM) using the Engle-Granger methodology was adopted. The result revealed a very high rate of adjustment to long run equilibrium and the Error correction coefficient of -0.975 which measures the speed of adjustment towards long run equilibrium earned the expected negative sign and is statistically significant at 1% risk level.

Anigbogu et al. (2014) investigated agricultural output responsiveness to the level of infrastructure, rate of inflation, exchange rate volatility, and financial deepening in the sector using annual time series spanning from 1971 to 2008. The Johannsen test of cointegration established the existence of a long-run relationship among the variables and from the VEC model estimated, aggregate agricultural supply was inelastic to the level of infrastructure, exchange rate volatility and financial development; while the rate of inflation appears elastic. Exchange rate volatility and inflation rate affect the sector negatively. Improving and providing quality infrastructure facilities to rural communities and well-coordinated and articulated monetary and fiscal policies were recommended.

Utuk (2014) study on aggregate supply response was aimed at assisting policy makers to identify and evaluate the key variables which are important in determining aggregate agricultural output supply. The Nerlovian adjustment model was used for the estimation. The estimated coefficients were very low, indicating weak or minimal contributions of the variables to output growth in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Moreover, the estimated short-run and long-run elasticities were fairly inelastic while, the adjustment coefficient which measures the speed and magnitude of changes in planned output in response to anticipated output was above average.
METHODOLOGY

The Area of Study
Nigeria is located in West Africa and shares land borders with the Republic of Benin in the West, Chad and Cameroon in the East and Niger in the North. Its coast lies on the Gulf of Guinea part of the Atlantic Ocean in the South; along the coast of West Africa between latitude 4° and 14°N and longitude 3° and 15°E (Obasi, 2006). It is bounded on the West by the Republic of Benin on the North by the Republic of Niger and on the East by the Federal Republic of Cameroon. On the North-East border is Lake Chad while also extends into the Republic of Niger and Chad and touches the northernmost part of the Republic of Cameroun. On the South, the Nigerian coast-line is bathed by the Atlantic Ocean (www.onlinenigeria.com/geography.asp). Nigeria’s population, according to 2006 National Population Census, is 140 million people (National Population Commission, 2006) growing at a fast pace of 3.2% per annum. The Country’s population and life expectancy at birth were estimated at over 160 million and 51 years respectively (UNICEF, 2010).

Scope of Study and Data Collection
The study covered the entire country and analyzed the hectage response of the selected root and tuber crops from 1983 to 2008 (26 years). Time series data in respect of weather index approximated by the national mean rainfall (millimeters), area harvested (hectares), producer price in local currency (Naira/ton), and the annual yield (Kg/hectare) of the selected root and tuber crops, covering the period of study, were obtained from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) statistical database (FAOSTAT) and the Nigerian Metrological Agency (NIMET).

Method of Data Analysis
A Combination of analytical tools (i.e. the traditional Nerlovian supply response model and the Distributed lag model) was employed to analyze the data obtained to estimate farmers supply response to different economic and material incentives. The resulting Nerlovian dynamic adjustment lag model (NEDAL) was used to determine the supply responsiveness of farmers i.e. hectage allocation to supply shifters-lagged hectrage, price, yield and rainfall. Nerlove’s partial adjustment and adaptive expectation model or the traditional Nerlovian supply response model (1958) assumes that the area farmers desire to cultivate is a function of the expected price and some other important variables. Nerlove’s model is basically characterized by both adaptive expectation and partial adjustment. According to Patunru (1998) standard representation of the Nerlovian model is:

\[ p_t^* = P_{t-1}^* + \beta(P_{t-1}^* - P_{t-1}^*) + U_t, 0 \leq \beta \leq 1 \] (1)

\[ X_t = X_{t-1} + \gamma(X_t^* - X_{t-1}) + V_t, 0 \leq \gamma \] (2)

\[ u \] and \[ v \] are random terms with zero expected values, \( X \) is quantity supplied.

Equation (1) resembles the adaptive expectations and says that the expected price \( P_t^* \) for the year is equal to the expected price last year, plus the difference between the actual and the expected price last year, multiplied by expectation coefficient \( \beta \). Equation (2), on the other hand resembles the adjustment process, inferring that the quantity supplied this year is the same as the quantity supplied last year plus the difference between the expected (or desired) supplies this year and the actual supply last year times the adjustment coefficient \( \gamma \). The coefficient \( \gamma \)
represents level of technology or the speed of adjustment. Hence the farmer could not move to equilibrium instantaneously in the short run.

Furthermore, the supply response function is represented thus:

\[ X_i^* = a + bP_i + cZ_i + W_i \] \hspace{1cm} (3)

Where \( z \) is other exogenous factors and \( w \) is random term with zero expected value.

As noted in Tahir et al, (2011) and Tahir, (2014); allowing for continuing lags, and through algebraic substitution/representation of the expectation and adjustment coefficients in the supply function, Panturu (1998), obtains the reduced form of the supply response function thus:

\[ X_i = \pi_1 + \pi_2 P_{i-1} + \pi_3 X_{i-1} + \pi_4 X_{i-2} + \pi_5 Z_i + \pi_6 Z_{i-1} + e \] \hspace{1cm} (4)

Where:

\[ \pi = a \beta \gamma \]
\[ \pi_2 = b \beta \gamma \]
\[ \pi_4 = -(1-\beta)(1-\gamma) \]
\[ \pi_5 = c \gamma \]
\[ \pi_6 = -c \gamma (1-\beta) \]
\[ e = v_i - (1-\beta)w_{i-1} + mw_i - \gamma(1-\beta)w_{i-1} + b\alpha_i \]

Sheffrin (1996) opines that the different assumptions of the basic Nerlovian lag model concerning the formation of price expectation could dramatically alter the actual price dynamic in the market. If the price expectation is based on last year’s price, there would be a potential for significant instability in prices and production. Moreover, in agriculture, which is subject to weather uncertainties and other socio-economic, environmental and technological changes, particularly in a developing country like Nigeria; a model which will accommodate additional variables or explanatory factors in determining the supply response of farmers is more desirable.

The Nerlovian Dynamic Adjustment model (NEDAL) appropriately meets this need, hence, adopted in this study. NEDAL postulates that the actual hectrage under a crop in any period is adjusted in proportion to the difference between the desired hectrage in the long run equilibrium and the actual hectrage in the preceding year. Also, the expected price in any year can be expressed as a function of actual price last year and the expected price last year, while the expected price last year could be replaced by linear function of last year’s hectrage. Thus, through this algebraic substitution, the final form of the adjustment model expresses hectrage in any year as a function of previous year’s actual price and previous year’s hectrage thereby ignoring the effect of expectational lags in prices. This is in line with estimation equation as stated by Patunru (1998) in the reduced form of equation (4). The reduced form is a distributed lag model with the lagged dependent variable appearing as independent variable.

Cummings (1975) and Holt (1999) assert that supply response could be assumed to be equivalent to response in acreage under cultivation to changes in economic and non-economic factors and according to Mythili, (2006) area decision is totally under the control of farmers. Moreover, using supply or output conceals some variations in area and yield if they move in opposite directions. Hence in this study hectrage was used as indicator of supply.
This study tried to estimate the impact of variable factors on output vis-à-vis the area harvested. The variable factors considered include the lagged values of the dependent variable, the yield of investigated crop in the previous year(s), the yield of the competing crop in the previous year(s), the price of the investigated crop in the previous year(s), the price of the competing crop in the previous year(s) and the weather index approximated by the annual mean rainfall at time “t”. The use of lagged (previous years) price, yield and hectrage was based on the assumption that previous year(s) price, yield and hectrage allocated to the production of the selected crops exert pressures on farmers’ subsequent hectrage allocation decisions in the production of the crops.

The general form of the model adopted in this study is:

\[ Q_i = b_0 + b_1 A_{it-k} + b_2 Y_{it-k} + b_3 Y_{jct-k} + b_4 P_{it-k} + b_5 P_{jct-k} + b_6 W_{t-k} + U_t \]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Where:

- \( Q_i \) = Hectrage response of crop i
- \( b_0 \) = intercept
- \( b_1 \ldots b_6 \) = Distributed lag weights (coefficients of variables)
- \( k = 1 \ldots n \) years
- \( A_{it-k} \) = Hectrage under crop i, lagged at 1…n year(s)
- \( Y_{it-k} \) = Yield of crop i, lagged at 1…n year(s)
- \( Y_{jct-k} \) = Yield of competing crop j, at 1…n year(s) lagged.
- \( P_{it-k} \) = Price of crop i, lagged at 1…n year(s)
- \( P_{jct-k} \) = Price of competing crop j, lagged at 1…n year(s)
- \( W_{t-k} \) = Amount of rainfall at one year lagged
- \( U_t \) = Residual error

The general form of the model was applied for estimating values in respect of the crops selected for the study. The variables used in this study and their definitions are listed in appendix I.

To avoid spurious regression estimates, and following Szeto (2006), two approaches were employed, by undertaking unit root test to determine the stationarity of the variables before estimation; and including the lagged dependent variable as an independent variable, and estimating the regression equation with the Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance Estimator (HAC consistent covariance) using Statistical Software, Eviews 4.0. Testing unit root in the variables of study to identify the order of integration of each single time series involved performing an Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test with and without deterministic trend using statistical software, E-views 4.0.

The procedure for the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test is as follows:

\[ \Delta Y_t = \alpha + \beta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_j \Delta Y_{t-i-1} + \ell_t \]  \hspace{1cm} (6)

\[ \Delta Y_t = \alpha + \gamma t + \beta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_j \Delta Y_{t-i-1} + \ell_t \]  \hspace{1cm} (7)

Where equations (5) and (6) above indicate ADF tests without trend and with trend, respectively. Thus, the ADF unit root test posits a null hypothesis \( \beta=0 \) versus an alternative hypothesis \( \beta>0 \) where the ADF statistics was compared with the Mackinnon criterion for rejecting null hypothesis. The \( H_0 \) is rejected if the ADF statistics is greater than the critical values in absolute term.

Estimation of the regression equation was carried out using the Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance method or the HAC consistent covariance. The method

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consists of the White heteroskedasticity and the Newey-West HAC consistent covariance estimators with each allowing for ordinary least squares estimation in the log-log form. A more general covariance estimator that is consistent in the presence of both heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation of unknown form is the Newey-West estimator which is given by:

\[
NW = \frac{T}{T-K} \left( X'X \right)^{-1} \Lambda \left( X'X \right)^{-1}
\]

Where

\[
\Lambda = \frac{T}{T-K} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{T} U_t^2 X_t X_t' + \sum_{v=1}^{q} \left[ 1 - \frac{v}{q-1} \right] \sum_{t=v+1}^{T} \left( x_{t-v} u_t x_{t-v} ' + x_{t-v} u_t u_{t-v} x_{t-v}' \right) \right\}
\]

and q, the truncation lag, is a parameter representing the number of autocorrelations used in evaluating the dynamics of the OLS residuals, Ut.

The Newey-West HAC consistent covariances estimation method was adopted in this study due to its robustness and inclusiveness in addressing autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity issues.

**Speed of Adjustment; Production, Price and Cross Elasticities of the Selected Crops**

The general form of the model adopted in this study is a distributed lag model with the lagged dependent variable appearing as independent variable. Estimation was via HAC Consistent Covariance Estimator which provides for the OLS estimation in the log-log form. The simplicity of the log-log form would provide the elasticity estimates in respect of all the independent variables employed to explain the dependent variable. Coefficient of each explanatory variable directly gives shortrun elasticities and the longrun elasticities are obtained by dividing shortrun elasticities by \((1-\text{coefficient of the lagged hectrage variables})\). The assumption underlying this model is that all the longrun elasticities exceed shortrun elasticities (Mythili, 2006). The coefficient of the lagged dependent variable also known as the estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment explains the speed at which farmers adjust to changing prices, yields and other factors for the difference between the hectrage they would like to plant and the hectrage actually planted in the previous year.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Unit Root Test Result**

The results obtained show the order of integration and stationarity of hectrage, price, yield in respect of the cassava and yams and mean rainfall series determined by the Augmented Dickey Fuller test. Table 1 shows the order of integration and the number of times the series were differenced. None of the variables was stationary at levels; four were stationary after the first difference implying an integrated order of: I (1) while three others were stationary after the second difference: I (2).
Table 1: Unit Root Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Order of integration</th>
<th>Critical values 1%</th>
<th>Critical values 5%</th>
<th>Critical values 10%</th>
<th>ADF Statistics</th>
<th>P-Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Δ^2ACASSAVA</td>
<td>I (2)</td>
<td>-4.4415</td>
<td>-3.6330</td>
<td>-3.2535</td>
<td>-5.373942</td>
<td>0.000003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ^2AYAMS</td>
<td>I (2)</td>
<td>-4.4415</td>
<td>-3.6330</td>
<td>-3.2535</td>
<td>-5.264262</td>
<td>0.000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔYCASSAVA</td>
<td>I(1)</td>
<td>-4.4167</td>
<td>-3.6219</td>
<td>-3.2474</td>
<td>-4.951756</td>
<td>0.000012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ^2YYAMS</td>
<td>I(2)</td>
<td>-4.4167</td>
<td>-3.6219</td>
<td>-3.2474</td>
<td>-4.618186</td>
<td>0.000012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔPCASSAVA</td>
<td>I(1)</td>
<td>-4.4167</td>
<td>-3.6219</td>
<td>-3.2474</td>
<td>-4.951756</td>
<td>0.000328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔPYAMS</td>
<td>I(1)</td>
<td>-4.4167</td>
<td>-3.6219</td>
<td>-3.2474</td>
<td>-5.944044</td>
<td>0.000101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔWEATHER</td>
<td>I(1)</td>
<td>-4.4167</td>
<td>-3.6219</td>
<td>-3.2474</td>
<td>-5.215415</td>
<td>0.000007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Δ = Difference operator  
2. I (d) No. of times of integration  
3. Level = 1%, 5%, 10% level of significance.

Speed of Adjustment, Production, Price and Cross Elasticity Estimates of the Selected Root and Tuber Crops

Estimation results in respect of the hectrage responses of the selected crops of study directly provide the elasticity estimates of the crops. The coefficients of the price of the investigating crops provide the price elasticity estimates of the crops while the coefficients of the price of competing crops, provide the price cross elasticity. Similarly, the coefficients of the yield of investigating crops, provide the elasticity of production of the crops, while the coefficients of the yield of competing crops, provide the production cross elasticity. The coefficient of the lagged dependent variable provides the estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment i.e. the speed of adjustment. Estimation results in respect of hectrage response of the selected root and tuber crops of study are in appendix II.

Table 2 shows the estimates of production and price elasticities of selected investigating crop (yams), the corresponding cross elasticity estimates; and the Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment.

Table 2: Production, price and cross elasticity estimates; and the Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment for root and tuber crops - Yams hectrage response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crop</th>
<th>Elasticity of production</th>
<th>Cross elasticity of production</th>
<th>Price elasticity</th>
<th>Cross price elasticity</th>
<th>Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Root &amp; Tubers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yams</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>-1.1048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Estimation results of Yams hectrage response.

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* Competing crop.

Elasticity estimates in respect of the yield and price of yams; and their corresponding cross elasticity estimates were 0.461 and -0.063; and 0.012 and 0.162, respectively. A one percent increase in the yield of yams would increase the hectrage allocated to the production of yams by 0.46%, while a one percent decrease in the price of yams would result in 0.063% decrease in hectrage allocation to yams. Also, a one percent decrease in the yield of the competing crop, cassava, would increase hectrage allocation to yams by 0.012%, while a one percent decrease in the price of cassava would result in 0.16% increase in hectrage allocation to yams. However, it is notable that farmers were more responsive to changes in the yield of yams and price of cassava in their hectrage allocation decision for the production of yams.

The elasticity estimates obtained for both yield and price of the crop and their corresponding cross elasticity estimates fall below 1, thereby indicating that the hectrage of yams was neither production nor price elastic; which is consistent with the apriori expectation that farmers in Nigeria do not respond fully or partially respond to changes in variable factors (price and non-price factors) in hectrage allocation to the production of yams.

The estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment was found to be -1.1048 implying that farmers were highly and inversely adjusting to changing prices, yields and other factors to the extent of 1.1048 or over 110% for the difference between the hectrage they would like to plant and the hectrage actually planted in the previous year(s), thereby indicating a very fast rate or speed at which farmers respond to changes in variables of study in their hectrage allocation decision to the production of yams. This is in line with apriori expectation that a decrease in the lagged hectrage and price of a crop (supply shifters) would lead to a corresponding decrease in the hectrage allocation to the production of the crop; as reflected by the signs and sizes of the coefficients of lagged hectrage and lagged price of yams.

Table 3 shows the estimates of production and price elasticities of selected investigating crop (cassava), the corresponding cross elasticity estimates; and the Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment.

Table 3: Production, price and cross elasticity estimates; and the Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment for root and tuber crops - Cassava hectrage response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crop</th>
<th>Elasticity of production</th>
<th>Cross elasticity of production</th>
<th>Price elasticity</th>
<th>Cross price elasticity</th>
<th>Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Root &amp; Tubers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassava</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Yams</td>
<td>1.413</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>-0.039</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>-0.4076</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Estimation results of Cassava hectrage response.

* Competing crop

Elasticity estimates in respect of the yield and price of cassava; and their corresponding cross elasticity estimates for cassava hectrage response, were 1.413 and -0.039; and 0.210 and 0.225, respectively. A one percent increase in the yield of cassava would increase the hectrage
allocated to its production by 1.41%, while a one percent decrease in its price would result in 0.04% decrease in hectrage allocation to the production of cassava. Also, a one percent decrease in the yield of the competing crop, yams, would result in 0.210% increase in hectrage allocation to cassava, while a one percent decrease in the price of yams would result in 0.23% increase in hectrage allocation to the production of cassava. However, it is notable that farmers were more responsive to changes in the yield of cassava and the price of yams in their hectrage allocation decisions for the production of cassava.

The elasticity estimate obtained for cassava hectrage response is consistent with the findings of Behrman (1968) whose short run and long run elasticity estimates for cassava supply response in Thailand was 1.09. The elasticity of production obtained for cassava in this study is 1.4 indicating that hectrage of cassava was highly elastic to changes in the yield of the crop. This is an exception to the apriori expectation of partial response of farmers to changes in variable factors in hectrage allocation to the production of cassava. This may be attributable to the various uses to which cassava can be put and its improvement/transformation in the value chain. Cassava is one of the crops under the presidential initiatives in Nigeria. However all other elasticity estimates for cassava hectrage response fall below 1, thereby indicating that except for the yield of cassava, farmers in Nigeria do not respond fully or partially respond to changes in other variable factors in hectrage allocation to the production of cassava.

The estimated Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment was found to be -0.4076 implying that farmers were inversely adjusting to changing prices, yields and other factors to the extent of -0.4076 or 40.76% for the difference between the hectrage they would like to plant and the hectrage actually planted in the previous year(s), thereby indicating a somewhat slow speed of adjustment in hectrage allocation decision of farmers to changes in variables of study. The result in respect of cassava hectrage response follows apriori expectation that a decrease in the coefficients of the crop’s explanatory variables or an increase in the coefficients of its competing crop or vice versa, would result in a corresponding decrease or increase in the hectrage allocated to the production of cassava.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study aimed at determining the production, price and the cross elasticities; and the speed of adjustments in respect of hectrage allocation to the production of root and tuber crops in Nigeria, through the application of the Nelovian dynamic adjustment model (NEDAL). The study reveals that except for the hectrage of cassava, which was production elastic, all other crops of study were neither production nor price elastic to hectrage allocation for the production of the crops, given, the low elasticity estimates of production and price. Following Mythili (2006) and Salassi (2006), apriori, it was expected that crop hectrage would be relatively inelastic to changes in price and non-price factors. In line with Mythili (2006) assertion, this study supports the results in the available literature that farmers’ response to price is very low in the shortrun and their adjustment mechanism towards reaching the desired level is slow for food grains. Chadhaury (1986) has further confirmed that area allocation to food crops is generally expected to show less variation than to cash crops. Thus farmers especially subsistence farmers (predominant in less developed countries, including Nigeria) have to inevitably put such area under their crops as could enable them to produce food grains commensurate with their family consumption requirements. This implies that area allocation among food crops may not show wide yearly variations.

Except the coefficient of the yield of cassava which is higher than 1, hence highly elastic, all other coefficients of yield and price in respect of all the crops of study fall below 1 and relatively smaller for price. The adjustment coefficients reflected by the coefficients of the

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lagged dependent variable, otherwise known as the Nerlovian coefficient of adjustment are high for yams and slow for cassava but negative; thereby indicating fast and slow processes of adjustment respectively but inverse relationships.

The small sizes and signs of the coefficients of the explanatory variables i.e. lagged hectrage, lagged yield, lagged price and mean rainfall obtained fall within the established levels, comparable with elasticities reported in previous studies and further validates the hypothesis that farmers in Nigeria like their counterparts in other developing countries, do not respond fully or partially respond to changes in price and non-price factors in hectrage allocation for the production of the food.

It is recommended that the scope of the presidential initiatives on agricultural crops be broadened to accommodate more staple food crops in view of the supposed positive impact of the initiatives on cassava productivity; and policies which center on enhanced crops productivity, farm income and food security be promoted and sustained.

REFERENCES
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Philip, D., Nkonya, I., Pender, J. and Oni, O.A. (2008) *Constraints to increasing agricultural productivity in Nigeria (NSSP Brief No 4).* International Food Policy Research Institute, IFPRI.


**APPENDIX I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACassava</td>
<td>Area harvested of Cassava (hectares)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AYams</td>
<td>Area harvested of Yams (hectares)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCassava</td>
<td>Producer price of Cassava (Naira/ton)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PYams</td>
<td>Producer price of Yams (Naira/ton)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YCassava</td>
<td>Yield of Cassava (Kg/hectare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YYams</td>
<td>Yield of Yams (Kg/hectare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>Weather index approximated by mean annual rainfall (Millimeters)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**APPENDIX II**

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### Dependent Variable: DLOG(AYAMS,2)

**Method:** Least Squares  
**Date:** 04/01/12  **Time:** 13:34  
**Sample (adjusted):** 1986 2008  
**Included observations:** 23 after adjusting endpoints  
**Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.031026</td>
<td>0.013554</td>
<td>2.289018</td>
<td>0.0360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(AYAMS(-1,2))</td>
<td>-1.104827</td>
<td>0.246737</td>
<td>-4.477744</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(YCASSAVA(-2))</td>
<td>0.011608</td>
<td>0.277682</td>
<td>0.041803</td>
<td>0.9672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(YYAMS(-2,2))</td>
<td>0.461358</td>
<td>0.143724</td>
<td>3.210022</td>
<td>0.0055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(PCASSAVA(-2))</td>
<td>0.161693</td>
<td>0.052972</td>
<td>3.052431</td>
<td>0.0076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(PYAMS(-2))</td>
<td>-0.062749</td>
<td>0.044247</td>
<td>-1.418158</td>
<td>0.1753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLOG(WEATHER(-1))</td>
<td>0.026469</td>
<td>0.084138</td>
<td>0.314587</td>
<td>0.7571</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**R-squared** 0.839672  
**Adjusted R-squared** 0.779548  
**S.E. of regression** 0.075891  
**Akaike info criterion** -2.073251  
**Sum squared resid** 0.092151  
**Schwarz criterion** -1.727665  
**Log likelihood** 30.84238  
**F-statistic** 13.96586  
**Durbin-Watson stat** 2.303479  
**Prob(F-statistic)** 0.000014

### Dependent Variable: DLOG(ACASSAVA,2)

**Method:** Least Squares  
**Date:** 04/01/12  **Time:** 13:05  
**Sample (adjusted):** 1986 2008  
**Included observations:** 23 after adjusting endpoints  
**Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=2)**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
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</table>

**R-squared** 0.692002  
**Adjusted R-squared** 0.576503  
**S.E. of regression** 0.103047  
**Akaike info criterion** -1.461465  
**Sum squared resid** 0.169900  
**Schwarz criterion** -1.115880  
**Log likelihood** 23.80685  
**F-statistic** 5.991402  
**Durbin-Watson stat** 2.001063  
**Prob(F-statistic)** 0.001925

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PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS AND ACCRUAL METRICS IN NIGERIAN CONGLOMERATES COMPANIES

DR. MAHMOUD IBRAHIM

ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between performance characteristics and accruals metrics in conglomerates companies in Nigeria. Financial statements are required to provide various users-shareholders, employees, suppliers, creditors, financial analysts, stockbrokers, investors, government agencies with a reliable and relevant information useful for making prudent effective and efficient decision. This implies that the income measurement components is a critical challenge. Data for the study were obtained from Nigerian stock exchange fact books and companies financial reports for the period of 2004-2013. Firms under study were dichotomized in to two: those involved in earnings management and those with less evidence. Probit analysis is utilized to estimates the influence of performance characteristics and accruals quality was estimated by modified model of Dechew and Dichev (2002). The result reveals that profitability, liquidity, Firm Growth are significantly and positively associated with the earnings quality at 5%. Therefore, it is recommended amongst others that the shareholders of Nigerian quoted conglomerates should ensure that all the three performance attributes used in this study keep on improving to decrease manipulative accounting in order to increase the quality of accounting information.

Keywords: Earnings quality, Profitability, Liquidity, Firm Growth, Accruals.

Earnings quality is one of the most important summary characteristics of accounting systems. High quality is said to improve capital market efficiency, therefore investors and other users should be interested in high-quality financial accounting information. For that reason, standard setters strive to develop accounting standards that improve earnings quality, and many recent changes in auditing, performance attributes, and enforcement have a similar objective. Earnings quality is also used in numerous empirical studies to show trends over time; to evaluate changes in financial accounting standards and in other institutions, such as enforcement and performance attributes; to compare accrual quality systems in different countries; and to study the effect of earnings quality on the cost of capital. Dechow, Ge and Schrand (2010) provide an extensive survey of this literature.

Earnings quality can be expressed through earnings attributes that are market based or accounting based. Market based attributes of earnings are value relevance and timeliness of information. Accounting based attributes are predictability and accruals quality. Accrual quality identifies discretionary accruals through accounting disclosures and tests the abnormality of such accruals. Lower levels of abnormal accruals disclosed by accounting statements indicate higher earnings quality. In view of the fact that the main objective of accrual quality is to provide decision makers with information that meets their expectation, an examination of earnings quality and its effect on performance attributes needs is considered imperative. Analysis of relationships between earnings quality and performance attributes improves confidence of decision makers with respect to usage of accounting information and would help in establishing best disclosure practices for firms. The significance of establishing reporting standards in ensuring high earnings quality would help stakeholders to view accounting information as valuable decision tools. The relationship between earnings quality and performance attributes is important to the extent that good earnings

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quality builds confidence in the minds of existing and potential investors as well as other stakeholders. The implications of these on the economy as a whole are also obvious. Economic growth will be more sustainable; capital market will be boosted and become more developed. All these are essential for sustained economic growth and development.

Earnings management could be attributable to the Flexibility inherent in General Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) in the preparation of financial statements, which gives financial managers some freedom to select among accounting alternatives. Earning management uses this flexibility in accrual quality to alter the financial results of a firm (Ortega and Grant, 2003).

Levit (1998) describes earnings management as a gray area where the accounting is being perverted, where managers are cutting corners, and where earnings reports reflects the desire of management rather than underlying financial performance of a company. If earning is considered to be the most revealing figure of financial reports, then adequate measures need to be put in place to ensure its quality and reliability.

Recent studies revealed that large companies that have failed or filed bankruptcy have engaged in earnings smoothing years prior to their failures, Abdelghany (2005). This unethical practices was also evident from most pronounced failure of recent times; World com., pharmalat, Societe Generale, Enron among others. Even recent Global financial crisis that engulfed world economies was largely attributed to unethical accounting practices.

Moreover, concern about accrual quality has grown historically in response to major crises of confidence, fraud and market failure, and with development of advances in our thinking about the role of corporation in the economy and society. The thrust of this study is to look into those areas of performance attributes of a corporation which influence greater to the accrual quality in financial reporting. The objective is estimate the relationship between profitability, liquidity and firm growth on accrual quality.

Many studies have been conducted on the influence of earnings quality on firms. However, most of the studies are foreign based and inconclusive such as (Watts and Zimmerman, 1978; Holthausen and Leftwich, 1983; Stolowy and Breton, 2004; Sun and Rath, 2008). Only few studies were conducted in Nigeria. Even the few Nigerian-based studies were mostly concerned with firm characteristics and accounting based attributes of earnings quality (Bello, 2005; Onu, 2007; and Hassan 2012). Few other studies in advance economies such as Levitt (1998), Deakin and Konzelmann (2004) and Jiang, Lee and Anandarajan (2008) associated earnings equality with performance attributes using the market based attributes of earnings quality. Thus, while empirical studies on earnings quality using Nigerian data exist, none of the studies address accrual metrics and performance attributes despite the influence of each of them on firms. It is evident however that a lot of developments have taken place in Nigeria’s capital market from 2010, after the financial crisis of 2009-2010 that caused an unprecedented crash to performance attributess of firms in Nigeria. The studies therefore did not cover post financial crises reforms in the financial sector of the country championed by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) with a view to repositioning the country’s financial system and addressing the effect of the global financial crises that stroke it from the late 2009 through to mid 2010.

Thus, gaps in the literature exist in term of both depth of variables coverage and period of analysis in Nigeria. In view of the fact that today, income smoothing and earnings quality can be regarded as two of the most striking and challenging issues in studies related to Accounting, there is a need to conduct a study that will extend its scope to both accounting and market attributes of earnings quality, and period beyond 2010. Furthermore, the peculiar and sensitive nature of the manufacturing industry as well as the reforms it has continued to undergo underscore the need for
special attention. So far, the sector has attracted little or no research effort with respect to earnings quality. This study therefore is an attempt to fill these gaps that have been identified.

Our study advances the existing literature by providing empirical evidence that accounting quality relates to the economic fundamentals.

Prior research shows that earnings quality is positively related to investment efficiency (is negatively related to both underinvestment and over investment.

Compare with a large literature on developed countries’ accounting systems and management reporting incentives, much less is known about the role of accounting in developing countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW
The concept of earnings quality is fundamental in accounting and financial economics. Yet, there are deep disagreements about how to define earnings quality. The list of candidate measures is long: earnings persistence, predictability, asymmetric loss recognition, various forms of benchmark beating, smooth earnings, magnitude of accruals, income-increasing accruals, absolute value of discretionary or abnormal accruals, and the extent to which accruals map into cash flows.

The motivation for earnings management or manipulative accounting is to maintain a stable income stream than one which varies considerably from year to year. Consistent with Holthausen & Leftwich (1983) and Watts & Zimmerman (1978), Bello (2005) identified three categories of motivations for earnings management: contracting, asset pricing, and influencing external parties. According to the classification, the first motive of earnings management is to influence one or more of the firm’s contractual arrangements. Such contractual arrangements include executive compensation agreements and debt covenants, the primary function of which is to alleviate agency costs by better aligning the incentives of the parties. However, depending on the structure of these contracts, accounting income may be smoothened or managed in order to increase compensation or to avoid covenant violation. Secondly, earnings management results from attempts to influence asset prices. The primary focus in this category is to overcome problems that arise when markets do not perfectly aggregate individually held information (for example because of trading restrictions resulting from insider trading laws, or risk aversion). In this regard, self-serving managers who believe that higher earnings will result in higher performance attributess contributing to their compensation or reputation may employ earnings management (Levitt, 1998). The third motive of earnings management is to influence external parties other than actual and potential owners of the firm such as tax authorities, suppliers, competitors, and labour unions. Managers seem to believe that by influencing the information content of the accounting numbers, they will succeed in influencing the decisions of these third parties.

Clearly, the combine effect of these motives has been responsible for the fall of many businesses. Firms’ failure for some time now has been caused by one or more of these motives. The fall was brought about largely by the joint effects of conflicts of interest between senior managers and lack of oversight by the board and advisers (Deakin and Konzelmann, 2004); significant and deliberate overstatement of financial statements over a period of time (Onu, 2007); and outright cooking of books (Onu, 2007; Jiang, Lee and Anandarajan, 2008). In addition to the big disappointment the failure often brings to firms with respect to their size and th and fie level of respect and integrity with which they used to be viewed, such failure use to have perverse effect on the level of investor confidence (Deakin & Konzelmann, 2004; Cohen, 2004). It also raised concerns over the effectiveness of earnings management mechanisms put in place by the owners of the affected firms and corporate accountability which create crises of trust and confidence in the financial performance of especially the quoted manufacturing firms in Nigeria.

Francis et al. (2004) posit that earnings quality is a multi-dimentional concept. The choice of an earnings quality measure will depend on the research and the availability of data and estimation
model. Some researches call for a measure of earnings quality that is linked to investors’ perceptions of earnings. For example, research that examines the value relevance of earnings presumes earnings are useful to a particular class of market participants (namely investors) whose aggregate judgments and decisions are summarized by performance attributes and returns. They argue that, other research focus on direct measures of earnings quality constructed using accounting data alone (i.e., without reference to performance attributes or returns). Yet another dimension that is important for some researches is the distinction among total, innate and discretionary earnings quality.

Earnings quality refers to the ability of the current earnings to forecast future earnings (Penman and Zhang, 2007). Earnings are of good quality if no earnings reversals are forecasted. With valuation in mind, the investors are interested in future earnings, that is, they buy future earnings using the current ones. Further earnings are said to be of poor quality if the current reported earnings are not good indicators of future ones. Schipper & Vincent (2003) assert that earnings are the summary indicator of the economic and institutional forces operating on the accrual quality process. An earnings quality as posit by Okolie (2006) is an important aspect of evaluating firm’s financial health, even though, investors and other users of financial often ignore it. Earnings quality refers to the ability of reported earnings to reflect the firms true earnings as well as the usefulness of the reported earnings to predict future earnings. Dechow and Schrand (2004) provide two definitions that tend to be similar. Firstly, a high-quality earnings number is one that accurately reflects the company’s current operating performance, is a good indicator of future operating performance, and is a useful summary measure for assessing firm value. Secondly, earnings quality refers to a situation when the earnings number accurately annuitizes the intrinsic value of the firm. These definitions by Dechow and Schrand, indicate the absence of impairment of earnings figure. Dechew, Ge & Schrand (2009) considers quality of earnings to be the extent to which net reported income on the income statement do not differs from true earnings. Finally, in all the definitions stated above, quality of earnings could be seen in two ways; firstly, reported earnings would be of quality if it reflects the underlying economic performance of a firm in that particular period. Secondly, earnings quality portrays how well accounting earnings convey information about the phenomenon. From the foregoing, earnings quality refers to the one that is free from accruals that is not driven by accounting fundamentals or innate factors (discretionary accruals), but are sustainable and are not being impair in order to artificially reduce the variability in earnings.

**ACCRUAL QUALITY**

Francis et al. (2005) state that: “earnings which map more closely into cash flows are more desirable.” Dechow and Dichev (2002) argue that earnings quality can be assessed by mapping of accruals into last, current and next period cash flows. Richardson et al. (2004) argue that earnings’ cash component provides both relevant and reliable information. Thus, they link earnings quality to cash components of earnings in terms of persistence. Barragato and Markelevich (2003) conclude that earnings are of high quality as the earnings’ closeness-to-cash increases and argue that “an earnings stream that is predictor of future operating cash flows is of high quality.

Earnings quality breeds reputations along business organisations. Reputation is primarily a function of earnings quality and ethical conducts. Moreover, reputation is the catalyst for power and recognition in the market place. There are different measures of earning quality as there are differences as to what constitute quality earnings. Suffice to say that the literature documents some symptoms of general application about earnings quality problems (e.g., Ball and Shivakumar,
2002) advise investors and auditors to pay attention to the following warning signs about earnings quality:

a) Cash flows that are not correlated with earnings;
b) Receivables that are not correlated with reserves;
c) Allowances for uncollectible accounts that are not correlated with receivables;
d) Reserves that are not correlated with balance sheet items;
e) Questionable acquisition reserves; and
f) Earnings that consistently and precisely meet analysts’ expectations.

Other versions of earnings quality considerations in the literature include:

I. Transparency – defined as timeliness in incorporating economic income (particularly negative economic income or “bad news”). The quality of reported income depends on incentives faced by managers when preparing the financial report (Ball et al., 2000.)

II. Recapitalization – firms undergoing recapitalization inflate earning to raise new money at the lowest cost. They may also inflate earnings to raise performance attributes in order to get the most out of secondary market.

III. High accrual – on the average, firms that have high accruals today would have lower earnings in the future (Francis, 2003).

IV. Cash flow – if reported income is substantially larger than reported cash flow, earnings quality is poor (Richardson, 2003). Many investors assume reported income represents cash that is left after expenses are subtracted from revenues. However, modern accounting is far more complicated. Decisions are made as to when revenues are earned and when expenses need be matched to those revenues.

V. Earnings restatement – this is a clear indication of earnings quality problems (Richardson, 2003).

PROFITABILITY AND ACCRUAL QUALITY

Firms’ profitability has been argued to have an influence on the quality of accrual. Richardson (2003) argued that a profitable firm may feel proud of its achievements and therefore would wish to disclose more information to the public in order to promote positive impressions of its performance. However, even though a study by Healy and Wahlen (1999) did find a significant positive relationship between return on equity (ROE) with voluntary disclosure, a study by Balsam, Bartov and Marquardt (2002) on the other hand, had found insignificant relationships. Besides that, the level of profit has also been argued to have an influence on the manipulation of accounting accruals because managers may manage earnings to increase their bonus rewards (Zaluki, 2008). However, Zaluki (2008) and Rahimah Mohammed Yunos (2011) did not find any significant relationships between the level of net income and discretionary accruals. This inconsistency and insignificance in the results is probably due to the use of current profitability, instead of changes in profits. Therefore, studies by Klein (2002b) and DeFond, and Park (1997) have argued that the changes in profit influence the manipulation of accounting accruals. Both studies have found support for this argument. Their studies indicate a significant positive relationship between changes in net income and accruals in financial accounts.

Several studies suggest that small profits are not evidence of earnings management. Dechow, Richardson (2003) in a large-sample study, find no relation between realizations of small profits and increase in discretionary accruals. Beaver, McNichols, and Nelson (2007) suggest that asymmetric taxes, rather than opportunistic choices can explain the kink. Durtschi and Easton (2005) suggest that the link is due to statistical and sample bias issues.
Several findings, however, suggest a relation between small profits and other recognized proxies for earnings management. First, there is a correlation between small profits and discretionary accruals in industry-specific and/or account-specific studies. Beaver, McNichols, and Nelson (2003) find a positive correlation between earnings management of loss reserves and small profit realizations at P & C insurers. Phillip, Pincus, and Rego (2003) find an association between deferred tax expense and avoiding losses. In both studies, the results are subject to the caveat that neither the accruals metric nor small profits represent earnings management, but the two variables are correlated, perhaps as explained in Beaver et al. (2007). Firms that were able to use more aggressive revenue recognition techniques, which might provide greater opportunities for earnings management, are more likely to report small profits and are less likely to report small losses (Akintola and Chris 2010). Second, the link is strongest in the fourth quarter when studies assert that the incentives for earnings management are predicted to be higher (Jeter and Shivakumar, 1999; Kanagaretnam, Lobo, and Yang, 2004). Third, low audit effort measured by hours worked, which might mitigate opportunities for earnings management, is associated with small positive profits (Cohen, 2004).

Several empirical studies have tested the relationship between profitability and accrual quality (McNichols and Wilson, 1988; Li and Richie, 2009; Austine, 2006; Bowman and Navissi, 2003; Ekoja, 2004; Adelopo, 2010). The outcomes of these researches are mixed. For instance, Ayres (1994), Ball and Shivakumar (2005) find positive and significant association between profitability and disclosure, whereas is a contrary position for Austine (2006) and Naser (1993).

Another research on cash flow was conducted by Donglin and Song (2009) with automotive and textile companies listed on Jakarta Stock Exchange in 1999-2004 as samples. They analyzed whether the cash flow information (operating, investing, and financing), gross profit, and company size affect firms’ stock return significantly. The result proves that the cash flow from investing activities, gross profit, and company size significantly correlate with stock return, while cash flow from operating activities does not affect the return significantly. Because the preponderance of earnings management research have been focused on discretionary accrual behavior around a single event, there has been, in general, scant attention paid to the longer-term implications of past earnings management. To investigate a longer-run view of earnings management requires a fixed, stable event around which earnings would be managed. Reporting profits, conditional on a prior extended period of losses, is one of such events. Reaching and sustaining profitability is a fundamental objective of every publicly traded company. For firms in a loss state, this condition must temporary if it is to continue as a going concern. The importance of losses to investors, and ultimately to managers, relates to the long term association between profit generation and the dividend paying ability of the firm. Not surprisingly, the profit threshold has been shown to be a critical single-period benchmark. Bello (2005) and Dechow, Ge and Schrand (2010) each document the propensity of firms to avoid losses with the use of available working capital accruals when reported losses would otherwise be small, providing evidence that accounting discretion is used by managers to avoid a loss state.

Lower accounting profits also provide motivation for firms to manipulate earnings because these firms are possibly facing more financial constraints. Ayres (1994) finds that firms with declining profitability tend to smooth earnings. Ahmed and Duellman (2007) report that managers’ incentive to smooth earnings will be stronger when the firm’s profitability is poor and its fluctuations in income are severe. Researchers have also argued that earnings management firms tend to exhibit a high profitability because profitability can affects managers’ job security and the compensation contract give managers implicit incentives to manipulate earnings (Fudenburg and Tirole, 1995). Wang (2006) argues that the firms’ propensity for fraud is positively related to
growth prospects and negatively related to the profitability of the firm’s current assets. The underlying notation for his predictions is that firms with good growth opportunities but low profitability (or low cash flow) should demand for more external finance. Earnings manipulation and its resultant favorable accounting figures enable the firm to raise capital in a better term. Earnings management is also forward-looking. Managers are more likely to consider future earnings when they make decisions. On one hand, if current earnings are low and managers believe that future earnings will be high, they tend to engage in income-increasing earnings management (borrowing future earnings). On the other hand, if current earnings are high but managers expect that future earnings will be low, they tend to engage in income-decreasing earnings management (saving today’s income for tomorrow use).

**LIQUIDITY AND ACCRUAL QUALITY**

Economic theory suggests that voluntary disclosures and increased information quality reduce information asymmetries (either between the firm and market participants or between informed and uninformed investors). This reduction in information asymmetries in turn increases the firms’ liquidity (Adamek and Kaserer, 2005; Aflatooni and Nikbakht, 2009; Ball and Shivakumar, 2005; Bowman and Navissi, 2003; Carnes et al. 2003). Early empirical work by Christian (2004) reports that firms that provide more public information can reduce the adverse selection component of the bid-ask spread, and thus potentially reduce their cost of equity capital.

Jiang, Lee and Anandarajan (2008) lays out the agency issues raised by excess liquidity and defines free cash flow as cash flow in excess of what is needed to finance all positive net present value projects. By definition, such cash flow should be paid out to the firms’ shareholders since the corporation cannot invest it profitably on their behalf. However, paying out excess cash reduces the resources under management’s control, restricts management’s ability to pursue corporate growth, and increases the profitability of raising funds externally to finance future projects. Management would rather avoid these things. Thus, self-interested utility maximizing managers would prefer to retain excess liquidity. For instance, due to the concern that regulators, investors, and other users have with regards to companies’ going concern status, highly liquid companies may desire to make their levels of liquidity known through disclosure in their annual reports (Kirshenheiter and Melumad 2002).

Kothari and Watts (2005) analyzed the correlation between financial ratios, including liquidity ratio (Current ratio), profitability ratio (Return on Investment), activity ratio (Total Assets Turnover), and solvability ratio (Debt to equity), and both capital gain (loss) and dividend in 135 manufacturing companies listed on Jakarta Stock Exchange. This research discovers that all ratios have positive correlation with capital gain (loss). However, only Current ratio which is statistically significant ($\alpha = 5\%$). Furthermore, for correlation with dividend yield, only Total assets turnover that is proved significant ($\alpha = 10\%$).

**FIRM GROWTH AND ACCRUAL QUALITY**

There is a debate over whether growth, the unobservable construct, or accruals as a measure of growth, affects earnings persistence. The bottom line is that high growth firms have less sustainable earnings (Porporato, Sandin and Shaw 2002). This finding is not surprising. Earnings summarize performance of the firm’s earnings process during the reporting period. If the fundamental process changes (i.e., grows), so will earnings and properties of earnings like persistence and smoothness will be adversely affected. Studies like Zhang (2008) provide more contextual evidence about how the accounting system affects the degree to which growth matters. In addition to the impact of growth on the fundamental element of earnings properties, growth also is associated with greater measurement error and more manipulation opportunities (Richardson et al., 2005).
Researchers have, however, examined growth as a determinant of the external indicators of quality. Kwon (2005) and Wuchun et al. (2009) find that young growth firms disclose more internal control weaknesses. Lee et al. (2006), however, do not find evidence supporting the association between restated amounts and growth. Research in finance shows that firm’s characteristics (such as growth, company size, efficiency) can predict the future performance attributes Joo Ann (2009) analyzed 478 firms in USA during 1982-1998 and concluded that big sized and profitable firms with high level advertising expenditure have better performance in terms of those three measurements.

Haghighat and Raigan (2009) studied the correlation between financial indicators and firm’s performance of listed firms in USA for 19 years period by using 17 financial indicators and three variables to measure firm’s performance (stock market value), cash flow performance (dividend per share), and profitability (ROI). The result shows that firms with low book to market ratio, efficient working capital management, low liquidity, more equity and less liabilities, and high retained earnings have high profitability based on ROI. Firms with unqualified opinion from auditor, more liabilities and less equity, low total assets and retained earnings have better cash flow performance (measured by cash dividend). Furthermore, firms with low book to market ratio, efficient working capital management, more equity and less liabilities, low total assets, and high EBIT margin have better market performance (measured by changes in performance attributes).

Research about accounting information for predicting return on shares is also conducted in Indonesia. Daniati and Suhairi (2006) showed that cash flow from investing activities, gross profit, and company size significantly affect expected return on shares. On the other hand, cash flow from operating activities does not affect expected return significantly. Meythi (2006) researched 100 manufacturing firms in BEJ during 1999-2002 and concluded that, with profit persistence as intervening variable, cash flow from operating activities does not affect performance attributes.

Growth opportunity is another firm-level characteristic that has been studied frequently. Beaver al (1968) find that growth opportunities provide managers with incentive to smooth earnings volatility increase perceived firm risk which adversely affects the cost of the capital needed by the firm. Collins et al (1997) and Easton and Zmijewski (1989) all find that earning response coefficients are a function of growth and risk. Skinner and Sloan (2001) find that the market severely penalizes growth firm for negative earnings surprise. Thus, managers of high growth firm are likely to have strong incentives to meet earnings benchmarks. Richardson et al. (2002) also find that restatement firm tend to be high growth firm which are under pressure to inflate earning to meet or beat analysts’ forecast. Kothari and Watts (2005) document a positive association between firm growth level and earnings management. They explain that growth firms are more likely to hedge cash flows to assure the availability of funds. Young (1999) finds that discretionary accruals are positively associated with firm growth since experience large growth will incur large current assets and current liabilities. He further points out that the impact of firm growth on current assets accruals and current liabilities accruals is not symmetrical; rather, most of the variation in working capital accruals is from current asset. Firth et al. (2007) recently point out that it is easier for fast growing firms to engage in earnings management than it is for mature firms since it is difficult to observe the business activities of fast growing firms.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The efficient contracting theory suggests a positive association between accounting discretion and long term firm performance and quality of financial information. Accordingly, efficiency contracting theory is utilized to underpin the study. Whereas, managers will be targeting better performance for short term gains, the interest of shareholders would be that of long term
benefit of capital appreciation and return (dividend). Within the agency framework, it is both logical and inescapable that management behavior will be self serving (Amat, 1996). The end result will be that of managers manipulating earnings. These two theories; agency theory and opportunisms theory provide a complete framework for understanding the motivations content of earnings management. And these guide us in formulating the following model as frame for the study:

\[ EM = F(PT, LQ, & FG) \] \hspace{1cm} (1)

Transforming 1 above to linear relation we arrived at

\[ Y_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta_{1it} PT + \beta_{2it} LQ + \beta_{3it} FG + \mu_{it} \] \hspace{1cm} (2)

**METHODOLOGY**

The research design is export-ante with the positivism paradigm. To achieve the objective of the study that is estimating the relationship between performance attributes and accounting ethics proxied by earning management, data were sourced from quoted conglomerate companies listed on Nigerian stock exchange within the period of 2004 to 2013. Annual report compiled by the exchange within the period of the study shows that a total of fifteen companies were quoted in the sector which were all adopted as a population and sample. A total of 90 observations were recorded.

The study utilizes linear probability model (probit analysis) to estimate the relationship. The justification for adopting LP model lies to the fact that the regressand; earnings management is dichotomized into binary code one and zero.

The study hypothesized that the probability of a firm to engage in earnings management lies on its performance attributes structure. Therefore in linear terms;

\[ EM = F(PT, LQ, & FG) \] \hspace{1cm} (3)

All performance attributes variables are numerical quantitative variable. While the dependant variable; E.M. is a dichotomous variable proxied by 1 if firm engage in earning smoothing and zero otherwise.

The model estimated is as thus:

\[ Y_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta_{1it} PT + \beta_{2it} LQ + \beta_{3it} FG + \mu_{it} \] \hspace{1cm} (4)

\[ E( y_{it}|X_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta_{it} X + \mu_{it}) \] \hspace{1cm} (5)

\[ X = Vector of (x_1, x_2, x_3) \] \hspace{1cm} (6)

\[ Y \] is conditional 1 if firm engage in unethical practice and 0 otherwise, therefore, the conditional probability is given as:

\[ Pr( y_{it} = 1, 0/X) \] \hspace{1cm} (7)

In running the (4) above first OLS was used. Since we expect:

\[ E(y_{it} =1,0 /x_{1}…..3) \] \hspace{1cm} (8)

We put a restriction of the coefficient of \( x_{i} \) as:

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\[0 \leq E(y_{it}/x_{1} \ldots \ldots \ldots x_{3}) \leq 1 \] \hspace{1cm} \text{.........(9)}

Non fulfillment of (9) led to run second regression using LP logit model.

Results and Discussion
Find below is the results of the logit model

The results of the model Table 4.1. Regression result Dependent Variable: EM Method: ML - Binary Probit (Quadratic hill climbing) Convergence achieved after 4 iterations

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<td>0.289436</td>
<td>0.062894</td>
<td>0.0499</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.002674</td>
<td>1.695324</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.970542</td>
<td>3.157585</td>
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<th>S.D. dependent var</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sum squared resid</td>
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Source: E view output version 8

The regression results presented in table 4.1, shows a multivariate binary probit regression convergence achieved after four iterations. Earnings management is proxy for accounting unethical behavior was explained with three explanatory variables: Profitability (PT), Liquidity (LQ) and Firm Growth (FG). The overall fitness of the model as revealed in Probability (LR STAT) was good enough to interpret the individual contribution of the regressors. On the overall the model fits the data at less than 1% level of significant; meaning that the variables explained in full the regressand. Other indicators of econometric value for inference are Akwaike information centre, Hannan Quin & Swartz criteria all showing a good results of nearly one or closer to unity indicating the data is normal. the overall explanatory power of the model is revealed in Mcfadden R- squared, as usual in binary regression hardly this figure will be high contrary to OLS Adjusted R² (Ajoin and Foster,1984). Mc Fadden R- squared shows significant variation of the regressand is explained by the regressors. Inferentially, performance attributes significantly influences accounting accruals metrics. This confirms the findings Daniati and Suhairi (2006).

On the individual influence of the regressors to the regressand, Profitability shows a significant negative relationship with accounting acruals, meaning that more independent board (high proportion of non executive directors) the less possibility of firm to engage in unethical practices. This finding corresponds with prior expectation of inverse relation between independent board and earnings management. Furthermore the findings conforms with several empirical

Liquidity also gives significant contribution however, from statistical results the hypothesis of absence of relationship cannot be rejected. This conforms with Abbott, et al (2000), and Contradicts the results of positive relationship in Beasely (1996).

Lastly, the hypothesis that firm with good history of Firm Growth will reduce the likelihood of earnings management was accepted at 10% level of significant. This striking findings show that board effectiveness measured by firm growth reduces the possibility of firm to engage in earnings smoothing (opportunistic tendency). This is because earnings positively influence firm growth. And any mistake to alter earnings may affect dividends. The findings proved the opinion of Jensen (1986) and Goergen (2007).

CONCLUSION

The thrust of the paper is to find out the extent of influence of selected performance attributes mechanisms on level of accounting accruals. Profitability, Liquidity and firm growth were considered as performance related mechanisms. The results show a significant positive influence on the mechanisms on accounting accruals. This led the conclusion that the possibility of firm to engage in earnings management is dependent upon its performance attributes.

Corporate decision makers need to satisfy shareholders and attract potential investors. Measuring the impact of earnings quality allows decision makers to evaluate the role of earnings quality in enhancing shareholders’ perception of the reliability of financial reports. Once shareholders are able to obtain reliable information about corporate performance, their response to financial performance measures becomes greater.

The results from this study will unlock a new door for investors to improve their decision-making process. Measuring the different aspects of earnings quality allows investors to be mindful of management’s capacity to alter accounting earnings for opportunistic purposes, which helps investors in evaluating the reliability and value relevance of accounting earnings.

The results of the study provide market participants with guidance in knowing which factors to take into account when evaluating firms’ financial reports. The results demonstrate that earnings quality affects earnings management and the information content of accounting earnings. The results also show that earnings quality affects the information content of earnings in the presence of earnings management. Thus, a firm’s earnings quality structure and its earnings management practices are value relevant information that should be considered by equity market participants in the valuation process.

As a matter of policy input, regulatory authorities and other stakeholders of a concern should strengthen and ensure compliance with performance attributes code and best practice. Ensuring adequate compliance will deter the possibilities of accounting fraud and improve the overall trust and confidence on the financial reports. Further research is recommended in accruals quality and stock price.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTOR OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG GIFTED AND TALENTED LEARNERS IN MALAYSIA

RORLINDA YUSOF, NORIAH MOHD ISHAK1, AFIFAH MOHAMAD RADZİ2, ENDANG PERTIWI SAIDY3

ABSTRACT
A number of researchers have shown that intellectual Intelligence (IQ) and Emotional Intelligence (EQ) are important predictors to students’ achievement performance. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between EQ and academic achievement among gifted and talented students in Malaysia. 112 students from PERMATApintar National Gifted Centre, National University of Malaysia (UKM) participated in this study. Data was analysed using inferential statistic (Pearson Correlation, Multiple Regression Analysis). Results from the finding showed that there was a significant positive correlation between EQ and academic achievement ($r=0.720$, $p=0.00$, $p<0.05$). The findings indicate the importance of EQ in students’ academic achievement. It provided a fundamental basis on the importance of teachers’ role in applying EQs’ elements in the teaching and learning process, especially among gifted and talented students. This paper proposes that EQ components to be embedded across the curriculum.

Key Words: emotional intelligence, academic performance, gifted learners, high school, motivation

1.0 INTRODUCTION
Emotion is an important element in the education process. Its role in stimulating attention may affect the processes of learning and memory (Greenberg and Snell, 1997). According to Greenberg (2004) various emotions which start from high-energy feeling, passion, and attractions towards peace, silence and withdrawal, and negative or mal-adaptive emotions which refer to emotions that are negative such as anxiety, anger, guilt, and grief. The ability to understand and use a range of

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emotional dynamics can motivate individuals in jobs or tasks performed. Meanwhile, inability to practice emotional competence may lead to stress and demotivation. Inability to adjust emotions in the learning environment will affect the ability of students to focus and remember, thus producing poor quality work (Sharp, 1975). This situation will lead to anxiety and frustration which then makes students emotionally disturbed (Maria et al., 2004). Lewkowicz (1999) stated it is difficult for teens that are always anxious, unhappy, and irritated to be ideal or excellent students. They usually cannot take any information efficiently and accurately, or feel difficult to manage information well (Goleman, 1995). Apparently, anything that affects students’ emotional state may also affect their learning performance. Therefore, students need to have emotional intelligence (EQ) competencies to help them manage their emotions when facing challenges throughout the learning endeavour. Many studies have shown EQ as a good predictor of self-efficacy (self-confidence) and students’ assessment of educational programme (Bellamy, Gore, Sturgis, 2005). The importance of EQ in managing and controlling students’ emotions is undeniable. Consequently, most studies suggested that EQ competencies to be applied in educational programmes across the curriculum including programmes for gifted and talented. (Ghasem 2013; Maria et al. 2004; Mohammad, Saber and Kayhan, 2013; Ogundokun and Adeyemo 2010; Yahaya; Yahaya and Nor, 2013).

1.1 Statement of Problem

Educational studies on gifted and talented students (GTS) often focused on cognitive abilities until sometimes ignore the affective needs of social and emotion. Fogarty (1998) suggested that the studies on GTS should also look at their social and emotional management skills because GTS was seen as a risky group in the aspect of socio-emotional development (Manaster and Powell, 1983; Bellamy et al., 2005). Previous studies had tried to assess the ability of GTS to solve self-adjustment problems related to socio-emotional issues. Versteynen (2013) found GTS’ socio-emotional adjustment is closely related to the type of intelligence, coordination of education and personal characteristics, particularly the elements of affective or mood. In fact, students with high level of intelligence are found to be vulnerable towards socio-emotional adjustment problems and are prone to isolation psychosocial risks (Roedell, 1986; Clark, 1992; Brown, 2009; Silverman, 1994).

The combination of all psychosocial and emotional issues showed GTS to have complexity issue or high emotional complexity, which is known as ‘overexcitabilities’ (OEs) (Dabrowski, 1977; Silverman, 2002). There was evidence-proving GTS to have higher OEs than their normal or average friends (Nelson, 1989; Silverman, 1994). Whitmore (1980) explained the lack of psychosocial and psychoemotional skills among GTS. The results of these pathological issues would undermine the IQ, which was claimed to circumvent the students’ success in life. Researches on EQ were carried out on secondary school students. The results revealed EQ competency can affect students’ academic performance and achievements (Noordin et al., 2013; Maria et al., 2004; Khaledian, Amjadian, and Pardegi, 2013; Hoy, Tarter and Woolfolk, 2006). EQ competencies are found to be contributing to a decrease in anxiety and stress, improving adaptability, interpersonal relationships and attitudes of self-direction or self-directed. Thus, GTS must be guided with knowledge and emotional management skills to enable them to remain exceptional and to maximize their intelligence potential in education and life.

1.2 Research Objectives

1.2.1 To identify the relationship between EQ and the academic achievements of gifted and talented students
1.2.2 To identify the contributions of EQ components towards the academic achievements of gifted and talented students.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

Ho.1 There is no significant relationship between EQ and academic achievement among gifted and talented students.
Ho.2 EQ components do not contribute to gifted and talented students’ academic achievements.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Emotional Intelligence (EQ)

EQ is a skill that allows individual to identify and manage their own emotions as well as to identify other people’s emotions and have good relationship with them (Goleman, 1996). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) stated that EQ allows individuals to think more creatively by using emotions to solve problems. Sternberg (1997) perceived EQ as skills that help individuals to achieve personal satisfaction and academic achievement, career, marriage, and physical health. Furthermore, Cooper and Sawaf (1998) stated individuals with high EQ are those who are delicate, fine and careful in observations to understand feelings, are willing to acknowledge and appreciate own feelings and others’ as well as are able to give accurate response by applying emotional energy effectively. Individuals with high EQ are claimed to be able to identify, use, understand and control emotions. Literature review shows EQ having a significant relationship with a number of variables such as empathy, verbal intelligence, openness to feelings, self-esteem, interpersonal skills, self-knowledge, self-achievement, academic performance or achievements, creativity, leadership, stress and mental health (Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee, 2002; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Davies, 2005; Hamachek, 2000; Lam, 2002; Mauldin, 2002; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Williams and Shiaw, 1999). Individuals’ ability to use emotions effectively in decision-making, problem solving, planning and managing are consistent with the behaviour associated with a good academic achievement (Akbar et al., 2011; Maria et al., 2004; Ghasem, 2013; Parker et al., 2004; Noordin et al., 2013; Mahsome, 2013).

2.2 Gifted and Talented Students (GTS)

GTS is individual with high cognitive abilities, high creativity and deep commitments with performing tasks (Renzulli, 2014). Gagne (1995) suggested, GTS whose giftedness has been identified need to go through the process of development through education, training and attempts via intrapersonal and environmental awareness that serve as catalysts towards making these individuals talented. Renzulli (2005) sees gifted children through the Model of Three Rings that puts three main features, namely exceptional cognitive abilities, high commitment in performing tasks and high creativity level. He explains that gifted and talented quality is not fixed or permanent. Instead, this quality is constantly changing depending on the situation and environment that contribute to the development of intelligence that would make such an individual talented. Gardner (1993) in Theory of Multiple Intelligences sees intelligence in its nine qualities; mathematical logics, verbal linguistic, spatial space, body kinaesthetic, music, intrapersonal, interpersonal, naturalism and existentialism. In addition, Sousa (2003) sees gifted children qualities from psychological aspect, which focuses on cognitive and metacognitive aspects, namely those involving the use of higher-order thinking in learning process.
Malaysian researchers’ concept of GTS focused on the aspects of attitude and personal traits that enrich and support the development of personal ability. Gifted and talented individuals must have:

(i) natural internal ability in cognitive skills including; reasoning ability, problem solving, and planning. Good cognitive abilities are demonstrated by learning speed and efficiency in organising learned information: (ii) opportunity to be in gifted situation, where individuals do not only have high cognitive abilities, but can also use those skills well, via a suitable and supportive environment. A supportive environment involving various teaching and learning approaches that are capable to provoke learning enrichment, acceleration, and curriculum compression; and (iii) attitude and satisfactory personal qualities are important in enriching and supporting the development of natural self-ability, which exists in such individual to achieve the stage of talentedness. Such features include friendliness in community, meticulousness and conscientiousness. In addition, this individual is able to influence others because it has competent leadership, proficient speech and the power to persuade, all of which contribute to him or her becoming gifted and talented (Rosadah, Noriah, Melor 2009).

2.3 EQ and Academic Achievements (AA)

Past research has shown a significant relationship between EQ and AA (Azizi and Nordiana 2006; Maria et al., 2004; Khaleidian et al., 2013; Mahsome, 2013; Maizatul, Norhastinda, & Norhafizah, 2013). Research by Noordin et al. (2013) showed EQ had a significant relationship with Form 4 students’ academic achievements. Other factors like peer influence, religious knowledge, family and financial problems, as well as counselling sessions did not show any relationship to academic achievements. Inline to that, research on EQ and academic achievements among secondary school students in Malaysia by Maria et al. (2004) found out that there is a positive correlation between these two variables. Likewise, a research on 100 accounting students by Khaledian, Sabe and Kayhan (2013) proves a positive correlation between EQ and academic achievements, and there is no EQ difference between male and female students. Research by Parker et al. (2004) has also found out the existence of significant EQ relationship with the academic achievements of 667 high school students in America and has proven a strong connection between academic success and EQ components. Nwadigwe and Obieke (2012) have also found out that EQ has a positive relationship with academic achievements of students in Lagos. Next, Hoy, Tarter and Woolfork (2006), through a study on relationship between academic achievements and optimism of students in Mid-West areas in America found out that optimism, which was one of self-motivation components, has significantly contributed to students’ achievements. A further research on EQ by Rode (2007) predicted EQ has connection with academic achievements for two reasons. Firstly, academic achievements involved much ambiguity and secondly, most parts of academic work were self-related, which required a high level of self-management. Therefore, individuals with higher EQ would do better in academic. Research by Muhammad Akbar et al. (2015) on students in Pakistan, has proven a significant relationship between EQ and academic achievements. Students from urban areas had better EQ score than students coming from rural areas. Finally, through the same research, it showed students with better socio-economic background scored higher EQ than students with lower socio-economic background. Mahsome (2013) proved the importance of EQ among students that there would be no future success for students having academic achievements without EQ. The study has also revealed that students with higher, average and lower academic motivation showed different EQ, which finally affected their academic achievements. Thus, all these studies have recommended EQ skill to be included in school curriculum due to its positive effects in improving students’ achievements.
3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Quantitative research methods are used for this study. The survey was administered to 112 samples from PERMATApintar National Gifted Centre, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. The centre was established in 2009, offering activities inclusive of identifying and selecting gifted students through an online system developed by the university, a three-week holiday camp operated in cooperation between UKM and Johns Hopkins University-Centre for Talented Youth (JHU-CTY), and a college of secondary and tertiary education for GTS aged between 12-17 years old. The centre provides a residential education programme using a comprehensive academic curriculum (equivalent to the 'O' Level and 'A' Level in the UK), research mentoring programme, extracurricular activities that involve community and volunteering services. On top of that, it also offers pre-university programmes as a way for gifted and talented students to continue to higher education level at the university.

3.1 Measures, Data Collection, and Data Analysis

Research participants were given Malaysia Emotional Intelligence Inventory (IKEM) by Noriah (2003). IKEM has seven domains with 180 items that measure (a) Self Awareness, (b) Self-regulation, (c) Self-Motivation, (d) Empathy, (e) Social Skills, (f) Spirituality, and (g) Maturity. Data on academic achievement were taken from the first semester examination results. The gathered data were descriptively and inferentially analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.0.

4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 The relationship between EQ and AA among GTS

The results of correlation analysis showed a presence of significant positive relationship between EQ and AA among Gifted and Talented Students (GTS), which can be clearly seen from Table 1.0 with a correlation value $r[112] = 0.72$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$) for both variables. This value proved the existence of strong positive correlation between EQ and AA. This means that the higher the EQ level, the higher the increase of AA among GTS. Thus, the Ho. 1 null hypothesis is found to be not true and is rejected.

In addition, research findings also presented all EQ components to have positive correlation with the academic achievements of gifted and talented students. Pearson’s analysis $r$ showed a relationship between achievements and self-awareness, $r[112] = 0.492$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), self-regulation $r = 0.626$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), self-motivation $r= 0.700$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), empathy $r= 0.585$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), social skills $r= 0.512$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), spirituality $r= 0.512$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$), and maturity $r= 0.546$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.01$). This means the higher the level of self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, social skills, spirituality and maturity, the higher the increase of AA among GTS. Thus, the Ho. 2 null hypothesis is found to be not true and is rejected.

Table 1.0 Pearson r Correlation between EQ and AA among GTS in PERMATApintar National Gifted Centre, UKM

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>EQ (whole)</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>SR</th>
<th>SM</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Sp</th>
<th>Mt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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4.2 The contributions of EQ components towards the AA among GTS

The table below displayed the results of stepwise multiple regression analysis which involve the contributions of seven EQ components towards dependent variable; academic achievements. The results showed that out of the seven EQ components which acted as predictor, (self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, social skills, spirituality and maturity), self-motivation was the strongest predictor that influenced students’ academic achievements, of $r^2=52.1\%$ ($p<0.05$). The obtained value for regression analysis is ($F (7,112) = 18.273$, $p = 0.000$ ($p<0.05$, $\beta = 0.414$, $t = 3.315$, $p = 0.001$). Meanwhile, the variables of other EQ components were found to be less appeared as strong predictor towards the academic achievements of gifted and talented students. Spirituality ($\beta = 0.004$, $t = 0.155$, $p=0.967$ ($p>0.05$), and self-consciousness ($\beta = 0.014$, $t = 0.155$, $p= 0.877$ ($p>0.05$) were found to contribute least towards academic achievements.

Table 2.0 Variant Analysis

<table>
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<td><strong>3.315</strong></td>
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<td>Empathy</td>
<td>-.117</td>
<td>-.745</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social skills</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirituality</td>
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<td>-.042</td>
<td>.967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>1.469</td>
<td>.145</td>
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</table>

Significant Level $p<0.05$

5.0 DISCUSSION

This study shows that there is a significant positive correlation between EQ and AA among GTS. The findings explain the higher level of self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, social skills, spirituality, and maturity, the higher the academic achievement of gifted and talented students. This finding is consistent with the studies by Ghasem (2013), Hogan et. al (2010) and Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2008). In addition, out of the seven components of EQ, only self-motivation has a significant predictive power towards GTS’ academic achievements. The self-motivation efficiency contributed 52.1% to the achievements of GTS. This finding illustrated that GTS possess high achievement motivation, commitment, initiative, optimism and interest towards given tasks. The results supported Hoy, Tarter and Woolfork (2006) which found that optimism, one of self-motivation component had contributed significantly to students’ achievement. Goleman (1996) stated self-motivation act as the driving force in correcting one’s perception and actions. He added the most valuable reward for individuals who have high self-motivation is the challenge and creative stimulus to complete any job or task and the opportunity to continue learning. Driving
factor like achievement will result in inner satisfaction caused by high commitment that would later generate self-recognition within motivated individuals (McClelland, 1989).

Goleman (1996) and McClelland (1989) views on self-motivation’s role is in line with the characteristics of GTS which are said to have high cognitive ability, creativity and deep commitment in tasks. Goleman’s view was supported by Chamorrow-Premuzic and Furnham (2006) which found that, although the relationship between intelligence and characteristics in EQ is weak, the EQ found is acting as moderator factor between intelligence and academic performance. A more in-depth research by Zeidner (2005) believed that students’ strength of intrinsic motivation may contribute to the increasing level of EQ which will eventually affect problem-solving like GTS academic achievements. Thus, even though self-motivation is the only component that contributes to GTS academic achievement, the strong influence of internal factors is capable of promoting awareness to increase academic achievement. Therefore, teachers have to undertake and streamline the strategies to generate intrinsic motivation so that they can achieve excellent performance in any work especially academic achievement. Theroux (1994) has suggested a number of strategies that can be used by teachers to establish and maintain GTS motivation, such as; encouraging intellectual challenging activities, providing opportunities for students to use their talents in achieving success, offering a choice of activities to build ownership, providing a safe environment for students who have failed, where they are guided to learn from failure, teaching them how to administrate assignments, using rewards and punishments carefully, helping students to build internal locus control, avoiding power struggles, giving students strategies to deal with frustration and uncertainty, and offering open activities that encourage creativity.

In conclusion, this study showed that EQ has a strong positive correlation with the academic achievement of GTS. Therefore, instillation of EQ component in teaching and learning process, as well as in GTS characteristic is recommended.

REFERENCES


VIOLENT VIDEO GAMES: VIRTUAL VICE OR ASPIRING FORTITUDE?

H.D.KOMAL BOODHUN1 AND MISS QURAISHA JOOMRATTY2

ABSTRACT

Violent video games gained much attention when school shootings and bank robberies occurred whereby offenders revealed that they were avid players of violent video games. However linking violent video games to aggression is too simplistic. Therefore the aim of this study was to find out the relationship between violent video games and aggression. Focus group discussions were used to collect data from 50 adolescents aged 10 to 14. The subjects were selected according to their exposure to video games. The results of this paper do not support the belief that violent video games lead to aggression. Instead, violent video games encouraged the participants to communicate better with others, motivated their participation in sports and at school. Conversely, most parents had limited knowledge about their wards’ time spent playing video games. The majority of parents allowed their children to play violent video games, provided they had completed their homework.

Key Words: video games, violence, parental supervision, friendship, communication

INTRODUCTION

Violent video games’ effects have been a debatable subject for years. Youth crime is becoming a serious issue and this is echoed in school shootings and other violent crimes. In most of the cases, media violence is blamed, especially violent video games. Violent video games are further delineated as games in which the player has a chance to inflict agony and perpetrate imaginary physical attack on another character (Annetta and Bronack, 2011, p 44).

In 2013 Aaron Alexis, an obsessive player of Call of Duty, a violent video game, killed 13 people (Allen, 2013). In the United Kingdom in 2013, a 15 years old teenager robbed a bank in Liverpool with a fake gun pretending as if he was in the video game, Grand Theft Auto (Rush 2013). In Mauritius, several cases of violence against teachers and peers have been reported for the past few months. In Australia, 3 women who survived sexual violence began a petition against the sale of Grand Auto Theft. The petition stated that “it’s a game that encourages players to murder

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women for entertainment. The incentive is to commit sexual violence against women, then abuse or kill them to proceed or get ‘health’ points” (Kent, 2014).

Studies on violent video games and aggression have produced mixed results. Many such studies were conducted on late adolescents, not on the younger ones. Hence it is imperative to conduct a research on young adolescents because it is during that particular age that they are more predisposed to be influenced by violent video games. The aim of this paper is therefore to investigate the relationship between violent video games and aggression during early adolescence. The United Nations Children’s Funds (UNICEF) classifies young adolescents between the ages of 10 to 14 years. To achieve its aim, the paper adopts three objectives. As the first objective, the paper assesses the relevant theories concerning the influence of violent video games. Secondly it analyses their possible effects that may befall on young adolescents. Lastly this paper will attempt to unveil explanations on whether parental supervision and practices are essential or not.

**ADOLESCENCE**

Research has proved that adolescence is the most vulnerable phase and is unequivocally marked by mostly biological and psychological changes (Smetana, Campione-Barr and Metzger, 2006). As a result of these changes adolescents are more prone to become aggressive especially after being exposed to violent media mostly video games (Kirsh, 2003). Even though studies found that violent video games usage decreases by late adolescence, yet the peak time remains at eleven to fifteen years old (Steinberg and Morris, 2001). However the development pace of every adolescent varies individually. Therefore taking into consideration the violent content of video games, the next sub-chapter shall analyse its relationship to aggression through different theories.

**EXPLAINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VIOLENT VIDEO GAMES AND AGGRESSION**

**The General Aggression Model (GAM)**

Developed by Anderson and Bushman, the Single General Aggression Model (GAM) shown in figure 1 below, generally explains how knowledge acquired is reflected in the behaviour of an individual which can be applied to violent video games as well. More specifically GAM describes a recurring relationship between an individual and his environment- that is, how people learn, how they perceive action of others and how they respond to it (Anderson et al., 2004). Violent video game here is a situation variable. Therefore the person with his individual personality such as moodiness, hostility or anger coupled with situation variable that is violent video games; together influence that individual’s internal state. Being exposed to violent video games can increase the level of aggressiveness in both long and short term. As a result the individual believes that violence is the correct solution for every problem (Anderson et al., 2010).

Figure 1: Single Episode General Aggression Model (ibid)
Social Learning Theory

According to this theory, behaviours are learnt from both direct and indirect experiences. However learning largely depends on the rewards and punishment that come as a consequence of that specific action (Bandura, 1971, p 3). Mass media is one of the major sources of learning for anyone. The foundations of this theory are that aggression is consequently learnt after observing models and then media facilitate the ideas and thoughts which turn into behaviours (Hart and Kritsonis, 2006). The risk factors that are capable of influencing a child are attractive perpetrators, justified violence, no consequences to victim, violence is unpunished and the violence is real to the viewer (ibid). When applied to violent video games, it can be concluded that players are directly reinforced and motivated for their aggressive action because they are earning points and coins and for the above reasons. Moreover violent video games expose the players to modelling, reinforcement and rehearsal of behaviours. The social learning theory thereby states that being exposed to violent video games would arouse behaviours similar to the player in the game.

Catharsis Effect

This study construes the term catharsis as “venting” anger through the exposure of media violence. Venting one’s anger or frustration on the media decreases the probability of indulging in future violence (Gentile, 2013). However Gentile further elaborated that there are many other research which substantiated the contrary of catharsis effect. Nevertheless in a more recent research it was found that the level of frustration decreased after the participants watched a violent movie and this goes in line with the catharsis effect (Dragomir et al., 2011).

Third Person Effect (TPE)

Third Person Effect (TPE) occurs when an individual believes that other people other than himself may be influenced by violent media (Antonopuolos et al., 2015). Hence perceiving himself as more intelligent and less vulnerable to the undesirable effects of violent media, he bowdlerises those effects even if violent media is generally considered harmful to all individuals (Wan and Youn, 2004). The gaps between the perception of oneself and others were discovered to be significant in various aspects such as political issues, violent media content and video games. Logically, people have the tendency to view those who are younger as more vulnerable, less experienced and less wise (Scharrer and Leone, 2006).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Qualitative research deals mostly with behaviours, perception and attitudes of people, thus giving a high scope of information. As per most behavioural and social scientists, it is recommended to
use qualitative method of research to better understand the reality of society and focus group is among those methods (Sagoe, 2012).

Focus groups involve choosing and grouping a group of willing individuals to measure the beliefs about a subject (Hagan, 2005). While using such methods, the researcher becomes aware of what people think, their experiences regarding the topic, in what ways they perceive it and why. This is one of the core benefits as it fuels credible, diverse and meticulous answers which a researcher would not get in individual interviews.

This paper seeks to assess effects of violent video games among young adolescents aged 10 to 14. Therefore for each age, 10 participants namely 5 girls and 5 boys were selected. The effects are a huge spectrum, a multitude of behaviours that can vary from a minor verbal aggression to a deadly physical one. Thus it is quite difficult to know the impacts through surveys given their limitations. That is why this paper decided on focus group.

FINDINGS & ANALYSIS

For the past few decades, a wide range of research has proved that there is an ongoing relationship between the presence of violence in video games and the existence of aggression (Greitmeyer, 2015). There is a strong connection between hostility and aggression in thoughts and behaviour and playing violent video games (Hasan et al., 2013). Several theories have been devised to describe the relationship between violent video games and aggression.

The General Aggression Model (GAM)

The present analysis failed to sustain the hypothesis that playing violent video game leads to either long and short term aggression. The majority of participants who played violent video games did not display any aggressive traits afterwards. No aggressive behaviour was therefore established. Nevertheless, the majority of them reported that they get angry when they lose but the defeat does not make them aggressive. Likewise, no difference was found even after the long term exposure. This result aligns with the research of Ferguson et al. (2008). In a more recent research, Elson proved that violent video games do not lead to aggressive behaviours, hence not supporting the GAM (Elson, 2011). In this current research, instead of aggression, a relative quantity of the participants mentioned that playing games makes them feel happy and relaxed. This finding is supported by the findings of Granic et al. (2014).

Social Learning Theory

Video games are highly interactive and the permutation of interactivity as well as numerous practices is a powerful tool for learning (Anderson and Warburton, 2012). In this focus group a few participants mentioned that they do learn fighting techniques or self-defence skills from video games. Around 80% of the boys fantasied about killing and teasing policemen. However most of them reported that they do not imitate the violence they learn. Another boy apprised us that he emulated his favourite player in a physical brawl but insisted that even if he had not played violent video games, he would still have beaten up his opponent.

This gibes with the research of Ferguson who further explained that violent video games and aggression are not related either directly or indirectly (Ferguson, 2008). This opposes the research conducted by Meyers whose findings were in line with social learning theory since her participants were more aggressive after playing violent video games (Meyers, 2002).

Catharsis Effect

This study revealed that around 40% of the boys use violent video games as a way to vent out their anger, frustration and stress. This is more likely to support the catharsis theory which is about
freeing negative emotions through fictional involvement in violent acts (Florea, 2013). This result supports the research of Ferguson and Rueda (2010) who found that VVG do not increase aggressiveness instead they reduce depression, frustration and anger. Ferguson and Olson (2013) also established that one of the aims for playing video games was the reduction of stress.

**Third Person Effect (TPE)**

The participants in this study believed that violent games can have a “third person effect” therefore most of them do not let their younger siblings be exposed to violent video games. They asserted that their younger siblings might be unable to distinguish between virtual and real world. Thus they might end up copying the violence. However girls who played non-violent games allowed their younger siblings to watch and play along. This data is congruent with that of Scharrer and Leone (2006) who found that younger children are more vulnerable to violent video games. The result of this paper further aligns with two other studies conducted by Villani et al. (2005). They discovered that children under the age of 9 are highly vulnerable to violent images. On the other hand Sande et al. (2015) proved that games help children to formulate strategies and do better at problem solving.

**Limitation**

This research has several limitations. One major weakness was that the researchers could not ask respondents about the effects of sexualised content of video games. Due to cultural reasons, many parents would have refrained from giving their consent if questions on this topic were included. We considered only one mechanism underlying the link between violent video games and aggression which is the General Aggression Model. Hence, risk factors, which are other variables for aggression, could not be analysed in depth. It was not possible to ponder upon all the risk factors for aggression in young adolescents which the depth of the topic.

Another limitation is the small sample size. The data collected for this paper was taken from 50 young adolescents out of whom 40 attended the same school. Therefore they represent only a minor proportion of the group’s opinions. Hence the data should not be generalised in all other schools in different regions.

Self-reporting data is another drawback. Self-report data is dependent on the participants’ discernment. Hence they could have agreed to the questions presented by the researchers in order to please them or they lied to better portray themselves. Another limitation was that the girls were not as responsive as expected. They were less involved in the discussion compared to the boys. Despite the encouragement and prompts given by the researchers, the girls were still hesitant.

**Recommendations**

*Parents’ monitoring of VVG:* In this study it has been found that parents do not bother about the types of games that their children play. This is as important for children as it is for young adolescents. Therefore parents should check the Entertainment Software Rating Board to better learn about the content of the game and decide whether it is age appropriate or not.

*Sports Video Games:* As the participants have reported, sports video games have helped them to practice sports often, be physically active and consequently to play better in real life. Thus parents may encourage their children to play sports video game to instil sports interest in them. However, in addition to allowing them to play sports video games, parents ensure that their children are doing physical exercises.
Video games in bedrooms: Andria Norcia (2014), director of Sutter Health, advised that, to exert an efficient control over their children, parents should avoid installing video games in their bedrooms. Otherwise the parents would have lesser control over the number of hours and types of games the children play.

Parental Communication: Parents should discuss with their children to grasp the latter’s understanding of VVG. This is a chance for the children to open up to their parents and share their feelings. Moreover parents should strictly warn their children about potential threats and dangers of playing online with random strangers. In this study many young adolescents reported that they have befriended new people both locally and internationally. Therefore the parents should monitor their children so that they do not fall into traps of predators.

Teachers: Children spend the majority of their time at school. Thus teachers should be more alert so that they can identify students who are acting too violently or those who are often exhausted. Therefore if teachers can identify the problem at an earlier stage, they can alert the parents and necessary measures can be taken. The teachers can even talk to the class about the negative consequences of playing violent video games and make more students aware of it.

Violent Video games (VVG) and Risk Factors: VVG alone does not directly cause violent behaviour yet it can be classified as a risk factor. Risk factors such as bullying, domestic violence or low IQ, along with violent video games can make the children more prone to violent behaviour. Therefore parents should avoid, as far as possible, to expose their children to risk factors and they can do that by providing them with more protective factors.

CONCLUSION
In this new era children and young adolescents are more digital-friendly and fans of video games. The theoretical literature depicts how violence is learnt and then put into practice in different ways. Consequently the findings if this research were inconsistent with the hypothesis that violent video games contribute to aggression. This finding did not support the GAM since none of the boys reported to have displayed aggressive behaviour after playing violent video games. This went against the research Zhang and Gao (2014). Nevertheless it was in line with the results of Ferguson et al (2008). Moreover although the boys fantasied about killing and teasing people, they attested that they do not imitate such acts as social learning theory of aggression predicted. The participants further broached that they knew the difference between real and virtual world. The participants contemplated the negative effects of VVG on their younger siblings because the children might imitate what they would see. An advantage was unveiled when the boys confirmed that sports violent video games helped them to play better on field.

The findings of this study are similar to that of Gamulak and Webber (2011). Moreover unlike most girls, boys preferred to play with others- elder brother, cousins and friends and this may in turn increase communication and strengthen their bonds. Many mentioned that they made friends from other countries which can be a good initiative but at the same time this could be precarious. Furthermore the catharsis effect was supported in this study when a relative number of boys asseverated that after a bad event, they vent their anger by playing violent video games. This finding confirms that of Ferguson and Olson (2013). Gender difference was also found. Majority of the girls preferred non violent video games unlike the boys who insisted that violence is mandatory in any video game.

The findings of this study are interesting and should pave the way for further research which can test the relationship between violent video games and aggression among other Mauritian adolescents.
REFERENCES


THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRADITIONAL SYSTEMS AND VALUES IN THE PRESENT ADMINISTRATION OF THE MIZOS

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ABSTRACT

Mizoram is a state in the northeast corner of India bordered by Myanmar and Bangladesh in the east and west respectively. The Mizos were a semi-nomadic tribes until the arrival of the Christian missionaries in 1894. However, despite the fact that the Mizos were a small tribe just emerging from an advanced stone age, their sets of values and code of conduct were highly advanced. Even after the Mizos were Christianized, colonized and became part of independent India, they still abide to these values and developed them to the current need of the modern day society. Associations, societies, etc. are formed to safeguard these values. The Young Mizo Association, the largest organization is a good example that safeguards such traditions and values in times of death, calamities, poverty, etc. Today, the age old traditions in the form of chivalry, communal care, etc. are still sustained in the day to day activities of the community effectively. This is achieved primarily because of the fact that it is a monoculture society. These age old values have shaped the ethical mindset of the people and their understanding of governance and administration.

The researcher investigates and compile how these values are still upheld in the modern day administrative system of the state government and the local administrative bodies. The researcher hailed from the community and provides primary information; explain how the traditional values were Christianized and how this development can enable a very backward society to prosper and develop rapidly.

In a country like India, the central government often tries to impose a particular standard of governance in multi-cultural communities or states, the system may not have a prosperous result in all areas. Instead of introducing a new system of governance, enabling and developing the traditional system in the present and developing state government or community may be more fruitful and successful in most monocultural societies, simultaneously enabling the community to preserve their traditions and values in a fast technological and globalizing world.

KEYWORDS: Mizo, Culture, Christianity, India, Tlawmngaihna

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRADITIONAL SYSTEMS AND VALUES IN THE PRESENT ADMINISTRATION OF THE MIZOS

Mizoram is a state in the north-east corner of India, sharing international borders with Myanmar in the east and south, and Bangladesh in the west. With Aizawl as its capital, the total area of Mizoram is 21,081 sq. km (Directorate of Economics and Statistics, 2011). Latest 2010 census records the population of 891,058 (Mathew, 2011). However, based on the preliminary results of the General Census of 2011, the total population of Mizoram state is recorded as 1,091,014 (Songate, 2015).

According to the Mizoram Statistical Handbook of 2010, number of Christians in Mizoram is 772,809 (86.97%), Hindus 31,562 (3.55%), Muslims 10,099 (1.13%), Sikhism 326 (0.03%), Buddhism 70,494 (7.93%), Jainism 179 (0.02%), others 2443 (0.27%) and people without religions is recorded as 661 making 0.07%.

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The Mizos are believed to be of Mongoloid descent with intricate variations over the years. The Mizos did not have a recorded history till the arrival of the British in 1871, thus making it difficult to trace back its history. Much of Mizo traditions have its link with places in present day Myanmar thus leads to an assertion that the early Mizos settled in present day Myanmar and migrated to their present land in the early 18th century, which became part of British-India, and upon independence a part of the Indian Republic. The origins and history of the Mizos are much debated and remain uncertain due to lack of evidence and research.

**THE EARLY MIZO CULTURE AND VALUES**

A Mizo village in the pre-independence era would be governed by the Chief or Lal and his council of Elders or Upa. Each village would be an independent body under the power of the Lal (Paken, 1981). The council of elders was “usually chosen from those who were Thangchhuahpa” (Thanga, 1978, p 10). One was considered a Thangchhuah if and only if he carried out the task that is traditionally required of him. Tradition requires that in order to be a Thangchhuah one must kill a certain number of wild animals or host a public feast for the sake of Kuangchawi. The Elders or Upas owed their allegiance to the chief, and they are bound to “strengthen the arms and hands of their chief in the discharge of his social, economic and political functions” (Lalrintluanga, 2014, p 309).

At the establishment of a village, the Chief of a village was initially selected and elected by the people, and then become a hierarchal office. Zahmuaka, the first Mizo chief in the record when elected by the people did not fix any terms and duration of the office, thus making the office hereditary. Eventually, the chieftainship became a prerogative of the Chief’s clans (ibid). In tradition, when a chief dies, one of his sons would take charge of the village and his other sons would establish a village where he may be a chief.

Like the chief, there was no fixed period for the office of the Elders or Upas. They remain in office as long as they earned the confidence of their chief. They are appointed at the discretion of the Chief and can thus be dismissed by the same authority (Parry, 1928). The responsibility and terms of each Elder or Upas rest on the power of the Chief, and the number of Elders or Upas in a council is appointed by the chief since there is no prescribed number to the council. Number of Elders or Upas would vary from village to village, depending on the size of each village. The chief and the Council of Elders or Upas administer the necessary works and govern their village so as to protect the people from raids, ensure the distribution of food, and others.

The ethical standard of a Mizo community runs on the ideology of Tlawmngaihna. The word tlawmngaihna is a term many had tried to define. Tlawmngaihna as defined by K.C. Lalvunga is “an ideal of life in which a man could not be outdone in doing well with others. When a man is tlawmngai, one cannot defeat him in doing well with others, and that self-sacrifice sometimes demands life itself” (Lalvunga, 2013, p 276). It is in this very spirit of tlawmngaihna that one is regarded as Thangchhuahpa. A Thangchhuah as mentioned earlier, obtains his title only when he fulfils the task of killing a certain number of wild animals or host a public feast for the community. This act of providing meat by killing wild animals and the hosting of a feast is also in the interest of tlawmngaihna.

The spirit of tlawmngaihna had been put into action and kept alive mainly by the youths of the village. The youth lived together in a dormitory-like construction called Zawlbuk. It is in this Zawlbuk that the ideology and spirit of tlawmngaihna are imparted by the Elders. The ideology of Tlawmngaihna culminated in the minds of the early Mizos in the life and actions of a Thangchhuah. To be a Thangchhuah was the ultimate aim of a youth, and the society was built with that ideology in mind, and Zawlbuk was the place where it was imparted.
Next in line of importance in the community life of an early Mizo was the Puithiam or the priest. Like any communities with the priests, the Mizos also give high regard for the priesthood. Like any primitive religion, the main duty of the priest or Puithiam was to mediate between the spiritual realm and the real. Puithiam were responsible for performing sacrifices to appease the spirits. The Mizos were animist in a sense that they feared nature and any forms of natural forces such as lightning, thunder, earthquakes, etc. The animistic idea of worshipping nature is however absent in Mizo belief. Thus, it was necessary for the Puithiam to advise the Chief and Upas of the spirit world and how they should offer sacrifices and hold feasts to appease the spirits.

A branch of Puithiam was the Bawlpus, who could be said as a medicine-man. Bawlpus sometimes regarded in the line of the priesthood may correctly be classified as magicians and witch doctors. They cure the sick and provide medicines to the community.

**CHRISTIANIZATION OF MIZO CULTURE**

The Mizo church is barely a hundred years old. Christianity was first brought to the Mizos by Rev. J.H. Lorrain and F.W. Savidge in 1894. However, Rev. William Williams was the forerunner in bringing the Gospel to the hills of Mizoram in 1891. Within a few decades, the Mizo church had become the identity of the Mizos. Today, Christianity and the Mizo culture had become inseparable.

**The missionaries and the establishment of the church**

In the colonized India, the British took charge of the tea-industry and one such estate were at the foot of the Mizo hills, called Alexandrapur in today Katlacherra in Assam. On 27th January, 1871, James Winchester, a Scot, who was on a furlough with his company were attacked by the tribes of the Mizos and killed. James’ daughter Mary Winchester of age, five was kidnapped. The raid came to the ears of the British government and effort was made to release Mary Winchester. Col. Tom Lewin met with the chiefs of the Mizo tribes and an agreement was made. On 21st January, 1872, Mary Winchester was released. However, Mary was already accustomed to the Mizos that she, according to traditions, cried, “The foreigners will take me away” when they came to take her home (Lloyd, 1991, p 8).

After the Alexandrapur Incident of 27th January, 1871, the Mizos came in the radar of the British. But it was only two decades later that a missionary made a visit. Revd. William Williams, a Welsh missionary working in the Khasi-Jaintia Hills in Meghalaya heard about the Mizos and made a visit on March 1891. He left a month later on 17th April, 1891 (ibid, p 17-23).

Meanwhile, in Leeds millionaire Robert Arthington formed the Arthington Mission (Indian Aborigines Mission) to evangelize the unreached. Arthington was a millenialist who believed that the second coming of Christ was imminent, at the thousand year reign to be established soon. Two Baptists, James Herbert Lorrain, and his friend Frederick W. Savidge, members of the Highgate Baptist Church in London, joined the Mission and were sent to India. They arrived in Aizawl, Mizoram in January 1894 (ibid, 25). The Mizos gave them a Mizo name, calling Lorrain, Pu Buanga (simply translated Mr. Blonde because of his blond hair) and Savidge, Sap Upa (meaning an elderly Englishman, since he looks more elderly than Lorrain). A few months after they settled and began their ministry, Robert Arthington became restless, and demanded that Lorrain and Savidge should move on to a new terrain. This may have been because of his belief that the second coming of Christ was imminent and his employed missionaries were to move places to spread the Gospel as wide as possible. They had only been in Mizoram for eighteen months. They enquired of the American Baptist Missionary Union as to whether they were prepared to take over from them, but the reply was negative. Arthington authorized his agent to hand the mission field (Mizoram) to the Welsh Mission.
David Evans Jones, from Llandderfel, North Wales, belovedly called by the Mizos as “Zosaphluia” the man who shaped the Mizo church. He served from 1897 to 1926. He was sent by the Calvinistic Methodist Mission (now the Presbyterian church of Wales). Working with the locals and early believers Jones set out preaching and educating the tribes of the land. Though hardly recognized in his native Wales, Jones was held in high regards in Mizoram for his qualities and character. Today, he may as well be known as the “father of Mizo Presbyterianism.”

Today, with over 86% of its population Christian, the church has become the embodiment of Mizo traditions and culture. Within the Christian church, the Presbyterian records the highest members with a total membership of 463,185 (with 835 church buildings and sponsored 1634 missionaries). The Baptist Church of Mizoram ranked second with a total membership of 143,083 (518 church buildings and sponsored 576 missionaries). Third, the United Pentecostal Church (NE India) with 90,370 members (464 church buildings and sponsored 123 missionaries). The Salvation Army has a total membership of 54,697 (278 corps and sponsored 257 missionaries). Next, the UPC (Mizoram) has a total membership of 43,890 (370 church buildings and sponsored 79 missionaries).

With Christianity as the major religion and the template for the lifestyle of the Mizos, the old animistic traditions were replaced by the Christian faith. However, the traditional religious belief was not altogether discarded, but rather synthesized with the Christian theology.

In the old belief, when one dies, he crosses over Rih Dil and enter the spirit world. The Mizo’s believed in two realms of spirit world, Pialral (paradise) and Mitthi khua (abode of the dead). Pialral was the ultimate destiny with abundant food, rest and well-being. Pialral was a place where one need not work or struggle for his daily meal. Only the Thangchuah would enter Pialral directly, not by living a life of virtue but because of their performance in life (Behera, 2014, p 334). Mitthi khua (abode of the dead) was the place where all other souls would enter and labour till they may be promoted to Pialral. Pialral literally means the other side of Pial, since it requires the crossing of the river Pial that separates it from Mitthi Khua. This ideology of Pialral was synthesized with the Christian concept of crossing over Jordan and became very prominent in Mizo Christian poetry.

Though the early Mizos appease spirits through sacrifices, and believed in many kinds of spirits, they also believed in a god they called Pathian, who they see as the creator and an onlooker from heaven with almost no activity with the affairs of the people. Unlike the spirits, the Mizos did not offer sacrifices to the Pathian. Years after the Mizos were Christianized the Christian God was addressed by the old name Pathian. C. Pazawna suggested that the Mizos knowledge of Pathian could be equated with the worship of the ‘Unknown God’ by Greek mentioned in the book of Acts (Acts 17:23) (Pazawna, 2007, p 49).

Christian theology and imagery were developed and synthesized extensively with old traditional beliefs. This ironically ensures the survival of such beliefs in a modern Christianized community. Even though the missionaries from England and Welsh arrive to establish the church, it was the locals and the Mizo mystics and song writers that shaped the Mizo church, forming its unique systems and traditions, in worship and administration.

MIZO TRADITIONAL VALUES & SYSTEMS IN PRESENT DAY ADMINISTRATION

The modern communities of Mizos continue to embrace the traditions in its evolved and adapted forms. These values and traditions can still be seen in various spheres of the life of the Mizos today. From local bodies towards religious organizations, from community gathering to governmental proceedings, these traces of traditions are clearly visible without much subtlety.
Community Level

Associations such as the Young Mizo Association (YMA), MHIP (Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl), MUP (Mizo Upa Pawl), and others strive to establish and promote communal harmony and responsibility through the ideology of tlawnmgaihna. This act of Tlawmngaihna is literally put into action in times of death, calamities and celebrations.

In times of death, local youths, men and women would take turns to stay, comfort, and do the necessary household works of the bereaved family so that they could mourn the departed peacefully. This act is also important because the meeting of different people under one circumstance could be seen as an act of honouring the dead. Today, from villages to cities where Mizo community establishes, on the demise of a person, his or her home would be cleared and arranged to accommodate mourners from different places. Tea and snacks would be arranged for people coming to mourn. Often, in any locality, at a demise of a person, over hundreds of mourners would come into a house meant to accommodate a single family. Thus, in a modern city where such gatherings could disrupt work, traffic and schools, the task of making arrangements fall on the youth. The Young Mizo Association is the youth body that ensures such act to be carried out smoothly. In modern Mizo community, this act is seen as one of the prominent acts of Tlawmngaihna. The Young Mizo Association had laid down norms and guidelines to ensure such activities are carried out in the true spirit of Tlawmngaihna and ensure appropriate proceedings during and after the funeral.2

In times of calamities, it is the youth that set out to work and carry out even rescue operations. Often, at such times a Hnalangor community work (not to be confused with community service) would be called by the elders and every household would step out to engage in the hnalang. This act of hnalang is also carried out in times of feasts and celebrations. This system had enabled the availability of work force without wage, which is at the moment necessary in a state like Mizoram where the economy still does not permit paid labour for every little work. The ideology of hnalang and Tlawmngaihna are also closely knitted and is not a stranger to Christian theology of the Mizos either (Hlawndo, 2011).

Religious Level

In the era when youth lived in Zawlbuk, Zawlbuk was the centre of the community; it was the community centre. It was where youth gather, learn and lived. It was a place of public gathering; it was a place where morals, traditions and livelihood was imparted and taught. Upon the arrival of Christianity, Zawlbuk was no longer needed. Lifestyle changed and there was no much war between villages, since villages began accepting Christianity and was now living in harmony. The churches now become the new Zawlbuk where they could learn morals and ethics, values and traditions. For this reason, most churches in Mizoram function as a place of community gathering. The idea of church as a house of prayer and worship had not settled very well till date as it does in the West. Churches were simple and accommodative to the need of the community rather than being a sanctuary- in its use, structure and architecture. Today, churches are a place for public events. Public feasts such as community Christmas feasts are organized in churches, weddings and receptions take place in churches completely, hospitality arrangements, etc. are often made in the church and used in such fashion.

The relationship and the close tie between the Puithiam and the Bawlpui is perhaps the reason why the church and hospitals were closely knitted. It is true that often missionaries would enter the new mission field and establish a medical care centre simultaneously; which did happen even in the history of the church in Mizoram. However, upon the arrival of the missionaries they were seen as Puithiam and their association of healing was quickly

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2 Specific guidelines were laid and revised at the 69th Young Mizo Association General Conference, 30 September – 2 October, 2014. Cf.p. 14-19 of the handbook provided at the conference (not officially published).
established by early Mizos even before a hospital was established. This is quite evident in the record where the Mizos have said “Zosapvenga ka va len leh Zosapin damdawi min pe” (Lloyds, 1991, p 31). After Christianity, the role of the Puithiam was not over, it was rather Christianized. Like the old Puithiam, today Pastors and ordained ministers still advise the political leaders and their voice still matter very much in the political structure of the present day government. Bawlpu became doctors and nurses, facilitating medical care and treatment. Like the Bawlpu of the old, even today, doctors still associate the necessity of faith and prayers, which may not be advised by many medical professionals.

Christianity spreads at a very rapid rate during the 1900s. Apart from the role of music and revivals that occurred during the early 1900, one reason for the rapid spread of Christianity was probably the similarities of values in the old traditions of the Mizos and the Christian church.

The concept of Tlawmngaihna fits perfectly with the self-sacrifice of Christ on the cross and the selflessness of the apostles. The death of Christ was probably regarded as the ultimate act of Tlawmngaihna, and Christ was thus seen as the greatest Thangchhuahpa that they could know of. In the traditions of the early Mizos, a Thangchhuah was held in high regard because he provides food and protection to the community. A Thangchhuah was one who enabled the security of the people primarily because of his Tlawmngaihna. Christ became the ultimate Thanchhuahpa who provide spiritual nourishments and security. The Christian doctrine of Christ redemptive work also made the Mizos to see Christ as the God who enable everyone to be a Thangchhuah, who can enter heaven or Pialral, since only a Thangchhuah could enter Pialral directly. Jesus became the one “who had single handedly taken upon his shoulders the task of ‘Thangchhuahpa’” (Pazawna, 2007, p 50).

**Government level**

Since the time Mizo culture embraced Christianity, the faith of the people intertwined with the proceedings of the government. Despite India being a secular country, the Legislative Assembly of Mizoram begins with a reading from the Bible, primarily done by the speaker of the Assembly. The traditional values of religious ties with government administration are not discarded, but rather employed and adapted to instill administration with righteous judgment and governance. It may well be noted that over the past years there had been a handful of church leaders who also holds office in government offices. Even though such arrangements could be considered a dangerous dichotomy for secularism, the principle behind such appointment was to enable superior administration without corruption; not to mention the lack of credible people with the requirement mention for the office.

In the Mizo culture of the old, occasion of the demise (death) and celebrations such as weddings were held of immense importance. The fact that a person dies once, and weds only once in a life time is firmly sowed in the mind of the people and thus demand the honouring and participation of close and near ones. For this reason, various departments of government offices are also quite lenient in granting leave for such occasions. Such activities, however, do not guarantee the workers less labour, but rather make the office-goers to have their work completed within a lesser time. This leniency should not be seen as sluggishness, but rather an embrace of the old traditional values.

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3 It may be noted that the Indian context of secularism is one that tolerates all religions and permits any forms of expression, unlike the west where an expression of one’s faith is considered an offence to secularism. For example, in India, an officer may be permitted to put up a picture of his or her god or goddess in his cubicle. Such is permitted because it is secular. However, similar act will be considered a breach of secularism in the west.
The extent of such traditional values in the present system of governance could probably be seen in the judiciary system. The Customary Law of the Mizons were oral and are quite extensive when put on paper. Some of these laws are traditionally upheld while some are strictly used in practice. For example, the price of a bride is Rs. 420 (approximately £4) and is exchanged before every wedding (Awia, 2009, p 19). This was equivalent to several domestic animals, but had now become a gesture of good will and tradition. At the same time, customary laws on rape and theft had remained firm and demand strict action. The Mizo customary laws cover from the subject of borderlines to dog-bites.

CONCLUSION

Today, Mizoram is one of the fastest developing state in the country, despite the age of the community. It is the synthesis, adaptation and intertwining of the old traditional values, the Christian ethics and the gradual development of these into the modern day administration that enables a common ground for development and growth. The dichotomy of Mizo traditional values and Christian principles enabled present Mizons to sustain each community, establish communal care, promote communal harmony and enable development. This dichotomy or synthesis facilitates the survival of the traditional values in a globalizing world. Keeping in mind the fact that the Mizons were a semi-nomadic tribes before the arrival of the British in 1871, but changed drastically to embrace all forms of development, the fact that several traditions and values remain intact and adopted is a good example for many developing monocultural communities in the world where such communities could be overwhelmed by the advancing internet age.

When in a country like India, the central government often tries to impose a particular standard of governance in multi-cultural communities or states, the system may not have a prosperous result in all areas. A good example would be the introduction of the International Yoga Day on 21st June 2015 only to be proven futile in states like Mizoram, Nagaland and Meghalaya. Instead of introducing a new system of governance, enabling and developing the traditional system in the present and developing state government or community may be more fruitful and successful in most mono-cultural societies like Mizoram and other mono-culture states, simultaneously enabling the community to preserve their traditions and values in a fast technological and globalizing world.

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4 Even though the day was declared by the United Nations General Assembly on 11th December 2014, the circulation of the Central Government of India to all the states to observe such day was not equally received well.

WHY INDONESIAN GOVERNMENT HAS NOT RATIFIED FCTC POLICIES: INTERNAL DYNAMICS AND OUTSIDE PRESSURE

DEKA KOMANDA YOGYANTARA¹, *EDWINA ROSANTI BADUDU, *KHODIJAH, *MARGARETA AMBARWATI MUTIS *REZA AMIRI PRARAMADHAN

ABSTRACT

Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) is an international treaty to curb the global tobacco epidemic. FCTC was adopted by World Health Assembly on 21 May 2003. So far, it has been legally binding in 186 ratifying countries. Indonesia which has involved since the beginning of FCTC discussion as drafter ironically has not ratified nor sign FCTC. The empirical findings of this article point to three variable, coalition preference, political institution stance and negotiators strategies. The article explicates how these variables corresponds to Indonesian position which has not ratified FCTC.

INTRODUCTION

Health impacts from smoking have become the concern of the international society for at least the last two decades. This can be seen from the formation of the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) which was initiated in the 48th World Health Assembly in May 1995 (Chamim et al., 2011, p 62). FCTC itself is an international agreement aimed to confine the spread of tobacco epidemic that has been enhanced by, excerpting the WHO FCTC itself, “a variety of complex factors with cross-border effects, including trade liberalization and direct foreign investment.”² The main provisions of FCTC consist of tobacco and its products’ reduction both on supply and demand. After the adoption of the final draft within the period of 16 June 2003 to January 2014, FCTC has been signed and ratified by 178 countries, signed but not yet ratified by nine countries, not ratified nor signed by seven countries. Those seven countries are Eritrea; Indonesia; Liechtenstein; Malawi; Monaco; Somalia; South Sudan.

The tobacco epidemic which the FCTC is striving to curb can be somewhat represented by the conditions regarding tobacco and its products in Indonesia, a country which, ironically, has not signed nor ratified the convention, making it the only country in Asia and that has not

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signed the FCTC. Indonesia has the highest rate of the number of smokers among Southeast Asian countries, namely 51.1% of its total population. Whereas its neighboring countries such as Brunei Darussalam scores 0.06% of its total population, Cambodia 1.16%, and Thailand 10.22%. It is only rational that tobacco industries target Indonesia as a convenient market, at least among the Southeast Asian countries. Tobacco industries in Indonesia consist of Bentoel Group (acquisitioned by British American Tobacco in 2009), Djarum, Gudang Garam, HM Sampoerna (acquisitioned by Phillip Morris in 2005), Karya Dibya Mahardika, Nojorono, and Wismilak.

Cigarette production has been a significant contributor to Indonesia’s revenue, that it becomes incorporated in government’s revenue planning. For instance, Indonesian Government released the 2007-2020 Roadmap of Tobacco Products Industry and Excise Policy in 2007. The roadmap calls for a 12% increase in annual cigarette production, from 232 billion in 2000 to 260 billion by 2020 (Barber et al., 2008, p 46). Indonesia is deemed as a safe haven for tobacco industries, moreover after the FCTC ratification. Indonesia, who is left out in the Pacific Asia as the only country who hasn’t signed the FCTC, becomes the last resort for these industries to market and make their products. This paper will examine how three things affect Indonesia’s foreign policy choice, namely the state’s coalition preference, political institution stance, and the negotiator’s strategy.

FCTC AND INDONESIA’S TOBACCO REGULATIONS: AN OVERVIEW

World Health Assembly (WHA) initiated the Framework Convention Tobacco Control (FCTC) in May 1995 (WHO, 2015c). FCTC occur as respond to the tobacco epidemic, which believed to be the greatest threat to global health. Tobacco use and secondhand smoke kill more people annually than HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria combined (Bollyky, 2010). FCTC main objective is “to protect present and future generations from the devastating health, social, environmental and economic consequences of tobacco consumption and exposure to tobacco smoke by providing a framework for tobacco control measures to be implemented by the state parties at the national, regional and international levels in order to reduce continually and substantially the prevalence of tobacco use and exposure to tobacco smoke”3. FCTC was adopted on 56th of WHA21 and came into force on 27 February 2005 (WHO, 2015b). Currently, 186 states is legally binding to this treaty (WHO, 2015a). There are currently 16 United Nations member states that are non-parties to the treaty include Indonesia4.

FCTC implementation in the country that ratify FCTC regulated in a guideline which has been prepared by Convention Secretariat. Its content consist of: protection of public health policies with respect to tobacco control from commercial and other vested interests of the tobacco industry (article 5.3), tax and excise are an effective and important to reduce tobacco consumption (article 6), protection from exposure to tobacco smoke in public places (article 8), regulation of the contents and disclosures of tobaccos products (article 9 and 10), packaging and labelling of tobacco products (article 11), education, communication, training, and public awareness (article 12), tobacco advertising, promotion, and sponsorship (article 13), and demand reduction measures concerning tobacco dependence and cessation (article 14).

Although Indonesia was involved in the early FCTC as drafting member, Indonesia has not yet ratified nor signed the FCTC. This condition made Indonesia the only country in the Asia-pacific that has not ratified FCTC. Meanwhile, Indonesia has several regulations on tobacco control. Indonesia history on tobacco control regulations began in President B.J. Habibie administration. He signed the first Indonesian tobacco regulation entitled PP/81/199. This first tobacco control regulation were succeeded with regulations 38/2000 and 19/2003. Ironically, due to the political and economic aspects at that time made Indonesian government

3 ibid, article 3.
4 Ibid.
reluctant to enforce strict regulations (Achadi, Soerdjodjo and Barber, 2005, p 333-349). The last amendment of Tobacco control regulations consist in several regulations, first, government regulation PP/109/2012, which is the derivative of Law No. 36/2009 and second, Minister of Health Regulation No. 28 Year 2013.

Minister of Health Regulation No. 28 Year 2013 is intended to provide guidance for Tobacco Product industrialists to implement the imprinting of Health Warnings and Health Information on Tobacco Product Packaging, this article was in the same intention in article 11 FCTC, and highlighted the health factor. Meanwhile, Government Regulation No. 109 Year 2012 aim to regulate cigarettes which based on Law No. 36/2009 is an addictive substances. In general, the substance of Government Regulation No.109 Year 2012 consists of tobacco products (article 4-7), responsibilities of the central and local governments (article 8-52), community participation (article 53-56), and guidance and oversight (article 57-60). In this regulation there are several things that was not declared clear. For example in article 10 paragraph (1) stated that any person who produces tobacco product in the form of smokeables are required to conduct level test of nicotine and tar content per stick for each variety produced. The article doesn’t explain about the amount of nicotine or tar content. Also this regulation did not regulate the pictorial health warning technical arrangement, which later caused the tobacco industries to use a cool smoking person as the pictorial health warning.

**DIPLOMACY AND DOMESTIC POLITICS: HOW BOTH PLAY A ROLE IN INTERNATIONAL NEGOTIATIONS**

Two-Level Games Theory is a theory seeking to explain how an international negotiation is affected by domestic politics and international politics. Domestic groups demand the government to make policies that are within their interests and politicians form coalition with those groups. On the other hand, national government tries to satisfy the demand from domestic politics at international level. The theory was first formulated by Robert D. Putnam who puts a firm belief that the formation, or otherwise the absence of ratification in an international agreement are affected by both domestic and international factors (Putnam, 1988). In an international negotiation, as Putnam stated, there are two stages of processes of bargaining, happening in two levels, respectively called Level I and Level II (ibid, p 435). Bargaining in Level I happens between the negotiators, leading to a tentative agreement, whereas bargaining in Level II consists of separate discussions within each group of domestic constituents about whether to ratify the agreement (ibid, p 436). To clarify the concept, Putnam defined a negotiator as a person who represents the organization involved in an international negotiation, and can take form as a president of a country, party leaders in a multiparty coalition, a country’s minister, so on and so forth (ibid). The ratification is not only limited to the ratification procedure in Level II institution, Putnam refers it to “any decision-process at Level II that is required to endorse or implement a Level I agreement” (ibid).

The possibility of an agreement being ratified is determined by the size of a win-set. Win-set, as defined by Putnam, is a set of all possible Level I agreements that are likely to be accepted by the domestic interest groups who either must ratify the agreement or provide some other form of government backing (ibid, 437). As it in a way represents the voice of domestic constituents in a country, there are two explanations why it is important to pay attention to win-sets. First, a larger win-set makes Level I agreement more likely, ceteris paribus (ibid). An agreement is possible only if the win-sets of all parties involved overlap, much better if each win-set is larger. Intuitively, the smaller the win-sets, the greater the risk the agreement will be stalled or even break apart (ibid). Putnam noted it as important to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary defection on the matter of failed ratification. A voluntary defection is “reneging by a rational egoist in the absence of enforceable contracts”, while involuntary
defection refers to the behavior of a negotiator who is unable to keep their promise because of failed ratification from Level II constituents (ibid).

The second reason why win-set is important is the relative size of the parties’ win-sets will affect the distribution of the collective gains from the agreement (ibid, p 440). If a negotiator attains a bigger win-set at home, the lesser their bargaining position in the negotiation (ibid). The given negotiator’s state will be seen as a state with “nothing to lose”, and it will be easier to be pushed around. Conversely, a small win-set can contribute to the negotiator’s influence in the negotiation (ibid). A negotiator can use this as a strategy, stating in the negotiation that the domestic constituents will not accept the ratification of the sets of agreements (ibid). That way, Putnam implied that negotiators have the tendency to widen each other’s win-sets, which he termed as reverberation (ibid, p 454).

The determinants of win-sets Putnam delivered are as follows: (1) Level II preferences and coalitions, (2) Level II institutions, and (3) level II negotiators’ strategies.

**Level II Preferences and Coalitions**

To put it simply, win-set at the Level II is drawn from how domestic constituents evaluate the cost of “no-agreement.” “No-agreement” itself represents the status quo (ibid, p 442). There are several principles to note in analyzing win-sets. For example, the lower the cost of “no-agreement” to constituents, the smaller the win-set. Its size depends on the relative size of the “isolationist” forces (who refuse international cooperation in general) and their contender, the “internationalist” forces (ibid, p 443).

The domestic preferences can be divided into two based on the characteristic of the conflict, namely homogenous (or “boundary”) conflict and heterogeneous (or “factional”) conflict. In a boundary conflict, the Level II interests are relatively homogenous (ibid). The differences of perception, if any, will be like of comparing hawks and doves, the former hard-liner, the latter softer. In this conflict, a negotiator is caught between his organization and the Level I negotiation. Whereas, a factional conflict stems from domestic constituents’ heterogeneous interests (ibid). In this conflict, a negotiator is caught within his own organization.

**Level II Political Institutions**

Ratification procedures is a certain determinant of a win-set size. A win-set of a state with a simple majority procedure will certainly be higher than that of two-third majority procedure (ibid, p 448). Other than formal procedure, Level II Political Institution is also represented in government’s domestic political practices (ibid, p 449). A good example is the Japanese Government which tends to seek for the broadest possible domestic consensus within its constituents prior to international agreements ratification (ibid).

Other aspects relevant to the political Institution is “state strength” or “state autonomy”. The greater the state autonomy from domestic pressures, the greater the size of the win-set, and the likelier it is to reach an agreement (ibid). However, the negotiator of the state with strong autonomy will hold a lower bargaining position in the negotiation (ibid). They will be less able than negotiators from democratic states to claim credibly that certain domestic pressures are hindering them from ratifying the agreement in order to alter disadvantageous points from the agreement (ibid).

**Level II Negotiator’s Strategies**

Assuming that a negotiator wishes to expand their state’s win-set in order to increase the likelihood of ratification, there are two ways with which a negotiator can use as a strategy to do so, which are “side payments” and generic “good will” (ibid, p 450): Side payments are basically stimuli targeted to attract marginal supporters of ratification. It is important to
examine the value of a side payment in terms of its marginal contribution to the likelihood of ratification rather than in terms of its overall value to the addressee (ibid). In a two-level games side-payments may come from unrelated source or even embedded as a part of the agreement (ibid). The second strategy to encourage ratification is by exploiting the high political-standing of a negotiator. Putnam makes a point that generic good will is not a guarantee for ratification, but it indeed will expand the win-set (ibid, p 451). If a negotiator has interest to increase their popularity, good will can serve as an all-purpose-glue for their supporting coalition.

**The Second Image Theory - Waltz**

Waltz’s second image theory explains that the actions of states, or, more accurately, of men acting for states, make up the substance of international relation (Waltz, 1954, p 122). In other words, the key to understanding war and peace is best explained by the internal organization of states. One explanation of the second image, for example, can be illustrated by how internal defects, one of which may be related to a type of a government, explains various external acts of a state through the following examples.

For example, it is often thought that the deprivations imposed by despots upon their subjects produce tensions that may find expression in foreign adventure (ibid, p 82). Or in another case, defects in a government not itself considered bad for its people. This condition might occur when the government imposed a number of restrictions argued aiming to protect the rights of its people by inhibiting the execution of a foreign policy. Therefore, although on one side this government act may prospering its people in particular, on the other side, may have the unfortunate effect of hampering the effective action of that government for the maintenance of world peace in a broader sense. And, as a final example. explanation may be made in terms of geographic or economic deprivations or in terms of deprivations too vaguely defined to be labeled at all (ibid, p 83). Thus a nation may argue that it has not attained its “natural” frontiers, which are necessary to its security, that war to extend the state to its deserved compass is justified or even necessary. Such arguments have been used both to explain why “deprived” countries undertake war and to urge the satiated to make the compensatory adjustments thought necessary if peace is to be perpetuated (ibid).

Through leastwise a number of examples of the conditions above, we can clearly see how a state’s internal acts can affect the international condition subsequently.

**Second Image Reversed Theory - Gourevitch**

As the title implies, Gourevitch main focus is reversing Waltz’s second image, and looking at how international politics affect domestic structure (Lau and Gourevitch, 1978). Foreign policy (or more generally, the international arena), according to Gourevitch, in fact has an effect on the domestic political environment. War and trade, or more broadly, the distributions of power, economic activity, and wealth are the main facets of the international system affect states on the domestic level.

Gourevitch criticizes arguments based exclusively on Waltz’s third image, stating that the international system is underdetermined; always leaving some leeway for states to choose among possible outcomes, which are made on the basis of domestic politics (ibid). What aspect of domestic politics, then, is the primary motivator of this choice, expressed through choices of regime type and coalition pattern? (ibid). Gourevitch dismisses purely process-based factors, arguing that too much of the literature focuses merely on the structure of politics rather than the content of the views being expressed by the different actors. He uses the argument which uses state strength as an explanatory variable as an example. The point is that these arguments do not provide a basis for the explanation of the orientation of policy of the states
If it is determined by social actors (weak states), then the preferences of the actors must be examined while the question next, if it is determined by the state (strong state), then how are these preference-based decisions made? In short, Gourevitch makes a case for the importance of coalitional analysis, or the examination of “how specific interests use various weapons by fighting through certain institutions in order to achieve their goals” (ibid). This will provide a more nuanced view of the complex interactions by which foreign economic policy and domestic political structure impact upon one another (ibid).

**ANALYSING INTERNAL DYNAMICS WITHIN THE PERIOD OF 1999-2003**

The first factor to be examined is the institutional preferences on tobacco regulation in general, and the ratification of the FCTC in particular. Within the timeframe of 1998-2003, there had been approximately three amendments of the law regulating tobacco and cigarette in Indonesia. Under the administration B. J. Habibie, the interim president installed after Soeharto’s resignation in 1998, a National Communication Forum (*Forum Komunikasi Nasional*) was established under the Food and Drug Administration (Achadi, Soerodjo, and Barber, 2005, p 338). Initiated by Nila F. Moeloek, this forum brought together nongovernmental organizations to work on tobacco issues. Moeloek also initiated the first government regulation about tobacco control signed by Habibie in 1999, titled PP/81/1999 (stands for *Peraturan Pemerintah* number 81 issued in 1999) (ibid, p 339). This pioneering regulation banned tobacco products advertising in the electronic media. It also enforced the inclusion of health warning in cigarette packaging that is easy to read, provided one single health message to be included in the packaging, and enforced the printing of tar and nicotine levels on the packaging. It set a time limit of compliance according to the size of the tobacco manufacturer. Small-scale hand-rolled cigarette industries were given 10 years, and all others had 2 years (ibid). An explicit sanction for was established by this regulation, where manufacturers, advertisers, and retailers can be fined up to Rp 100,000,000 or 5 years imprisonment for violating advertising restrictions, and enforcement of fines up to Rp 10,000,000 for failure to provide health warnings on packages. In 2000, President Abdurrahman Wahid signed an amendment contained in the PP/38/2000. There were two major changes in the regulation of advertising and time of compliance. This regulation permitted tobacco industries to place advertisements in electronic media between 21.30 PM and 05.00 AM. The time limits of compliance was not anymore differentiated with the scale of the industry, but rather the type of cigarette produced. White machine-made cigarette manufacturers were given time of two years, machine-made clove cigarette companies were given seven years, whereas ten years limit was given to hand-rolled clove cigarette companies (ibid, 340). The third amendment was signed in 2003 by President Megawati Soekarnoputri. It erased the maximum tar and nicotine content, but obligate all cigarette to be examined by an accredited laboratory and every packaging to disclose the content’s level. Most importantly, the third amendment eliminated the sanctions for the articles’ violations. The dates during which it was discussed and signed coincided with a meeting of Intergovernmental Negotiation Body (INB) of the FCTC, thus, senior Ministry and Health and Food Administration representatives involved in tobacco issues were not involved (ibid, 341). Thus, the second factor which is the negotiator’s strategy was not highly visible during that time.

It was still unclear which interest group was involved in the 2003 revision. However, some points in the revision weakened the regulation, for example the removal of sanctions for acts of violation against the regulation. In addition, the government did not engage the public in the discussion of the revision, which resulted in a public protests consisting of 18 non-governmental organizations appealing to the government to drop the revised regulation on cigarettes (Saraswati, 2015). The absence of public participation indicated that the administration had already had its stance towards cigarette regulation and was not willing to
be transparent about the considerations underlying the regulation. The alleviation of sanctions showed that cigarette industries were facilitated with less-binding rules, making more freedom for them in their business activities.

Specifically, the government’s attitude towards the FCTC sided with the tobacco industry. This explains the third factor, the coalition preferences. It was shown in the most critical moments, which was the ratification period of FCTC in 2003. Achmad Sujudi, who was the Minister of Health at that time, was prohibited on his way to the airport to ratify the FCTC in Geneva. The instruction came from Megawati Soekarnoputri and was based on the insistence that came from cigarette farmers in Parakan, Temanggung, Central Java (Kompas, 2015). Other government gesture can be taken from the remarks of Rini Soewandi, then Minister of Trade. She suggested that the framework be ratified when, quoted during a meeting with Tobacco farmer in Jember, “all concerned parties are prepared for it” (The Jakarta Post, 2015). Her rationale was the cigarette production fall during 2000-2004, which she claimed, due to a steady increase in excise duty (ibid).

Interestingly, we can see that the government was trying to gain as much profit as it could from tobacco industries by hiking up its price. Since 1999, the government has hiked clove cigarette prices five times, leading the price to soar from Rp 110 in 1999 to Rp 400 in 2003 (Mariani, 2003). While excise on tobacco is supposedly used to limit smokers and prevent more people to become smokers, Indonesian government used excise as means to increase its revenue, because the excise rise was not followed by other policies that aim to prevent the increase in number of smokers. Even The Association of Clove-Blended Cigarette Manufacturers (Gappri) urged the government to delay the government’s plan to increase its excise for at least two years (Mariani, 2003). There was no evidence that Gappri, one of the most prominent cigarette manufacturers association, objected to the ratification of FCTC, but in actuality it opposed that cigarette price and excise should be raised as stated in FCTC. However, we can conclude that there was an overlap between the tobacco industries’ and the government’s interest. the government wanted to gain vantage from keeping the tobacco accessible, abundant, and priced to sell, and the industries did not want to be confined in a more strict set of regulations, something that describes the FCTC. This made the win-set narrow, making Indonesia unable to ratify the FCTC in the wake of its adoption by the WHO in 2003.

FURTHER ANALYSIS

There are several group interest against FCTC Ratification in Indonesia, for example from Non Governmental Organization (NGO), Indonesia’s Government (Ministry of Industry and Ministry of Agriculture), tobacco farmers and last but not least is tobacco and cigarettes businessman. First, the perspective from one of Indonesia’s NGO. One of the NGO. Lentera Anak Indonesia (Lantern Children of Indonesia), Hery Chariansyah, Executive Director of LAI remarked his organization regret the Indonesia’s government action who currently hasn’t make a decision, whether they want to ratify FCTC or not, especially if he should compare it with Singapore and Malaysia government who already sign FCTC treaty (IZN, 2013). He also said that Indonesia’s government should clearly think about the impact of tobacco and cigarettes industries, it will jeopardize Indonesian youth generations.

Second, from the government perspective. Trade Ministry, Industry Ministry and the Manpower and Transmigration Ministry, had previously rejected the accession. Furthermore, The Ministry of Health of Indonesia also has tried various efforts to ratify the treaty, but unfortunately it always end failed (Putri and Nurhasim, 2013). Even the former Minister of Health under SBY governance, Nafsiah Mboi, has an opinion and said that Indonesia actually involved in the convention process making, but has not ratified it. The Indonesian government itself has been compromised the aspirations from the pro-smoking who wants the regulation of
tobacco being tightened and the government also made its order namely PP 109/2012, which also considered as a form way out to protect people from the polemic between who’s pros and who’s cons of the FCTC. On the other hand, the Ministry of Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture under SBY governance reject Government Ratification of the FCTC. Besides of that former Director of Food and Tobacco Industry Ministry, Enny Ratnaningtyas stated if the reason is health, Indonesia already had a similar rule for example the Government Regulation (PP) No, 109/2012 (Khamdi, 2015). Furthermore, one of the government in the regional level, Soekarwo, Governor of East Java urged the central government to not sign or ratify the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) because there is 26.3% tobacco production in East Java. According to ratify the FCTC treaty could be extinguish tobacco-based industry in East Java and even have an impact on the labor employment.

Third, from the tobacco farmers perspective. The rejection can be reflected from World Tobacco Farmers Day 2014 event in Pamekasan, East Java, where there were a lot of tobacco farmers made a petition due to the framework of the accession treaty for tobacco control and because it ignores the economic rights of tobacco farmer (Susilo, 2014). The last one, is from the tobacco and cigarette businessman perspective. Secretary General of Mixture Cigarette Manufacturers Association (GAPPRI), Hazan Aoni Aziz said if the government make a decision to ratify FCTC, it would be adverse the state, tobacco farmers, cigarette factory workers, and the tobacco industry. Therefore, he and his organization reject FCTC ratification and support the Indonesian government’s to not sign the FCTC. Hasan also added that the FCTC and the anti-smoking rules others perceive and the smoker is the person who should be regulated, even must be removed in a smoking room is a narrow minded view (CNN Indonesia, 2015).

According to Putnam's theory, because Indonesia has yet to ratify FCTC, thus, not a party to it, we decided to bypass the Level I Discussions and proceed with Level II. On level II Preferences and Coalitions we found that there are two attitudes regarding the ratification of FCTC. The first group consists of people who support the ratification of FCTC for health reasons. Furthermore, they also argue that consumption of tobacco products, especially cigarettes disrupts society’s economy and threatens the future of younger generations because of their easy access to tobacco. The example would be the people's alliance which acted together under the name of Aksi Bersama FCTC Lindungi Anak which consists of 35 non-governmental organizations which work on child protections (Margiantam, 2015). On the other side, they are opposed by people who make their living from tobacco industry. They argue that tobacco industry has long become the backbone of Indonesia’s economy. They also argue that tighter regulations on tobacco have the detrimental effect of destroying local tobacco industry, cutting hundred thousands people from their main source of income. Groups that fall under this category are Aliansi Masyarakat Tembakau Indonesia (AMTI), Asosiasi Petani Cengkih Indonesia (APCI) and Asosiasi Petani-Petani Tembakau Indonesia (APTI). Specifically, they oppose design guidelines on Articles 9 and 10 and also recommendations on Article 17 and 18 of FCTC.

On level II Political Institutions, Indonesia is one of the largest countries in the world which has not become a party in FCTC. However, Indonesia showed a great progress by making mandatory, the insertion of health warning in form of warning on cigarettes' packaging. Yet on February 2015 government issued Tobacco Bill, which put emphasis on economic impact of tobacco, rather than its impact on health. In contrast, there is already a bill about Control of Tobacco Products’ Impacts, which was issued since 2011. The opponents of FCTC accession including Ministry of Industry, Ministry of Commerce, Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Labour and Transmigration (Hakim, 2014). On the proponents’ side there are only Ministry of Health and Ministry of Finance.
In short, based on findings and current situation of both society and government of Indonesia, we predict that Indonesian Government is not going to ratify FCTC for quite a while. This is caused by the majority of government still refuses the ratification. However, civil societies still have the potential to push the government toward the ratification of FCTC.

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CHILDREN’S RIGHTS IN GLOBAL GOVERNANCE: CRITIQUE OF THE CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

DAVID S. CHIBANDA

ABSTRACT

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most significant global expression of children’s rights in the history of childhood. With 195 parties, the Convention remains the most widely ratified binding international agreement. However, despite its normative character and near universal ratification, its implementation in many countries remains constrained. Globally, many children fail to claim the standard of living it prescribes due to poverty and lack of access to social services. This paper argues that the lack of theoretical and conceptual validation (which characterize human rights formulation and children’s rights in particular), inadequate resources and lack of political will by governments contribute immensely to the Convention’s implementation challenges in some countries.

Key Words: childhood, children’s rights, Convention on the Rights of the Child

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INTRODUCTION

Although the topic of children’s rights is relatively new in global politics, childhood as a socially constructed concept has been debated throughout the history of moral and political philosophy and remains a major topic in contemporary debates (Archard and Macleod, 2002; Hayden, 2001). Increasingly, children’s rights are now being included in international and domestic law, considered by judicial bodies, used by governments as policy framework, discussed in academic circles, and utilized by civil society as an advocacy tool (Tobin, 2013:395). This childhood narrative has led to children now being seen as subjects of international politics (Holzscheiter, 2010). However, despite this widespread engagement, the moral and political status of children in global society remains contested (Archard and Macleod, 2002). As statistics indicate, children continue to be marginalized (Gran, 2010, p 14). Millions of children continue to be denied their rights ‘because of the family into which they were born, the community or country in which they live, or other circumstances beyond their control’ (UNICEF, 2015).

In this paper, I examine the concept of children’s rights in the global context, focusing more critically on the Convention on the Rights of the Child. I propose that the challenges affecting the implementation of the Convention are not only caused by problems associated with conflict and children’s circumstances, but also by the vaguely or sloppily drafted nature of human rights in general (Bentley, 2005; Toope, 1996, p 43), as Sen (2004) calls it, the ‘mushiness’ of human rights conceptual grounding. ‘Many philosophers and legal theorists see the rhetoric of human rights as just loose talk, perhaps kindly and well meaning forms of locution, but loose talk nevertheless’ (2004, p 315–316). In particular, the conceptual foundation of children’s rights has also not been adequately theorized due to the failure of current debates to articulate a coherent philosophical foundation for children’s rights (Tobin, 2013; Guggenheim, 2005; Archard and Macleod, 2002). These theoretical problems raise many ontological and epistemological questions about the nature of children’s rights generally and have significant implications for how such rights are perceived and implemented in different cultural contexts.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly discusses some of the pertinent issues in the contemporary debate on children’s rights, highlighting the key milestones in the history of childhood and international law making. Section 3 assesses in more detail the Convention on the Rights of the Child in terms of its global importance, strengths and weaknesses. I argue that although it is the most significant global expression of children’s rights in contemporary politics, the Convention’s implementation in many countries remains a challenge. I then conclude in Section 4 that while the Convention provides the legal basis for children’s rights at the global level, it is only through national legal and policy frameworks that these rights can be effectively implemented anchored in the child’s social context.

CHILDREN’S RIGHTS IN GLOBAL GOVERNANCE

Generally, the ideas that underpin contemporary children’s rights discourse are inspired by Western liberal values embedded in a post-war conception of human rights proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, particularly Article 1 (Seagrave, 2011; Bentley, 2006; Pupavac, 2000; Gourevitch, 2009). The concept of children’s rights articulated in contemporary human rights discourse and enunciated in official UN documents is a socially constructed concept reflecting a discursive shift from the early liberal concepts of childhood (Becker, 1977; Simmons, 1992, p 192; Arneil, 2002, p 72; Hayden, 2001; Hegel, 1967; Locke, 1966; 2002, p 2; Montgomery, 1988). The core aspects of global politics, including treaty formation, are socially constructed, defined, as it were, by
ongoing processes of social practice and patterns of interaction in the international system. In other words, the patterns of social interaction in the international arena are ‘cultural, putatively social and contingent, factors that influence international outcomes’ (Jackson and Nexon, 2002). Consequently, contemporary debates about children’s rights in global politics are influenced by global factors. These factors have shaped not only policymaking in the local context, but have invariably transformed the identity and interests of states (Wendt, 1992).

The formal expression of children’s rights and human rights generally in global governance is through treaties, customary international law, general principles and other sources of international law. As norms of international law, children’s rights are legal and moral imperatives that bind state and non-state actors (Clapham, 2006). The earliest global attempt to address children’s rights can be traced back to the international conferences held in Frankfurt and Brussels in 1846 and 1847 to discuss the rights of juvenile delinquents (Fusch, 2007). Real international law-making activities regarding children only began in 1924 with the adoption of the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child (Holzscheiter, 2010). The Geneva Declaration was the first international treaty to exclusively address the rights of children. The notion of rights implied in the Geneva Declaration is an articulation of moral principles: ‘Mankind owes the child the best it has to give’ which was principally concerned with the provision of ‘children’s social, economic and psychological needs’ (2010, p 123–124).

The next significant development after the Geneva Declaration was the adoption of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Child in 1959. The 1959 Declaration was a post-war international action intended to protect child victims of the Second World War. This treaty and other international instruments adopted in the 1960s and the 1970s assume that children are passive holders of rights who depend on the protection of adults to claim these rights (Holzscheiter, 2010, p 125). It took a couple of decades of global negotiations and lobbying involving representatives of governments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations to come up with a definitive and authoritative statement on children and childhood. This global process culminated in the adoption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989. The Convention is a significant milestone in the history of childhood and international law-making, and is the core document of the international children’s rights regime, a component of the evolving system of global governance (Pupavac, 2003, p 59; Rehman, 2010, p 598).

In addition to these human rights treaties, the general international human rights instruments, notably the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants on Civil and Political Rights, and Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which relate to all human beings, apply to children as well. For example, as Holzscheiter (2010) correctly observes, Articles 25(2) and 26 of the Universal Declaration embody a more welfare-oriented approach towards children based on their vulnerability, and protect the right to education, respectively, while Article 18(4) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights protects the religious and moral education of children in conformity with their own convictions. The fact that some provisions in these instruments specifically refer to children strengthens the argument that children require special attention (2010, p 127).

Other international instruments that supplement this legal framework include the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty, United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules), United Nations Guidelines for Action on Children in the Criminal Justice System, and the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines). In addition to this international machinery, children’s rights are also articulated under other international mechanisms adopted by the General Assembly for the advancement of children’s rights and welfare.
These agreements reaffirm the same principles outlined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Among these mechanisms are included the World Summit on Children, which was held in New York from 29 to 30 September, 1990 and the outcome document of the Special Session of the General Assembly on Children held from 8 to 10 May, 2002, entitled ‘A World Fit for Children’, which commits world leaders to complete the ‘unfinished agenda’ of the 1990 World Summit for Children and reaffirms their obligation to promote and protect the rights of every child. These mechanisms provide important provisions that reinforce the ideals of the Universal Declaration and the Convention.

To summarize, the emergence of children in the twentieth century from being previously seen as incompetent beings without moral and political status (Archard and Macleod, 2002), to being seen as political and legal subjects in contemporary global politics (Holzscheiter, 2010) is historically contingent upon the legal, political and sociological patterns and negotiations that preceded the formulation and adoption of, and which continue to drive, the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

**THE CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD**

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most important global expression of children’s rights and a pivot upon which contemporary children’s rights debate rests (Freeman, 1997, p 47). Supplemented by three optional protocols — each dealing with specific concerns: the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography; the Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict; and the Optional Protocol on a communications procedure — the Convention places special obligation on states to adopt laws and policies that reflect the norms and standards it enunciates (Steiner et al., 2007, p 1087). The formulation and adoption of the Convention was to a large extent influenced by Western liberal values, although the human rights norms and standards the Convention articulates have come to be accepted as global values, applicable and culturally appropriate in non-Western countries. What is central to this claim is the argument that ‘international politics is shaped by persuasive ideas, collective values, culture, and social identities.’ As Alder (1997, p 319) argues, ‘international reality is socially constructed by cognitive structures which give meaning to the material world.’

Generally, the Convention was designed to address the challenges facing children in the world and remains a major international agreement, resulting from a painstaking history of global efforts and the need to enunciate, promote, protect and fulfill universal human rights standards specific to children (Toope, 1996, p 35). The Convention builds upon the breathtaking scope of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and represents a contemporary global consensus on the status of children in the world (Toope, 1996, p 35; Freeman, 1996; Alston et al., 1992). In particular, it incorporates a wide range of civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights (Rehman, 2010, p 598). It accords children both liberty and welfare rights, notably the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health provided under Article 24, and the right to ‘a standard of living adequate for the children’s physical, mental, spiritual, moral, and social development’ articulated under Article 27.

Importantly, in the history of international law there has never been any international instrument so widely ratified and with such normative consensus as the Convention (Kaimie, 2009). ‘This overwhelming normative consensus affirms a shared and welcome global recognition of the rights of the child’ and represents an acceptance by the international community that the basic values articulated by the Convention are children’s human rights, which are best protected in a codified single international treaty specifically designed for this end (2009, p 1). The Convention’s near universal ratification affirms the argument that there is consensus among states at the governmental level regarding the existence of children’s rights
as legal rights, with some rights increasingly being accepted and recognized as human rights norms of customary international law (Van Buerens, 1998, p 15). With 195 state parties, the Convention remains the most ratified and first legally binding human rights treaty to incorporate a full range of human rights: civil and political, and social and economic, rights and enjoys a certain moral force (Pupavac, 2003, p 59; Rehman, 2010, p 598).

The Convention is also seen as a standard for monitoring progress for children’s rights and development, a clear testimony of global efforts to codify and condense ideas about childhood and children’s rights into a succinct and coherent children’s rights theory — integrating major issues affecting children in the contemporary world (Holzscheiter, 2010, p 87). In this sense, the Convention’s adoption is a landmark in the history of childhood, as it is the first time that children are put on the global development agenda after being neglected for a long time in global governance, both as agents and subjects of research (Freeman, 1996; Holzscheiter, 2010).

In terms of structure, the Convention spells out four broad principles that are critical for child development: non-discrimination (Article 2); the best interest of the child (Article 3); the right to life, survival and development (Article 6); and participation (Article 12). These rights may be seen as subcategories of Article 27: the child’s right to a standard of living adequate for his or her physical mental, spiritual, moral and social development (Toope, 1996). The key provision in the Convention is Article 12, in that it expresses the greatest impact of the children’s rights movement, as it requires states to ensure that children are able to form their own opinion and to express their own views freely (in all matters affecting them: economic, social, political, cultural, religious, and judicial) and recognizes the child as a full autonomous being (Freeman, 1996:1–3; 1997:56). The right asserted in Article 12, which asserts the children’s participation in decisions that affect their lives, is not only a challenge for traditional societies, but is equally problematic for Western countries, as social and legal policy may conflict with the requirements of the Convention (Toope, 1996, p 37). As Freeman tells us, Article 12 is ‘significant not only for what it says, but because it recognizes the child as a full human being, with integrity and personality, and with the ability to participate fully in society’ (1997, p 56).

Most notably, the Convention’s innovation lies in being the first human rights treaty to desegregate, explicitly, the two broad categories of rights: civil and political, and economic, social and cultural rights (Toope, 1996, p 59). This innovation is significant because it underscores the importance of both categories of rights in equal measure. The practical implication of this integration can be seen in several of its articles. For example, Article 3 provides that in all actions affecting children ‘undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.’ This provision places an obligation on state parties to care and protect all children’s well-being by taking appropriate legislative and administrative measures, ‘taking into account the rights and duties of his or her parents, legal guardians, or other individuals legally responsible for him or her.’

Similarly, Article 6 provides that state parties shall: (1) recognize that every child has the inherent right to life; and (2) ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child. Article 24 provides for the child’s right to the highest attainable standard of health, while Article 28 makes primary education compulsory and available to all. Article 27 protects the right to an adequate standard of living. However, unlike civil and political rights, there are caveats placed on these rights; their implementation depends upon national circumstances and to the maximum extent possible of the available resources and is to

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be achieved within the framework of international cooperation as provided under Article 4. But, as Toope correctly observes, if these provisions were to be read with Article 6(1) in mind, children’s rights advocates would make a stronger legal argument — especially in poor countries, which often spend large portions of their national budgets on military hardware or other non-essential items — to persuade governments in such countries to reassess their spending priorities. Thus, the Convention’s emphasis on the need to attain the highest possible standards in the social and economic spheres for children reverses the lowest common denominator approach, which is perhaps why this human rights treaty is seen as a milestone (1996, p 36–70).

In spite of its normative character and overwhelming ratification, the Convention’s implementation is constrained by many factors. Children’s access to formal rights and opportunities in many countries continue to be restricted (Gran, 2010, p 14). For example, as UNICEF (2015) notes, 2014, the year that marked the 25th anniversary of the Convention on the Rights of the Child ‘was also one of the most devastating years for children in recent memory’ (UNICEF, 2015). While in the past 25 years social progress for children has been recorded, millions were, and continue to be, affected by a ‘rising number of disasters, conflicts and chronic crises - and new threats like the Ebola outbreak that could roll back years of progress.’ Globally, children continue to be denied their right to a fair chance because of the family into which they were born, the community or country in which they live, or other circumstances beyond their control, such as their gender, ethnicity or disability (2015, p 1–10).

There are also other reasons, which affect the implementation of children’s rights. Firstly, although in theory Article 4 of the Convention requires all states to undertake all appropriate legislative, administrative, and other measures for the implementation of the rights recognized in the Convention, in practice many countries do not comply due to scarcity of resources (Freeman, 1996, p 4). To implement the rights envisioned in the Convention requires ‘massive global redistribution of resources’ (Archard, 2004, p 210) as well as political will (UNDP, 2013). But Wall (2008) argues that the gap between the ideals and the reality of children’s rights is not entirely a result of inadequate resources and implementation, but rather the lack of a clearly articulated conceptual understanding of what children’s rights are. Similarly, other scholars contend that the Convention lacks philosophical grounding in its conception of rights, because, as evidence shows, during its drafting there was no discussion about the moral rights of children, as the delegates ostensibly prioritized their limited time to addressing the ‘silent emergency of childhood deaths from malnutrition and disease’, rather than engaging in the theoretical debates they felt were some kind of a game (Tobin, 2013, p 399; Van Bueren, 1995, p 6). It is thus argued that the Convention is an incompletely theorized agreement (Tobin, 2013, p 399). Undoubtedly, the argument of resources is equally legitimate. Although most governments in developed countries allocate adequate resources for child survival and development, it is not often the case with their counterparts in developing countries due to inadequate resources and a lack of political will by some affluent countries of the North to transfer substantial resources to the poorer South (Toope, 1996, p 34).

Secondly, the Convention’s weak enforcement mechanisms and lack of an individual court for petitioning against compliant states also affect its implementation (Lyon, 2007). While it is argued that in the absence of court-based enforcement the Committee on the Rights of the Child monitors compliance through state party reporting and its jurisprudence through the concluding observations and general comments (Lyon, 2007, p 405–6), the current monitoring system is not very effective and state parties are not current in their reporting obligations and many others have not submitted their subsequent reports since ratifying the
treaty (Ramesh, 2001). Also, the self-reporting monitoring mechanism, originally introduced by the International Labour Organisation, was found to be weak (2001, p 1948–49; Van Bueren, 1995, p 384). Moreover, there is no guarantee that the current system is any better. It should also be noted that even though the ten experts who constitute the Committee serve in their personal capacity and are expected to be independent in their judgment, the fact that they are nominated by state parties means that ‘their independence has to be considered with caution because it is unlikely that state parties will nominate any candidate who publicly disagrees with their policies’ (Ramesh, 2001, p 1949). The Committee is also constrained by the volume of work and inadequate resources (Rehman, 2010, p 598).

Thirdly, the sloppily drafted nature of the Convention affects its interpretation and implementation, as most of its provisions are ‘vague’ in their conceptual grounding (Sen, 2004; Toope, 1996, p 43; Grover, 2004). The vagueness or mushiness of the Convention is evident, for example, in the wording of Article 1, the definition of the child which is couched as follows: ‘a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier’ (Italics mine). In its current formulation, Article 1 does not reflect the intent and spirit of the Preamble, which emphasizes the protection of universal children’s rights (Grover, 2004, p 260–61). The Article circumscribes the rights of children as it ‘places limits on who will be afforded its protection depending on the age of majority in the law applicable to the child in the home country’ (Grover, 2004, p 259). The provision also contradicts Article 25(2) of the Universal Declaration that recognizes the ‘special vulnerability of children’ (Grover, 2004, p 263), which unequivocally protects all children as it states: ‘Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.’ Thus, the ambiguity inherent in Article 1 of the Convention makes it possible for states to lower the age of majority. This has implications for criminal proceedings where there is a public outcry, such as gang violence, and also allows states to enlist children in armed forces to advance their own state interests (Toope, 1996, p 43).

Fourthly, the insertion of a statement in the Preamble that ‘due account’ is to be taken of ‘the importance of traditions and cultural values of each people for the protection and harmonious development of the child’ proves problematic to implement in traditional settings, because it can be used to justify the argument, particularly among traditionalists, that in such instances a child’s welfare can be trumped by adverse ‘cultural values and traditions’ (Freeman, 1997, p 54). As Freeman observes, this statement can also legitimize harmful traditional and cultural practices, such as female genital mutilation (which are medically unnecessary and painful operations) or child marriages as ‘cultural values’ in some traditional societies. Although the Preamble asserts the ‘inherent dignity and inalienable rights of every child’, in reality this narrative does not reflect any comprehensive theory of human dignity for children (Tobin, 2013), but merely reflects a historically contingent and contested understanding of the rights to which states have agreed, albeit under an ‘incompletely theorized agreement,’ which is likely to shift and change over time. This dynamism does not produce an arbitrary theory of human rights for children, but one that is contingent on the ‘anthropological realities’ and ‘contemporary political conditions’ that characterize the environment in which the Convention was negotiated (Freeman, 1994, p 513–514; Tobin, 2013, p 433–434).

In addition, it can be argued that the Convention is replete with a plethora of ‘hegemony, colonialisist liberal ideology and power’, which conflict with traditional communitarian values, making its implementation in such cultural contexts problematic (Rana, 2010; Montgomery, 2001). Seen from a postcolonial perspective, the Convention’s considerable norm-catalogue character is deeply problematic to accept as a universal children’s code (Holzscheiter, 2010, p

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3 ibid.
17–18). But other scholars note that the tension between tradition and ‘liberal’ rights must be seen as a creative relationship that can result in a positive reassessment of the validity and value of certain traditions and cultural values, which define the child’s social context. Duncan, for example, asserts that this provision assists in avoiding the ‘absolutism and orthodoxy’ that generally typifies human rights discourses and debates (1998, p 31). Van Bueren (1998, p 15) also argues that the criticism that the Convention is largely influenced by Western values is incongruous and cannot apply to many of the rights and standards it enunciates. However, the inability of the drafters to come to terms with the problem of cultural relativism cannot be overlooked. For example, the concept of family promoted in the Convention by the drafters is the late nineteenth-century European idea of the nuclear family, which takes the semblance of ‘parents’ in the Convention (Toope, 1996, p 44; Articles 3(2), 10, 17, 27). The concept of family, as defined in the Convention, excludes the extended family concept found in many traditional African societies. The lack of the extended family in the life of the child is taken as a North-South issue and the liberal emphasis on autonomy as the model of human relationships prevalent in the Convention further reflects a deep misconception of traditional cultures (Toope, 1996, p 44). In the African philosophy of Ubuntu a parent, for example, is any responsible adult who can take the role of a parent and is seen as such in the sense of providing for all children, because children belong to the clan or community, not just their nuclear or biological parents. As a matter of fact, in non-liberal traditions the Convention represents, in many ways, hegemony over autochthonous concepts of childhood. For this reason, effective protection of children’s rights as defined in the Convention is likely to be met with implementation challenges unless the substantive provisions are perceived as culturally legitimate, that is, they are in conformity with the accepted standards or rules of a particular culture in a particular social context across different cultures and communities, taking into account the cultural and religious context of the child (Kaime, 2011; Na’im, 1990; Coward and Philip, 1996).

Similarly, it can also be argued that although the project of universal rights is an attempt to change culture, to make it more accepting of human rights, it can be contended that successful implementation of the concept of rights envisioned in the Convention must take cognizance of the best traditional values and cultural practices existing in traditional societies. For example, among the Bemba-speaking people in pre-colonial Zambia, child protection structures already existed and promoting children’s rights in practice, such as the right to be heard, were seen as a duty of both parents and the community. Thus, trumping such values through the wholesome application of the provisions of the Convention as a blueprint for all countries can be seen as a prescription of some kind that does not take into account local traditions, customs and cultural practices that provide safety nets for children in traditional settings (Kaime, 1999). This, as Rana (2010) argues, can create tensions in such contexts and evoke colonial sentiments. In such cases, the Convention must adapt to some of the best local customs and traditions by ‘respecting’ the cultural diversity and legal traditions that define the child’ in such a context (Duncan, 1998). For this reason, children’s rights in traditional contexts cannot be effectively protected without balancing the relationship between the Convention and local contexts.

Furthermore, the Convention does not practice what it preaches in Article 12, the child’s right to participation; children were not even ‘consulted’ or involved in formulating its contents on the assumption that what was being formulated is what children need (Cohen, 1990; Freeman, 1997, p 8). Children’s voices are marginalized in contemporary debate as the concept of rights ‘continue to be ethically grounded in the experiences and perspectives of adults’ (Wall, 2008:523). On the major matter of the contents of the Convention itself, there is no evidence that children or children’s groups as such participated or were consulted on drafting,

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or had any real influence in preliminary discussions. The Convention thus encrypts a set of rights and takes an image of childhood from the perspective of the adult world looking in, almost as an external observer, on the views of children (Freeman, 1998, p 439; Arce, 2012, p 9). For example, it has been argued that the three rights asserted by the Convention concerning agency — the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 14), the right to freedom of expression (Article 13) and the right to culture (Article 30) are quite problematic to implement and attributing them to children legally endangers children’s interests, as it tends to lead to subordinating their interests in religion, expression, and culture to those of their parents (Brighouse, 2002, p 2). Although this may be true, it can be argued that children are still able to play a constitutive role in shaping the meaning of their rights under the Convention and express their views (depending on their level of reasoning) on any matter of their interest deserving of protection, as a consequence of the flexibility of Articles 3 and 12. The periodic state party reporting process is one way in which children may be involved through consultative workshops.

In the final analysis, while there is global consensus regarding the existence of certain international children’s rights as norms of customary international law (Van Bueren, 1998; Toope, 1996, p 35; Freeman, 1996; Alston et al., 1992), it can be argued that the Convention’s concept of rights is not broad-based because ‘the drafting process was dominated by Western states and completely excluded children’ and other perspectives from the process (Tobin, 2013, p 398; Kaime, 2009; Cohen, 1990; Freeman, 1997, p 8). Disagreements as to the content and extent of these rights as international norms and standards still exist, partly because childhood and children’s rights have been socially constructed in such a way that even in situations where substantive provisions of the Convention have been changed to protect the best interest of the child, these have been found to be falling below the expected standard set in Article 12 (Van Loon, 1993, p 209–211).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be seen from the above analysis that, firstly, the rights asserted in the Convention on the Rights of the Child are ethical claims articulated in specialized legal discourse. It is the underlying ethical commitment that must be upheld while precise legal consequences of the new discourse are worked through. However, a list of abstract legal rights may be fundamentally deceptive, because rights without services are meaningless, while, without a commitment of resources, services cannot be provided. Secondly, the key to effective protection of children’s human rights lies in formulating stronger national legal and policy frameworks with effective monitoring mechanisms, because it is within national legal systems that human rights are contested and more concretely protected through judicial enforcement. Lastly, it should be noted that the international human rights regime provides an opportunity for the international community to move beyond entrenched historical assumptions about human rights to fresh new ground (Wall, 2008, p 533). In terms of children’s rights, the Convention is a good starting point and remains the key international legal instrument for promoting, protecting, respecting and fulfilling children’s rights throughout the world. However, its impact lies in giving it more effect by amending many of its provisions to reflect the social context of the child.

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**REVISITING MATRIARCHAL SOCIETIES AS PEACE MODELS: A CASE STUDY APPROACH**

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ABSTRACT
Although questions of inequalities between the sexes has been the question of popular discourse, the existing studies almost completely disregard the existence of a parallel societal structure which is characterized by the absence of any domination, major conflict, or inequality. Although most cultures have transformed into a complete patriarchy from a pre-historic matriarchal set-up, few matriarchal societies still stand tall as paragons of peaceful existence. The research paper focuses on defining their common characteristics and how they form a causal web that leads to positive peace. This is tested through observation of three case studies- Mosuo, Asante and Minangkabou. The paper also describes the claims of the existence of a peaceful pre-historical and universal matriarchy and how patriarchy emerged as an intrinsically violent system, through a historical analysis.

Key Words: Matriarchy, Egalitarianism, Peace Models, Conflict

INTRODUCTION
The study of matriarchal societies, otherwise called as non-patriarchal societies or female-centric societies goes way back in time (Lloyd, 1901; Fortes, 1972) starting with writings by Morgan (1851) and Bachofen (1861) who spoke of a legitimate right of the mothers and the subversion of these rights by myth, religion and a shift to patriarchy. This argument was a turning point in research of these societies where two schools of thought developed, former deeming the argument as invalid and the other consisting of those who saw this as an opportunity to develop a different social-science and investigate a new paradigm in human behavioral history, called matriarchy paradigm (Goettner-Abdenroth, 2005). This has led to the rapid development of the matriarchal paradigm of research with many independent scholars expressing their different perspectives (Bennholdt-Thomsen, 1994; Claudot-Hawad, 1993; Grasshof, 1996, Gimbutas, 1989, 1991; Eisler, 1987), so much so that the definition of ‘matriarchy’ has changed, as ‘-arche’ means ‘beginning’ and ‘domination’ in different contexts. Hence, matriarchies can be defined as ‘mothers from/as the beginning in contrast to ‘patriarchy’ that is ‘domination by the fathers’.

STRUCTURE OF A MATRIARCHAL SOCIETY
These societies are generally understood as based on gender equality through norms that have developed out of experience, stabilized by social guidelines and codes of interaction between individuals and groups, as explained by Goettner-Abendroth (2009). The renewed academic light on matriarchies does not put them as a flipside to patriarchies but as societies that are structured around the mother or motherly values, which are characterized by an acute absence of power structures or institutionalized hierarchies of any kind. Differences do exist in the society but are balanced due to the interplay of the basic virtues the society is based on, including respect for differences. The defining characteristics are described below, which complement each other in a causal inter-web to maintain peaceful existence.

Economies based giving and gifting
Bennholdt-Thomsen (2005) states that these societies are foundationally agrarian, relying on subsistence farming, and Vaughan (1997) claimed that matriarchies are ‘gift-economies’.

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where direct gifting of goods from one to another, which replaces the ego-orientation and constant ‘othering’ of the market exchange with an egalitarian positivity, creates a balance of wealth. Goods circulate as gifts within the economic system, mostly as mutual assistance for satisfaction of needs that prevents accumulation and maintains equality between different inhabitants. Imbibing the values of motherhood, the members give to others without expecting a return at the time or in the future, much like mother nurtures her offspring without a concern for an equitable reciprocal return. When one gifts to another, it creates a value for the receiver as against the ego-centric notion of monetized exchange which creates value only for oneself (Vaughan, 2004). Consequently, it reduces disparities and social abandonment by promoting complete inclusivity, and ensures that every need is directly and adequately satisfied.

**Clan based social structure based on motherhood**

A deep-rooted respect for motherhood guides the construction of social patterns in these societies. The functions of motherhood mushroom into a larger cultural model where it is recognized as a common function of the society. Biological motherhood is irrelevant as the entire family or clan plays the role of a mother to the children. Bennholdt-Thomsen’s characteristic of matriarchies is that the line of descent is traced through the mother, i.e. matrilineality. Every family lives in a matri-clan, generally inhabiting a maternal house that has all generations or more living together. The men of the household are brothers who assist in the daily functions and the upbringing of the children and have areas where they have the decision-making authority and the clan functions through a continuous partnership. The structure is maintained by a norm of matri-locality. Women never leave their matri-clan and continue to stay with their mothers; however the men may or may not move to their partner’s clan post marriage (depending upon the social norms of the society). These kinship patterns lead to strengthening of the family ties and endorse continuous partnership and social cohesion at every step. Through communal marriages and interrelations between different clans, further the entire community is said to become a big family-like structure that relates everybody for common purposes.

**Consensual decision-making and political structure**

Due to the matrilineal kinship, the grass roots of the political structure are the maternal clan houses where individual and all the members of the clan discuss group matters at length. The decisions are taken by consensus by all the members of the clan-house, all of who have a single vote (including men and even the matriarch, although she can be the facilitator), which leads to a unanimous structure (Goettner-Abendroth, 2009). Representatives from different clans communicate the decisions of the clan in the larger political bodies of the community and sometimes the state, where the decisions are again taken through consensus. The result is simply that all concerns are adequately voiced, wants accommodated and differences respected. The maternal values of equality and accommodation penetrate into the larger political context and define the patterns of the decisions in the society.

**Gendered divisions in spiritual and cosmological beliefs**

Matriarchal societies, generally, have been described as deeply spiritual in their traditions, order and practices. They have a simple belief in omnipotence of god and power of a supernatural being. However, the gender-egalitarian nature of their political power is not usually seen in their cosmological beliefs. According to local traditions and faiths, there exists a feminine divine who creates and maintains the world. The being can be referred or respected as the ‘Mother Nature’ or the ‘Great Creatress’, called by different names and worshiped in different forms in different societies. As per Sanday (2002), matriarchies are based on a gendered division of the cosmological sphere. She states that in such a society, the mythical or
real figures must embody and articulate certain principles that are then taken up in social conduct. Therefore, the mythical and symbolic role of women as creators and nurturers is followed up in actual practice, which grants women a wider and an influential role in the society.

**CASE STUDIES**

**Mosuo (China)**

The Mosuo are a tribe of 30,000 to 40,000 people who inhabit the Lugu Lake area along the boundaries of the Yunnan and Sichuan provinces in the southwest region of China, near Tibet. The group had been written off as only matrilineal, but a closer look with respect to the newer definitions makes one notice that the ethnic group is matriarchal. Other defining characteristics are as follows:

1. Cosmological and cultural symbols are mainly feminine. The central and sacred Lugu Lake, which is the source of nourishment and economy, is called the ‘xie na mi’ or the ‘mother lake’. The north shore of the region is surrounded by large mountains called ‘gan mu’ (female mountain) which is regarded as a guardian for the tribe, while the smaller ones surrounding it are known as the male mountains.

2. The family structure is purely matrilineal, with the most able sister taking the leadership role of taking major decisions with consultations and consensus, while at the same time also caring for the elder parents and the family. She is referred to as the ‘dabu’ or matriarch. The community is built around a matrilineal pattern itself, with the bigger clan (called ‘er’) being divided into smaller sub-clans (siri) and finally to the smallest unit called a ‘yidu’ that signifies a matrilineal household. The ‘yidu’ is a family system consisting of the same bloodline, the mother’s. All brothers and sisters live together and elect a ‘dabu’ to run the affairs. The division of labor is clearly distinguished with women in charge of the household and men in-charge of the heavy laborious work, while the gains and incomes are handed over to the ‘dabu’ who makes the choice of allocation.

3. A mechanism for visiting or walking marriages (‘sisi’ or ‘walking back and forth’), where an adult female is free to take many lovers without having to translate the bond of love in formal law or vows. The implication is that males visit their lover’s room in the night and leave before dawn. The children produced are of the woman alone and are raised in her house, while the men help in raising their sister’s children as their own. This prevents any chances of divorce, quarrels or strife. There is no ‘possessive phenomena’ as observed in a patriarchal monogamous or polygamous system where in the partners assert their physical and/or emotional rights over the other (Lama Gatusa, 2005).

4. A striking feature of the community is that even in the face of alien and foreign interventions on the indigenous traditions, the community has stood tall in preserving its identity especially through non-violent means. When Lamaism gained popularity in the region at the end of the Yuan dynasty, it permeated into the cultural sphere of the traditions in a limited manner, although what is seen is co-existence. Patrilineality in itself has also been tried and explored. In households with only one son who marries into a matrilineal house will make the previous house patrilineal which can turn matrilineal once there are enough women in the yidu.

Matrilineal kinship and centrality of women in decision making through a process of consultation are vital components that define the Mosuo as matriarchal. The community is a
peaceful one with rare incidents of strife. The society is based on engagement and partnership of all members and the same is maintained by the adherence to the motherhood principles. The structure permits for support for every member, promotes gender egalitarianism through a clear division of labor and prevents conflict over resources. By placing the mother in the central position, the community shifts to a family like environment where all conflicts are taken care of within the yidu or the clan through consultation and consensus. The society prevents conflicts from arising by accommodation of every differing opinion.

Asante (Ghana)

The Ashanti or Asante people are an ethnic group that constitute a primary part of the Akan-speaking population that reside in Ghana, mainly around the region referred to as Ashantiland (or Asanteman) besides having migrated to other parts of the nation including Western Ghana. The group itself and every ‘abusua’ or clan finds its genesis to an ancestress that reflects upon the unique role women play in its social construct.

1. Women find significant mention in all the oral traditions, folklore, myths and rites as the origin of the Asante community. Different oral traditions point to a mystic feminine being who guided the way for the Asante people for their survival, betterment and formation of different social institutions and they believe that the female spiritual oversees Earth, called Asaase Yaa (Mother Earth).

2. The community has a strong clan based system based on maternal lineage. Each abusua finds its root to an ancestress from whom the title, property and resources pass onto the succeeding generations. The clan continues to live in a lineage home, called ‘abusua-fie’ with strong matrilocal traditions. In such a system, there are no cousins or aunts, since all women are mothers to the children and all children are each other’s brothers and sisters.

3. The divisions of societal roles for both sexes prevent any clash. It is believed that each life has three elements, namely ‘mogya’ (blood) inherited from the mother, ‘sunsum’ (spirit) inherited from the father and ‘nkrabea’ (destiny) that is granted by the Supreme Being. Therefore, in the upbringing of a child, the motherhood clan has the primary role with the biological father (if known) having the job of spiritual protection and teaching. The uncle serves as a ‘social father’, working closely with his sisters for upbringing of the children in his house.

4. The decision-making scenario in the society is consensus based with domestic conflicts and issues being discussed and solved within the abusua-fie with consensus from all adult members. In the village, the same principle is applied with the representative of the abusua communicating the clan’s stance to others and working on their behalf with due consultation with their own clan at every step.

The mythical significance of the feminine divine in the genesis of the ethnic group is what translates into the social sphere giving women a great role, traditionally, socially and politically. “There is an intricate network of relationships that recognize women as central and important but acknowledge men’s role,” said Donkoh (2005). At all levels of the community, the women hold positions of power but these powers are not unchecked and there is gender egalitarianism that holds the society in balance. Harmonious existence and peace is maintained by giving due importance to the women of the community. A consensus based accommodative decision-making pattern induces the community to come together and builds social cohesion. The principles and practices of matriarchy therefore support the construction and maintenance of peace within the group and also permeate into their interactions with the outside world.

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Minangkabou (Indonesia)

The Minang people are one of the largest ethnic groups in Indonesia with more than 4 million members residing in the highlands of Western Sumatra. Claimed to be the largest matrilineal society in the world, they are completely influenced by nature, and have developed its social customs called ‘adat’, by taking learning from the nature. The ‘adat matriarchaat’ is a set of matrilineal customs that takes inspiration from the natural contract of nurturing which becomes the primary motherhood principle. Mother Nature is the birth mother and therefore has the closest link to the child, which is why the mother has a superior role to the father in the society as he is only known by a disclosure made by the mother. The cultural learning from nature, therefore, establish the roots of the Minang matriarchy that glories the mythical queen mother and cooperation over the west-glorified male dominance and competition (Sanday, 2002).

1. The entire society is based on the principle of inclusion and well-being. Just as the nature nourishes everybody without discrimination, the society nourishes the weak and the vulnerable. This concept translates into the basis of establishing a matrilineal kinship (called ‘Tambo’) where properties and titles are traced through the mother’s line. Also inspiring the system was the convenience and ease of tracing property through the mother’s line since it remains unfettered and direct. The ramification of the custom is the prevention of social abandonment by the father or even the mother, since the child always has a household that will raise him as its own.

2. The ‘Bundo Khandung’ is a title given to the oldest woman in the tribe who possesses qualities of intelligence, leadership and motherliness. The term literally translates to ‘my own mother’ and was a royal title given to the mythical queen. The senior women are a symbol for common good since they think of the entire household’s betterment. The ‘Mamak’ (mother’s brother) shares an interdependent authority with the Bundo Khandung based on mutual respect, and is one who oversees management and use of ancestral property in consultations with the sisters.

3. Some claim the adat mechanism to represent the world’s first true democracy dating back to more than a millennium. The ‘Mamak’ meet in the village councils (like ‘Nagari’) to resolve disputes by mediation and negotiation. The community works through complete accommodation and consensus in handling conflicts or other matters.

4. The greatest example of how accommodation works in the Minang highlands is the acceptance of Islam which started with the uneasy relation when the religion arrived in the mostly Hindu and Buddhist region. However, at the onset of the Padri War (1821-37), the moderate wing won and the result was a unique amalgam of the adat and Islamic traditions. The Islamic intervention by the use of force on the existing adat traditions has now led to peaceful co-existence where some adat practices have been shut or scaled down while others have been completely strengthened. The most sacred adat practice was that of matrilinity. Even after the onset of Islam, the practice remains intact and strong.

The matrilineal custom and nature based philosophy ensures that the community is free of violence. Egalitarianism, gender and otherwise, is maintained by inclusive familial patterns, division of roles and unanimity in decision-making. Overall, the Minang population is harmonious and peaceful. The principles of motherhood permeate into every sphere of activity and the increased role of senior women as equivalent to that of the Mamaks make prevent the gender conflict, social strife and violent outbreaks by creating an environment that prevents conflicting factors in the first place. If any conflict does arise, it is resolved by cultural,
traditional or religious ways in a manner that is closest to the conflicting parties so that there is greater degree of conflict transformation.

**MATRIARCHAL PRE-HISTORY AND EVOLUTION OF PATRIARCHY**

A study of human history of behavior and origin of violence points out that the ancient period saw no warfare. This peaceful existence was a worldwide phenomenon in the pre-historic era, which also shows no evidence of any male domination. In that era, evidence shows, women were worshipped as goddesses and this tradition was universal. The cosmological and cultural significance of women might have placed the females at a powerful position within the societal structures which is a common practice observed in present-day matriarchies as well.

- In the earliest accounts of the creation of world, namely the Greek pre-Hellenic Pelasgian myth, the creator of the world is a goddess. The trend is followed throughout the world with the creator of all things being a feminine divine entity
- Robert Graves (1955) presents his argument of the existence of universal goddesses and priestesses in all cultures in the pre-historic times. Later, on the onset of the invasion by patriarchal trends, the goddesses are replaced (killed or overpowered) by male figures. Graves further elaborates saying that men, as the "weaker sex" "could be trusted to hunt, fish, and gather certain foods, mind flocks and herds . . . so long as they did not transgress matriarchal law".2
- James Mellaart (1965), who has done immense work on archeological history of the Near East states that around 9000 BCE- 7000 BCE, with the emergence of art only statues of the deities and ‘Great Goddesses’ are seen. After excavating Catal Hayuk, the largest Neolithic site discovered till date, he stated that historically "the cult of the Great Goddess" is "the basis of our civilization."
- Gimbutas (1974) on the other hand talks about the pantheon of gods being dominated by the goddess in her study of many statues. Charles Seltman (1960) says of the pre-Mycenaean Greeks "religion and custom were dominated by the female principle, and men were but the servers of women".

Archeological evidence argues that the discovery of the superior female imagery and the absence of any evidence of any war or conflict is another indicator towards the pre-historic matriarchal and peaceful existence. Bachofen’s controversial work ‘Myth, Religion and Mother-Right’ (1861) describes the matriarchal existence in the pre-history before the shift to a male-dominated society, describing a gynocratic society. His work has been discredited, due to the lack of evidence, but other archeological work that followed his study supports his conception. The gist lies in an analysis of iconography, where we can see that even in patriarchal times the cult of the Mother God comes back to predominance like in the patriarchal Kali Yuga and worship of Isis alongside Osiris in transitioning Egypt circa 3000 BCE. However, in the pre-patriarchal societies the iconography was completely different having predominantly and exclusive feminine worship throughout the society. Mircea Eliade talks about how societies, especially traditional people organize their activities and relationships in ways that “imitate the things that Gods used to do”.3

**Evolution of Patriarchy**

According to Werlhof (2005), patriarchy is a ‘dark utopia’ since its conception; it doesn’t have an independent existence relying upon matriarchy for its evolution. Matriarchies were the hubs of major civilization and it is patriarchy that came into existence and took over most of the population solely through conquest and not its inherent capabilities but due to purely exogenous

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circumstance. Patriarchies having relied on conquest for their beginning and evolution has over-time institutionalized and internalized the violence and therefore in its short existence, it has created war and turbulence on a ground that was initially peaceful and non-violent under a matriarchal set-up.

Although many writers have described different reasons for the shift including discovery of biological paternity, technological advancement, onset of a nomadic lifestyle, or conquest by the males, all of them are in part incorrect and insufficient to describe the transformation. The most accurate description of the shift is the one contributed to by James DeMeo (1986). He notices a trend of geographical and time-oriented patterns of transformation of the society from matriarchy to patriarchy around 4000-3500 BCE, originating in the Old World desert belt regions that started undergoing rapid climatic changes. These changes included drought and desertification leading to catastrophic famine that in turn led to unplanned migrations to other areas for survival. However, he too fails to explain the complexity in the process of this shift. There should ideally be a longer process that the change would have followed along with factors that caused the change, which was described by Goettner-Abendroth (2005).

She describes a process of changes starting 5000-4000 BCE when the lands started drying up near Asia and Europe, which meant a lack of nourishment, causing catastrophic migration to other areas and reverse-development where they turn from developed habits to more brutish and primitive practices like hunting since there was no cultivation. This did lead to the masculine role becoming more important for fetching meat and hunting, however this doesn’t alone explain the shift, as this was similar to the traditional role of men in those societies. Tradition states that men are supposed to leave the more important members of the society (women and children) behind and as she says, “not to become a burden on them”, thus men migrated towards the south and west as hunters trying to survive themselves and find avenues for the entire population, following which the entire population started moving in different directions by riding horses or ox-carts. But in the process, large chunks of female population that tried to survive by relying on their knowledge of cultivation perished.

As groups mostly comprising of men started migrating towards Russia, moving further back or to the west and south due to the arid land in Southern Russia, they reached areas near the Black Sea, Eastern Europe and Northern India. The problem faced however was the inadequacy of resources and land to absorb the expanding migratory trends. These groups couldn’t go back to the dried up areas and hence they had to compete for resources, worse fight. In order to sustain them and the dependents, these groups took up arms and waged what is said to have been invented at that moment, war. The invasions, raids and loots started becoming more frequent and common and they soon became foreign rulers by trampling upon the indigenous population that was settled in these areas. This led to the creation of a class-system and a perpetual cycle of domination that had to be constantly fed and maintained. To keep the dominated and defeated classes that way, these groups had to modify and innovate their approaches towards domination. Till this very point, the role of men and their strength was becoming more central for survival but it didn’t create a system of its own like patriarchy. Even the system of domination spoken of was more or less temporary and not exactly as systematic and structural as patriarchy is. But to keep the domination alive, the groups started looking at women as a vessel through which domination could permeate and hence, they attacked women through forced births and rapes. The way to dominate changed to a cultural domination of women as markers of the identity of the indigenous groups to being locked up, suppressed and reduced to the mere function of birth. This way they could suppress and eventually attempt to finish off the cultures that existed on the lands they invaded in order to find their own sustenance. Parts of the process so described might be contested, however the essence of the
shift is the most comprehensive and accurate account of the gradual shift to patriarchy that is presented till date.

CONCLUSION
The popular perception of matriarchies as been that of a society rife with female domination, however, a new structural definition forms the basis for a comprehensive theory on matriarchal societies due to which many past and present societies can be now classified as matriarchal. Gender-egalitarianism and respect for the learning from nature combined with societal structures derived from and based on motherhood principles are the pillars that keep the deep structure standing. Consequently, this also ensures a society that is perfectly peaceful and harmonious without any visible signs of conquest or violence. The reason is the very structure of matriarchies that holds the society in balance at every level to prevent outbreaks like these. After a thorough analysis of the given case studies, it should be noted that it is not female-centrality in matriarchies and masculine oppression in patriarchies that makes them peaceful and conflict-ridden respectively, rather the key to a peaceful existence is in the deep-rooted structure of a matriarchy which is to an extent derived from but is in no way limited to, women.

A historical analysis of the pre-history era explains the reasons for the shift from a peaceful existence to a patriarchal system which developed out of the need for survival as areas of the Old World underwent drastic climatic changes leading to catastrophic migrations and resource-conflict. To survive, a necessary system of domination was adopted and continued where women were invariably targeted to systematize domination. Hence, the genesis of patriarchy was caused not due to any demerits of the matriarchal system or the superiority of the patriarchy, but due to exogenous and purely coincidental variables which necessitated that domination be adopted in a previously peaceful world which knew no conflict. Therefore, while patriarchy is a war-system since its inception due to internalized and institutionalized violence, matriarchies were peaceful and devoid of any conflict in the history. It is observed, therefore, that matriarchies are unconditionally more peaceful than patriarchies.

REFERENCES
SOCIOCOLOGICAL ASSOCIATIONS AND THEIR JOURNALS: A COMPARATIVE INQUIRY OF ‘EUROPEAN SOCIETIES’ AND ‘INTERNATIONAL SOCIOLOGY’

JOSHUA EYKENS*1 AND RAF VANDERSTRAETEN2

ABSTRACT

In this article we examine how two important academic journals (ego’s) of the European- and international sociological association compare next to each other, namely: ‘European Societies’ and ‘International Sociology’. We made use of Social Network Analysis to study the Relatedness-data that were collected from the SSCI. This allowed us to draw and analyse their one-step-citation-neighbourhoods. In the results section we discuss questions regarding the cohesion, diversity, and fragmentation into subgroups of both networks for the period 2003-2013. When we take a closer look at the ‘European Societies’-network journals dedicated to social policy research and demographics seem to be of considerable importance, which could be a result of the ‘newly’ developed European research arena and its competitive research policy. Where we expected to see a more international and interdisciplinary pattern for ‘International Sociology’, a rather one-sided profile, mainly consisting of North-American journals, appeared to be the case instead.

Key words: sociological associations; sociological journals; citation analysis; social network analysis

INTRODUCTION

Sociologists of science and information scientists alike have devoted a fair amount of work to the study of our social science disciplines, but until today professional associations are still one of the most unwell known institutions within their fields of inquiry (Platt, 2003; Simpson and Simpson, 1994). Platt opens her introduction to a special issue of International Sociology (cf. Vol. 17, No. 2) by bringing forth a similar concern. Learned societies play a vital role in the social structures of academic life, but they only seem to receive attention in case of anniversaries or similar celebratory events. Why didn’t we want to learn more about them so far? As in the case of the institutions mentioned here, they are, after all, unique bodies that slice through boundaries of university departments or sub-disciplines. By organizing meetings, creating research networks, and most importantly, by publishing academic journals and books they bring together scholars from different regions and disciplines. Journals utterly resonate the interests and concerns of their editors, the members of the institutions that publish them, and can be considered as the most important communication formats within the modern scientific world (Vanderstraeten, 2010). For professional associations they make a unique contribution, as they store knowledge in a different way as, for example, books do. Scholarly journals are published on a regular basis, they can cover a variety of subjects in one single issue, they can link the subfields of a certain mother discipline, and counter disciplinary fragmentation. In this sense, they also help to build communities among a disciplinary association’s members (Simpson, 2002).

Most of these associations defer in many different aspects. Their missions and operative contexts are of particular importance if we want to understand their influence, dynamics, or publication practices. A relatively young association that is fairly unknown to previous studies and that we wish to address in this article, is the European Sociological Association (established in 1992). The ESA aims to ‘facilitate sociological research, teaching and communication on

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European issues, and to give sociology a voice in European affairs’ [emphasis added] (The European Sociological Association, 2015). It houses 37 different research networks and organises the largest European sociological congresses (bi-annually), fully funded summer schools for doctoral students, and publishes two journals and a book series. It is an explicitly European association as can be seen in its mission statements. Their publication, ‘European Societies’ (EUR SOC, hereafter referred to as ES), will be one of the subjects of our analysis.

ES was founded in 1998 and appeared for the first time in April 1999 as the official journal3 of the ESA. Anno 2015 five issues per year4 are being published. The introduction to the first issue, written by the editor in chief (Thomas Boje at that moment), ended with a few objectives. First of all, it is stated that the aim of the ESA is to publish an academic journal that functions as an international platform for sociological discourse, more specifically on European issues or developments, but by scholars from all over the world. Both theoretical reflections and empirical analysis on three different levels are encouraged: (1) the European level itself, (2) comparative research on Europe, and (3) on Europe in an international perspective (cf Vol. 1 No. 1). An explicitly interdisciplinary standpoint is taken: the ESA hopes that ES might be a forum for the academic debate on an interdisciplinary level among economists, political scientists, and policy analysts (ibid., p. 7). ES has indeed, perhaps together with different policy initiatives, strongly encouraged communication between European sociologists. In this sense the journal also helped to shape the development of European sociology itself, and even more so when the ERA (European Research Erea) was still taking shape (anno 2004) (Heilbron, 2011).

Another association of relevance for us is the ISA (founded in 1949) (see, Platt, 1998). It also is a non-profit organization, but this time aiming ‘to represent sociologists everywhere, regardless to their school of thought, scientific approaches or ideological opinion’ (The International Sociological Association, 2015). Currently the ISA has more than 5000 individual- and 62 collective members, coming from 126 different nations. It is a busy organization, publishing ‘Current Sociology’, ‘International Sociology’, ‘SAGE Studies in International Sociology’, the ISA ‘eSymposium’, etc. of which ‘International Sociology’ (INT SOCIOL, hereafter referred to as IS) is of particular interest for us. IS is one of the two journals of the ISA, and is twice as old as ES. The first issue was published in March 1986 and from then on four issues per year appeared. From 2006 onwards, this number increased to six, two of which are book review issues (The International Sociology Review of Books). In its first issue F. H. Cardoso, the former president of the ISA, wrote the foreword which stated some clear missions for the editors of IS (cf. Vol. 1, No. 1). Perhaps the brightest purpose of them all: ‘international sociological analysis in a specific sense; made by sociologists from diverse cultural traditions and national origins’ (emphasis added). By launching the new journal the ISA wanted ‘to create a new possibility for sociologists across the world to be better acquainted with each other’s work,’ and thereby ‘increasing our knowledge about contemporary societies and sociologies…’. This, according to the editors, should be done by maintaining a balanced editorial policy and thus publish authors from diverse regions (ibid, p 2).

A year after the appearance of its first issue Martin Albrow (the editor in chief at that moment) took up the important task of self-reflection. The internationality of the journal sticks out immediately. Papers submitted within the first year came from 35 different countries, and the ones being published came from 13 countries (cf. Vol. 2, No. 1). To point at the non-Eurocentricity of its enrolment: the accepted manuscripts also came from India, Israel, Japan, Kenya and Nigeria. Concluding with the question if IS could fill a gap in the existing journal

3 The other one is ‘The European Journal of Cultural and Political Sociology’, and appeared for the first time in 2014.
4 This number increased from three to four issues in 2000, and from four to five in 2007.
5 The other one is ‘Current Sociology’ and appeared for the first time in March, 1952.

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industry, Albrow notes that the ISA is detached from national contexts and that the journal should represent ‘universality’ and ‘diversity’ on a global scale (ibid, p 12). What he meant by these two characteristics and how they should be attained remains unclear, but the overriding requirement, he writes, is that ‘the journal responds as sensitively as it can to the unfolding nature of sociology as a product of the world’ (emphasis added). In this line, like ES, IS too reflects on themes of conferences organized by the ISA or other international institutions. Whereas this input mostly produces thematic issues, the rest of the editions we looked into were very diverse. Topics like the development of social theory, the history of sociology, sociology of religion, and the sociology of emotions, etc. are, together with the more common themes, frequently touched upon.

While studying the issues 6 that make up our sample (for the period 2003 – 2013) and considering the above, it became clear that ES indeed has a rather thematic format. Our first impressions of ES are different from those of IS. In a hypothetical sense we would assume that the thematic format leads to a rather one-sided, intra-disciplinary journal environment, one which could have made space for citations of - and references to journals of national sociological associations of the EU, and policy-oriented periodicals inflamed by the framework programmes of the EC (European Commission). IS did not seem to have a comparable pattern, and covers a diverse range of topics, even within one single issue. After one year IS already represented an impressive spectrum of countries, which leads us to believe that the journals citing – and being cited by – IS will be of different cradles too, both nationally and interdisciplinary. Nevertheless, academic journals remain supply driven (cf. ES, Vol. 14, No. 5). The articles that are submitted indeed move the openness to other, neighbouring disciplines back and forth, as well as the range and aim of the scope of the journal. Thus, the following questions remain to be solved: how do the two networks actually compare to each other? Is the thematic approach of European (political) turbulence by ES visible in its citation environment or do we get a more diverse, and clear European picture?

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The Journal Citation Reports (JCR) in the 2014 edition of the SSCI (Thomas Reuters) provided the data for this study. We selected two ego’s that represent two major sociological institutions journal-wise. Next, we consulted the JCR and collected the journal Relatedness scores amongst all their alters (ego x is related to alter y1, and alter y1 is related to alter y2). Pudovkin et. al. (1995; 2002) introduced these Relatedness scores (R) to address varying journal sizes in citation indexing practices (Pudovkin and Fuseler, 1995; Pudovkin and Garfield, 2002). The relationship R between, for example, ES (x) and IS (y) is expressed as: Rx > y = Cx > y * 10⁶ / (Py * Rfx) wherein Cx > y represents the total number of citations from the citing journal (x) to the cited journal (y), Py represents the number of articles in the cited journal (y), and Rfx represents the total number of references that have been cited by the citing journal (x) (Web of Science, 2015).

The R-scores are used to construct a valued, directed matrix wherein each column lists the cited data of every journal (in-degrees or citations from) and the rows list the citing data to a particular journal (out-degrees or references to). We did this for each year for the period 2003 – 2013 and calculated the mean of the eleven scores (years). If there were no data available for a specific journal in the corresponding year, we adjusted the formula by subtracting the number of absent years from the total. In the case of ES there were twelve alters for which we could not retrieve data entries for every single year. Three of those were missing for seven years, one for six years, two for five years, and six for one years. For IS then, we had fourteen alters that were not always present in the JCR. One alter was missing for nine subsequent years, two were missing for eight years, one was missing for seven years, five for two years, and two for one

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This was done by reading all the tables of content, editorials, and introductions.

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year. The three journals that were missing for seven subsequent years, and the one that was missing for nine years seem to be a problem at first sight, but they only represent respectively 5.2% and 1.3% of the total journal-sets. The complete matrix of ES represents 3192 unique citation relationships, that of IS represents a total of 5550 observations. The diagonal was left open, since self-references are not a matter of interest for this study. The remaining Relatedness scores between all the possible journal pairs vary in strength from zero (no relationship) to a few hundred or thousand units. In this way we created two separate, one-step neighbourhood networks of both journals, or to put it differently, we drew their direct citation environments. UCINET 6 was used for data preparation and analysis (Borgatti, Everett and Johnson, 2002). Visualisation of the graphs was done with Pajek (Batagelj and Mrvar, 1998). For reasons of convenience we will be using the journal title abbreviations as they are applied by the authors of the Journal Citation Reports.

RESULTS

The results are presented in two sections: descriptive statistics and Eigenvector centrality. Under the ‘descriptive statistics’ heading we will first draw an (a) overall image and present some structural features of both networks. By doing this, we hope to gather some basic insights about, for example, the density of the networks or the average degree of the journals. The second subsection (b) discusses the weak, moderate, and strong ties. This should give us a sharper image of the connectivity and the strength of the relations the journals have with others in their environment. In the last subsection (c) we run through both unique and common alters in the networks to get a hold of similarities or dissimilarities when it comes to the identity or disciplinarity of the journals. The second subsection elaborates on Eigenvector centrality measures to discover the most central journals.

Descriptive statistics and structural features

Overall image

Table 1 (p. 103) presents an overview of the descriptive statistics and structural features. It is worth noticing that the ego-network of IS is quite a bit larger than that of ES. Two explanations can be given for this difference: first, we must acknowledge that IS has a longer history than ES. The relatively young age of ES in the journal landscape may have led to a broader recognition of IS, and in turn to the fact that it was adopted by the JCR two years earlier than ES. A direct consequence of the latter is that IS has a higher number of citable items (A1 journal articles) that are taken into account for the calculations of the R-scores. A higher number of citable items leads to the possibility for a higher differentiation in citation sources, and therefore more journals (alters). Secondly, we must take into consideration that international journals are better covered by the SSCI than their European (national and regional), none-anglophone counterparts (Hicks, 2010).

The authors of the JournalBase project note that the database with the broadest coverage of European journals is the ERIH (European Reference Index for the Humanities), but this ERIH is only concerned with the Humanities (Dassa, Kosmopoulos and Pumain, 2010). For this reason it seemed fruitful to apply our analysis to the SSCI as data source. The total number of journals covered by the SSCI is well over 2 600, and almost 50% of those are published in Europe. Although, the fact that journals are published in Europe does not guarantee that they are European or regional by nature. THEOR SOC (Theory and Society) for example, is published by Springer in the Netherlands, but was founded in 1974 by American sociologist Alvin Ward Gouldner. Since we expected that the citations in - and to ES will include considerably more sources from regional - as well as nationally affiliated journals, it may not be a surprise that the number of alters is somewhat lower. Adding to this that the calculation of
the R-scores already excludes\(^7\) weaker attached journal (i.e. journals that only have a cited or citing relationship, and not both), we do want to make clear that it is not our purpose to draw a total map, we only want to include the most important journals and draw a comprehensive image of their citation environment.

Two cohesion measurements are given: the ‘density’ and ‘average degree’. Density simply stands for the proportion of existing ties relative to the number of possible ties. The average degree is a function of the density measure wherein the density value is multiplied by the number of alters. Thus the average degree represents the average number of ties that the nodes have with each other. The difference in density and average degree between IS and ES is neglectable. At first sight the average degree of the IS nodes is higher, but this is due to the fact that IS has more alters than ES. In both networks the average number of connections – or edges that a node has, is almost to 50 % of the other nodes in the network. The mean and median values were calculated for ego’s (x) environment only (that is to say \(xy_1\) and \(y_1x\), but not \(y_1y_2\)). It immediately becomes clear that ES’s direct ego-network is stronger than that of IS, and this indeed is surprising. It is true that the standard deviations for IS are twice as small, but this does not overrule the fact that both the mean and the median (both out- and in-degrees) are substantially larger for ES. The minima and maxima (given together with the median calculations) are also almost twice as large. These general results are not consistent with our expectation that the network of IS would consist of stronger relationships because of its longer lifetime, and therefore more authoritative position. As we can see in figures 1 and 2 (p. 106 & 107) however, this does not apply for the overall citation network. Given that IS’s network is built of a lot more American journals, the other ties that exist between the alters are far more cohesive. The thicker lines in these graphs stand for stronger connections.

**Weak, moderate and strong ties**

In table 2 (p. 104) an overview of the composition of the ego-networks is given in terms of weak, moderate and strong ties. Overall our expectations were that IS would be somewhat better and stronger connected to its journal-environment than ES is. Mainly because the journal profile makes us believe that its international orientation would lead to a strong connection with recognized and authoritative American and international journals. Our findings actually suggest otherwise. Both the density and average degree measures (i.e. of the moderate and strong ties only) are almost identical. Again, the average degree measures seem to differ significantly, but this is due to the fact that IS has more alters in its network. Both point at a proportion of plus minus 30%. This tells us that in both networks the average node is connected with almost

### Table 1 Descriptive statistics of the ego-networks: EUR SOC and INT SOCIOL (2003 – 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EUR SOC</th>
<th>INT SOCIOL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of alters (excl. ego)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of observations</td>
<td>3192</td>
<td>5550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of citable items</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density (N ties)</td>
<td>20.99% (670)</td>
<td>21.03% (1167)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average degree</td>
<td>23.51</td>
<td>31.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ego-network only</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean R (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-degree</td>
<td>34.29 (62.85)</td>
<td>20.83 (39.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-degree</td>
<td>18.38 (31)</td>
<td>10.88 (14.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median R (min – max)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-degree</td>
<td>14.15 (0.72 – 402.87)</td>
<td>7.18 (0.34 – 287.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-degree</td>
<td>8.03 (0.72 – 182.83)</td>
<td>4.52 (0.33 – 76.35)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^7\) Journals that are cited less than 100 times are not taken into consideration for the R-scores.
Table 2 Weak, moderate and strong ties in the ego-networks: EUR SOC and INT SOCIOL (2003 – 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EUR SOC</th>
<th>INT SOCIOL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N possible ties</td>
<td>3192</td>
<td>5550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N moderate and strong ties</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density of moderate and strong ties</td>
<td>15.16%</td>
<td>14.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave. Degree of moderate and strong ties</td>
<td>16.98</td>
<td>22.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ego-network only</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N weak ties (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-degree</td>
<td>35 (62.5%)</td>
<td>54 (72.97%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-degree</td>
<td>44 (78.57%)</td>
<td>62 (83.78%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N moderate ties (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-degree</td>
<td>17 (30.36%)</td>
<td>17 (22.98%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-degree</td>
<td>9 (16.07%)</td>
<td>12 (16.22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N strong ties (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-degree</td>
<td>4 (7.14%)</td>
<td>3 (4.05%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-degree</td>
<td>3 (5.36%)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: 0-20 weak ties, 20-90 moderate ties, 90 < strong ties

Table 3 Bonacich’s Eigenvector centrality (E) measures for the ten most central journals in the EUR SOC and INT SOCIOL network

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EUR SOC</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>INT SOCIO</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM J SOCIO</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>AM J SOCIO</td>
<td>0.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANNU REV SOCIO</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>AM SOCIO REV</td>
<td>0.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC FORCES</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>ADMIN SCI QUART</td>
<td>0.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC SCI RES</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>ANNU REV SOCIO</td>
<td>0.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EUR SOCIAL REV</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>SOC FORCES</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POP STUD-J DEMOG</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>ACAD MANAG REV</td>
<td>0.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J MARRIAGE FAM</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>SOC SCI RES</td>
<td>0.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEMOGR RES</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>SOC PROBL</td>
<td>0.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EUR J POPUL</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>SOCIOL QUART</td>
<td>0.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT J COMP SOCIO</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>SOCIOL FORUM</td>
<td>0.160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Eigenvector centrality is not comparable between networks

30% of in- and out-going moderate and strong ties. A closer look at the direct citation environments of the two journals tells us that IS is actually connected with more weak ties (72.97% & 83.78%) than ES (62.5% & 78.57%). As can be seen in table 2 the logical outcome of this is that ES’s ego-network exists of more moderate and strong ties than IS. The fact that IS has only three strong outgoing and no incoming strong ties at all is especially remarkable. The IF8 (Impact Factor) scores of the journals made us think that IS (IF 2014 = 0.812) would be cited more often than ES (IF 2014 = 0.75). Figures 1 (p.106) and 2 (p. 107) give a complete visual overview of both networks. The strong ties are represented by the thicker arcs. The weak ties are left out to improve visibility and prevent a chaotic presentation. Although IS is weakly connected to its ego-environment, the rest of the network is strongly interrelated. In comparison to ES the figure consists of considerably more strong ties.

So, which journals are the most important ones in both networks (i.e. connected by moderate and strong ties)? When we look at the top five journals where the articles of ES are citing to, two things stand out. First of all, the most strongly connected and the fifth one are explicitly oriented to European social policy-making and highly ranked. This reconfirms previous findings that research aiming at social policy-making is strongly encouraged by the EC’s funding programmes. EUR SOCIO REV (2nd) (European Sociological Review) and

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8 Impact Factor scores are a reflection of the average number of references to articles published in Social Science Journals. In a more general context the measures are used to point at the relative importance of journals within its field. The higher the score, the more important the journal is deemed to be.
BRIT J SOCIOL (4th) (The British Journal of Sociology) are also authoritative journals that are important within the field of sociology. ACTA SOCIOL (3rd) (Acta Sociologica) then, which is the flagship journal of the Nordic Sociological Association (NSA) and therefore the only non-British or explicitly European one in this list, aims to publish articles from all areas of sociology and is particularly welcoming articles that compare Nordic countries with one another. The top five list of journals referring to ES (i.e. in-degree) is almost identical to the out-degree list. The fourth place is taken by SOC POLIT (Social Policy), its main concerns are the analysis of gender, politics and policy. SOC POLIT is also a British journal with an international scope that aims at a multidisciplinary, broad public.

As we expected, the lists of IS differ from those of ES in many aspects. The out-degree list of journals where IS’s articles are referring to consists of very highly ranked journals. AM SOCIOL REV (1st) (American Sociological Review) is one of the official journals of the ASA (American Sociological Association). CURR SOCIOL (4th) (Current Sociology) is the second flagship journal of the ISA (International Sociological Association). EUR SOCIOL REV (5th), like the other four, is also a leading voice within the international scene, and has a very broad scope. The in-degree list is strictly built of moderate ties and contains only two journals (EUR SOCIOL REV and CURR SOCIOL) of the out-degree list. EUR SOCIOL REV (2nd) changed in place. INT J COMP SOCIOL (1st) (International Journal of Comparative Sociology) is the most important one, and has a quite similar profile as IS. It aims at publishing work from sociologists, as well as scholars related to other disciplines (economics, geography, business sciences, etc.) and publishes articles that are both international in scope and comparative in method. SOCIOL THEOR (3rd) (Sociological Theory) then, is also one of ASA’s journals. As its title suggests, SOCIOL THEOR is mainly theory-oriented. CULT SOCIOL-LONDON (Cultural Sociology) is one of the BSA’s journals and publishes work done within the sub-discipline of cultural sociology. Only two journals that appear in both lists are none-American ones.

**Unique and common alters**

64% of the journals in the IS-network are only found in that citation-environment. For ES this proportion is lower (52.63%). 27 journals are found in both networks (36% for IS and 47.37% for ES). It is not surprising that this list of shared alters is mainly existing of highly ranked journals. The list of journals that are only connected to ES mainly exists of journals related to policy oriented research or political sciences in general. The interdisciplinary aim of ES is reflected by the other journals that can be found in the listing. These are concerned with diverse themes like demography, health and society, social economy/economic sociology, and cultural sociology. Besides these we can also find three German and one Spanish journal(s). In total nine journals in the ES-network carry the adjective ‘European’ in their titles, whereas IS has six journals in its network that are explicitly ‘International’ and five ‘European’. The promise of the editors of IS to aim at a diverse crowd from all over the world seems to hold foot in the journal-journal network as well. Besides the American, British and German journals we can also see a Canadian, a Russian, a Brasilian, and an Austrian journal.

**Eigenvector centrality**

In table 3 (p. 104) an overview of the ten most central journals is given. Eigenvector centrality measures were calculated for the two matrices. Bonacich’s (1972) Eigenvector centrality (E) can be interpreted as a measure of popularity. Journals with a high degree of centrality are themselves connected to journals that are central in the network. Each adjacent node is weighted by its own centrality. The following equation expresses Bonacich’s measure of centrality where $\lambda$ [lambda] is a proportionality constant referred to as the eigenvalue (Borgatti, 2013): $E_i = \lambda \sum_j x_{ij} e_j$. This leads to the fact that journals with a relatively small degree can have a higher score because they are connected to other journals that are popular themselves. Journals that have a...
high degree, but a rather unpopular circle (journals that are not well connected) will therefore be scoring lower because of their isolated position. In this sense, it might speak for itself that journals which are cited/citing by or to journals that are positioned as key players in the field, will be better off and scoring higher. As one might expect, in both lists American journals stick out as the most central ones. We are referring to AM J SOCIOL (American Journal of Sociology), AM SOCIOL REV (American Sociological Review), SOC FORCES (Social forces), ANNU REV SOCIOL (Annual Review of Sociology), J MARRIAGE FAM (Journal of Marriage and Family), ADMIN SCI QUART (Administrative Science Quarterly), ACAD MANAG REV (Academic Management Review), and SOCIOLOG FORUM (Sociological Forum), etc. The EUR SOC column defers in two important ways, that is, demographic.

Figure 1 Ego-network ‘European Societies’ (EUR SOC) for the period 2003 – 2013 (Moderate and strong ties)
Figure 2 Ego-network ‘International Sociology’ (INT SOCIOL) for the period 2003 – 2013 (Moderate and strong ties)
research journals mainly make up the second half of the list. Adding to this, we must also note that there are considerably more European journals showing up.

CONCLUSION
After over 150 years of sociological thought and roughly a century after the first foundations of sociology as an academic discipline, still little is known about its structure. Loads of studies have been done on the development and the history of social theory, biographical data has been collected on all of sociology’s founding fathers extensively, research has been undertaken to study citation patterns and the growth of scientific output, but what do we know about our sociological associations? Together with their academic journals they are, after all, the institutions that form the cornerstones of the community constituted by its scientists. Indeed, it is rather habitual to look back on occasions like anniversaries and celebrate the important accomplishments of a journal’s or association’s lifetime. But then we must ask ourselves: is this sufficient? Don’t we want to know more about our past? And if we did so, wouldn’t we be better prepared for our takes on the future?

In our first case of the European Sociological Association and its journal ES an example is given of a ‘new’ level that exists in between the national sociologies and a global one. The emergence of a transnational, intra-European field of research in the social sciences and humanities in a remarkably short period of time (ca. three decennia) and the existence of over one hundred journals that have the word ‘European’ in their titles are indicators of this not so coincidental ‘Europeanisation’ pattern (Heilbron, 2011). Important, relatively recent historical transformations and revolutions like globalisation and digitalization of the sciences have changed the social sciences as well. Sociology’s enterprise has clearly moved some parts from a rather nation bound to a more European or global level. ES is a young academic journal, but already has distinguished itself as an important source of information on mushrooming European issues. Figure 1 (p. 9) and our results give us a birds eye view of its environment. In the core of the network, as discussed in our clique analysis, we can see important European and American journals with a rather general and broad scope. These are accompanied by a few international ones and the demographic subsets of journals that also pay attention to primarily European issues. In the periphery we can find policy oriented journals, a few journals from other neighbouring disciplines, and a couple of periodicals that represent ‘national’ sociologies (of member states of the European Union).

Statements about the patterns of Europeanisation of the humanities and the social sciences on the individual level (authors), as drawn by Johan Heilbron, can, is this case, largely be confirmed for ES’s journal network too. First of all, it is true that countries like Britain and Germany pertain to participate more often than others, as can be seen by the presence of their journals. They occupy a more central position than, for example, REV ESP INVESTIG SOC (Spain). Second, ES, as a sociological journal, indeed is interdisciplinary. Journals that are affiliated with certain other (sub)disciplines are more present than in IS’s core network. The fact that the ESA wishes to focus on European issues and themes, together with the rather thematic approach of the editors of ES, leads to a higher rate of journals dedicated to other fields of interest differing from the mother discipline. Third, the European and North-American journals are completely overruling the network. Although European journals are the most central ones, the eminent position of journals from the US points to the fact that European integration isn’t solely internal to Europe. It is safe to say that, like the editors intended, ES indeed has become an international and interdisciplinary platform for sociology and the sociological discourse on the European level.

If we look at the picture of IS in figure 2 (p. 107) we can see a dominant core of American journals accompanied by internationally oriented, and a few European ones. The role of English as the new lingua franca of the republic of science also comes to the fore. Burawoy is correct
when he states that the Anglo-Saxon world not only has an enormous advantage, but also dominates world sociology (Burawoy, 2009). An underlying problem of this language inequality is nested deeper within the process of evaluation. Publications in international journals are increasingly becoming a standard that scientists should achieve on a regular basis. These journals, in their turn, are increasingly asking authors to compare different contexts, and unlike their nationally oriented counterparts, to transcend research on the regional level. Unfortunately, the international sociology that should represent and strengthen the development of the discipline all over the world is not what we are seeing in the citation practice of IS. Instead, existing global patterns of domination and division become apparent here as well. IS may well be a great success in publishing articles from authors all over the world, but this does not seem to withstand the fact that these scholars tend to cite other ‘internationally’ renowned journals.

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FACTORS IN FARMERS’ SUICIDES IN INDIA: A CASE STUDY OF PUNJAB

PRABHJOT KAUR*2, PRAVEEN KULSHRESHTHA3 AND SUKHPAL SINGH4

ABSTRACT

Over the past two decades, declining agricultural growth and rising cultivation costs have diminished farmers’ incomes across India. Moreover, large scale adoption of commercial farming has amplified farmers’ credit needs for investment. This, along with low incomes, has led the farmers into a relentless debt trap. The acute agrarian distress has resulted in an alarming spate of farmers’ suicides in several states of India since the mid-1990s, including the agriculturally grown state of Punjab. An empirical study was conducted in the highly distressed (suicide prone) districts under Malwa Zone of Punjab, namely, Sangrur and Mansa. Primary data were obtained from 300 households in the above districts by conducting personal interviews with the help of a well-structured questionnaire during June 2013-May 2014. The paper documents the socio-economic profile of farmers and explores the factors behind farmers’ suicides in Punjab.

Keywords: Agrarian Crisis, Farmer, India, Punjab, Suicides

INTRODUCTION

The problem of agrarian distress and farmers’ suicides has been a matter of concern across various states in India. As per recent news, the number of suicides by farmers due to agrarian causes was 26 percent higher in 2014 than in 2013 (Indian Express, 2015). In most cases, economic distress, low incomes and crop failure have been the reported causes of farmers’ suicides. Besides, stagnant growth rates, high input costs and non-compensating Minimum Support Prices (MSPs) established by the government in the Indian agricultural sector have made agriculture an unprofitable occupation for a large number of small and medium-sized farmers in India.

This paper focuses on the factors that have led to farmers’ suicides in the state of Punjab in India. Punjab has been the agrarian heartland of India, since the Green Revolution (GR) occurred in the country during mid-to-late 1960s. Farmers in Punjab have reaped the benefits of agricultural prosperity due to GR, in the form of higher incomes and higher standard of living. Punjab had the highest per capita income among all states in India till the end of 1980’s. However, the scenario has changed during the later decades. A census conducted by three universities in Punjab (on behalf of the state government) has reported that nearly 5000 farmers and farm labourers committed suicides during 2000-10 due to financial distress and other related reasons.5

In comparison to other Indian states, such as Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Orissa, that have also faced the problem of agrarian distress and farmers’ suicides, the reasons for farmers’ suicides in Punjab seem more complex. Suicides in the above other states have

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1 We thank Amey Sapre for helpful discussions. We are very grateful to S. Inderjit Singh Jaijee, Convenor, Movement Against State Repression (MASR), for sharing detailed information regarding the census of farmers’ suicides committed during 2000-10 (conducted by Government of Punjab, India), which he obtained through RTI Act, 2005, from Department of Revenue Rehabilitation and Disaster Management, Government of Punjab.

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5 We are thankful to S. Inderjit Singh Jaijee, Convenor, MASR, for sharing detailed information regarding the census.
primarily been on account of high farmers’ debts and rural poverty. Although Punjab is known for its agricultural prosperity, yet farmers’ suicides have occurred due to agrarian distress. Thus, to uncover the reasons for farmers’ suicides is a challenging task. In this paper, we attempt to reveal the possible causes of agrarian distress and farmers’ suicides in Punjab, to enhance the understanding of the problem.

To accomplish the above goal, we have conducted an empirical study of two highly distressed and suicide prone districts of Punjab, namely, Sangrur and Mansa. Primary data has been obtained from 300 households in the above districts by conducting personal interviews with the help of a well-structured questionnaire during June 2013-May 2014. Based on the above sample survey, we delineate the socio-economic characteristics of farmers in the above two districts of Punjab. We also explore the factors behind farmers’ suicides in Punjab by constructing a linear probability model that also provides an estimate of the likelihood of farmers’ suicides in Punjab.

The paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we review the relevant literature on suicides. In Section 3, we discuss the theoretical models of suicide, while data, sampling procedure and methodology is described in Section 4. The socio-economic characteristics of sampled households are discussed in Section 5 and Section 6 discusses about results of Linear Probability Model estimation Lastly, Section 7 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON SUICIDES

Although suicide is a universal phenomenon, its nature, rates and reasons vary from country to country. Studies in the USSR recognised the disintegration of the USSR to a high suicide rate in Russia and Eastern Europe (Novosti, 2006). The USA faced the problem of suicides during The Great Depression of 1930s (Eugene and Learner, 1971). In the 1980s, many farmers in UK committed suicide during Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) or the Mad Cow Disease, because of mental depression caused by this crisis and lost farming income. Besides India and the above countries, Bangladesh, China, Malaysia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka have also reported cases of farmers’ suicides. According to Eddleston, Sheriff and Hawton, Sri Lanka has reported the highest suicide rates among the farming communities (Eddleston, Sheriff and Haawton, 1998).

Srijit Mishra has observed that poor returns to cultivation, absence of non-farm opportunities and various risks that farmers face, such as yield, income, price, input and credit risks, as well as other risks such as political dominance of money lender or input dealer, lack of social support and dowry burden are reasons for the larger socio–economic malaise in rural India (Mishra, 2006). S. S. Gill viewed farmers’ suicides in the state of Punjab, India, as a multi-dimensional crisis of Punjab’s rural economy during the post-GR phase. Gill has found that the economic factors behind farmers’ suicides in Punjab are: structural change in economic activities, mono-crop culture, stagnating productivity of all major crops (wheat, rice and cotton), declining returns due to increasing fixed costs, farmers’ indebtedness, market clearance problems and changes in agrarian relations (Gill, 2005).

Ghuman found that the factors responsible for the agrarian crisis in Punjab, such as the increased costs due to over-mechanization, over-rising use of fertilizers and pesticides and lower returns because of stagnant MSPs, have made agriculture unprofitable in Punjab, while the depleting water table and declining fertility of soil have aggravated the agrarian crisis in the state (Ghuman, 2008). Sidhu and Jaijee have asserted that the main political and economic factors responsible for farmers’ suicides in Punjab are: unjust deprivation of its river water, unfavourable price structure for crops and inputs, inadequate availability of credit to farmers at affordable interest rates, lack of direct subsidies to farmers, flagging agricultural research, failure of extension services, reduction in government investment in agriculture and lack of crop insurance (Sidhu and Jaijee, 2011). According to Sukhpal Singh, the indicators of the
agrarian crisis in Punjab are: declining growth rate of farm production, declining capacity of agriculture to absorb labour, mono-crop culture, over-capitalization of farm sector, the emergence of second hand tractor markets and reverse tenancy due to unviability of small farms (Singh, 2000).

To the best of my knowledge, in the case of Punjab so far no study had attempted to adopt rigorous econometric tools for working out the results indicating the relationship between framers’ suicide and crisis and in this study we find the probability of farmer committing suicide in relation to various factors.

SUICIDE: SOME THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Many sociologists such as Durkheim have tried to understand the phenomenon behind suicides through age, literacy, other demographics and sociological variables and constructed a typology for classifying suicides (Durkheim, 1951). Henry and Short have described suicides in terms of their frustration aggression theory, according to which suicide results from individuals’ frustration in their attempts to achieve their social goals and ensuing aggressive feelings, directed at themselves (suicide) or at others (homicide) (Henry and Short, 1954). Hamermesh and Soss have argued that some aspects of suicides, which cannot be explained by the above theories, for instance, variations in suicides by age and income, can be analyzed by using economic theory (Hamermesh and Soss, 1974). “Admittedly, some suicidal behaviour can in no way be attributed to economic factors. We contend, though, that some is due to economic decision making, so that some of the variation in suicide rates should be explicable using hypotheses derived from an economic theory” (ibid).

Therefore, Hamermesh and Soss have developed an economic theory of suicides, where they hypothesize that in a cohort of people with permanent income YP, the ith individual commits suicide at age a if $Z_i(a, YP) + b_i = 0$, where $Z_i$ is the ith individual’s discounted lifetime utility for the remaining years at age a and $b_i$ is the ith individual’s taste/distaste for living. Thus, an individual will commit suicide if and when the utility obtained from the permanent income YP is not enough to compensate the individual’s distaste for living. Hamermesh and Soss have used US based data to show that there is a strong negative relation between income and suicide rates.

DATA, SAMPLING PROCEDURE AND METHODOLOGY

The study uses primary data pertaining to 300 farming households in the two highly distressed and suicide prone districts of Punjab, namely, Sangrur and Mansa.6 Wheat-rice and wheat-cotton are the most dominant crops grown in Sangrur and Mansa respectively. For sampling purposes, 25 villages, 5 each from Andana, Lehragaga and Sunam blocks of Sangrur district, and 5 each from Budhladha and Bhikhi blocks of Mansa district have been chosen for the study.

Of the 300 sampled households, 150 households consist of farmers who committed suicide (henceforth referred to as ‘suicide households’), while the remaining 150 households have not experienced any suicides (henceforth referred to as ‘non-suicide households’). The non-suicide households have the same distribution of land holding size as the suicide households. Data has been collected for the agricultural year June 2013–May 2014, through personal interviews with the households, by developing a well-structured questionnaire. Furthermore, purposive random sampling method has been used for the collection of data. Through the questionnaire, we have collected the information regarding a household’s land holding status, operational land holding, size, educational status, occupational status, cropping pattern, cost of cultivation, income sources and patterns, credit sources, credit utilization and debt amount, as well as the information regarding household suicides.

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6 According to the census conducted by the Government of Punjab, 913 and 711 farmers committed suicides during 2000-10 in Sangrur and Mansa districts respectively.
We have used tabular analysis to study the socio-economic characteristics of the sampled households, by computing the relevant descriptive statistics. Moreover, we have employed a Linear Probability Model (LPM) to estimate the probability of a farmer committing suicide, given the socio-economic characteristics. According to the economic theory of suicide described in the previous section, a household’s income is an important determinant of the possibility of the household’s committing suicide. So, we try to estimate the farmer’s probability of committing suicide in relation to farming household income. However, through field interactions, we also noted other determinants such as non-farm income, number of earning family members and and operational holding to act as preventing or having a limiting impact on the possibility of a farmer committing suicide. Therefore, we use the above LPM model to analyze the impact of several socio-economic determinants such as household’s non-farm and farm incomes, cost of cultivation, size and land holding on the probability of a farmer committing suicide. The LPM model can be described as follows:

\[ FS_i = f(NF_i, CGFI_i, ES_i, OL_i), \]

where \( FS_i \) denotes the dummy variable for farmer suicide in the \( i^{th} \) household (equals 1 if a farmer in the \( i^{th} \) household commits suicide and equals zero otherwise), \( NF_i \) denotes the non-farm income of the \( i^{th} \) household, \( CGFI_i \) denotes the ratio of the cost of cultivation to the gross farm income of the \( i^{th} \) household, \( ES_i \) denotes the ratio of the number of earning family members to the size of the \( i^{th} \) farmer household and \( OL_i \) denotes the ratio of the operational holdings to the total land holdings of \( i^{th} \) farmer household.

In the above model, we use non-farm income as a major factor that could prevent suicide. Thus, we expect the non-farm income to be negatively related to the possibility of farmer suicide, which implies that an increase in non-farm income reduces the probability of a farmer committing suicide. We use the ratio of cost of cultivation to gross farm income as a variable to capture the burden of cost or indebtedness to gross farm income. Cost for this purpose is taken as ‘C2’, which is computed as per the formula given by Commission For agricultural Costs and Prices (CACP) (Vishandass and Lukka, 2013). We expect this ratio to be positively related to the possibility of a suicide, since an increase the ratio indicates an amplified financial burden on the farmer.

We also use the ratio of number of earning family members to household size to capture the quantum or generation of income in a household. The ratio also provides a control for household size as number of earning members and total household members can vary across districts. This ratio is expected to be negatively related to the probability of a suicide as more earning members can provide a sufficient cushion to the family during distress times.

Lastly, we use the ratio of operational holding to total land holding as a control for a farmer’s involvement in agriculture. This ratio is expected to be positively related to the possibility of farmer suicide as an increase in this ratio implies an increase in operational holding which indicates a higher cost in terms of rent paid for leased in land and other cultivation expenses. This, in principle, can drive the farmer into debts in times of distress. Before we present the results of equation (1) and analyse the determinants, it is imperative to look into the descriptive statistics of the households in the two districts.

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SUICIDE HOUSEHOLDS**

To understand the nature and causes of suicides, the socio-economic characteristics of suicide households in the two districts are analyzed using tabular analysis. The essential variables summarised are age of farmer who committed suicide, their education level, family demographics, and method of suicide among others. The description is as follows:

**Age:** The average age of farmers who committed suicide in the suicide households is around 38 years. The age-wise distribution of farmers who committed suicide in suicide households is elucidated in Table 1 below:

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Table 1: Age-wise Distribution of Farmers in Suicide Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group (in yrs.)</th>
<th>Sangrur</th>
<th>Mansa</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 30</td>
<td>17(20.73)</td>
<td>13(19.11)</td>
<td>30 (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>33(40.24)</td>
<td>29(42.65)</td>
<td>62 (41.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-50</td>
<td>26(31.71)</td>
<td>9(13.23)</td>
<td>35 (23.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>6(7.32)</td>
<td>12(17.65)</td>
<td>18(12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater than 60</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>5(7.36)</td>
<td>5 (3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>68(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>150(100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.*

According to Table 1 above, the majority of farmers who committed suicide in suicide households in Sangrur and Mansa districts are aged between 30 to 40 years, arguably which are the most productive years of a farmer’s life. In the total sample, 41.3% farmers who committed suicide in the suicide households belong to the above age group, while 84.6% farmers in suicide households are less than 50 years old. Thus, the above suicides represent a significant loss of manpower to the economy.

**Level of Education**

Table 2 below shows that the level of education of farmers who committed suicide in suicide households in both districts and hence, the total sample is not very impressive.

Table 2: Level of Education of Farmers in Suicide Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Sangrur</th>
<th>Mansa</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not literate</td>
<td>43(52.45)</td>
<td>39(57.35)</td>
<td>82(54.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literate, but below primary</td>
<td>2(2.45)</td>
<td>1(1.47)</td>
<td>3(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>11(13.41)</td>
<td>12(17.65)</td>
<td>23(15.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>12(14.64)</td>
<td>6(8.83)</td>
<td>18(12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>12(14.64)</td>
<td>8(11.76)</td>
<td>20(13.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher secondary</td>
<td>2(2.44)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>2(1.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/certificate courses</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>1(1.47)</td>
<td>1(0.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduation</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>1(1.47)</td>
<td>1(0.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>68(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>150(100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.*

For each district, more than 50% farmers in suicide households were illiterate. This percentage is higher for Mansa (57.35%) than Sangrur (52.45%). Overall, in very few (less than 2%) suicide households, farmers are educated up to the higher secondary level (all of these belong to Sangrur district only). The low levels of education adversely affect the decision-making of farmers in suicide households, since such farmers are not very aware regarding the beneficial opportunities available to them. Also, farmers with low income in general cannot afford private schools and university level education for themselves and their family members.

**Year of Suicide**

Table 3 below describes the year-wise distribution of suicides in the suicide households in the two districts.

Table 3: Year-wise Distribution of Suicides in Suicide Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Suicide</th>
<th>Sangrur</th>
<th>Mansa</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002-2004</td>
<td>9(10.98)</td>
<td>3(4.41)</td>
<td>12(8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-2006</td>
<td>5(6.10)</td>
<td>7(10.30)</td>
<td>12(8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the total sample of suicide households, 2006-08 witnessed the highest number of farmers’ suicides (40, or 26.67%), followed by 2010-12 (33, or 22%) and 2008-10 (32, or 21.33%). In our sample, district-wise, Mansa has more number of farmers’ suicides during 2006-08 (26, or 38.24%), while Sangrur has more number of farmers’ suicides during 2010-12 (22, or 26.83%).

### Method of Suicide

According to Table 4 below, the most prevalent method of suicide in both districts as well as the total sample of suicide households is ‘pesticide consumption’. In 63 (or 76.83%) suicide households in Sangrur, 49 (or 72.06%) suicide households in Mansa and 112 (or 74.67%) suicide households overall, farmers took their lives by consuming a pesticide.

#### Table 4: Pattern of Method of Suicide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Suicide</th>
<th>Sangrur</th>
<th>Mansa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pesticide consumption</td>
<td>63(76.83)</td>
<td>49(72.06)</td>
<td>112(74.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanging</td>
<td>17(20.73)</td>
<td>10(14.71)</td>
<td>27(18.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drowning</td>
<td>1(1.22)</td>
<td>2(2.94)</td>
<td>3(2.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting fire to oneself</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4(5.89)</td>
<td>4(2.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jumping under a train</td>
<td>1(1.22)</td>
<td>3(4.41)</td>
<td>4(2.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>82(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>68(100)</strong></td>
<td><strong>150(100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.

### Family and Income Profile of Suicide Households

Information regarding household size, earning family members and patterns of income of the suicide households is provided in Table 5 below.

#### Table 5: Family and Income Profile of Suicide Households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Sangrur</th>
<th>Mansa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Size</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Number of Earners</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Farm Size (in acres)</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Married Suicide Victims</td>
<td>67 (54)</td>
<td>56 (46)</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Net Farm Income (Rs.)</td>
<td>-34761.25</td>
<td>-34524.46</td>
<td>-34654.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Net Non-farm Income (Rs.)</td>
<td>11611.51</td>
<td>8807.67</td>
<td>10340.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Total Income (Rs.)</td>
<td>9673.16</td>
<td>-5227.81</td>
<td>2918.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Value of Land Sold (Rs.)</td>
<td>507701</td>
<td>309117.6</td>
<td>417676.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Value of Other Assets Sold (Rs.)</td>
<td>10743.93</td>
<td>34426.47</td>
<td>21446.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.
district. Thus, the dependency ratio (non earners to earning family members) is high in both the districts. In the total sample, 123 suicide victims were married at the time of their death.

Other than demographics, the average farm size per household in the total sample is 3.65 acres, while it is close to 4 acres (3.94) in Mansa District. Now coming to income per suicide household, we have two components of total income such as farm income and non-farm income. However, surprisingly the average net farm income is negative and significant (close to Rs. 35000) for both the districts, which indicates that farming generates high negative returns or losses. Other component of income i.e. non-farm income, for Sangrur District, average non farm income is Rs. 11611.51 which is little higher than the Mansa District. The average net non farm income for the total sample of suicide households is Rs. 10340.44. On average total income per suicide household is Rs. 2918.05 which is very low and even it is more depressing for Mansa district which is negative to the tune of Rs. 5227.81. In the Sangrur district, the average total income is Rs. 9673.16 (less than Rs. 10,000). For this district the amount of net non-farm income is just enough compensating for turning the average total income per suicide household to be positive but not much enough to reach the level of high income. This low and even negative total income clearly shows the economic crisis which the farmers are facing and which forced them to commit suicide.

The highly negative returns from farming in the two districts suggest that the cost of cultivation in the two districts is very high and the income from the marketable crop surplus is not enough to cover the cost of farming operation. The high negative returns from farming are linked to the heavy debts which suicide households have to bear, to cover the cost of cultivation. To repay the heavy debts, the suicide households are forced to sell their land and other productive assets. According to, the average value of land sold by suicide households is very high (approximately Rs. 4.2 lakhs, or Rs. 0.42 million), while the average value of other assets sold by suicide households is also high (approximately Rs. 21 thousand).

**Distribution of Suicide Households by Land Owned/Leased/Mortgaged**

According to Table 6 below, 46.66% suicide households belong to the category of marginal farmers, owning land up to 2.5 acres, while 32% suicide households belong to the category of small farmers, owning land from 2.5 to 5 acres. Thus, approximately 79% per cent of suicide households belong to the category of small and marginal farmers, which have land holdings up to 5 acres. Only 21% suicide households belong to the category of medium and large farmers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Category</th>
<th>Land Owned</th>
<th>Land Leased In on Rent/Crop Sharing</th>
<th>Land Leased Out on Rent/Crop Sharing</th>
<th>Mortgaged In</th>
<th>Mortgaged Out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2.5</td>
<td>70 (46.7)</td>
<td>6(35.30)</td>
<td>30(63.83)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5-5</td>
<td>48(32)</td>
<td>9(52.94)</td>
<td>13(27.66)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>25(16.67)</td>
<td>2(11.76)</td>
<td>3(6.38)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-25</td>
<td>7(4.67)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(2.13)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150(100)</td>
<td>17(100)</td>
<td>47(100)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.*

Table 6 above also shows that a large majority of (approximately 64%) suicide households that belong to the category of marginal farmers have leased out their land on rent/crop sharing, or are practicing reverse tenancy. This may be due to high negative returns from farming and other reasons, such as suicide by the male members of the household, in which case the widowers and children left behind in the household may be unable to manage
farming operations and therefore, lease out their land. Furthermore, 8 suicide households in the marginal farmer category have mortgaged out their land, possibly due to economic distress.

**Distribution of Land Sold by Suicide Households During 2000-14**

Table 7 below depicts the distribution of land sold by suicide households during 2000-14. In particular, the last row of Table 7 below highlights the distribution of the *average* land sold (in acres) by suicide households during 2000-14. The highest average land sold during 2000-14 is 1.71 acres, for suicide households belonging to the small farmer category (i.e. whose present land holdings are 2.5-5 acres), followed by 1.63 acres average land sold during 2000-14, for suicide households belonging to the marginal farmer category (i.e. whose present land holding are 0-2.5 acres). In the total sample of suicide households, the average land sold during 2000-14 is 1.6 acres. Overall, 128 (out of 150) suicide households have sold their land during 2000-14 due to economic hardships and 97 of these households belong to the marginal and small farmer category (i.e. whose present land holdings are 0-5 acres).

**Table 7: Distribution of Land Sold by Suicide Households During 2000-14**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Sold During 2000-14 (in Acres)</th>
<th>Present Land Holdings (in Acres)</th>
<th>0-2.5</th>
<th>2.5-5</th>
<th>5-10</th>
<th>10-25</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>3(100)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>11(39)</td>
<td>9(32)</td>
<td>8(29)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td>1(100)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>10(37)</td>
<td>8(30)</td>
<td>6(22)</td>
<td>3(11)</td>
<td>27(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>1(50)</td>
<td>1(50)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5(46)</td>
<td>1(9)</td>
<td>2(18)</td>
<td>3(27)</td>
<td>11(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>17(52)</td>
<td>10(30)</td>
<td>5(15)</td>
<td>1(3)</td>
<td>33(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>4(80)</td>
<td>1(20)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>3(23)</td>
<td>8(62)</td>
<td>2(15)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>1(100)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(100)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>2(67)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1(33)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>58(45)</td>
<td>39(31)</td>
<td>24(19)</td>
<td>7(5)</td>
<td>128(100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Land Sold (in Acres)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent percentages.*

Table 7 above also shows that ironically, many suicide households have sold more acres of land in the past 15 years than the size of their present land holdings. This includes 6 (out of 58) suicide households in the marginal farmer category, who sold land more than 2.5 acres, exceeding their present land holdings. This indicates that in the past, the above 6 households had greater land holdings, i.e. belonged to the small or medium farmer category. Thus, the above 6 farmers have become marginalized over time. Similarly, it can also be inferred from Table 7 above that there are suicide households who belonged to a higher category of land holding in the past, but due to selling significant acres of land during the past 15 years, such households have moved to a lower category of land holding or have been marginalized as well. All such households were perhaps forced to sell their land to repay their old debt, due to low or even negative returns from agriculture.
LPM MODEL ESTIMATION: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 8 below describes the results of our LPM model, which estimates the impact of non-farm income, the ratio of cost of cultivation to gross farm income, the ratio of earning family members to total family members and the ratio of operational holding to total land holding on the probability of a farmer committing suicide in a given household.

Table 8: Results of LPM Model Estimation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suicide Dummy</td>
<td>1.232</td>
<td>Ln(NFI) 0.075 (0.000)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CGFI 0.0848 (0.282)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ESi 0.623 (0.001)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>OLs 0.021 (0.123)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 218, R² = 0.15, Adj R² = 0.13

Source: Field Survey, 2014; Figures in parentheses represent p-values; * indicates value significant at 1% level of significance.

The results in the above table show that our variables of interest have the expected signs, although we find non-farm income and ratio of earning family members to household size to be statistically significant. The negative sign of coefficient of non-farm income implies that a rise in non-farm income can possibly lead to a fall in the probability of a farmer committing suicide. The ratio of earning to total family members also has a negative impact suggesting that families with more number of earning members are less likely to have farmers committing suicide. We find the cost variable to be positive as expected, but is not statistically significant. Operational land holding (OL) is also positively related as expected which possibly indicates a higher chance of a farmer committing suicide on account of high costs in times of agricultural distress. Overall, our model does predict the impact of some important determinants that are positively and negatively related to a farmer committing suicide. It however requires a more detailed analysis using a wider sample to be able to get the possible magnitudes of these variables.

CONCLUSION

In this paper we attempt to identify the socio-economic characteristics and few factors that have an impact on a farmer committing suicide. We study household characteristics of farmers in two districts of Punjab in India and formulate a linear probability model to analyse the probability of a farmer committing suicide. We find household’s non-farm income and the ratio of earning to total family members as negatively related to the instance of a suicide. The two factors have been able to provide the necessary support and cushion to poor households in times of agricultural distress. We find that the probability of suicide increases with larger operational land holdings. This is due to the fact that farmers incur higher rents and eventually become indebted during times of distress, there by leading a higher chance of committing suicide. The descriptive analysis also indicates that the returns from agriculture are negative in many cases. This is due to high cost of cultivation, coupled with low prices of outputs in the market. The unprofitability of agriculture makes small and marginal farmers to lease out their land and thus the vicious cycle of low incomes and indebtedness surfaces. Our findings here are also consistent with the studies that have found such a relationship.

We find that farmers with low income, in general, cannot afford private schools and university level education for themselves and their family members. In such conditions, farmers find it difficult to get gainful opportunities outside agriculture. Thus, the dependence on agriculture and the search for opportunities elsewhere has become the mainstay of a large
section of agricultural households. The state of Punjab, which has been known to be a progressive region due to adoption of GR technology, is now home to highly distressed and suicide prone districts, such as Sangrur and Mansa. Our study shows that the majority of farmers in the suicide households end their life during the most productive span of their life time, i.e. 30-40 years of age, which is a severe loss in terms of human resources. The agricultural crisis that is setting deeper in the state requires a much larger and wider scale of intervention, one that can prevent loss of lives, marginalization of farmers and return the prosperous days of agriculture in the state.

REFERENCES


RE-DEFINING CYPRUS WITH ITS SINGLE ETHNIC IDENTITY: EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE LITERATURE ON ETHNICITY AND THE CASE OF CYPRUS

MRS. NAZIF FUAT1* AND DR. ANDREAS S. ANASTASIIOU2

ABSTRACT

Being one of the crucial topics in the political arena, Cyprus as an island has a problem of the identity, national identity; especially ethnic identity. The present study will be discussing the historical perspectives on ethnicity, ethnic identity, and the case of Cyprus and the ethnic unity of the island. The world is convinced that there are two main ethnic groups in Cyprus, the so called Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots. While discussing the ethnicity and its relation with the history of the Cyprus issue, external powers and the effects of these powers on the residents

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of Cyprus as well as how Cypriots were separated despite sharing an ethnic identity, will be explored.

Key words: Identity, Cyprus, ethnicity, ethnic identity, culture

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of Cyprus, its inhabitants had a history of togetherness, cooperation, and neighbourhood that they shared in peace, as well as a history of an extorted conflict (Hadjipavlou, 2007). Akter (2012) proposed that, ‘these communities share certain periods of the past’ (p.6). However, between 1963 and 1967, Cyprus encountered harsh conflict which led to the division of the island (Papadakis, 2008). After all those periods of conflict and since the 1974 war, the two main communities have been separated by a buffer zone manned by the UN (Shaw, 2014, p 262). The long-term conflict and resulting separation caused a high level of anxiety and fear. However, Mavratsas supported the idea and pointed out that “it is significant to realize that this tension is manifested both on the level of collective life and organized political activity, and on the level of individual consciousness” (1999, p 96).

The conflict on the island destroyed not only the whole Cyprus community, but it demolished the future of individuals. In support of this, Chrysovalante and Spinthourakis claimed that all the events and conflict lived in the history of Cyprus have influenced the ‘forms of identifications’ of all the residents in the island (2009, p 89). Additionally, the identity construction of a community has a rich and long history where it begins with the sense of belonging to geography and continues along with the shared stories and memories of the past and it proceeds with the attachment to the values, norms and rules of that community. However, the changed forms of identifications of people on the island apparently were the consequence of the extorted and forced conditions by the external powers that the sanctions were so destructive for the whole Cyprus.

According to Calhoun (1993), in order to talk about a long–term processed nation, there ought to be an ethnic root that continuously and actively reconstructed in addition to the existence of a homeland and a history. In this respect, O’Brien (1993) suggests that:

…ethnicity and other cultural identifications provided a handy starting point (historically and rhetorically) for the creation of national communities - most crucially through the mystifying powers of the implied basis of the community in kinship - but there is otherwise no inescapable connection between nationality and ethnicity (p 78).

The purpose of this investigation is to examine the constructed and existing ethnic identity of Cyprus that was distorted, as well as how it lost its rich distinctiveness. Although no one questions the existence of the two different ethnic communities with two ethnic identities, there is also the Cyprus identity. This study also aims to re-define the Cyprus identity in terms of its single ethnicity.

CASE STUDY: EXPLORATORY STUDY OF SINGLE ETHNIC IDENTITY OF CYPRUS, ROLE OF A SINGLE CULTURE ON CONSTITUTION OF A SINGLE ETHNIC IDENTITY

The island state of Cyprus with its various upheavals in history, political and cultural diversity has experienced the convulsion of a serious and prolonged ethnic conflict. Three geographic characteristics of Cyprus have determined much of its fate: its location, territorial status and size. It is located at a strategic position in the Eastern Mediterranean, at the crossroads of three continents, Europe, Asia and Africa. Its strategic location, long exposed coastline and smallness made it an attractive and easy target (Yildizian and Ehteshami, 2004, p 4).
During the beginning of the twentieth century, Greek and Turkish speaking Cypriots were living together. Yet, Cyprus imported first Greek and then Turkish nationalism with the two communities supporting Cyprus unification with their respective patria of Greece and Turkey (Papadakis, 2008). However, the issue of nation, ethnicity, unity and culture that Cyprus has, has not been adequately examined in the scientific conflict resolution literature. Ethnicity was not an issue in Cyprus before the events occurred and despite their problematic angles, the nation, ethnicity, culture and togetherness were representing the commonality and the unity of the island as one claimed, the conflict in Cyprus hosted by the external powers led the island to divide into two different communities in terms of their only revealed uncommon characteristics; religion and language (Yildizian and Ehteshami, 2004).

According to Hadjipavlou “the Greek and Turkish Cypriots have had a history of coexistence in mixed villages…” (2007, p 359) and shared cultural values, norms, neighbourhood as well as activities in daily life. Similarly, Papadakis argued that in the history of Cyprus, before the division and separation of the population occurred, “communities that once lived within a unified space” (2003, p 255).

The lives of the two Cypriot communities were quite integrated, sharing streets, roads, cafes, markets as well as worship places. However, after the forced separation following the 1974 war, “communication barriers resulting from the de facto ethnic partition of the island have until recently made contact between ordinary citizens extremely difficult” (Broome, 2004, p 191).

After the events started, as it is also mentioned by Eriksen (1991), ethnicity was a social as well as a cultural issue. Cyprus lost its united social and cultural environment once it divided into two sides within the historical time and “today the island of Aphrodite is ethnically and geographically divided by a United Nations (UN) patrolled buffer zone that runs the entire length of the island from west to east” (Broome and Anastasiou, 2012, p 295). As a result, the division created a sense of ethnic difference and distinctiveness within each of the two communities, depending on their respective ‘mainland’ for their functional life. As Volkan (1979) claims, there are two ethnic groups that are composed of individuals. Thus, the dimensions of common reactions towards severe traumas are the reflections of the individual reactions that the proposition clearly legitimates the Cyprus community as two different ethnic communities.

However, it should be noted that, towards the end of the twentieth century “both Greek and Turkish Cypriots often use the term “Cypriot” to define their own ethnic communities” (Loizides, 2007, p 174). “Being ‘Cypriot’ or ‘Cypriothness’ represents a sense of belonging that at least blurs the ethno-national boundaries between the two communities of the island of Cyprus” (Vural and Rustemli, 2006, p 335). Less clear or strictly lined boundaries possibly lead the members of both communities to focus on their own belonged place, their concept of Cyprus nationalism. Mavratsas (1997) added to his claims regarding the perception of Cypriotism a bit more particular perspective, on the side of ethnicity of Cyprus as:

Since 1960 Cypriotism has been articulated as a 'de-ethnicized' political ideology, stressing that Cyprus is an independent polity with interests (social, political and economic) which may be different from those of either the Greek or the Turkish state; for the Cypriotists, to view the issue from a different angle, what matters most is not the ethnicity of the inhabitants of Cyprus but their Cypriot citizenship (p 722).

The Cyprus and Cypriotism issue as a problem in general constituted by the interventions of the external forces which can be named as “mainland” of the both communities. As cited in Akter, in order to clarify the term Cypriotism, the other terms also should be mentioned: Island partisans or nationalists, unlike motherland nationalists (Greece and Turkey), have consensus on that Cyprus should consider their Cypriot identity as their main and primary identity. They have focused on reinforcing the connection of the inhabitants
(irrespective of their ethnicity) to Cyprus, and to its familiar practices and characters. They have also supported reunion between “Turkish Cypriots” and “Greek Cypriots” on account of non-ethnic segmentations (2013, p 231).

ETHNICITY AND ETHNIC IDENTITY
As noted by Brass ‘ethnicity is a sense of ethnic identity…’ (1991, p 19) that it is one of the most important topics of the modern era. People use ethnic identity in order to be able to define, identify, understand and categorize themselves in the world (Cornell and Hartmann, 1998). Additionally, Brass (1991) argued that ethnicity is a national unity as well as the specialization from the other.

Similarly, Cornell and Hartmann (1998), Max Weber (1968) held the view that ethnicity is a perception of ourselves; a subjective definition of who we are and what we feel about ourselves. Moreover, he asserted that ‘ethnic groups’ as groups of people who have commonalities in their customs and sharing memories through history as he added that ‘it does not matter whether or not an objective blood relationship exists’ (Cornell and Hartmann, 1998, 16). Sharing a land, living within the common geographical boundaries and having common cultural bases make group of people as an ethnic group.

Campbell proposed that “ethnicity, racial identity and nationalism are alike not only in that they are deeply felt and durable, but also because they are cultural productions of public identity” (1999, p 119). A group of people who live in a community share a history, have a common past and share a culture are assumed as an ethnic community (Smith, 1996).

There should be a starting point to the united populations that is also the basic component of a group of people which can be claimed as “…ethnicity and nationalism create solidarity…” (Smith, 1996, p 445). In addition to the unity and solidarity as the basic formation elements of a nation, Farnen argues that within similar boundaries the characteristics of an ethnic group is “…formed along racial or cultural lines; its members allegedly possess common traits and customs” (1994, p 47). In support of this, Smith proposed that ethnicity, with its broad usage, is mostly based on the ‘felt rather than biological ties’ (2008, p 30) that also includes common culture based customs.

Within the history of Cyprus, for years and for generations, ethnicity and the ethnic identity of the island was taught as the two main ones in the island; Turkish speaking and Greek speaking people. The reason is clear, as it is mentioned earlier in this paper. There was great pressure on the island and powerful, nationalistic forces came together causing its division and differentiation.

ETHNIC IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION AND CULTURAL ELEMENTS
Even those nations forged mainly on the basis of collective political identities have needed some of collective political identities have needed some kind of cultural underpinning of myth, memory, symbol and tradition in order to create a deeper unity among their often diverse peoples and these are often to be discovered in the cultural resources of ethnies or ethnic communities (Smith, 2008, p 29).

Calhoun claimed that “the translation of ethnicity into nationalism is partly a matter of converting the cultural traditions of everyday life into more specific historical claims” (1993, p 224). Ethnicity is the collection of behaviours of daily customs or usual activities in a culture that the members of the community perform every day. Nationalism, however, is defined as the set of actions taken towards the events that members of the community experience in history. As both daily customs and historical events are the symbols of culture, in support of this idea, Nationalism in its own right refers to ‘self-determination’ of the individuals that proves people’s existence in their geography; however ethnicity
claims people’s unity, apart from the nation’s given identity; ethnicity is the representation of their cultural boundaries (Calhoun, 1993).

An ethnic group is a group of individuals specified mainly by their shared culture (Cornell and Hartmann, 1998). Furthermore, Wedeen believes that “whereas understandings of the "nation" as constructed and imagined are now taken for granted, "ethnicity" often operates in datasets as a given category of belonging” (2002, p 724) claimed as a focus on ethnicity in terms of defining nationalism in relation to culture. Thus, it is believed that ethnicity leads people to identify themselves according to their belonged place. However, nationalism is the concept that carries the history with in itself that ethnicity still exists in nationalism no matter how old history is (Calhoun, 1993). Thus, a nation requires an ethnicity that will bring its people solidarity and unity, yet this united group of people must have a cultural line. As Calhoun puts it, “…nationhood is rooted in ethnicity” (1993, p 226).

On the other hand, Calhoun (1993) believes that nationalism and ethnicity are the categories of populations. As he proposed, “these categorical identities also shape everyday life, offering both tools for grasping pre-existing homogeneity and difference and constructing specific versions of such identities” (ibid, p 235). Furthermore, “modernization theory thus predicted that when outlying regions were incorporated into a social system they would gradually be "homogenized" into cultural similarity with the rest of the system…” (ibid, p 218).

**THE ROLE OF SHARED HISTORY AT THE CONSTRUCTION OF IDENTITY**

Calhoun (1993) suggests that nationalism supposes an autonomy to the group of people who share the history with the rest of its members which may be a dominant ethnic group or one of the several ethnic groups in the population that worked throughout the history that “ethnicity or cultural traditions are bases for nationalism when they effectively constitute historical memory…not when (or because) the historical origins they claim are accurate” (ibid, p 222). Based on the propositions mentioned above, it can be claimed that in order to talk about nationalism, there should be an issue of ethnic commonalities as “…nationalism is not simply a claim of ethnic similarity, but a claim that certain similarities should count as the definition of political community” (ibid, p 229).

Furthermore, according to Weber (1922), an ethnic group has some characteristics that its members share from their viewpoints to customs. However, they also share recollection of their shared history as a community. In support of this, Calhoun pointed out that;

…an ethnic group is simply a bounded set of individuals, not necessarily characterized by any internal pattern of relationships, much less one of kinship or descent. Once ethnic groups are treated in this purely categorical way-as they are in much everyday contemporary discussion as well as in academic studies-similarities rather than relationships form the defining connection among members (1993, p 231).

The shared neighbourhood, the common history and similar experiences in the history, as it is mentioned above, is the definition of a group of individuals’ ethnic identity. In the course of time, the experiences of the individuals change within a community and as Fischer suggests, “…ethnicity is something reinvented and reinterpreted in each generation by each individual…” (1996, p 195).

Cornell and Hartmann (1998) argue that their views are based on Schermerhorn’s (1978) definition on ethnic group as collective approaches and “memories of a shared historical past and a cultural focus on one or more symbolic elements defined as the epitome of their peoplehood” (Cornell and Hartmann (1998, p.12).

Developmental identity theorist James Marcia (1966) emphasizes the importance of going through a psychological “crisis” which would be the result of a healthy exploration before making a commitment to a particular identity. In relating this theory to the development
of the ethnic identity of the two communities in Cyprus, one could question whether the individual members of each group did go through such a “crisis” which is essential if we are to achieve the formation of a healthy identity. With the importation of nationalism from both Greece and Turkey, the Cypriots were imposed the national identity of their respective motherland in a rather authoritarian fashion making a healthy, free exploration of other identities (such as the Cypriot one) appear to be almost treasonous.

With the division of the island in 1974 individuals from both communities were deprived of the opportunity to explore their shared identity as they could not have a direct interaction with members of the other side. Interestingly, up until the openings of the checkpoints in 2003, most interactions between Greek and Turkish Cypriots were taking place in other countries. In many cases, that neutral context generated a healthy, emotional and cognitive discomfort in individuals as they had to reconcile their stereotypical, nationalistic views of the “other” with the recognition that the commonality of shared cultural experience was astonishingly similar. In doing so, one would have the opportunity to enrich and expand her/his Cypriot identity by integrating her/his newly acknowledged familiarity with the other side. Therefore, in trying to resolve the Cyprus problem, it seems imperative for lasting, positive peace to engage in many rapprochement activities enabling the two communities to explore their shared, Cypriot identity which, in many cases, is the dominant one.

REFERENCES


IS RURAL NON-FARM GROWTH, FACTOR DEPENDENT? A CASE STUDY OF A VILLAGE IN INDIA.

RENBENI KIKON

ABSTRACT

This study attempts to assess the changing rural structural transformation and its implication on the emergence of rural non-farm sector. Rural non-farm sector is no longer a residual sector, but has become indispensable for income and employment generation particularly in the rural economy. How far such occupational diversification can bring about desirable changes and transformation to rural economy is of research interest. It is important to study the push and pull factors along with the role of urban spill over effects on the emergence of non-farm sector either formally or informally in the rural areas. This is so especially for an economy which has normally been characterised as an agrarian egalitarian society, which now shows the emergence of new economic activities and opportunities. This paper attempts to trace the growth of non-

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INTRODUCTION
The emergence of rural non-farm (RNF) employment is an important and fast growing source of rural employment and income generation in India in the last few decades. Future possibility for the persistence of this feature, makes it more necessary and interesting to analyse the phenomenon comprehensively in all its dimensions such as the nature of diversification in the rural employment structure, diversity of emerging activities, shifts in ‘pluriactive’ or multi-occupation, levels of productivity and earnings, and sustainability. RNF employment is a complex phenomenon, and in the context of vast diversity of rural India in terms of agro-climatic, socio-economic and institutional conditions there is a need for detailed analysis of the various dimensions of the phenomenon with a focus on situation analysis based on micro-level studies (Reddy, 2014). The emergence of rural non-farm sector as the highest employment and income generating sector has been considered as one form of rural structural transformation by many scholars (Eswaran et al., 2009). Thus, diversification of workforce engaged in the agriculture to other non-farm sector has been the fundamental target of many policies initiates of the government over the past three decades. In rural areas of developing countries like India, occupational diversification becomes very important where the average farm size and income is small and continues to shrink with demographic pressure, and where wage employment in a wide range of activities is casual and seasonal. It is obvious that any single source of income is not sufficient to meet rural individual or household needs. Perhaps, diversification of activities of an individual as well as household is likely to be more common. A self-employed farmer may be pursuing multiple employment activities in other rural non-farm sector or he may be seasonally employed in the informal sector in urban areas as wage-worker. Thus, rural households or individuals tend to pursue a number of different economic activities, resulting in ‘pluriactive’ or multi-occupational households or individuals’. RNF employment provided mostly casual work and very little regular work, and the bulk of seasonal fluctuations in RNF employment are due to casual labour shifting from agriculture to non-agriculture (Reddy et al, 2014). The incidence of non-agricultural work as secondary source among casual agricultural labour was on the rise in 1980s, which also indicated that poor rural labour was into multiple occupations and much of the increase in RNF employment was in the case of male workers than female. Men in RNF employment are more with education and are in the younger age group while older men are left behind in agriculture. But there are diverse findings on the relationship between assets (land holdings) and emergence of RNF employment (Unni, 1996). Some reported that participation in RNF employment is inversely related to the size of the household land holding, but others found that men in households with significant assets (including land) specialize in non-farm activities (Visaria and Basant, 1994).

In the Indian context the nature of the expansion of the non-farm sector and its implication on the decision making of the household in the farm sector are important for the long-term growth of the farm sector. Again the nature of transformation is not similar across time and space in the Indian context, different regions have different socio-economic and institutional set up that plays an important role in the decision making of every household. So given the different variation in the rate of growth of farm and non-farm sector in the Indian states, this study will attempt to focus on the emergence of non-farm sector in a remote rural village of Nagaland and how occupational diversification has taken place. This paper tries to...
identify who are diversifying from the agriculture to the non-farm sector and what are the major factors that play an important role in the diversification.

The content of the paper is organised in the following way. Data, methodology will be discussed in the second section. Third sections will deal with the analysis of the field data. Some of the major findings will be presented in this section followed by Conclusion in the fourth section.

**Introduction to institutional set-up and economy of Nagaland:**

Nagaland is a state of communitised tribal society (Jamir, 2001) with seventeen different Naga schedule tribes and 11 districts. Each district has a predominant concentration of one of the major/ minor tribes of the State, making those region/districts distinct in their socio-economics and political, traditional, cultural and linguistic characteristics. Every district has their own customary laws and certain institutional norms which are not in written form but socially acceptable and followed by all households in the village.

Nagaland economy still confronts many developmental constraints, even after 62 years of its statehood. Foremost among them is the geographically isolated, difficult hilly terrain, relatively inaccessible to the rest of the world coupled with continuous political conflict. Remoteness and inaccessibility within the state are also the main causes for the regional disparities in the state. One of the major conundrums of the state is tackling the ever increasing number of educated unemployed. According to census 2011, the state literacy rate was 80.11% and there has always been an increasing number of under-employment as well as disguised-unemployment in the state.

Naga society being predominantly an agrarian economy. Agriculture is the main occupation for their source of livelihood, where agriculture production is mostly for self-sustenance/consumption and not much for commercialisation. The contribution of agricultural sector in the state is very significant. The major land use pattern is locally known as jhum or shifting cultivation and area under jhum cultivation is about 1,01,400 hectare. The remarkable feature of the economy is that there are no landless peasants in the state. In spite of the agriculture being the main occupation of the population, state still has to import food items from other neighbouring states to fulfil the total consumption. This has happened because though agriculture produces a small marketable surplus there is a lack of proper agro-marketing and agro-business structure and also with the fact that people followed unsustainable agricultural practices such as the jhumming method which give less productivity and less reliable unstable. Terrace land and wetland are considered to be more productive and permanent than jhum land cultivation. Land holdings and labour market are not so formalised in the rural economy. Property rights entitlement documents are yet to be systematized by the government and held widely by land owning households because of strong tribal institutional norms and set up, so also exchange of community based reciprocal labour still prevails in the rural villages along with employment of farm wage labourers.

Out of total area of 165,783 hectares, covered by the state, 1,008.23 hectares comes under government control, that accounts for 11.7% of the total area of the state. Community, clan recognized traditional rights based land holdings as well as more modern and formalized private property entitlements over land holdings held by two or more families are common. Of these types of ownerships, modern property rights based private individual ownership entitlements has the largest share and traditional rights based, clan recognized ownership rights the least. Customary law has a very strong hold in the society and quite effectively determines the ownership of land, the individual’s right to use it, and is involved in settling disputes etc. Officially, 17 tribes inhabit the state each having its own customs and traditions. The laws governing the ownership of land, inheritance, use of land etc. differ from one tribe to the other (Renbeni, 2015).
Introduction of Mekokla village:

Mekokla village falls under Wokha district having 295 households and a population of 2165 with literacy rate of 89.36% which is higher than the state literacy rate of 79.55% according to census 2011. Mekokla is a large village located in Aitepyong block of Wokha district and is inhabited by the Lotha tribe of Nagaland. The village is a communitized agrarian society with a strong tribal institutional set up. Agriculture is considered as the main source of livelihood and innate all over the land. The village is geographically located at a point where there is not much easy accessibility towards nearby towns and markets, given the poor infrastructure (roads and transportation facilities) and lack of development. The distance to the nearest towns is in a radius of 30-35 kms. But due to lack of connectivity, its time consuming and expensive to travel often for the villagers. The only convenient connection is through government bus to the only district headquarter town, that has made conveyance a bit easier. If transportation facilities are improved in this village, it could have serve the purpose of exploring and penetrating potential markets in and around the village which could improve the village economy to a large extent. Nevertheless, the informal network and sources in the village has slowly emerged, and has started to involve in extrapolating the agriculture market by diversifying into more productive income generating activities in the village.

Mekokla agriculture Economy:

Agriculture production in Mekokla village follows primitive/traditional methods of production, where mostly labour intensive man power is required for agricultural production and no modern techniques of agriculture production has been used. Agriculture production is mostly for self-sustenance or self-consumption and not for commercialisation. Wetland and jhum land (shifting cultivation) are the most popular method of cultivation in the village. Where wetland gives more productivity than jhum land, even though wetland cultivation is comparably expensive and need more labour time. In within the farm sector, there is an emerging trend, where there is expansion of plantation of commercial crops like rubber, ginger, orange, tree beans, sugarcane etc. Some of these commercial crops are undertaken under government scheme to encourage the villagers to make farm sector more profitable in near future.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY:

Field survey was conducted with a structured questionnaire personal interview, and it was on intensive household survey, where the head of the family or anyone member of the family is the respondent to collect information for the whole family (household members). Total 60 rural household has been surveyed out of more than 295 households in Mekokla village under Wokha district. The village has no documented property right system so most of the respondents were unable to give standard measurement for their landholdings, as in the village the land holdings are measured by its land harvest during Kharif season.

The secondary data has been collected from Employment and Unemployment survey of different National Sample Survey (NSS) Rounds of Govt. of India. Four rounds of NSSO (National Sample Survey Organisation) data (50th, 61st, 66th, and 68th) have been used. For classifying the household into farm and non-farm, National Industrial Classification of Government of India has been used.

FIELD WORK DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS:

The sample household of the rural village in Nagaland is categorised into Farm and Non-farm household based on the larger share of income. Table 1 below shows that 37% of the sample households earn their major share of income from the farm sector and 63% are from the non-farm activities. There are households who earn income both from farm and non-farm sectors. Those households are categorised as mixed income households. 85% of the sample household
are reported as mixed income household, which shows the multi-occupation strategy of the household. It would be interesting to look at what are the factors that determine the decision to be in the farm or non-farm sector. What necessitates a household to diversify the portfolio in the farm and in the non-farm sector?

**TABLE 1: SHARE OF FARM AND NON-FARM HOUSEHOLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HH type</th>
<th>No of HH</th>
<th>Share of HH</th>
<th>Share of Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farm</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.67</td>
<td>34.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-farm</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>63.33</td>
<td>65.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

It has been observed in India, that the nature of non-farm activities is not homogenous all over the country. The role that the non-farm sector plays also varies across regions and over time depending upon the intensity of the emergence of the non-farm sector and the nature of non-farm activities. It has also been argued by many scholars that income from non-farm sector alone is not sufficient and not sustainable. In such situation household adopt multi-occupation strategy and diversify their portfolio among different activities. Considering the differences in growth and nature of non-farm activities, the field survey data of Mekokla village has tried to capture multiple occupation strategy of the households. Data on the first five occupations are collected where the first occupation contributes maximum share of the household income.

**TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF THE FIRST OCCUPATION OF THE HOUSEHOLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No of Household</th>
<th>Share of Household</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultivation</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry and Logging</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual Labour</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt. Servant</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grocery Shop</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rentier (Coal mining)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice Mill</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church Pastor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Pensioner)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

Table 2 show the distribution of households based on the first occupation. 37% of the households reported cultivation as their first occupation followed by Govt. Servant (20%). Based on the distribution of the first occupation of the household farm sector activities (cultivation, forestry and logging, casual labour and fishing) employ around 52% of the households. Next to cultivation, households depend upon the forest resources for their livelihood which comprises 8.33% of the sample households. The non-farm activities are mostly informal in nature. Employment in the public sector is the only formal non-farm job. This could be the reason for the high inequality in the distribution of income in the non-farm job, as the very criteria to enter government employment requires access to education. Given education as the constraint for entering into the formal non-farm employment, household tends to divert towards informal non-farm activities which are insecure and does not fetch sufficient income for livelihood. So to be on the safer side, household tries to diversify their portfolio (labour as well as physical assets like land) between different activities. Table 3 shows the intensity of the multi-occupation in the sample village. It shows that 68% of the households are engaged at least in three occupations for their livelihood. The survey also found that there is diversification within the farm sector, towards plantation of commercial crops. In the study...
village, cultivation of eight commercial crops has been identified (see Table 4). These include rubber, pineapple, orange, tree beans (yongjak in local dialect), banana, ginger, sugarcane, betel nut. Among the plantation crops diversification towards the plantation of rubber and tree beans are the emerging trends in the rural villages of Nagaland.

**TABLE 3: INTENSITY OF THE MULTI-OCCUPATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No of Household reported</th>
<th>Share to total HH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>86.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>68.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

**TABLE 4: PLANTATION OF COMMERCIAL CROPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commercial Crops</th>
<th>No of Household</th>
<th>Year of Starting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pineapple</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treebeans</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banana</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ginger</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugarcane</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betel nut</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

The above observation on the farm and non-farm activities of the rural village of Nagaland depicts the coexistence of Farm and Non-farm sector and the interrelationship in providing the livelihood of the households. So it would be interesting to study on those factors that influence a household to move towards non-farm sector and plantation of commercial crops.

**Factor influencing the diversification towards commercial crops:**

Plantation of Rubber needs high level of investment with a gestation period of 10-15 years. It also needs huge labour power. Table 5 shows that the higher income group are the one engaged in the plantation of rubber. The top two category of household who are engage in rubber plantation has about 77% of the total rubber plantation household. In the non-farm income the share of top two category of household is 51%. This 51% of the households are mostly large landowning household. Table 6 gives the landowning distribution of the household in Non-farm income. It shows that in the top income household category (₹15000 and above), has land holding of 92%, if we add up the top two categories of the land holdings. Similar is the case for the income category 7000 to 15000. In this category the top two land owning class (4.000-10.000 and 10.000 and above) constitutes 85% of the households. So it can be concluded that the large income group with large landowning are the ones that has mostly diversified towards rubber plantation.

**TABLE 5: ENGAGED IN RUBBER CULTIVATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income Group (monthly, in rupees ₹)</th>
<th>No of Household in Total Income</th>
<th>Share</th>
<th>No of Household in Non-farm</th>
<th>Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500-1000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000-3000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000-7000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.95</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The other important commercial crop that is found in the study area is Tree beans (parkai species). The nature of this crop both in terms of production and marketing is more advantageous than rubber. It needs less investment with smaller gestation period and as it is a vegetable crop, it has a day to day demand.

The class analysis of the tree beans cultivating households also follows a similar pattern like that of the rubber cultivating household. The top two categories in total non-farm income group dominate the tree beans cultivation with a share of 78% (40.63+37.50) (see Table 7). But in the non-farm income, both the bottom as well as top income categories are engaged in tree beans cultivation. The landowning classification of the tree beans cultivating households in Table 10 shows that large size landowning class dominates in the cultivation of tree beans. 62.5% of the bottom income category is large landowner. Similar is the case for the top income category where 66.67% are large land owner.
Factor influencing the diversification towards Non-farm sector:

The structure of the rural Indian economy is undergoing a change in the recent period. One of the important forms of transformation is the emergence of rural non-farm sector which is now indispensable for income and employment generation. But the accessibility to the non-farm sector is not open for all with an entry barrier. The standard literatures dealing with the diversification of the household towards non-farm sector have listed number of entry barriers. The probability of getting non-farm job increases with the increase in education standard (Eswaran et al., 2009). Studies have also talked about the gender and age as the barrier in entering into the non-farm sector. The relationship between access to physical assets and non-farm employment has also been discussed in various literatures. This paper mainly attempts to study those major factors influencing diversification in the non-farm sector. Firstly the nature of non-farm activities in the study village is different from the standard understanding of the non-farm sector at all India level. The non-farm job is primarily informal in the study village. Secondly, it has a strong agrarian base due to the importance that people in this village has towards agriculture. So this is a primary attempt to study the upcoming trends in the Nagaland economy, and comparing between NSSO data and field survey data considering the limitation of sample biased.

### TABLE 9: SHARE OF FARM AND NON-FARM HOUSEHOLD: ALL INDIA AND NAGALAND

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>All India (in %)</th>
<th>All India Rural (in %)</th>
<th>Nagaland (in %)</th>
<th>Nagaland Rural (in %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm Non-farm Total</td>
<td>Farm Non-farm Total</td>
<td>Farm Non-farm Total</td>
<td>Farm Non-farm Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993-94</td>
<td>56.82 43.18 100</td>
<td>73.44 26.56 100</td>
<td>46.62 53.38 100</td>
<td>62.2 37.8 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>50.27 49.73 100</td>
<td>66.51 33.49 100</td>
<td>44.84 55.16 100</td>
<td>62.33 37.67 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>46.44 53.56 100</td>
<td>62.62 37.38 100</td>
<td>47.91 52.09 100</td>
<td>62.19 37.81 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>43.03 56.97 100</td>
<td>59.22 40.78 100</td>
<td>42.85 57.15 100</td>
<td>61.5 38.5 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from different NSSO rounds

Table 9 shows the economic structure of India and Nagaland. The share of non-farm sector is increasing at all India level as well as in Nagaland. At the aggregate level both the Indian economy as well as Nagaland economy is experiencing rapid increase in the non-farm sector. But still the rural economy is predominantly an agrarian economy for both India and Nagaland. The share of farm sector for Rural India is around 60% and for Rural Nagaland is 61%. The increase in the share of household under non-farm sector for rural Nagaland is almost consistent. There is less than 1% increase in the last two decades. The field survey data gives a different picture of the share of farm and non-farm sector. The share of non-farm sector in the study village is higher than the NSSO result. The reason could be the nature of non-farm sector which are not covered by the NSSO. The field data also shows that 85% of the household are mixed household. So an attempt has been made to check what determines the decision of the household to be in the non-farm sector.

### TABLE 10: EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF THE NON-FARM HOUSEHOLD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational status</th>
<th>No of Household</th>
<th>Non-farm Total Household</th>
<th>Share of Non-farm to total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>72.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>62.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The educational profile of the non-farm household given in table 10 shows that education is one determining factor in the decision making process of the household. Moving up in the ladder of education increases the share of household in the non-farm sector. In the study village out of 30 household, 17 (56.67%) household are in the below 10th standard of education and engaged in non-farm sector. But in the category of graduate, the entire household are in the non-farm sector only. The landowning classification of the non-farm households shows that 84% of the households are in the top two land owning categories (see Table 11). Migration has a positive relationship with the decision of the household to be in the farm sector. Field survey data shows that, out of the 60 households, 18 household has at least one member has migrated to nearby towns/cities and sent remittances back at home. Again among these 18 households, 15 households (83%) are in the non-farm sector (see table 11). The household size information given in table. 12 show that household members of 4 to 6 and above enter into the non-farm sector. These categories of household can easily diversify the labour power between farm and non-farm sector. In the sample households it is found that the large household size has more number of dependent members in a household.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land owned (in acre)</th>
<th>No of non-farm HH</th>
<th>Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below1.000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.000-2.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.000-4.000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.000-10.000</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.000 and above</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household Size</th>
<th>No of Household</th>
<th>Non-farm Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 and above</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ calculation from primary field survey data

CONCLUSION

The rural agrarian economy of the Nagaland is undergoing a change with the emergence of non-farm economy. As the share of income derived from the non-farm sector is higher than the farm sector, and farm sector alone is not sufficient for sustaining livelihood. Thus, households are diversifying their portfolio between farm and non-farm sector. It has been found in the field surveyed village that the intensity of the multi-occupation is very high among the households. Diversification towards commercial crops within the farm sector in the recent period is seen as another strategy adopted by the household in the study village to earn their livelihood. The class analysis done in this paper shows that it is the high income group with large land ownership are the one diversifying towards both non-farm and plantation of commercial crops. Majority of the non-farm jobs is informal in nature. Education is one of the important barriers to enter into the formal non-farm job. As agricultural income is not sufficient though almost all households are engaged in it, the government should focus on formalizing and exploring non-farm opportunities through various policies and schemes and also introduce various programmes to educate the farmers with sustainable and modern techniques of production.
Priority should be given to improve the infrastructure development of the village with proper connectivity to nearby towns, which will encourage the non-farm sector market to expand.

REFERENCES


MARIANO V. CARDERERA AND MISTAKES MADE BY PARENTS IN EDUCATING THEIR CHILDREN
INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON INTERDISCIPLINARY SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDIES

DR. MARÍA TRINIDAD IBARZ

ABSTRACT
Mariano Vicente Carderera (Huesca, 1815 – Madrid, 1893) was the most important Spanish ‘teacher’s teacher’ during the reign of Isabel II (1830–1904). This year is the bicentenary of his birth. He held the highest offices in education: including General Inspector of Public Instruction (1849); Head of the Bureau of Primary Education in the Ministry of Development (1856); Honorary Secretary to the Queen (1860); and Counsellor of the Royal Council of Public Instruction (1887). Carderera participated in the subcommittee for drafting the Public Education Act of 1857. He visited world exhibitions in London, where he wrote La Pedagogía en la exposición universal de Londres de 1862, Paris (1867), where he was part of the international jury, and Vienna (1873), where he was vice president of the international jury and was awarded the Commendation of the Order of Franz Joseph. He translated works and wrote numerous books and articles in journals.

PRESENTATION
This year marks the bicentenary of the birth of the distinguished Spanish pedagogue of international standing, Mariano Vicente Carderera Potó (1815–1893). With the aim of the celebration and without straying from the subject, please allow me to make a brief biographical comment (I have published the full biography separately at mcardereraslife.wordepress.com). I will focus on his school of thought in relation to parents’ mistakes in educating their children and then I will present my conclusions.

MARIANO VICENTE CARDERERA WAS BORN IN 1815, NOT IN 1816
Mariano Vicente Carderera Potó (1815–1893) was born in Huesca, a small town in the north of Spain, on October 8, 1815, and was christened Mariano Vicente, according to the baptismal certificate that I found in the General Administration Archive of Alcalá de Henares, along with his marriage certificate and death certificate. (I also found the niche in the San Justo Cemetery of Madrid, where his remains have been laid to rest).

BRIEF BIOGRAPHICAL OUTLINE
Mariano V. Carderera studied at the Sertorian University and then the Seminary of Huesca, which he attended until its closure in 1835. Afterwards he took up studies to be a notary but did not feel this was his true vocation and gave it up. In 1835 he won a scholarship through a competitive examination as a boarding student for two academic years at the Teachers’ College of Madrid (from 1839 to 1841). When he graduated he returned to Huesca, where he took part in founding the Teacher Training College, which he directed between 1842 and 1847. In 1846, he married Francisca de Asís Ponzán (1826–1910), who would then help him to draft texts on women’s education. He was asked to direct the College in Huesca, until he was appointed as a Public Education Inspector. From then on, he embarked on a successful career in the Ministry of Development, in the Primary Teaching Section, which was cut short by the September Revolution in 1868, the year in which he was dismissed by the Ruiz Zorrila government, but would resume in the aftermath of the Alphansine Restoration. In 1866, he was appointed Secretary of the Royal Council of Public Instruction. In 1887, the year of his retirement, he was appointed Advisor. He died of bronchopneumonia on January 15, 1893.

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MISTAKES MADE BY PARENTS IN EDUCATING THEIR CHILDREN

Interest in the subject

On one hand, it is noteworthy that Mariano V. Carderera was a first-rate pedagogue. On the other, he considered the mistakes made by parents as being crucial. This applies today, bearing in mind that many parents form part of school councils and are involved with promoting activities in educational establishments.

Influences received

Vicén has discussed French and German influences on Mariano V. Carderera’s thought. However, I think that the British influence should be more highly regarded. This was undoubtedly passed on to him through his instructor at the Teachers’ Training College of Madrid, Pablo Montesino (1781–1849), who, like other liberals, was exiled to the United Kingdom, between 1823 and 1834. One of the sources of inspiration on Montesino’s school of thought was Locke (above all, when dealing with issues related to home-schooling). Fortunately, a manuscript that appears to be a notebook recording class notes from a lesson given by Montesino is kept in the Student Residence of Madrid. Locke’s influence is also evident in the development of Mariano Carderera’s thought regarding home-schooling. Furthermore, the following circumstances come to light regarding Locke:

a) For Caderera, Locke is the creator of modern day pedagogy. (Avendaño-Caderera, 1852:17)

b) In the first issue of the educational magazine: Revista de instrucción primaria (January 1, 1850) the translation from French on Locke’s Some Thoughts Concerning Education was published.

c) In 1852 ‘Education according to Locke’ is published in the Annals of Elementary Education.

d) The article on Locke in the Dictionary of Education and Teaching Methods is extensive and quotes the aforementioned thinker on several occasions.

Private education versus public education

Carderera is convinced that educating children is both the right and the duty of parents. Although he considers Rousseau’s system as both absurd and antisocial, he endorses the words of this Geneva figure – through Pestalozzi: ‘There is no poverty, work, or human respect that exempts parents from the responsibility of feeding and educating their children themselves’ (Carderera and Avendaño, 1852).

In fact, he considers the involvement of public authorities in education to be justified from a moral point of view. The teacher complements those areas that parents are unable to cover. The ideal is that both work cooperatively for the benefit of a child’s education. But with regard to the type of home schooling not requiring educational establishments, he states: ‘Without giving credit for the ineptitude of many families, we would of course encounter the impossibility of all of them. Even in the least well-off families, the necessities of life have multiplied, since many other artificial, but no less pressing needs, have been added to real needs. In order to meet some of these needs, men, above all, are obliged to spend the day carrying out a trade, an art, or practicing a profession, or a public function, that does not give them the peace of mind or freedom of action necessary to devote to the important and delicate work of home-schooling’ (ibid, 2).

Mistakes made by parents

The worst mistake that can be made, according to Carderera, is not to give due importance to children’s education. The priest and pedagogue, citing Rosell, alludes to biblical texts
(Ecclesiastes, Proverbs, Letters from St. Paul the Apostle), as well as Aristotle, Crates of Mallus (‘Where are you going to end up, oh, men, you carefully build up worldly wealth, but greatly neglect your children, whom you must bequeath it to?’) (Carderera, 1883, p 148), Plutarch and old laws of the Hispanic medieval kingdoms. In short, it is a serious matter not to educate them appropriately in their childhood, since, once they have grown up, it is too late.

In the same vein, throughout Mariano Carderera’s extensive work, the issue of how detrimental it is to leave children ‘in mercenary hands’, in other words, in the charge of servants, governesses, etc., is a recurring theme within a context that does not make allowances for family life. In fact, he considers that such disregard, such neglect, will come about later in life when the situation is reversed. Transcribing Ambroise Rendu (deceased in 1864) Carderera says: ‘What isn’t a lesson for men but the wretched misfortune of so many elderly people left to misery by their sons and daughters, who themselves were neglected in childhood!’ (ibid, p 473).

Another mistake of grave consequences is not to set a good example. What is more, Carderera understands that ‘if the parent is not the first to set a good example and offer a nurturing background, what right does he have to make demands on the teacher to correct the bad habits that he himself encourages through his own faults and vices?’ (ibid, p 177). In this sense, children are set bad examples, for instance, when their parents eat or drink too much, since ‘from a young age, children learn from their families about all excesses that will become their downfall later on in adulthood’ (ibid, p 127). As regards sweet treats, Carderera agrees with the words of Niemeyer (1754–1828): ‘The liking for sweets in childhood, according to those who have studied their place in education, is often the precursor of sensual pleasure at a later age’ (ibid, p 185).

The next in importance, to my way of thinking, is being too condescending with children. This is what he thinks: ‘Parents, through excessive condescension towards their children, and believing them to be innocent, allow them every whim, thereby encouraging their passions to take shape. Others, because they have fun with them or to flatter their parents, impose their mischief on them, which in the future will become concealed vices. It can be questioned what justifies the necessity of teaching vices that lead them astray from the path to virtue’ (ibid, p 127). Undue condescension also leads to social rejection, he indicates citing Nadault de Buffon: ‘In the parental home, all wishes are reduced to whim, and parents often fall into the habit of giving orders and children do not understand the importance of obedience. The child naturally thinks that the world that he is about to enter with a burning curiosity has to be the same, and that’s where he’ll come down to earth regarding illusion and humiliation. He takes the world on, fierce, arrogant, overbearing, and the world knocks him back, making fun of him and mistreating him’ (ibid, p 513). In other words, an excess of condescension can lead to frustration. The Spanish pedagogue sees that: ‘the lack of balance between the means and the wishes [of the son or daughter], condemns him to both a useless and troubled life, forever exiling him/her from tranquillity where only true happiness, the ultimate purpose of all activity is found’ (ibid). Nor is it good to satisfy children’s every wish or lavish them ‘excessive care to save them every little need’ (ibid, p 185), since acting in this way will make the character of male children more effeminate.

At the other extreme, displaying excessive severity is just as harmful. In Mariano Carderera’s words: ‘If they [the children] have been neglected, if instead of hugging them and showing them affection and tenderness, they are treated with excessive severity, parents should not be surprised when they see them become insular and develop a tendency to show evasive behaviour to everything around them’ (ibid, p 167).

As regards the miserly father, Carderera states along with J. Willm (deceased in 1853) that such a man – usually from rural areas – is ‘obsessed with acquiring the greatest number

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of plots of land possible’, and ‘willing to sacrifice everything for this unbridled passion’ (ibid, p 147).

Nor is it advisable to restrict the use of toys. Carderera thinks: ‘It is best to make an effort to keep children content and in a good mood. Taking away sticks, whips, drums, etc., so that they don’t make any noise, or dolls from girls with the excuse that their imagination is not being stimulated, comes down to destroying the very seed responsible for nurturing excellent skills and conditions’ (ibid, p 327).

Neither should embellishment in dress be encouraged, giving importance to something that really is not important at all, nor accepting faults. This is the case, according to Carderera, for those mothers who are convinced that ‘standing out for the way they dress is important for their daughters, and they encourage them to do so by means of rewards’ (ibid, p 329). This turns them towards vanity, luxury, arrogance and even lies (ibid, p 127).

**Mistakes in bringing up girls, mistakes made by mothers**

Let us remember that Mariano Carderera does not understand that there are people who think that ‘ignorance makes them [women] more delightful and prepares them better for carrying out their duties’, since ‘a cultivated intelligence and a healthy use of reason, will never be detrimental for a woman’ (ibid, p 664).

Likewise he considers ‘the mistaken idea that girls’ education does not need to be as solid or exacting as that of boys’ brings about serious consequences. (…) Nothing of knowledge by half measures, nor science that cannot be taken in; a little, but well done is preferable.’ (ibid, p 664). Nor is it good to promote what are considered women’s ‘weaknesses’. Carderera agrees with Ms. Necker de Saussure (1766–1841), in that ‘this abuse has completely stopped in some countries, thanks to the scarce interest with which men nowadays look at women’s weaknesses’ (ibid, p 157).

If the mother lives an idle or leisurely life, it could cause a nervous imbalance in her children: ‘All children are nervous, but some children are to such a degree that the least impression causes them to tremble or to move convulsively; this temperament is more common in cities than villages and is more prevalent in girls than boys. Idle women that are used to a sensual life usually transmit this disposition to their children (ibid, p 45).

Likewise, it is a mistake to make your children suffer from jealousy. Here he transcribes Fénelon (1651–1715): ‘The passion of jealousy is stronger in children than one can ever imagine, it consumes many and makes them fall into hidden listlessness on seeing that others are loved more and are shown more affection. Mothers are often cruel enough to make them suffer this torment.’ (ibid, p 169).

We will now consider what Carderera thinks about the mistake of excessive condescension, as mentioned earlier, but seen from the mother’s perspective on the education of sons and daughters: ‘The mother who truly loves her children and wants them to be happy (…) does not make any unfair concessions, promises or bestows presents at all times, since children will end up resenting all these things; they don’t know what they want and they will become more and more demanding’ (ibid, p 570). It has also been said that the mother who cannot stand listening to her children cry and gives them whatever they want to console them causes them great harm. It makes them whimsical, overbearing and fickle (ibid, p 512).

To conclude, let us recall how Carderera states that there are mothers that take on the education of their children but do so badly, perhaps because they are ignorant and with their own faults, as can be seen from this example:

‘She usually reiterates that it would be the greatest misfortune to have to entrust her daughter to strangers to be educated, yet at the same time she leaves her daughter at home with maids, with no set times for teaching, and takes on teachers, whether they are good or bad.
Lessons may be badly taught, be very costly, and are nearly always interrupted by distractions that lead to the morning slipping away.\(^2\)

**CONCLUSIONS**

Apart from the distances imposed by the passing of time, overall, what Mariano Vicente Carderera postulates can be applied nowadays to everyone interested in the issue of how to educate children, who no doubt will find reasonable and practical sources of inspiration in the works of this Spanish pedagogue.

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GOOD FAITH AND ARTIFICIAL REAL ACCESSION UNDER THE NEW CIVIL CODE
ADELINA VRÂNCIANU¹

ABSTRACT
The new Civil Code, entered into force in October 2011, proposes developed solutions regarding artificial real accession. The more comprehensive and complex rules take into account the principle of constitutiveness of the land register.

The rich doctrine and the case-law developed throughout the years have been translated into the detailed provisions from the New Civil Code. This is the case for the notions of good faith and bad faith, which had no proper definition in the former Civil Code. The essay tries to respond to the question of whether the essence of the principles issued from the doctrine is kept in the new provisions.

Key words: artificial real accession, good faith, bad faith, New Civil Code

Accession² is one of the ways of acquiring ownership provided by the civil code amongst convention, legal or testamentary inheritance, usurpation, occupation, tradition, and judgment according to Art. 557 of the Civil Code.

The new Civil Code³ contains more comprehensive and, to some extent, more complex rules regarding the immovable artificial accession, taking into account, among other things, the principle of the constitutive effect of the inscription in the land register (Bîrsan, 2013, p 363).

Throughout its many provisions, the new Civil Code has tried to adapt the solutions stated in the Civil Code from 1864 to the social realities of the new millennium and the challenges of globalization. The permanent conflict of interest between the owner of the main immovable and the builder is settled in terms of diversification of solutions that can be adopted by the parties.⁴ The definition of certain notions in the Code, by enshrining the principles stated by the doctrine and jurisprudence, represents a concrete support for practitioners and an element of stability and continuity for the legal relationships established between civil subjects.

In this respect, good faith and bad faith have obtained a proper configuration in the field of accession. The former Civil Code system gave no special definition to good faith. Solutions proposed by the case-law and the doctrine have synthesized the principles according to which a builder was considered of good faith or bad faith. The importance of this qualification is essential and a priority in establishing the rules applicable to the case brought before a court.

The issue of good faith and bad faith will be analyzed in this study in terms of jurisprudence, doctrine and the extent to which the general principles have been included in the articles of the new Civil Code, adopted by Law no. 287/2009, amended by Law no. 71/2011 for the implementation of the aforementioned law.

The analysis starts with a focus on the regulation of the old Civil Code (I), will continue with the case-law and doctrine (II) and conclude with the novelties of the Civil Code that is in force (III).

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²Accession is a primary way of acquiring property. Everything that is united and incorporated within the main object belongs to the owner of the object.
⁴The old Civil Code presented two hypotheses: the hypothesis in which the landowner is making works and plantations with foreign materials (art. 493) and the hypothesis in which a person is making works and plantations on a foreign land (Art. 494)
THE SITUATION OF THE NOTIONS OF GOOD FAITH AND BAD FAITH IN THE SYSTEM OF THE CIVIL CODE OF 1864

The former Civil Code had no special definition given to good faith in the field of artificial real accession. So, in principle, the doctrine and jurisprudence have consecrated the applicability of the provisions of Art. 486 Civil Code of 1864, which, regarding the good faith acquisition of fruits by the owner of a good that had to be returned, was that the holder is of good faith when possessing an object as an owner, in the power of a title, the flaws of which are not known (ibid, p 377). Art. 487 complements Art. 486 in that it claims that it "cease[s] to be in good faith when these vices are known."

The concepts of good faith and bad faith in relation to artificial real accession are only expressly mentioned in Art. 494 of the Civil Code in the context of plantations and works of a third person with her materials on the land owned by another person.

Alin. (3) Art. 494 states "(...) However, if plantations, buildings and works were carried out by a third person in good faith, the owner of the land will not be able to request lifting of top-called plantations, buildings and works, but shall have the right to refund the value of materials and labor price, or pay a sum of money equal to that of the fund value growth".

The contrary situation, if it is of bad faith, the owner of land can keep those plantations and buildings, being obliged to pay the value of the materials and the price of labor without taking into account the value of the fund growth occasioned by the creation of such plantations and constructions. The owner of land may require the raising of plantations and constructions on the expense of the constructor.

On the other hand, Art. 494 of the Civil Code does not apply in situations in which third parties do repairs or improvements to existing buildings, nor in cases when between the landowner and the builder there is an agreement on the indemnity, because accession, as an autonomous form of acquisition of property, occurs outside any manifestation of will from the owner (Fragopol, 2006, p. 121).

The French case-law, for example, has admitted that the owner has the right to request the lifting of the works even for builders of good faith, not under the provisions governing accession, but on the principle that no one can be forced to cede his property other than for the cause of public utility (ibid, p 123).

Article 494 of the old Civil Code regulates two assumptions: the assumption that the landowner builds with foreign materials and the hypothesis of a third person building with his own materials on another person’s land.

➤ The situation of the constructor– owner of the land with foreign materials

Legal literature has shown that the practical application of Art. 493 C. Civ. from 1864 has greater efficacy if the owner of the fund is in bad faith or if he or she has used stolen or lost materials.

The landowner of good faith becomes the owner of the materials incorporated in the land by the fact of its possession, in accordance with Art. 1909 C. Civ from 1864. He has an interest to invoke the late provision and may ask to dismiss the legal demand of damages, but also the demand for materials. Only in cases where property assumption operating in his favor could be overturned on the basis of unjust enrichment, will he be obliged to pay the value of the materials.

Others think that the landowner becomes owner of the materials under Art. 1909 C. Civ. only when he purchased the materials in good faith from a person other than its owner, and they were neither lost nor stolen. He will become their owner before being incorporated into the ground
and will not be required to pay the amount that was once paid for these materials in good faith to the seller.

We believe that the provisions of Art. 493 C. Civ. find application only in situations where the landowner was of bad faith or, being of good faith, used lost or stolen materials (Ştefănescu, 2007, p.162). Finally, although the legislature only speaks of the owner of a fund in Art. 493 of the Civil Code, the doctrine applies this provision, for the same reasons, to cases when the precarious owner uses foreign materials (ibid, p 163).

- The situation of construction performed by a third person with her materials on the land of another person

In the case of Art. 494 C. Civ., the good faith or bad faith of the constructor has consequences in terms of solving the complex legal situation related to the artificial real accession, unlike the situation governed by Art. 493 of the Civil Code, when the owner is building on his land with foreign materials, a hypothesis in which the good or bad faith is irrelevant in terms of the refund of the value of the materials used (Stoica, 2013, pp 349–350).

When the legislature determines in Art. 486 of the Civil Code that the holder is in good faith if the owner possesses under a title, the vices of which are not known, this title is not required as a condition distinct from good faith, but only as an element or as evidence of the latter. The same effect applies to putative title.

This solution is permitted in the old French law. The legislature itself makes its application in Art. 123 of the Civil Code, which confers ownership of the fruits collected in good faith to the apparent heir in the case of the subsequent emergence of a true heir, although the first title in this case is not only a putative title.

Therefore, possession exercised by virtue of a putative title may qualify him as a good faith builder for the purposes of Art. 494 of the Civil Code.5

GOOD AND BAD FAITH IN CASE-LAW AND DOCTRINE

Case-law and doctrine have supported practitioners by outlining general principles in order to facilitate the operation of qualification of the constructor’s attitude towards the general work.

- Good faith

The concept of good faith was analyzed sometimes restrictively and sometimes extensively. Thus, initially it was thought that good or bad faith depends on the existence of a property title. For example, it was decided that "the good faith of the constructor arises solely from the belief that one has, when doing work that the fund where he built or planted is his, in that it possesses by virtue of the ownership transfer, whose vices are not known".6

Subsequently, this restrictive interpretation was abandoned, the court inferring good faith from other circumstances than ownership. For example, is of good faith the co-owner who builds "on land owned by co-individuals, in presence and without opposing the other co-owner"; the builder who raised the building without the resistance of the landowner (the situation of the exclusive owner of the land) or who built on the ground after another one promise that he will transfer the ownership of the land (the pre-contract situation) (Safta-Romano, 1992, pp 34–35).

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5See http://legeaz.net/spete-civil-2/titlu-translativ-de-proprietate-titlu-92
However, according to Art. 494 C. Civ., if the concessionaire constructs based on a contract that is canceled, he can be considered to be acting in good faith and is therefore entitled to compensation (Pivniceru et al., 2013, p 101).

Legal practice has expanded the concept of builder of good faith in situations when the builder hopes to acquire the land in the future, based on a pre-contract of alienation, a promise of donation and was encouraged to do those works by the attitude of tolerance and passivity of the land owner (ibid, p 116).

If the tenant has built annexes that are strictly necessary for the normal use of a building area, it cannot be considered bad faith only based on inference that it was built on land he does not own but, depending on the attitude of the owner during the execution of construction and utility work given, the court may find the constructor to be in good faith, with the consequent recognition of a claim against the landowner, who would thus be enriched unjustly (Pena, 2009, p 32).

Going further, good faith can be recognized in the person who built under an arrangement with the landowner, understanding that, for various reasons, the building was not completed with the constitution of a real right of superficies in favor of the manufacturer. In this case, the attitude of the landowner, reflected by approvals, had created the expectations to obtain a right to use the land, and in this case the manufacturer is not of bad faith and cannot be forced to lift works, even if the land is subsequently alienated, the current owner asking to tear the constructions down.

**Bad faith**

The good faith of the constructor cannot be accepted as long as there is no consent of the owner and a building permit, even if the work was built with the tacit consent of City Hall, a consent that was given by the fact of paying taxes (Pivniceru et al., 2013, pp 118–119).

Also, in the case of police intervention in the lifting of work and constructions, combined with continued works throughout the course of proceedings, although it encountered opposition from the landowner, the constructor is acting in bad faith.

The bad faith of the constructor results not only from a lack of title to the land but also from the fact that construction was performed without a building permit, which is required by Art. 3 of Law no. 50/1991 (ibid, p 109).

Since from the tenancy agreement, it does not appear that the landowner has consented to the building by the lessor of construction and tacit acceptance has not been demonstrated, it results that the lessee builder is acting in bad faith. This conclusion is reinforced, given that, in addition, the tenant has built these works without authorization, in violation of the mandatory provisions of Law no. 50/1991 (Pena, 2009, p 11).

THE SITUATION OF THE NOTIONS OF GOOD FAITH AND BAD FAITH IN THE SCHEME OF THE NEW CIVIL CODE

The new Civil Code introduces definitions of good faith and bad faith. The concepts of good faith and bad faith are often used in the context of detailed assumptions in the context of artificial real accession. Article 578 differentiates between autonomous work and added work, as well as work of a sustainable nature and work with a provisional character, and Art. 588 regulates temporary work.

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7Art. 577 of the new Civil Code, paragraph 1 states “the buildings, plantations and other work, on a real estate return to the owner of the property if by the law or other act do not provide otherwise”. 

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Based on a more complete settlement of the matter and the constitutive effect of the inscription in the land register, the new Civil Code provisions more rigorously define the good faith of the author of a work on property belonging to another person. According to Art. 586 C. Civ., the author is of good faith if the work is based:

a) either on the land book in which, during the completion of the work, he was registered as the owner of the immovable, or

b) on a way of acquiring real estate not submitted to the obligation of registration in the land register, if, in both cases, neither resulted from the Land Registry nor knew in any other way of its title’s vices (Bîrsan, 2013, p. 377). The legal relationships between the parties involved in this operation are different, as the builder is in good faith or bad faith.

For example, in accordance with Art. 581 C. Civ., where the author of autonomous and sustainable works conducted on the property of another is bona fide, the owner of that property has the right to ask the court to order his registration in the land register as the owner of the work, but with the obligation to pay, according to his choice, to the author either the value of the materials and labor used or the increase of the land’s value determined by the buildings. He can also ask the court to oblige the work’s author to buy the building at the value that the building would have had if the construction had not been added (ibid, p 372).

Conversely, it is of bad faith if the person constructs a building or creates a plantation on land, which he knew was not its property. In this situation there is a precarious owner of land who simply usurps the land or he holds the land on a title whose vices are known (Pîvniceru et al, 2013, p 98).

As a consequence of the civil provisions, good faith must exist at the time of the work. If the author of the work learned, after its completion, that he is not in fact the landlord, he retains all the benefits of the initial good faith. The solution is an application of the maxim non nocet superveniens mal fides (ibid, pp 118-119).

The phrase ‘time of the works’ is unclear, however, because in reality, the execution of works takes days, weeks, months and even years. Therefore, it is fair to note that good faith must exist throughout the execution of the work until its completion.

If, during the execution of the work, its author finds out that he is not the landlord and yet continues the work, he will be considered to be acting in bad faith throughout the whole work. The same solution is applied when the work has been performed by many people, of which only one is acting in bad faith, taking into account the adage fraus omnia corrumpit (Stoica, 2013, p 350).

Paragraph 2 of Article 586 states clearly, in regard to the legal practice, that the one who builds in the absence of authorizations required by law, cannot claim good faith. The severity of the provision is explained by the fact that the administrative procedure of issuing the building permit or other authorization required by law is a verification of the applicant’s title regarding the property on which he will perform some work, and by his failure to ask for the permits required by law he is in default of his obligation (Bîrsan, 2013, p 378).

Going further, as a general rule established by Art. 14, paragraph (2) new Civil Code, the good faith of the author is presumed, if in the land register there are no indications showing that the title of the work is flawed (ibid).

The presumption of good faith is considered to be of general application and thus effective in the multiple hypotheses presented by the Civil Code. As a result, the author who claims to be

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8Art. 887 C. Civ. regulates the modes of acquiring real estate without registration in the land register, namely heritage, natural accession, forced sale, expropriation for public utility and other cases provided by law.
of good faith must prove the entry in the land register. Only then can the landlord prove, in turn, the title’s defects and the fact that the author knew these vices – Art. 586 (1) new Civil Code (Stoica, 2013, p 351).

Moreover, the new Civil Code continues the consecration of the general principals imposed by the case-law and doctrine stating, according to Art. 597 NCC, that precarious owners are assimilated to the author of bad faith.

Last, but not least, at first, a passivity- or conduct-tolerant landowner "was capable of removing the bad faith of the builder" (Safta-Romano, 1992, p 35). In return, the doctrine sustained that, while it is established that the author was acting in bad faith, any landowner passivity during the work cannot justify changing this subjective attitude.

This idea was enshrined in Art. 593 of the Civil Code where it is stated that "the author of bad faith cannot oppose the passivity of the owner of the building that is manifestly during the performance of the work" (Stoica, 2013, p 350). The wording of Art. 593 NCC has removed any possibility of forced interpretation of its provisions, invalidating the approach adopted in earlier judicial practice (Chelaru, 2013, p 415).

In conclusion, we can see that the new Civil Code, by its provisions, is a faithful expression of the general principles of jurisprudence and doctrine, maintaining consistency and continuity in terms of definitions of good faith and bad faith.

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THE REVOLVING DYNAMICS OF INTERNAL ARMED CONFLICTS: PROTECTING THE VULNERABLE (THE NIGERIAN SCENARIO)
EMMANUEL OZEMOYA OREKHA

ABSTRACT
The spate of internal armed conflicts across the globe is alarming coupled with its attendant consequences on humanity. In recent times, Africa has been in the spotlight with regards to non-international armed conflicts. States like DR Congo, Rwanda, Nigeria and a host of other African States have had to contend with one form of insurgency or the other, either as a result of political, socio-economic or even religious empathy and affinities.

This paper examines the revolving or constant dynamics in these internal armed conflicts. That is, the protection of the vulnerable. Hence, using the Nigerian State as a focus, this paper critically assesses the category of persons or entities regarded as vulnerable in internal armed conflicts with reference to relevant international conventions, the extent to which these category of persons or entities have been protected in internal armed conflicts and the role of relevant Stakeholders. This paper also proposes recommendations on the relevant issues raised.

It is expedient to state that the emphasis of this paper is the protection of the vulnerable in internal armed conflicts with practical examples from the experience of the Nigerian State.

Key Words: Internal Armed Conflicts, Protecting, Vulnerable.

INTRODUCTION
The spate of internal armed conflicts across the globe is alarming coupled with its attendant consequences on humanity. In recent times, Africa has been in the spotlight with regards to non-international armed conflicts. States like DR Congo, Rwanda, Nigeria and a host of other African States have had to contend with one form of insurgency or the other, either as a result of political, socio-economic or even religious empathy and affinities.

Internal armed conflicts (also known as non-international armed conflicts) are armed confrontations which occur within the territory of a state and in which the armed forces of no other state are engaged against the central government. Many armed conflicts today take place largely within the territory of a state; it involves the confrontation between the authorities of a state and armed groups or among armed groups that do not operate under the authority of the State (Wigwe, 2010, p 323). Internal armed conflicts or non-international armed conflicts are regulated by international law and governed by the Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols.

The current invasion of Northern Nigeria by the Boko Haram Sect is a classical example of internal armed conflicts since the Nigerian Government has been trying assiduously to maintain an upper hand in her confrontations with these insurgents. At this point, it is important to emphasize that the focus of this paper is not a narrative of the internal armed conflicts in Nigeria and other African States but a focus on the constant variable, that is, the vulnerable civilian population. While the efforts of these governments in combating insurgencies are yielding terrific results, it is important to begin to emphasize the need to adequately protect the vulnerable civilian population. Hence this paper, with its concise narratives and analysis, should be seen as an advocacy for the vulnerable civilian population in Internal Armed Conflicts especially as it bothers...
on the Nigerian State. The purpose is to re-awaken the consciousness of collective responsibility as it relates to the vulnerable civilian population in internal armed conflicts.

**Theoretical Framework**

Several theories on insurgencies, counter insurgencies and conflicts generally have been postulated and widely propagated by different schools of thought, there is Jason Rineheart classical and modern framework on counterinsurgency and a host of others. However, for the sake of emphasis and precision, this paper shall follow the thought patterns of Sir B.H. Liddel Hart’s Indirect Approach theory in conflict with regards to counter insurgency especially as it pertains to protecting the occupied territory’s population and Sir Robert Grainger Ker Thompson’s proposal on a successful counter insurgency. According to one of his propositions:

“1. The people are the key base to be secured and defended rather than territory won or enemy bodies counted…” (Thompson, n.d.)

This proposition amongst others shall be the running theme in this paper.

**Who are the Vulnerable?**

A vulnerable person could be defined as someone capable of or susceptible to being hurt or wounded either by a weapon or by any other means. International Humanitarian Law provides a wide spectrum for the category of persons termed vulnerable. However, for the sake of emphasis and conciseness, this paper shall focus on the vulnerable civilian population as stated in the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their Additional Protocols with practical examples from the experience of the Nigerian State.

Article 13 of the 1977 Additional Protocols II to the Geneva Conventions of 12, August, 1949 provides that:

“1. The civilian population and individual civilians shall enjoy
general protection against the dangers arising from military
operations. To give effect to this protection, the following rules
shall be observed in all circumstances.

2. The civilian population as such, as well as individual civilians,
shall not be the object of attack. Acts or threats of violence the
primary purpose of which is to spread terror among the civilian
population are prohibited.

3. Civilians shall enjoy the protection afforded by this part, unless
and for such time as they take a direct part in hostilities.”

The above stated provisions clearly authenticates the need to protect the civilian population in internal armed conflicts and also establishes a legal framework for their protection. Other conventions like the 1980 convention on certain conventional weapons, as amended and its protocols, the 1998 statute of the International Criminal Court, the 1997 Ottawa Convention banning anti-personal landmines; the 1993 chemical weapons convention and the 1954 Hague convention for the protection of cultural property and its second protocol of 1999, also made for the protection of the civilian population (Wigwe, 2010, p 332). From the above stated provision, we can clearly state that any civilian, that is not involved directly in hostilities or internal armed

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conflicts is entitled to general protection arising from military operations. Hence, this category of persons may be referred to as the vulnerable civilian population in internal armed conflicts.

The Protection of the Vulnerable in Internal Armed Conflicts: The Nigerian Scenario

The current insurgency in Nigeria especially as it bothers on her North Eastern parts has exposed a lot of persons to several crises and untold hardships. The activities of the insurgent group called Boko Haram has left nothing less than 2.3 million people displaced since the climax of their attacks on civilian population in May, 2013. While the group has killed thousands of people since 2009, the recent mass abductions of children and women including over 200 chibok girls in Borno State has left nothing but a sourer taste. While the government was still grappling with the realities of managing Internally Displaced Persons (IDPS) across the country, the Insurgent group recently launched a nefarious attack on an IDP camp in Yola, Adamawa State, Northern Nigeria. As serious efforts are being made by the Nigerian Government to combat insurgency in North Eastern Nigeria, little or no efforts are being made to protect the vulnerable civilian population. The attack on an IDP Camp in Yola clearly elucidates this fact.

It is fast becoming a reality that government alone cannot combat insurgency and other forms of internal armed conflicts. The fight against insurgency and the need to protect the vulnerable civilian population should be seen as a collective responsibility. As of April 2015, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) estimated that 1, 538,982 people forced to flee their homes in Nigeria were still living in internal displacement. This figure includes people displaced as a result of brutal attacks by the Islamist armed group Boko Haram in north-eastern Nigeria, the government led counter insurgency operations against the group, ongoing inter-communal clashes and natural hazard-induced disasters. In the words of the International Committee of Red Cross (ICRC) President, Peter Maurer: “The violence in Nigeria is ripping families apart and causing immense suffering. It is one of the major humanitarian crises in the world today, with regional dimensions. It is vital that the national authorities and the international community do what it takes to feed the hungry, provide shelter for the homeless and give health care to those who need it.”

The Protection of the Vulnerable in Internal Armed Conflicts: The Way Forward

The enforcement of International Humanitarian Law is somewhat ridden with many intricacies especially when it is an unconventional armed conflict. However, relevant stakeholders must begin to see the need to actively participate in the protection of the Vulnerable Civilian Population, especially as it relates to Internal Armed Conflicts. For example, the Nigerian Government with her overwhelming population of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) may not be able to adequately protect the vulnerable civilian population without some form of collaborations with other stakeholders. Stakeholders in this sense include, the United Nations and its agencies, other international agencies, non-governmental organisation, local communities, corporate organizations and the Media.

First, the Nigerian government must, in addition to her gallant efforts in countering and crushing insurgency, begin to consciously protect civilian populations in occupied territories within the North-Eastern Parts. The protection of civilian population should entail among other things regular surveillance of crisis zones areas timely intelligence gathering on occupied

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territories and visible presence of the Armed Forces in occupied territories. These would help to reduce the incidences of bombings, abductions and collateral damages in occupied territories. Also, the Nigerian government in addition to her efforts at alleviating the sufferings of Internally Displaced Persons must begin to seek collaborations with Corporate Bodies and individuals with regards to Internally Displaced Persons. The recent interventions by some corporate organisations, religious organisations and individuals in the daily sustenance of these IDPs across the country has yielded tremendous results.

Second, the International Committee of the Red-Cross (ICRC) with her sister agency, the Nigerian Red Cross, society must increase its engagement with the Nigerian citizenry especially as it bothers on the need to be ready in any emergency to organize relief services. Though the ICRC has affected the lives of displaced persons in Nigeria positively especially in the areas of food provisions, shelter, health facilities, portable drinking water and family re-union, this writer thinks that more can be done in those areas by the ICRC to alleviate the sufferings of these victims of circumstance and improve their living standards.

Third, local communities within conflict ridden areas must continue to co-operate with the government by providing relevant information that could facilitate a successful counter attack on insurgents in their communities especially since most of these insurgents are members of these communities.

Fourth, international agencies and corporate organisation should facilitate partnerships with conflict ridden communities especially in the provision of basic amenities and the restructuring of these areas. This would help to quicken the process of rehabilitating these vulnerable people who are increasing in their number on a daily basis. The recent intervention of the corporate community in Nigeria at helping Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) is a welcome development, although more could be done in this regard.

Fifth, this writer thinks that the United Nations should increase her efforts in the sustenance of Vulnerable civilian population with regards to internal armed conflicts. The United Nations through her Security Council could initiate or mandate her fact-finding missions with particular responsibility of identifying the specific requirement for the humanitarian assistance, in obtaining meaningful and safe assess to the vulnerable populations. In particular, other members of the international community could also be sensitized on the need to increase their humanitarian support to these persons.

Sixth, I think it is high time that national governments of countries with vulnerable civilian populations started creating ministries or agencies with the responsibility of Restructuring, Rehabilitating and Resettling Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and other vulnerable civilian populations. For example, the Nigerian government with the highest number of displaced persons in Africa should begin to take necessary steps in this direction. A specialized ministry or agency would further facilitate the alleviations of the sufferings of these vulnerable civilian populations.

Finally, the role of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Faith Based Organisations (FBOs), Civil societies and the Media in the Protection of the Vulnerable arising from internal armed conflicts cannot be underestimated. For example, the activities of these bodies in relation to catering for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) has been of a great assistance to the Nigerian government. Several IDPs in Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory of Nigeria, and other parts of the country are being managed by some NGOs and FBOs without any form of funding directly

7 Ibid 9.
from the government. More can be done in this regard, especially with the assistance of the Media. With the necessary sensitization by the Media through its various platforms, more support would be garnered and sustained in the protection of these vulnerable civilian populations.

CONCLUSION
As we continue to formulate strategies in combating the spate of internal armed conflicts, we must begin to think of the affected victims of these conflicts. We must begin to see the need to collectively participate in the protection, rehabilitation and resettlement of these victims, it is a collective responsibility, no government can do this alone. However, the International Humanitarian Law of armed conflict, rather than being an end in itself, constitutes a means to an end: the preservation of humanity in the face of the reality of war. That reality confronts us everyday; the means remains therefore necessary (Kalshoven and Zegveld, 2001, p2013).

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DRIVERS OF ECONOMIC GROWTH IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: EVIDENCE FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA
PROF. OLAJIDE OLADIPO1

Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa Abstract The macroeconomic performance in some Sub-Saharan African (henceforth, SSA) countries continues to improve as reflected in higher average growth rate, moderate and stable inflation and the accumulation of ample international reserves. Africa's real gross domestic product (GDP) increased by 4.9 percent a year from 2000 through 2008, more than twice its pace in the 1980s, UNECA (2012). Income growth is essential for achieving economic, social and even political development, and countries that grow strongly and for sustained periods of time are able to reduce their poverty levels significantly, strengthen their democratic and political stability, improve the quality of their natural environment, and even diminish the incidence of crime and violence. This study investigates the drivers of economic growth in Sub-Saharan African countries using aggregate cross-section and time series data from 1980 to 2012. As a departure from previous studies, the paper makes use of panel data set, with recent data on all African countries, checks robustness of the results against the model specification, and specifically investigates the relationships of indicators of the exchange rate regime and current account liberalization to growth. The study finds that, higher private and public investments boost growth. It also finds that government consumption exerts a positive impact on growth and that more flexible exchange regimes are beneficial to economic growth. JEL Classification Numbers: E60, F30, F41, F43, O40, O55 Keywords: Sub-Saharan Africa, growth, exchange rate regimes, real exchange rate

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1 Prof. Olajide Oladipo, Professor & Chairperson, York College of the City University of New York.
IMPLEMENTATION OF MGNREG ACT, 2005 IN INDIA: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS
MR. VUKKALA SRINIVASULU

Ever since India gained independence, it has initiated many schemes for improving the lot of the poorest of the poor. Each scheme was launched with a lot of noble intentions and entailed expenditure running in a few thousand crores of rupees. However, in most cases, the outcomes were in no way commensurate with the time, money and expenditure incurred on these. It was obvious that most of such schemes had a number of in-born defects which negated the very purpose with which these were launched. It became clear to the decision-makers that public money could no longer be frittered away on ill-conceived and half-baked schemes.

The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) can be considered as a significant outcome of the rethinking by the decision-makers about how such ventures should be undertaken. As the same suggests, its primary focus is rural India, where more than 70% of the country’s population resides. The MGNREGA has sought to provide a degree of livelihood security to millions of rural poor by assuring 100 days of wage employment to each needy rural household. Its features like an almost foolproof transparency mechanism, the provision like periodic social and insisting on adequate representation of weaker sections of society (which include women and the downtrodden) has made it an initiative with no parallels anywhere else in the world. Almost ten years on, it would be worthwhile to take stock of what all has been achieved in terms of enhancement of the social capital of the rural areas, its other socio-economic gains and the areas where some more fine-tuning is still required. This paper seeks to precisely address these issues.

REINVENTING SELF FOR STRESS MANAGEMENT
PROF. PRAMOD PATHAK  DR. SAUMYA SINGH

Stress is that psycho-behavioral aspect which is both a nonspecific stimulus as well as nonspecific response. People do not respond directly to stimuli. Rather they respond to their perception of the stimuli. This perception depends on the personality of the individual, his or her attitude. An event stressful for one person may be normal for another. The way people perceive and respond as they cope with the daily stressors of life can intensely affect their health and performance. It is this cognitive appraisal that may cause psychological disturbances like depression, anxiety, temper tantrums, and physiological disturbances such as cardiovascular problems, blood pressure, diabetes, ulcers, high cholesterol, etc. These situations may subsequently lead to chronic stress. Psychologists have studied various physiological reactions to stress throughout the body and inferred that when an organism perceives a threat or experiences a shock, it quickly releases hormones to survive in the situation. This is a physiological reaction that occurs in response to a perceived harmful event. Stress has been defined as a condition in which an individual is confronted with an environmental demand related to him and he perceives the outcome as uncertain but important. This uncertainty is a cause for anxiety which leads to stress. It is important to understand that stress can be caused due to many reasons that can range from cataclysmic events like earthquakes to personal crises like death in the family or loss of job. However, more than these

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3 Prof. Pramod Pathak, Professor, Indian School of Mines.
big incidents the small daily hassles experienced in day to day life is more problematic when it
comes to stress. One reason may be their continuous nature. An analogy can be drawn by the
following situation.

Let us say that a container containing 200 litres of water is poured on a flat wooden table.
What will be observed? After sometime the water spills over, evaporates and the table gradually
dries up with little or no effect. However, if the water from a container half the size is allowed to
continuously drip on the table one drop at a time we can observe that after a while a permanent
dent is made on the table. This explains the mechanism of stress. Cataclysmic events or personal
crisis are for a short while causing acute stress and the individual adapts to those and gradually
tides over. However, the daily hassles of life which impact continuously create a dent into an
individuals’ body and mind which is reflected through is physiological ailments and behavioral
disruptions. What is the way out? Simply stated it is taking the daily hassles in your stride. Trains
will be late. Taps may run dry. Bosses may be over demanding. Wives may nag. But this is the
reality. Don’t look for ideal conditions in real life. Reinvent yourself. The present paper suggests,
how?

MAKING ADVERTISING ETHICAL

DR. SAUMYA SINGH⁴ PROF. PRAMOD PATHAK

Though management academics keep on harping on advertising and marketing ethics, experience
suggests that it has little or no impact on the advertisers and endorsers. It is time to rethink
advertisements ethics given the growing influence of the media over the society. In fact the impact
of the advertisement content is so powerful that it drives the gullible consumers straight down to
the stores to purchase and use the product. In a country like India where the degree of gullibility
is very high and a large number of consumers are duped every day this phenomenon is even more
visible. In fact false advertisement claims made about their products by the big MNCs are blatant
lies draped in colorful campaigns and crisp punch lines that mesmerize the vulnerable consumer
into compliance largely due to the celebrity status of the endorser. The big question is can the
celebrity get away after proclaiming utterly false benefits of a product to the consumer. It is time
they should be made liable too because it is their stature that contributes maximum to purchase
behavior. It is time for the regulatory authorities to adopt more interventionist posture and take suo
motu cognizance of advertising claims that are often wide off the mark.

Many countries have powerful regulatory authorities. For instance the US has the Federal
Trade Commission (FTC) that protects the US consumers from effects of falsehoods of
advertisement claims. The Federal law says that the advertisement must be truthful, not
misleading, and when appropriate backed by scientific evidence. The FTC enforces the truth-in-
advertising laws on all kinds of media. The FTC nominates those claims that affect consumer’s
health like claims about food, OTC drugs, dietary supplements even more closely. And if required
the agency files actions in Federal District Courts. China is even more concerned. There is the
China Consumers’ Association that over sees the advertisement claims made by marketers,
producers and endorsers. Recently China revised its law relating to false advertising and has
proposed joint liability of media and advertisers. This, it is stated, will make media more
responsible. Further, the organizations and individuals endorsing the products claiming false
benefits to the consumers will also be liable.

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It is important to enforce responsible advertising in India also. There is very high penetration of the media and it has very powerful impact on the society. Particularly the gullible sections that comprise a large number. Honestly speaking revenue generation through false claims tantamount to fraud. This must be reined in. The present paper discusses issues related to ethics in advertising.

**A RESEARCH STUDY ON THE SITUATION OF CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE IN FIVE SOUTH ASIAN COUNTRIES AND FINDING THE EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS FOR THE PREVENTION**

**MR. BALABHADRA RAI**

This research paper scrutinizes the situation of Child Sexual Abuse (CSA) and recommends effective programs for the prevention and protection of the victims in Five South Asian states - Nepal, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. CSA is one of the serious challenges globally. Sexual violence against children is uncivilized disruption of children’s rights that exposes a child to severe mental, chronic physical and psychological hazards with effects such as depression, fear, low self-esteem and it affects them for the entire period of their lives. In 2002, 150 million Girls and 73 mil boys under age 18 had experienced forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual violence involving physical contact (Pinheiro P. 2006). Studied illustrates that the child of developing countries are more vulnerable as compared to developed countries. Various reports and data from related public organizations; UNICEF and other NGOs that works on child issues shows that child are at higher risk to sexual abuse in Nepal, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri-Lanka. A study by the NGO “Breaking the Silence” found that 13 percent of the victims who were employed as domestic workers, abused by employer’s son. In Pakistan 35 percent of child victims of sexual offensive were boys (UNICEF, 2001). In between July 2007 and June 2010, 713 incidents of rape and attempted rape of children below 18 years in rural Bangladesh were reported, in which girls constituted 64 percent (Fattah KN & Kabir ZN, 2013). In Nepal, within six months (Jan-June 2008), 64 percent of rape cases of children below 16 years were recorded (CWIN, 2008). In Sri Lanka, 1469 reported complaints were related to sexual abuse and 2160 were related to cruelty in which 50 percent of sexual abuse against children was committed by parent, caregiver or other relatives (UNICEF, 2014). In these states of the region, the main reasons of CSA are unemployment and migration, poverty, low education and child labor, child marriage, armed conflicts, natural disasters and displacement. In other hand, growing technology of communication has made easier to child to be connected with strangers, those who later pop-up as perpetrator. Sexual violence is associated with increased risk of sexual and reproductive health problems including inadvertent pregnancy, HIV and other sexually transmitted contagions. Hence, provision of effective child protection for the victims is inevitable. To discourage child sexual abuse, primary factors should be discovered and proceed for the prevention. Governments, civil society and related organizations should increase the awareness programs against child sexual abuse implementing effective legislation and policies to prevent violence against children. State should provide housing; rehabilitation facility and other social securities, arrange free health and psychological treatment, free higher education, skill development training and job placement for the victims.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF CITY REPRESENTATIONS TO FUTURE URBAN DESIGN IN LITERARY WORKS

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MRS. EBRU BURCU YILMAZ

The city, one of the significant phenomena of human history, is a spatial organization, which became a main topic of study for various sciences. The existence of several urban components makes it necessary to scrutinize this phenomenon with a multi-disciplinary approach. The city and humans build each other mutually. Human touch is what saves the city from being a simple stack of buildings; cities are affected by human soul.

Examination of the reflection of the cities in the real world, built by a stroke of a pen in the literature with respect to their applicability in the future would contribute creation of cities with a soul and human-centered urban spaces. One of the objectives of this proceeding is to approach the urban representations in literary work as a descriptive tool in human-centered urban design together with the cultural resources. Thus, without limiting it with mathematical computations and the material plan, the objective is to interpret the city as a space shaped by emotions and ideas.

In today’s world, where human-centered architecture became a vital requirement, functional use of art and literature, which are the most in depth representations of human reality, would contribute to the building of cities with a soul. Integration of the imaginative language and the imagination of literature and architectural experience would revive urban studies that would shelter human soul as well as the human body.

This study that aims to establish a mutual functional bond between literature and architecture, while proposing suggestions and models to prevent the destruction urbanization causes in our times, opens the applicability of dream-city designs of the literature for discussion. This text will provide an interdisciplinary interaction of architecture and literature.

Keywords: City imaginaries, literature, urban planning, space, architecture.

SOCIAL CAPITAL, TRANSACTION COSTS AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTANCE: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL NETWORKS

MR. ARADOM GEBREKIDAN ABBAY, DR. ROEL RUTTEN

This paper uses spatial economic data from Ethiopia to investigate the cost minimizing capacity of social capital which is under explored from spatial perspective. Following the identification of the domains of transaction costs that could be minimized, a propensity score matching technique is applied to estimate the effects of rural households’ participation in social networks in minimizing transaction costs. While framing the analysis from the perspective of rural households’ spatial proximity to a town, the paper hypothesized active participation in social networks as a mechanism for reducing market transaction costs. According to the results, households that are located farther away from the town have significantly active level of participation in social networks than do those closest ones. The farthest households are basically characterized by limited access to telecommunication services and other infrastructures. Given these realities, thus, the findings suggest that these households might not have economical options other than using the available social networks to obtain market related information which would have then minimized their transaction costs and finally affected their livelihoods. In due course, they preferred to make a considerable effort to be involved in the social networks in a way which minimizes their transaction costs that could have been expended and compensate the income gap created as a result of distance. These findings bestow a clue that if a rural household, who resides in a relatively far

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6 Mrs. Ebru Burcu Yılmaz, Associate Professor, Inonu University.
7 Mr. Aradom Gebrekidan Abbay, PhD Candidate, Tilburg University.
rural hinterland, actively participates in different social networks he is able to significantly reduce the transaction costs that could have been incurred had he used other mechanisms. This confers an alternative strategy for rural people to improve their livelihoods.

Overall, while the paper scrutinized the role of social capital in minimizing transaction costs and has contributed to the customary debate on the way it provides an alternative livelihoods strategy for rural people, there would be further paybacks from research in to the different particulars which possibly influence its nature and facilitate its pattern of measurability in different contexts. In any case, it is palpable that the aforesaid findings are so marked, giving a new road map for further explorations on the ongoing rich debate about the role of social capital.

THE IMPACT OF PHYSICAL ABUSE AND CORPORAL PUNISHMENT ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL, COGNITIVE, BEHAVIOURAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

MR. AREF ALSEHAIMI

Physical child abuse and harsh physical punishment of children occur on a frequent basis worldwide with numerous negative outcomes for the victims. The severity and longevity of the effects, which may be physical, psychological, cognitive, behavioral, and/or social, are dependent on a number of factors, including the age at which the abuse or punishment began, its extent, duration, and context, and the relationship of the abuser(s) to the victim. Perceptions as to what is meant by “physical abuse” and “corporal punishment” with regard to children, and the distinction between these, have varied over time and continue to vary between individuals and societies. Researchers continue to debate both the exact meaning of these terms and the consequences they may have, both short-term and long-term, on different aspects of the development and well-being of children. There remains controversy, for example, over the long-term effects of mild corporal punishment as a means of disciplining children. In a growing number of Western countries, no clear distinction is drawn between physical abuse and physical punishment to the extent that, in these jurisdictions, it is illegal for an adult to strike a child in any way or at any time or place. By contrast in many non-Western countries it is not only common for children to receive harsh physical punishment and/or be physically abused but there is no social stigma associated with such treatment, either at home or at school, and little or no protection is afforded for the child at an official level; indeed, it may have tacit approval, for example as a means of enforcing discipline and compliance on religious grounds. The basis of the present work is a critical systematic literature review of research conducted on the impact of physical child punishment and abuse. Results are presented regarding the impact of such treatment on the victim, the variables that may influence the outcome for those affected, and causative factors of the phenomena.

DETENTION OF MINORS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND TURKEY AS AN IMMIGRATION POLICY: ASSESSING PREDICTIVE VALUE OF HUMAN RIGHTS COMPLIANCE THEORY

8 Mr. Aref Alsehaimi, PhD Student, Dundee University in UK and Hail University in Saudi Arabia.
MS. PINAR CANGA

Several rights stated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights laid out a background for many international treaties. In 2015, we cannot point a state that has not ratified at least one international human rights treaty. Although we have the expanding international network between states to protect human rights, we have a serious problem: non-compliance. International human rights standards states need to comply with define the costs of compliance and have an influence on states’ decision to comply. Compliance process is rarely a straightforward process for states. It can involve different actors such as domestic advocacy groups or international monitoring bodies and different dynamics such as political costs or international reputation.

According to different human rights compliance theories, there are distinct drivers that push states to comply with human rights standards. Every state has its own story of compliance with several different dynamics involved such as domestic or international-oriented. Research, thus, seeks to find out what those dynamics were for the United Kingdom and Turkey’s case of compliance to human rights standards regarding detention of children for immigration law enforcement.

Immigration issues are always clashed with the states’ sovereignty issues. Since states own the right to control and manage their borders, this right usually shadows human rights standards regarding immigration. Even though the topic this research focuses on detention of minors as being very sensitive, states’ approach to this is still problematic. For this reason, it is valuable to know what the dynamics were in the UK’s and Turkey’s process to compliance in terms of its motives. This should help us to understand why states resist to compliance and see compliance as a challenging process. In order to understand the factors that are influential in Turkey’s and the UK’s historical record on compliance and most importantly put them in a theoretical framework, Ryan Goodman and Derek Jinks’ theory is selected as the compliance theory to test in chosen case studies. In the light of the findings regarding Turkey’s and the UK’s historical developments on compliance, this research will see whether these case studies produced different results in terms of theory testing.

TRUTH AND RECONCILIATION COMMISSIONS AND THE VALUE OF TESTIMONY FOR VICTIMS OF MASS ATROCITIES

MRS. FLAVIA KROETZ

The culture of widespread terror inflicted on societies affected by serious violations of human rights demands, for the restoration of peace and national reconciliation, the joint adoption of transitional justice mechanisms capable of meeting the aspirations of the communities involved, assisting the process of democratic transition, and striving for the preservation of historical memory through the discovery and dissemination of truth.

Dictatorial regimes are characterized by structuring the state apparatus in order to provide a reasonable denial of facts, hide the crimes committed by the state, and eliminate any evidence that could link the state activity to violations of human rights. Hence, crimes committed by the state are usually followed by measures to obstruct the investigation and prevent the accountability of the offenders.

9 Ms. Pinar Canga, Phd Researcher, City University London.
10 Mrs. Flavia Kroetz, MSt International Human Rights Law, University of Oxford.
In addition to establishing the truth of events, Truth and Reconciliation Commissions often constitute an important means of dealing with the past, notably because they tend to include a set of measures as part of a reparations for the victims and their families. Despite not constituting legal mechanisms for criminal prosecution, Truth and Reconciliation Commissions, by investigating the crimes perpetrated during armed conflicts, eventually gather evidence and may even indicate the responsibility of individuals whose accountability would be otherwise hindered by methods of suppression of the truth and disappearance of evidence adopted to ensure impunity. A Truth and Reconciliation Commission must also attend to the psychological factors, socioeconomic conditions and political post-conflict context, in order to establish the required instruments for the reconstruction of the dignity of victims. It is of extreme importance that a TRC establishes a historical record of events containing details of the crimes committed by all parties, so that the rights of the victims are respected. The establishment of such a historical record is only possible through dialogue and conversation, hence the importance of the testimony of victims not only for their own healing, but also for the reconstruction of the whole society.

**GENDERED SPACES: A CASE OF EMMIRATI FEMALE LEARNERS IN A SINGLE GENDER CONTEXT**

**MS. GERGANA ALZEER**

Types and dynamics of gendered space: A case of Emirati female learners in a single gender context

This presentation is concerned with gendered spaces as they emerge while exploring Emirati female learners’ spatiality in a single gender context. The research and findings discussed in this presentation are part of an overarching interdisciplinary PhD research that investigates spatio-learning experiences of Emirati female learners and the role of space in regards to women’s educational experiences through a unique exploration of the ‘intersectional’ relation between the domains of space, gender and learning. The theoretical framework of this study is based on social theories of space, specifically the social construction of space and Lefebvre’s (1991) triad of the ‘perceived, conceived’ and lived space’ as a point of departure to explore how spaces shape and construct the educational milieu while being constructed and appropriated by its users. I applied a unique ethnographic (instrumental case study) qualitative inquiry following my constructivist/interpretivist methodological approach, which involved various levels of data gathering techniques including in-depth interviews, both static and mobile, casual conversations, observations, class audits, exploration of the local literature and photo elicitation. In analysing the qualitative data I mainly applied the thematic analysis method of emerging spatial themes with some analysis of spatial positioning. By utilizing Lefebvre’s triad in the analysis and categorization of students’ spaces and by deploying ‘rhythmanalysis’ of their daily spatial practices, three types of gendered spaces emerged: ‘generally’, ‘absolutely’ and ‘conditionally’. As spaces designed for and associated with one specific gender, gendered spaces are constructed and identified based on this gender’s utilization, appropriation, and construction of social relations. These spaces were grounded in the socio-cultural context of the institute and its participants. The research also revealed the dynamics associated with such gendered spaces including mobility restrictions, and the agency of the female learners through the ways these females contested gender segregation.

11 Ms. Gergana Alzeer, Instructor, Zayed University.
practices, negotiating and attempting to establish new positions of power within cultural and institutional constrains.

THE CHALLENGES FACING THE ADVANCEMENT OF TECHNOLOGY IN THE 21ST CENTURY NIGERIA

MR. KINGSLEY ESEMMOR12 MR. ENIOLA LUKMON ATANDA

The study investigated the challenges facing the advancement of technology in the 21st century Nigeria as perceived by the final year students of computer science in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife Nigeria. It explores the basic importance of technology as well as examined the possible influence that sex, class level, family type and age might have on the perception of the respondents. The study is a descriptive analysis of the prevailing situation in the country as observed by the University learners in Obafemi Awolowo University. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 200 students from the 2014/2015 graduating students. A self designed instrument used for the study is a 20 item questionnaire titled Technology Advancement in Nigeria (TAN). The face and content validities of the instrument were ascertained by giving copies of the instrument to some test experts in the field of Test and Measurement of the Faculty of Education, Osun State University, Ile Ife. Some of the items were reconstructed by the test experts and some ambiguous statements were restructured. The researcher took to all corrections and the validity was standardized. The Reliability of the instrument was ascertained using Test Retest Technique and r= 8.75 which was considered high enough for the study. The instrument was self administered with the cooperation of the level coordinator of the final year students. Data collected was analysed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) at 0.05 level of significance. The study revealed that the final year students had a negative perception towards the development of Technology in Nigeria. It was also revealed that the respondents were not different in their perception based on any of the demographic variables used in this study because. The F-cal (0.099) and the F-table (4.00) implies that there was no significant difference among the respondents based on class, ages, family type and gender. Based on the above findings, appropriate recommendations were made.

Keywords: Technology; Advancement; Challenges.

EFFECT OF COMPUTER-AIDED LEARNING IN TEACHING-LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF BANGLADESH

MR. GOUTAM ROY13 NAZIA SHARMIN, PLANNING AND COMMUNICATION AND MAHRUF C SHOHEL, LECTURER

The provision of teaching-learning is a multifaceted process where different types of instruments should be used in balanced way. Computer-Aided education eases the process of learning and can play an exceptional role in increasing educational access. BRAC, the world largest non-government organization, launched Computer-Aided Learning (CAL) in six secondary schools of rural Bangladesh as pilot project with the financial support of Ministry of Education of the country. This paper aims to explore the changes occurred due to implementation of the CAL in these schools. The study highlights the changes regarding teaching-learning provisions in secondary classes as well as perception of the students and teachers towards this way of learning. Qualitative approach was used in the study where data were collected through classroom observation, in-depth

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12 Mr. Kingsley Essemor, Student, Lagos State University.
13 Mr. Goutam Roy, Lecturer, University of Rajshahi.
interviews and focus group discussions with the students, the teachers, the parents and the BRAC staffs using observation checklist, interview and FGD guideline. Some data were also collected from school records. Study findings revealed that the teachers and students were found convinced that the initiatives were helpful in improving the quality of teaching-learning. They noticed some initial changes occurred at the classroom. As this was a short time pilot project, however, the respondents identified that the duration of the project was a barrier for a visible impact on students learning achievement. The study suggested for expansion of the activities in more schools to get more benefit from this way of learning. Some modifications, especially on content and visualization related issues, are also suggested. According to the respondents, an integrated as well as holistic way of teaching-learning process can be more effective than the present independent intervention where Computer and related accessories will play a vital role. Record-keeping system of the schools needs to be improved for measuring impact on attendance and learning achievement of the students.

NEW MULTILATERALISM IN FOREIGN AID POLICY: DOES IT WORK FOR AFRICA?

DR. FAITH HATANI

This study seeks to discuss the recent emergence of multilateral forums for African development. The centre of the discussion in this paper is not traditional global institutions such as the United Nations (UN) and the World Bank, but newly formed development summits between one donor nation and multiple African nations. Not only the main donor nations but also even emerging economies began policy dialogue with African countries through this type of policy platform. An underlying concept of this trend may be ‘multilateralism’, which can be defined as ‘the practice of co-ordinating national policies in groups of three or more states, through ad hoc arrangements or by means of institutions’ (Keohane, 1990). The concept of multilateralism has been discussed mainly in the field of international relations, but it is growing into a new form in today’s context of international development.

The study focuses on the Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD), which the Japanese government launched in 1993. TICAD is seen as a prototype for new-fangled development summits, although its novelty was recently overshadowed by similar forums organised by other countries (Cornelissen, 2012). As a multilateral forum, TICAD has co-organisers along with the Japanese government, and the meeting has hosted a wide range of participants. Because of this characteristic, TICAD has emphasised its openness as well as the recipient country’s ownership of its development path. However, TICAD is increasingly similar to its followers that are clearly based on ‘one donor–multiple African countries’ policy platform.

By reviewing the existing studies in an interdisciplinary manner, the paper critically considers key issues of new multilateral forums concerning Africa. It concludes that a multilateral forum based on policy dialogue between a single donor and multiple recipients is likely not only to pose extremely complex tasks for the donor nation but also to potentially constrain aid effectiveness in African countries.

WHY INDONESIAN GOVERNMENT HAS NOT RATIFIED FCTC POLICIES : INTERNAL DYNAMICS AND OUTSIDE PRESSURE

14 Dr. Faith Hatani, Lecturer in International Business, University of Manchester.
The Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) is an international treaty which was adopted by World Health Assembly on 21 May 2003. Under the auspices of the World Health Organization (WHO), international communities developed the landmark Framework Convention on Tobacco Control to curb the global tobacco epidemics. This international treaty consists of a set of policies to regulate the production, sale, distribution, advertisement and taxation of tobacco and its products. So far, it has been signed by 177 countries and is legally binding in 180 ratifying countries. However, Indonesia is not one of those countries. Indonesia is one of the seven countries which currently have not signed and ratified the FCTC, along with Monaco, Malawi, Somalia, Liechtenstein, Andorra and Eritrea. The discourse about FCTC firstly appeared in Indonesia in 1999 with its attendance in a working group consisted of member countries of World Health Assembly which discussed the FCTC draft. The draft leads to the creation of Jakarta Declaration in 2001. Indonesia contributed greatly in initiating the FCTC along with Thailand, India and some Latin American countries. Although in the past Indonesia was a vocal proponent of FCTC, until now it has not ratified the treaty. The status of Indonesia as a country which has not ratified the treaty is caused by the absence of agreement between dominant political force in its domestic-level politics and the FCTC framework established on international level. In this article we point out empirical evidences on socio-politico domination in Government of Indonesia, which are: first, the overlap between FCTC and laws already enforced in Indonesia such as PP No 109/2012; and second, socio-economic factors. Government of Indonesia as the decision-maker is being indecisive and has not taken any stance in internal debate, this is proven by differences between the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Finance as proponents of FCTC against the Ministry of Industry, the Ministry of Commerce, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Labor and Transmigration and the Parliament who are against its ratification. Conflicting views can also be seen in public opinion. FCTC advocates support this agreement on health grounds, while its opponents see it as having ulterior motives and hidden agenda which aim to ruin tobacco industries in Indonesia. The debate usually revolves around the Government's responsibility to maintain public health which indirectly influences the allocation of budget for healthcare because majority of cigarette consumers are from lower-middle class. On the other hand, tobacco industries are one of main contributors to government's coffer through excise and foreign exchange from export. Furthermore, the industries absorb massive amount of workforce, around six million people work in tobacco industries. Indonesia also stands as the sixth greatest tobacco producer in the world. This domestic political dynamics are further complicated by the presence of outside parties such as Multinational Companies (MNC) exerting their influence to prevent the Government ratifying FCTC with argument such as the decreasing level of tobacco industry will force MNCs to lay down some of their workforce to keep their companies efficient, thus parting the workers from their source of income. This article tries to explain how these variables influence the Government of Indonesia to not ratify the FCTC until now.

THE PARADIGM OF; 'WE CAN REMEMBER IT FOR YOU!': THE ASSESSMENT OF TRANS-GENERATIONAL TRANSMISSION OF WAR TRAUMA OF CYPRUS (1963/1974) WITH MODIFIED EMOTIONAL STROOP TASK

15 Ms. Margareta Ambarwati Mutis, Undergraduate Student, University of Indonesia.
MS. ELIZ VOLKAN16 DR. MARIA HADJIMARKOU

According to the American Psychological Association (APA) the emotional responses that are given after a terrible event such as rape or an accident, are known as traumatic experiences (APA, 2013). When a type of trauma affects more than an individual and can be applied to a group, it can be considered a ‘mass trauma’ where the scars of the event can be seen both in the survivors and their offspring (Yehuda, Schmeidler, Weinberg, Binder-Bynes & Duvdevani, 1998).

Due to the wars of 1963 and 1974, the Cypriot nation, regardless of ethnicity, has been affected with several psychological burdens. Consequently, one may predict that if trauma is to be observed in these direct victims of the trauma, then a transmission of transgenerational trauma, may be seen in the human beings who were exposed indirectly to the trauma. Those would be the second and third generation Greek and Turkish Cypriots (children and grandchildren of the survivors). Literature supports that psychological impacts of war are not only seen in the direct survivors, but also in their offspring (Kellerman, 1999), therefore the major aim of this study is to assess whether this transmission of trauma has occurred in the second and third generations of survivors in Cyprus in both nations.

Therefore this study aims to investigate the possible effects of trauma, precisely, the transmission of trauma in the second and third generation of post – war Cypriots who are the children and grandchildren of those who were directly exposed to the war.

NUCLEAR PROLIFERATION THROUGH THE LENSES OF SOCIAL AND NATURAL SCIENCES

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ABSTRACT

This paper is an attempt for a discipline- and issue-linkage on the popular topic of proliferation. Idea is not stamp-collecting; it is more placing the pieces of a puzzle to reach at a greater picture. We aim to create a synergy in between social and natural sciences, and in the meantime, provide a solution to the proliferation issue via linking hard issues to soft ones. As such, we aim to avoid reductionism and compartmentalism that puts each topic into different “letters,” and to compose one whole “letter.” We benefited a lot from constructivism, and argued that it may be possible to de-securitize the proliferation issue by using trade-induced engagement with nuclear aspirers.

Keywords: Nuclear proliferation, interdisciplinarity, security, trade.

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