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Exploring Subculture in China: Punk and Resistance

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Abstract

This paper focuses on subcultural resistance, with a specific focus on punk subculture in China. The highly contested concept of subculture has generated much debate among Anglo-American scholars for decades, which has in turn influenced the subcultural studies in other countries. Drawing on a three-month ethnographic research, it is argued that subcultural resistance requires an exploration of the relation between resistance and the individual biographies of subcultural members. The biography of one punk informant is chosen to illustrate the social dynamics of punk resistance. Essentially, the formats of individual resistance, collective resistance and the discourse of resistance happen at different stages of an individual's time as a subcultural member and reveal the dynamic relationship between the individual biography and subcultural resistance.

Keywords: Subcultural resistance, individual biography, frame of reference, resistance discourse

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Introduction

The sophistication of punk subculture has generated many discussions in different countries and led to explorations in several aspects in academia. Starting from Dick Hebdige (1979), the cultural meaning of punk style was explored. Current scholars make efforts to discuss punk phenomena in Russia, Indonesia and Poland, relating to the themes of anarchism, identity and resistance (Dunn, 2012; Cherry and Mellins, 2012; Gololobov and Steinholt, 2012). In 1994, western punk style music together with its cultural meanings has imported into China. According to 'An Introduction of Punk History' (2011), China's first punker He Yong emerged in Beijing and the first two punk bands *Underbaby* and *Catcher in the Rye* emerged soon after.

Unlike academics in many other countries, Chinese academics have largely downplayed the history and status quo of punk subculture, despite its vibrant development over the past nearly 20 years. As a result, the related previous discussions that can be identified are relatively few. In Wang's (2007) thesis, hardcore punk is believed to retain only some aspects of subculture. The question arose in DeHart's article (2013) of whether or not authentic punk can flourish only in an oppressive environment such as China. The importance of subculture has been shown in relevant subcultural studies and exploration is necessary to identify the challenges brought by non-mainstream subcultures to the current mainstream in China.

Defining Subculture

From the early research conducted by the Chicago school to the latest model established by J. Patrick Williams, with a review of how subculture theories are applied to the Chinese context by Chinese scholars, the concept of subculture is constantly changing from class-based to mundane life-based to interest-based. The debates involve how to situate subcultures in a social context and if the meaning of subcultures is solely to resist. Post-subculturalists argue that society is fragmented and that subcultural practices are unrelated to the concept of resistance. The CCCS and J. Patrick Williams both emphasise the differentiating process and the resistance acts in subcultures in a society.

While the CCCS model directly theorises the oppositional relationship between the mainstream culture and subcultures, Williams replaces the term "mainstream" society with "normal" society. By reframing a rigid framework which essentially begins with class from an outsider's viewpoint, Williams' approaches, which start from interest and interaction networks of subcultural members, who are not limited to a particular social category, attempt to examine the concept of performance in subcultural practices as well as paying attention to a social context which may need more explanation than simply applying the concept of socio-economic class.

Williams' conceptualisation of subculture is applied since its flexibility allows more possibilities in terms of research directions. Williams' (2011:39) definition of subculture refers to "*culturally bounded, but not closed, networks of people who come to share the meaning of specific ideas, material objects, and practices through interaction*", leading to their identifying themselves different from "*the normal society*".

A Theory of Subcultural Resistance

From another perspective, the subculturists' self-identifying as different from "*the normal society*" is achieved by their refusal to follow the society rules "for simplicity's sake" (Williams, 2011:88). A focus on the analysis of power further leads to the concepts of exertion and resistance, explaining the subculturalists practices in relation to the social system. Resistance is then given an important role in Williams' subculture model in understanding the intentions of subcultural members.

A theory of subcultural resistance is developed by Williams, in contrast to the diverse discussions of (ir) relevance of resistance in subcultures in previous subcultural studies, where resistance is simplified as no more than a feature of some subculture. Williams provides a critique of the one-dimensional application of the concept of resistance in the previous subcultural studies; nevertheless he does not refuse to include symbolic resistance from CCCS to explain passive resistance. Specifically, Williams theorises that subcultural resistance can be divided into three dimensions: passive and active, micro and macro, and overt and covert. He believes a full exploration of resistance dimensions is the essential component to theorise subcultural resistance.

While it is truly a refreshed approach to subcultural studies brought by Williams' development in theorising subcultural resistance, the model he provides has overlooked the relation between resistance and the individual biographies of subcultural members. In other words, an explanation of the fluidity in the varying resistance formats due to the life changes of individual subcultural members is lacking in the static division of resistance proposed by Williams, which may therefore neglect the essential value of the concept of resistance as a response to power exertion. More importantly, subculture analysts may adopt the three dimensions to simply categorise the resistance in a particular subculture, putting aside the underlying social dynamics. Therefore, it is argued that different levels of resistance in a subcultural scenario need to be explored with a profound reflection on the personal experience of subcultural members and their individual economic and social backgrounds. In a broader sense, individual histories as a component of a society history can reveal the dynamic relationship between state and society, which serves as the ultimate goal of subcultural studies.

The concept of individual biography was crucial in the subcultural theories from CCCS, where its evolvment out of the relationship between culture and social structure "remains a valuable one for the sociology of youth" (Shildrick and MacDonald, 2006: 125). Nevertheless, the focus of CCCS subcultural theories merely on inviting the concept of class, which played an important role in individual biography, can be seen as inadequate. The analysis of the role changes and relevant experiences in a person's life is necessary to understand subcultural practice and its value to subcultural members. In this case, an analysis of subcultural resistance can benefit from it to a great extent.

Method

The ethnographic approach was adopted to find out how punks articulate resistance and locate it in their individual biographies. As an effective way of understanding social practices and a community's beliefs (Thornton, 1997), ethnographic approaches combine different methods such as participant observations, interviews and diaries (O'Reilly, 2004). Interviews with thirty-six punk musicians and two punk fans conducted for this study took place in coffee shops, bars, live houses, and interviewees' homes; all are comfortable places which are suitable for informal conversations.

Participant observation was also conducted at this stage, with attention being given to visual styles and general activities. While in attendance at different live shows and informal punk gatherings, particular attention was paid to the conversations among punks regarding the themes in relation to punk performance and punk value. This method mainly requires researchers establishing themselves in "a place in some natural setting on a relatively long-term basis in order to investigate, experience and represent the social life and social processes that occur in that setting" (Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw, 2001:352).

As Hammersly and Atkinson (1995) suggested, an ethnographer may sample aspects including people, time, settings and contexts. Based on initial research, Beijing and Wuhan were selected as the main cities for the ethnographic research. To precisely explain punk resistance in China, an example of a key informant, Mr L who is from a prominent punk band in China, will be provided. By applying the approach of relating the individual's biography to resistance, it is anticipated that the social dynamics of punk resistance can be appreciated.

The Role of the Punk Network

The process of establishing a punk network can particularly be observed in Beijing and Wuhan. Except for punk gigs in live houses, informal punk gatherings or hangouts tends to occur in certain areas and places such as bars, restaurants or street corners. As the definition of subculture proposed by Williams suggests, the interactions among punks in those different spaces have led to a formation of shared meanings and practices in Chinese punk subculture. More importantly, the punk network allows the formation of a frame of reference for subcultural members to establish shared subcultural core values, which frequently assist the members in their life points. With regarding to subcultural resistance, the punk network enables members to resist individually and collectively.

Due to the imported feature of punk music, at least two frames of reference exist within punk subculture. The first one emerges from the process of localisation of punk music and its culture in China attributed to the interactions within a local punk network. The second one is more about how the punks in Anglo-American countries believe and behave, drawing upon an international punk network. These two frames of reference can overlap and inevitably impact each other, resulting in a relative static frame of reference in punk subculture.

Mr L is from a Skinhead Punk band, a key informant during the field study, has been chosen as an example for this paper due to his key role in forming punk norms and values. Mr L and his band have survived since 1999 and are well known by most of the other 'old school' punk bands. He attended most of the punk activities and held punk festivals. In the field, he was also seen to have numerous punk friends visiting him. One theme that arose from these punk gatherings was the insistence on having a punk visual appearance. He also has a strong network with German punks as a result of his band's music tour in Germany in 2007. Through frequent interaction with German punks, particularly involving comparing the situations in the two different countries including issues such as the government reactions to graffiti, Mr L has formed a strong criticism of China resulting in his argument that the establishment of a new society operating without government is necessary.

In this case, two frames of reference concern the insistence on visual style and political viewpoints. In order to construct a punk identity, most of the punk informants shared this idea with Mr L and insisted on visual appearance to resist conformity with Chinese mainstream society. In a broader sense, in a country with a socialist ideology, the strengthened anarchic mentality, which is shared by Mr L and most of punk informants, can only be explained as referring to the frame of European punk philosophy.

The Social Dynamics of Punk Resistance

In Williams' opinion, subcultural resistance can only be fully understood through categorizing its three dimensions. However, the changes of experiences and social position in a person's life are more relevant to understanding the concept of subcultural resistance. In the case of punk subculture, the intentions, formats and targets of punk resistance would possibly change following a change in a punk's total time of staying in the punk scene, his social positions, age and relations to outsiders. It is argued that the concept of subcultural resistance can be better understood through the analysis of this changing process of individual biography.

In this paper, Mr L's biography in terms of being a punk particularly is chosen and shows the social dynamics of punk resistance. In short, Mr L has experience from punk music shaping his social action in his early age to the formation of resistance discourse in the daily life when he gets older. Although the analysis is based on Mr L's punk life, it does not necessarily mean that other punks' lives are excluded. As the order of life tracks may differ individually, the life points that relate to the punk scene are more or less the same according to the ethnographic research. More importantly, the process from individual to collective is experienced by every single punk, which will be described below based on Mr L's experience. Therefore, the interpretations of his life should be appreciated as a representative and a means to provide a holistic vision of subcultural resistance.

Individual Resistance

DeNora (2003) emphasises that music has the ability to shape social action. For Williams, individual resistance termed as micro resistance is related to personal choices in their life. The social interactions concerning subculture is limited at this stage, thus subcultural resistance emerges normally in the process of starting a non-

conforming lifestyle by subcultural members.

In the case of Mr L, the construction of his punk identity began from attending a punk gig fifteen years ago. The music drove him to form a skinhead band, attain knowledge of punk music and adopt the punk style of visual appearance as a simple form of leisure. Simply to say, the punk consciousness was shaped by the sources he drew from the Internet and the live shows he attended.

At this stage, resistance ideologies emerged after he faced opposition from his parents—an authoritative figure in his life—and neighbours to his adopted punk look and behaviour, including violence and talk of political dissatisfaction. To put this into the bigger picture, anti-authority became the first theme that framed Mr L and his relationship to punk scene. In fact, a subcultural member is not necessarily susceptible to youth rebellion to parents without reasons. The social action, which in this case consists of Mr L's choosing to join in the punk scene and wear as a punk, invokes the conflicts between subcultural member and outsiders.

In China, this emerging conflict readily occurs since the society is rooted deeply in the social structure and authoritarian system. In the early 90s' Chinese society was influenced by Confucian philosophy, which it is argued continues to influence Chinese modern society and shapes it as a continuously conforming society (Weber, 2002). According to tradition, parents and government are both seen as a form of authority. The pressure of being non-conforming thus comes from the authorities along with the society members such as neighbours, peers, or even strangers walking in the street. This provides an explanation of the process of Mr L's individual resistance through visual style. Resistance by adopting a foreign style may be more appropriate than resistance by objects appropriation in the CCCS subcultural theories. According to Williams' analysis, this format of resistance stays in a micro level meanwhile being active. The result of ethnographic research showed that this format of resistance happened in most of the punks, especially when they first joined the punk scene or made decisions concerning punk lifestyle.

The critical attitude of retaining the status of non-conformity is strengthened by the reference of punk philosophy rooted in Anglo-American punks, which leads to Mr L's continuing resistance in dealing with the professional life. The stable 9-5 working schedule, accompanied with the emergence of another authority figure – a boss, was a concept which disgusted him since it was seen as a compromise to blend into the mainstream society. Thus withdrawing from the 9-5 schedule and spending more time in the punk scene became Mr L's choice. In this sense, a holistic approach may be adopted in his way of viewing Chinese society, thus the mainstream society as a whole becomes problematic. It is at this stage that resistance becomes a response to cope with the mainstream elements in Mr L's daily life.

Collective Resistance

In Williams' analysis, collective resistance is termed as meso-resistance or macro-resistance depending the size and influence of the activities. Collective resistance normally appears in a later stage of a subcultural member's life when he has submerged into a subculture and participated in different sorts of subcultural practices. It is at this stage that the subcultural identity is fully constructed through the constant

interactions among subcultural members. Regarding punk subculture, collective resistance easily arises from music festivals and group hanging-outs.

After establishing his band, Mr L became the founder of the longest held punk festival, also the only one that exists in China. After ten years' development, Mr L defines the punk festival as a space with free speech. In fact, the punk festival is not simply regarded as a cultural endeavour but is viewed as a space with equality and freedom, with activities such as moshing and pogoing resulting in breaking human boundaries, in contrast to an outside world full of hierarchy and constraints.

Mr L clearly has more resistance targets after holding the punk music festival. As a result of its political nature (i.e. due to the political nature of song lyrics), the punk music festival is scrutinised by the government. The actualisation of holding a festival can thus be regarded as collective resistance to government policies. By experiencing other different music festivals, Mr L and his companies decided to make the punk music festival more 'pure' and less commercial. It is in the process of discussing with other punks that the rule is made to this organisation. For Mr L, anti-authority and anti-commercialisation have increased to a collective level and become a reinforced empowerment. Punk unity, which is emphasised by the intention of holding a punk music festival, also gives motivation for Mr L to continue his punk lifestyle and reaction to other mainstream festivals and government deeds.

On a daily basis, punks choose bars or street corners for hanging-outs. In his case, Mr L's restaurant, which is structured as an underground live house with a shut door and a curtain covering for exclusion and loud punk music playing all the day along, serves as this daily space for punk gatherings. Through hanging out with other punk musicians or fans, the subcultural practices such as holding gigs and tours, creating albums and music videos are discussed and scheduled. More importantly, political views, punk cultures and the DIY philosophy are exchanged and shared, leading to a mutual reaction to all different formats of authorities. The constructed space with a flow of critical conversations is seen as a thoughtful and free space for punks in contrast to the outside environment, which is regarded as selfish and meaningless, for example. The frame of reference that emerges from the conversations also assists subcultural members with coping with their daily lives.

The Discourse of Resistance

Wilson and Stapleton found that "the dominated rejecting material and linguistic setting up of alternative discursive forms of resistance" happened in the nationalist community of Northern Ireland (2007: 419). Here the concept of discourse of resistance is adopted to conceptualise the contents and style of Mr L's speech. Resistance discourse signifies that Mr L has entered a new stage in his punk development.

The conversations held with Mr L, which were mostly led by him, can be seen as a discourse for analysis. Compared to other approaches, the discourse of resistance can be seen as a response to the current situation in China. It can be seen that the discursive process of resistance happens together with reflexive accounts on the right of free speech in China. While he believes that it is forbidden to discuss Tiananmen Square, Mr L speaks about it boldly and and comments on the mass fear of talking

about it. By setting up an entirely new pattern of discussing this event, Mr L, who represents himself as the dominated, resists the dominating frame of keeping silence and eliminating the memory of the politically sensitive issues. Interestingly, the mainstream forms an opposing power or pressure to Mr L, not just because those attitudes from most people but also from the impression or attitude that Mr L has of outsiders. Simply put, the frame of reference assists Mr L in coping with the problems brought by his identity and insistence. More importantly, he regards this bold behaviour as a way to differentiate himself from the ignorant mainstream.

Resistance discourse is formed through reflecting on the relationship between the subcultural scene and the mainstream. It can be seen as a daily resistant reaction. Compared to general complaint—a normal form of expressing dissatisfaction, resistance discourse is a systematic and characteristic means of communication, including the ways of exemplifying politically sensitive issues. From another perspective, the formation of a resistance discourse, which applied to the current stage of Mr L's life, increases his chances to demonstrate resistance from occasional times to every day.

Conclusion

By presenting one key informant Mr L's life histories in the light of being a punk member from the three-month ethnographic research, the above discussion has shown that individual biography is important in the interpretations of subcultural resistance. The life changes of a subcultural member will bring the changes of resistance formats. Essentially, the formats of individual resistance, collective resistance and resistance discourse happen at different stages of an individual's time as a subcultural member. Moreover, a discussion between individual resistance and social structure has also shown the potential of exploring the relationship between the state and society in this approach. It is anticipated that further analysis can be carried out based on the individual biographies of other subcultural members, in this case, punk members.

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*A Study on Factors Affecting Exports Performance of the Customs of the Ports
(The Case of an Iranian Ports)*

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Abstract

The aim of this article is explanation of the relationship between strategy of exports market development and performance and identification of factors affecting on exports performance of the customs of the ports. The study is based on deductive reasoning and applying structural equation modeling (SEM). Population in this study includes all of the economics experts and practitioners working in the port of Khorramshahr and 219 of them are selected as sample size. Afterwards, factors affecting on exports performance of the customs of the port is studied based on the model presented in this article. The results indicate that market and industry characteristics and strategy of exports market development has a significant impact on exports performance of the customs of the port.

Keywords: Exports Performance, Strategy of Exports Markets Development, Organization Characteristics, Industry and Market Characteristics.

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I Introduction

In fact exporting goods and services is a way to obtain foreign exchange and therefore economic development (Albaun et al, 2004, P46). A part of the international trade is constituted by countries exports.. There is no doubt that development and expanding exports is not an easy job nowadays when all countries are trying to acquire more share of global markets and they have realized that benefits of market share acquisition in a country is not limited to economical and material profit. Sensitivity and importance of exporting goods and services to countries lead to identification of tools and effective factors in this field and putting effort into expanding exports. (Elahi and Hasanzadeh, 2007, P93) The customs services is one of the factors influence exports development of goods and services. In fact, international trade is not meaningful without the customs. The customs as a substantial and inseparable part of foreign trade is where all trading agents and exports/imports regulators and law enforcements meet and provide information. The importance of role of customs is at such high level that sometimes is taken into account as a criterion for evaluation of foreign trading or even macroeconomic activities of a country. In fact the customs' role is promotion of exports and imports and providing and analyzing data and statistics about foreign trade. (UNCTAD, 2006) Researches have shown that the primary concern for countries is to improve exports performance. (Fiegenbaum, Schendel, 1996). One of the main and basic factors determining exports performance is strategy of exports market development. Studies have indicates that applying such strategy improves exports performance. (Craig Julian, 2003, P366)

II Literature Review

There is a study by Ghasemi et al. done at 2010 titled "Coordination Model between International Marketing with organization environmental size and international market subsystems and its effect on exports performance". The study indicates that external coordination and internal coordination as 2 variables and their interactive have impact on exports performance. The study also has shown that internal coordination have more effect on export performance than external coordination. Nategh and Niakan studied "Sub-structuring of Exports Development with emphasis on Exports Limitations, Drivers and Performance" at 2009. The results show that if exporters face with problems and limitations in early stages of export, they may give up exporting permanently. Therefore focus on solving these initial problems is of utmost importance. In the following table exporters problems and limitations in starting exports or the so-called non-exporters problems are shown. After identification and solving these early stages problems, the focus must be on identification and strengthening exports performance variables. Dehdashti on 2007 in a study titled "Effective Factors on Small and Medium Exporting Firms" has showed that internal controllable factors include exports marketing strategic factors, management attitude and perceptions and internal uncontrollable factors include management, competency and external uncontrollable factors include foreign market characteristics, industry characteristics and measurement criterion are categorized in 3 criteria: financial, non-financial and mixed. Bategeka et al.¹ in 2012 studied "Effect of exports marketing strategy in relation between firm's skill and exports performance of

¹Levi KabagambeBategeka, Justus M. Munyoki, Martin Ogutu

small and medium exporters in Uganda” and the results have indicated that export marketing strategy, in spite of prior studies, has an unimportant effect on relation between firm’s competencies and exports performance.

Jang did a research in 2012 titled “exports market orientation, management relationships and performance”. The aim of this study is to find relationship between exports market and performance by considering that do the management relationships act as adjustment? Result of this study indicates that developing and distribution exports market increases the power of business relationships and decreases the power of politic relationships and also exports market has a positive relationship with exports strategic performance. Ovenini and Omotavo studied “Effect of Marketing Strategies on Exports Performance” in 2009. The study has shown that product acceptance and promotion and marketing position influences exports performance. Gomez et al by a study “Exports Marketing Strategies for Excellent Export Performance” in 2006 show that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between penetration in foreign markets and marketing strategies. Considering marketing strategies, factors of active exports are product acceptance, price competition and type of distribution network.

III Theoretical Framework

Exports constitute a vital part of each country economic. Exporting goods and services are most important source of foreign exchange income which keeps global economic live and active. There is an increase in exports because of economic globalization, reduction in tariffs, free markets policies and governments are also interested in helping ports to increase exports and governments of developed countries launch the exports promotion programs. (Dehdashti, 2007, P52) considering the importance of the issue, different studies in various countries in the field of identification of effective factors on exports performance in various industries have been done. In each of these studies, variables were under considerations that in researcher’s point of view have effect on exports performance directly or indirectly. In 2000, Deal, Menguch, and Myers considered firm’s characteristics (size, perceived entrance barriers and firm’s background in business), firm’s competency (exports experiment) and exports market experiments (focus on market against variety and being active instead of being passive) on exports performance of the company. Baldauf, Cravens, and Wagner by developing a model considered the relationship between environment’s characteristics (social, cultural and political), firm’s characteristics (demographics and management motivations) and business strategies (diversification with low cost) with exports performance. (Deal et al, 2000, p68) Shoham, Evangelista and Albaum in 2002 classification firms into 3 category of defenders, analysis and seekers (enthusiasts) and then identified various variables effective on each of this firm’s exports performance. In this study they found out that in analysis firms there is relationship between production of new products, production managements, market orientation and control strategies on one hand and exports performance on the other hand. On the same year Rose and Shoham considered effect of having market orientation on sell and profit. (Shoham et al, 2002, P237) In 2002 Katsikeas, Leonidou, and Morgan by applying a model introduce 3 variables as effective variables on exports performance: exports attitude, exports barriers and management support. The first two variables in addition to direct effect on exports performance have an indirect effect by influencing on management support. (Katsikeas

et al, 2002, P493) Leonidou, Katsikeas and Samiee after further analysis of pervious works, proposed a model in which factors are classified into five categories (management characteristics, organizational factors, environmental pressure, exports goal setting and components of exports marketing strategies). The three first factors influence the last two and the last two have direct effect on exports performance. In this step a product prototype (or a limited number of it) is produce. In cases which technical knowledge about product is augmented, this step may not be necessary and by technology transferring its production will be possible. But for the products which are produced for the first time and technology transfer is not possible this step is necessary. The key factor in this step is having effective factors of product development such as related technologies (software, hardware, mindware) and appropriate capital. If it is possible, it is better to have customer feedback. (Leonidou et al, 2002, P51)

The key success factors are experts' knowledge, adequate capital, having related technologies in labs and continuity in customer/market feedback relationship. Product development is considerable change in current product or production of new but related product that can be distributed by existing distribution channel. Product development strategy is often applied in order to use the firm's brand and attract customers who have good experiences from using firm's former products. The product development strategy is the firm's plan to propose its product and has various aspects which are active simultaneously to generate a new strategy for developing new products. Although in many cases firms produce new products only because of their innovation and profitability and without any specific strategy but in long term production without strategy will cause wasting resources. (Bazargan, 2004, P129)



Research Model adapted from Cooper and Kleinschmidt, 1985

The relations in this model are assumptions of the research that are discussed as follow:

Organization characteristics:

Factors that are related to organization and organization has direct control on them. (Aker, 2010, P212) Factors of organization characteristics in this research are management commitment, exports policies, knowledge about exports markets and educated exports staff that are measured by questionnaire.

Industry and markets characteristics:

Trends and events that are out of organization's control (Aker, 2010, P212). In this research factors of industry and market characteristics are applied technology, fiscal policies, understanding of foreign trade trends and intense competition in foreign markets which are measured by questionnaire.

Exports markets development strategies:

long term strategic decision about the span of exports markets over time and allocation of marketing efforts to various exports markets. (Ayal and Zif, 1979, P84) In this research factors of Exports markets development strategies are based on perceptible variables related to exports and market condition which are measured by questionnaire.

Exports performance:

Exports performance is the result of organization operation including internal and external achievements and goals. In this research, exports performance is defined as organization goals and product and market development which are the cause of firm's profitability are considered. Exports performance is measured in two formats: exports level and exports growth. They are measured by questionnaire.

Research Procedure:

In this research, first with literature review based on expressed problem, primary factors are identified and assumptions have formed based on theoretical framework and research model. After that, required data for measurement of these factors is collected by fieldwork study using questionnaire and from experts and practitioners in the field of exports in the port of Khorramshahr. The collected data then are translated into associated scores and ready to be analyzed by Amos 21 and SPSS 19. Afterwards the descriptive characteristics of variables and associated tables are calculated and trait distributions are considered and finally assumptions are tested and final model is proposed.

The purpose type of the study is applicable and its method is descriptive with emphasis on practical model and finally the method of collecting data and information is fieldwork.

IV Methodology

The tool used in this research for data collection is questionnaire. The questionnaire is used in order to extract experts and practitioners and response spectrum is Likert 5 answers spectrum from completely agree to completely disagree.

In order to validate questionnaire, the Delphi method is used. To do this, initial questionnaire was given to experts and then it was modified base on the mean of their comments and final questionnaire was designed. The Cronbach's Alpha method is used for questionnaire to be reliable and is calculated by SPSS for questions related to each factor. In the research procedure for calculating Cronbach's Alpha coefficient,

first a prototype of questionnaire was distributed amongst experts and practitioners in the port of Khorramshahr and then by using collected data Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient is calculated. Reliability of questions related to each factor using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient is shown in table 2:

Table (2) Reliability of questions of questionnaire

No.	Number of Questions	Variables	Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient
1	3	Exports performance	0.85
2	7	Exports market development strategy	0.94
3	5	Market and industry characteristics	0.94
4	4	organization characteristics	0.91

V Data analysis

The descriptive statistics and inferential statistics method are used to analyze collected data. Each factor is described in forms of statistical tables and indexes using SPSS and then for data analysis, assumptions test and generalizing result from statistical sample to statistical population, the Structural Equation Model (SEM) method is used by Amos 21.

Based on SEM, research casual model is fitted by Amos21 and is shown in figure 2. In this model, only the relationships between variables are considered and coefficients for path are calculated.

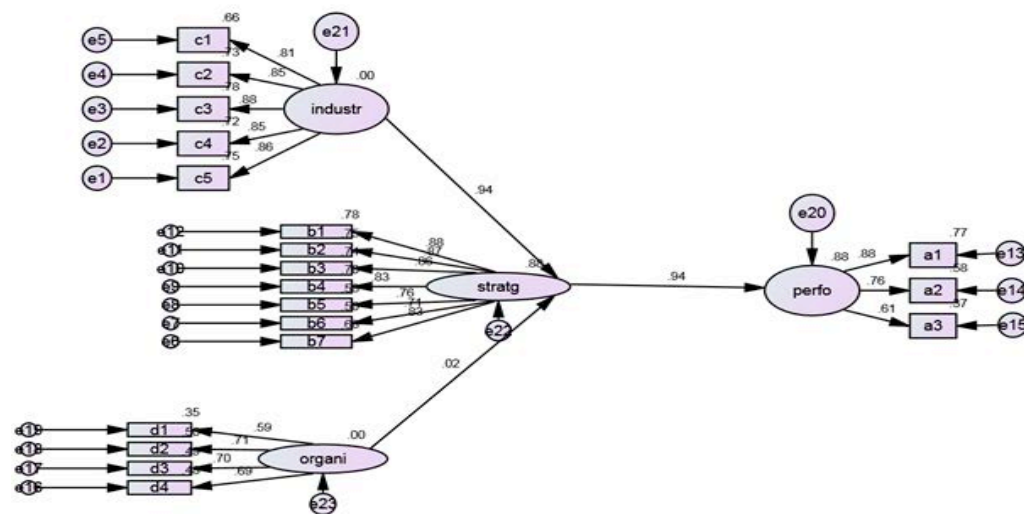


Figure 2) Research model with standard coefficients

Types of fitting indices in this model indicates it is approximately suitable. in table (2) fitting indices of measurement model are shown.

Table 3) Fitting indices of measurement model

Suitability Index	TLEI	CFI	NNFI	NFI	AGFI	GFI	RMSEA	CMIN/DF
Acceptable Range	> 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.9	< 0.1	< 3
Result	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.068	2.60

Results of research assumptions test:

Results of the assumptions test of research based on Structural Equation Model are shown in table (1-4-4).

Assumptions	Standard Estimation	CR Estimation	Result
1) Assumption 1. There is a positive relationship between markets and industry characteristics	0.94	14.599	Pass
2) Assumption 2. There is a positive Relationship between organization characteristics and exports markets development strategies.	0.02	0.516	Fail
3) Assumption 3. There is a positive Relationship between exports markets development strategies and exports performance.	0.94	14.813	Pass

VI Discussion and Conclusion

1. According to the proposed analysis context in this study, it can be found that there is a positive relationship between markets and industry characteristics and exports markets development strategy. In the study, the markets and industry characteristics has a direct and meaningful effect in amount of 0.94 on exports markets development strategy. This means 88 percent of changes in exports markets development strategy is explained and predicted by markets and industry characteristics. Experimental researches also confirm such result. In studies done by Hoseini et al (2008), Nategh and Niakan (2009) and Jang (2012), it is indicated that between markets and industry characteristics and exports markets development strategy a positive relationship exists.

2. According to the proposed analysis context in this study, it can be found that there is no positive relationship between organization characteristic and exports markets development strategy. In this research organization characteristic factor has a direct negative relationship with exports markets development strategy in amount of 0.02. This means that 21 percent of changes in exports markets development strategy cannot be explained and predicted by organization characteristic. The experimental studies confirming this result Are Jamiz et al (2006), Ewini and Emotio (2009) and Ghasem et al (2010) that shown there is a negative relationship between organization characteristic and changes in exports markets development strategy.

3. According to the proposed analysis context in this study, it can be found that there is no positive relationship between exports markets development strategy and exports performance. In this research exports markets development strategy factor has a direct and meaningful effect of exports performance in amount of 0.94. This means that 88 percent of changes in exports performance are explained and predicted by exports markets development strategy. Experimental researches also confirm such result. In studies done by Dehdashti (2007), Betjka et al (2012), Ewini and Emotio (2009), it is indicated that between exports markets development strategy and exports performance a positive relationship exists.

Applicable suggestion based on research results

1) Results indicate that a positive relationship exists between markets and industry and exports markets development strategy but intense competition has lowest average. Therefore this factor is not in a good state in experts' point of view. For optimizing exports which is the factor of presence in competitive markets, the following suggestions are proposed:

- ✓ Development of competitive advantage in order to improve competency of exports goods.
- ✓ Attracting customers and make them loyal in foreign markets.
- ✓ Reinforcement of trading knowledge and software infrastructure.
- ✓ Development of required scales for market capital and identification of target market.
- ✓ Identification of problems of successful presence in exports target markets
- ✓ Equipping exporting firms with dynamism, innovation, flexibility, speed and modern business models and structures.

2) Results indicate that a positive relationship exists between exports markets development strategy and exports performance but the mean of sales volume is lowest in compare to market share and Profitability. Therefore this factor is not in a good state in experts' point of view. The following suggestions are proposed:

- ✓ Improving customs and shipping equipment and development in order to gain more volume of exports to global markets.
- ✓ Increasing bank credit for presence of exporters in global markets.

It seems that concerns about presence is several limited markets and associated risks, gives our policymakers the motivation to diversify target markets and to encourage exporters to export their products to more markets. The country exports policymakers can provide a list of countries that have more relative reliability for trading and encourage and support exporting to these countries and increase sales in them as the act of "special support of exports performance to priority target markets" became a part of supportive and incentive exports development policies in 2007. But it is not enough to encourage exporters to increase their target markets and presence in new markets. So it seems that these two subjects must be settled.

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A Survey of the Impact of Quality Dimensions of Airport Services upon the Foreign Tourists Satisfaction (A Case Study of an Iranian Airport)

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of quality dimensions of airport services upon the foreign tourist's satisfaction in Mehrabad international airport in Iran. The research population includes all of foreign visitors upon to the end of 2013. With regard to the number of visitors, which is not clearly known, and viewing the ideas of the experts some 267 people were selected for the study. The methodologies of the present study have used the Gronroos, C.,(1984), model upon which the questionnaire and also we used Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the validity of questionnaire and also we used the same model to see the reliability of the questionnaire. The coefficient of the questionnaire was obtained (0.875), percent. The result of the data analysis indicates that there is a meaningful correlation between the dimensions of the measuring model of the services and rate of the satisfaction of the tourists used the airport services in Mehrabad international airport. There is also a meaningful relationship between the functional quality and the technical quality with mental perception of the tourists.

Keywords: Tourists, Service quality, Gronroos model.

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1-Introduction

Much of the growth in global tourism today has been facilitated, in major part by an increase in accessibility at many tourists' destinations (Duval, 2007). The recent developments in transportation infrastructure and technology allowed greater numbers of tourists to travel to far away destinations around the world. At the center of this development is the air transportation system. Air transport has become the fundamental cog in the global tourism interaction sphere (Duval, 2007). Thus, understanding the state of the air industry has become very important today, as it could single-handedly shape tourist flows where air access is the dominant network provision for accessibility and connectivity (Widarsyah, & et al, 2013).

Hence, passenger satisfaction is a key performance indicator for airport operations. International airports located in different regions or countries by and large do not compete with one another. Passengers often do not have a choice between airports, regardless of price and quality levels of airport services (Chao & et al, 2013). In other words, passenger demand for airport services is likely to be relatively inelastic (Doganis, 1992).

Air transportation is an infrastructure it has a basic structural foundations of a society. It has one of the most important components of the production cycle and also the consumption process. Its location has the national system of all countries. Then Iran based on the official statistics, the direct activities of transportation is nine percent if the gross domestic production (GDP), in terms of machineries and business facilities. Nearly 1.3 million people work directly in transportation business in Iran. (Shiraz, A.R., 2010, P.LL)¹

With respect to tourism industry, one of the most important dimensions of quality airport services is foreign tourist Satisfaction, and Mehrabad international airport in Iran as an international Airport has the modern airport facilities for foreign tourists.

Today's new environment and ever changing techniques in tourism need a continuous survey and research in order to create and to introduce some improved and more competitive strategies compared to the current needs in the industry (Millan Angel, 2004).

Nowadays, tourism development in any Programs such as regional, provincial, or national level has a key factor to start and run a business compared to agricultural and industrial sectors. Because it is the fastest and the most convenient way of handling a business in a country (Jagmohand, 1990)

Following tourism development in 1960s and 1970s, the economic results of that were surveyed by many researches. Also, since 1980s the importance and need for conducting research on the obstacles and the control on the environmental, social, and cultural impacts of tourism alone with the economic aspects of that came into consideration (Kim, 2005).

¹ Shirazi, Ahmad Reza, 2010, p.11, Air passenger rights.

Although, tourism development Possesses a lot of economic, cultural, and social benefits, but the problem is when the structural factors are not just enough to make benefits and instead of gains they make losses for the enterprise and the community. In this connection, we can count the abuse of national costumes, the misuse of values and traditions, drug addiction, crimes, vandalism, corruption, sexual abuses, and so on and so forth. These are the deficiencies and shortcomings of the programs in the tourism industry which faces its cultural development (Me Intyr, et al, 1993).

In 2007, the international tourism had a total of one billion dollars directly, for Iran, and a share of 700 million dollars indirectly for the gross domestic production (GDP) of the country. This particular industry could create 607.000 jobs directly for the nation (WTTC, 2008). The international tourism is not only a main source for income of lots of nations, but also it is a pioneer economic sector for the international trade (Pearce, 1992).

The entries of the international Passengers to Iran not only increase the national earnings of foreign exchange through tax management, employment and economic varieties, but also they create the regional growth and encourage investment in non-tourism sections. (Pearce, 1992).

Indeed, the international tourism is a means of strength and national development in fact , in a great number of countries, the earnings through tourism industry is an important source to compensate the deficit in financial credits of the other sectors in national economy (Mac,1992) Gringos Model.

Theoretical Foundations

The specialists have ways to compare the possible service quality submitted by the competitors for the consumers in the societies.

They discuss the point that all these models can be considered fit and suitable in different situations, and that they can be utilized for determination of the definite or relative amount of service quality (Alvani, et al, 2009).

The models consist of the following details:

1-Only one of the specifications is used to determine the service quality and other features are not used or used or used apparently.

2-Only one specification can determine the service quality and at the same time other features are at the least Position to do so.

We should use the balanced average in order to balance the high and low grades of different features. In other words the specifications compensate the different marks given to the service qualities, (Kavyani, 2004).

In 2005, Gronrooz had a survey to find out the perceptions of each customer for the service quality and the determination of the ways effective on the amount of service quality. He studied the behaviors of the consumers and reached to the point that the

actual service quality is somewhere between the expected quality and the real-world quality of the service.

The expected service quality is usually affected by the marketing activities, customs, ideologies, propaganda, advertisement previous experience, and etc. He implicitly pointed out that the expectations are the ideals that you can't go behind them. It seems that in order to keep the gap between the service quality expected and the received quality to the lowest extent, there are 2 elements which are vital and important for the firm which presents such services.

2-Literature of the Review and Background of Research

2-1-Airport Service Quality

One enterprise that lacked the application of this widely popular model has been the airport industry. The airport industry, while traditionally limited to public infrastructure, has been growing in importance due to its facilitation of the rise of global travel demand and the tourism industry (Samadi, 2012). As airplanes became more efficient, increasing passenger capacity and the ability to travel longer distances to far away destinations, an increase in the number of passengers and their expectations of services within the airport was inevitable (Widarsyah, & et al, 2013). Service quality as perceived by customers is a comparison between expectations and performance (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Grönroos (1990) stated that the overall perception of service quality is the gap between customers' expectations and actual experiences. Service quality is perceived as being good when a customer's experience equals their expectation. In summary, service quality is a comparison between customer expectations and experiences and is measured by the performance of service delivery (Chao & et al, 2013).

SERQUAL, a service quality framework developed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988), is measured by five aspects of service quality and remains widely used because of its good reliability and validity and low repetition. These five aspects are tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy (Chao & et al, 2013).

2-2-Mehrabad International Airport or Mehrabad:

Mehrabad International Airport or Mehrabad is an airport that serves Tehran, Iran. It was the primary airport of Tehran in both international and domestic passenger traffic but has been replaced by Tehran Imam Khomeini International Airport (IKA), in most of its international flights. It is still by far the busiest airport in Iran in terms of passenger traffic and aircraft movements, handling 13,163,368 passengers in 2010. The airport is located inside the city boundaries and is thus much easier to access than Tehran Imam Khomeini International Airport (IKA). Training, maintenance and engineering facilities of Iran Air and Iran Aseman Airlines are located at the airport.

An aircraft engineering and maintenance company Far Ashian, has a maintenance hangar adjacent to main airport premises. The hangar is linked to Mehrabad Airport through a taxiway crossing "Tehran-Karaj" Highway.

Far Ashian takes care of Aircraft of many companies e.g. (Mahan Air, Iran Air. Tehran Imam Khomeini International Airport (IKA) was scheduled to open in 2004 with international flights gradually changing from Mehrabad starting with flights to countries bordering the Persian Gulf. After IKA's initial opening in May 2004, due to complications, it was not until the end of 2007 that the plan to move the majority of international flights to the new airport was completed (Thomas.2007).

All international flights have now been moved to Tehran Imam Khomeini International Airport (IKA), except flights to Saudi Arabia for Hajj and Umbra.

History Mehrabad International Airport or Mehrabad:

The airport was first time used as an airfield for aviation club planes in 1938, then after World War II along with becoming internationally recognized by joining Iran civil aviation organization to the international civil aviation organization (ICAO), in 1949, the airport also became an air force base. Newly delivered Republic F-84G Thunderjets (fighter) and Lockheed T-33A Shooting Star (trainer) arrived, May 1957 and April 1956, respectively.² In 1955 just after construction of first asphalt paved runway a new terminal building (Current Terminal 1) for both international and domestic flights was designed and constructed. Among the designers of the initial modern buildings of the airport was the famous architect.^{3,4}(Brian Edwards. Taylor & Francis, 2005 pp: 72).

2-3-Background of Research

Martilla and James (1977) first introduced Importance-performance analysis (IPA) to investigate the service quality of an automobile dealer based on the importance and performance of its facilities. Easing wood and Arnott (1991) suggested that by substituting suitable measures, the IPA technique can be used to investigate the relationship between

Customers 'perceived importance and a firm's current level of performance. Tam and Lam (2004) employed the IPA technique to investigate the relationship between the weights and visibility indexes of terminal facilities, and to identify facilities requiring way finding improvements (Chao & et al, 2013).

Gronroos and his colleagues investigated the literature relevant to customer satisfaction and concluded that the services received by the consumer indicate the dimensions of the service quality including the technical dimension, knowledge, quality, technical capacity and capability, computer systems, machineries, technical solutions, functional quality, visional quality, internal relations, service preparation, external situation, access capability, and the consumer contacts the most famous model of the service quality used in Europe is the Gronroos model in 1982. This model is in fact based on 3 major qualities including functional quality, technical quality, and mental image. The present survey has designed upon the Gronroos model experiment.

² -Iranian Air Force

³ -William Pereira.

⁴ -<http://www.tkellner.com/index.php?id=3267>.

With regard to the issue that service quality has many aspects, we can make a frame of reference to show the structure of the service quality.

Indeed, marketing experts have already realized the different visions by using the dimension of the functional quality for the services.

They have largely accepted so far that the technical quality had an underlying impact upon the perception of the customers (Gronroos, 2006 & Rust., 2000).

This study is an indicator of the issue that the positive feelings of the consumers can easily increase the locality of the customers.

The conceptual Model of Research the theoretical model of the present survey is the same as the appraisal model of service quality of Gronroos. With regard to the point that the service quality has different dimensions, we can as far as possible make a frame of reference to show the structure of service quality.

Scientists of marketing have already recognized different visions by utilizing the dimension of functional quality, and they vastly agreed with the opinion that the technical quality has a significant effect on the perception of the customers in terms of services quality. In general, measuring of technical quality includes the utilization of quality techniques.

In fact based on this model, there is a direct and meaningful correlation between the functional quality and the technical quality in terms of the perception of the service quality. And finally, the current study suggests that the service quality can directly cause satisfaction for the consumers. Therefore, the conceptual model of the present research is as follows:

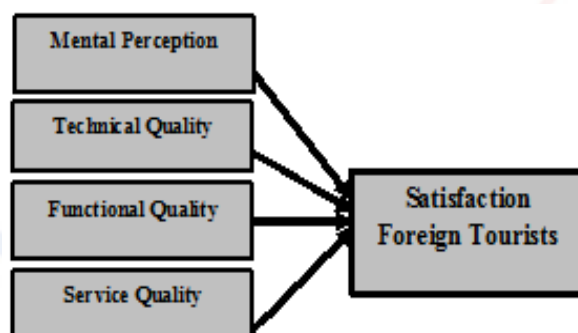


Figure (1): The conceptual Model Of the research

3-Methodology

This search is a kind of practical researches and is a geodesic research, practically the group of people that these statistics are asked them are all of the foreign tourists that used Mehrabad international airport for travel and flight during in the Month of April 2013. And according to false statistics that the numbers of these tourists are unknown we used the method of accidental sampling in the research. During the research, the researcher went to the airport in the Month of April 2013 and completes the research questionnaire as many as the sample was there. The best approach to determining sample size is the application of one of several formulas. For populations that are

large, Cochran developed the formula to yield a representative sample for proportions (Yamane T., 1967):

$$n = \frac{(Z_{\alpha})^2 * p.(1-p)}{e^2}$$

Which is valid where n is the sample size, Z^2 is the abscissa of the normal curve that cuts off an area at the tails ($1 - \alpha$ equals the desired confidence level, e.g., 95%), e is the desired level of precision, p is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population. The value for Z is found in statistical tables which contain the area under the normal curve; e is level of precision.

Snedecor GW, Cochran WG. (1989), formula is used or measuring the quantity of the sample and the quantity of the sample was equal to 267 people. In addition to the above mentioned question are applied for gathering data in the research and by means of inter viewer ask the people dealing in research sampling some questions after offering the necessary education and teaching. Grounders evolutionary question are that is for measuring the service is applied for gating data and by means of interview some questions are asked by interview form the people dealing in research sampling.

Data are analyzed or cheeked in two levels:

Illative level and descript level by means of SPSS Statistics software (originally, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), coding and entering data is used in the software and also die rent average, redundancy, percentage redundancy, standard deviation, visage and model are used.to check that are the data's normal or not the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is used for checking the effect of independent variables on dependent variables and distinguishing the most important variable or the most effective variable, the regression multi vitiatie analysis is used. Now we should give the questionnaire to supervisor or methodology professor to check the credit to complete the research. For the final measuring, we used Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for questionnaire was equal to: (0.825, 0.754, 0.780, 0.843, 0.871), and for all questionnaires was equal to: (0.8750), that present in the table of (1).

Table (1): Cronbache alpha coefficient for every subunit of questionnaire and for all questionnaires

Order	Subunits	Questions	Cronbache Alpha (%)
1	Tourist Satisfaction	1-5-	0.825
2	Mental Perception	5-10	0.754
3	Technical Quality	10-15	0.780
4	Functional Quality	15-20	0.843
5	Service Quality	20-30	0.871
3	All questionnaires	1-30	0.875

Reference: Finding Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (2): variable of regression model

Order	Subunits of variable in the model			
1	Independent variable	Symbol	dependent variable	Symbol
2	Mental Perception	X_{11}	Tourist Satisfaction	Y_{ij}
3	Technical Quality	X_{12}	Tourist Satisfaction	Y_{ij}

4	Functional Quality	X_{21}	Tourist Satisfaction	Y_{ij}
5	Service Quality	X_{22}	Tourist Satisfaction	Y_{ij}

Reference: Finding of Research

4-Data analysis

4-1- Descriptive Statistics of data

Whereas, the main purpose of this study it was to investigate the impact of quality dimensions of airport services upon the foreign tourists' satisfaction in Mehrabad international airport in Iran. Hence, according with the result of the descriptive statistics of data that there is in the table number of the (3), we can be see that in this table there are many of presents the descriptive statistics of data, include: number (N), minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation, Variance, range, sum, skewness and kurtosis for each service dimension and overall evaluation for each airport.

Table (3): Descriptive Statistics of Data

Report					
Variable	Tourist satisfaction	Mental Perception	Technical Quality	Functional Quality	Service Quality
Mean	2.8877	3.2283	3.0870	2.8913	3.5978
N	276	276	276	276	276
Std. Deviation	2.11619	2.31879	1.70764	1.96953	2.98990
Variance	4.461	5.357	2.916	3.879	8.939
Skewness	1.154	.587	-.097	.903	.927
Kurtosis	.862	-1.220	-1.718	-.377	-.663
Range	8.00	6.00	4.00	6.00	8.00
Sum	798.00	892.00	852.00	798.00	993.00
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	9.00	7.00	5.00	7.00	9.00
Valid N (listwise)	276	276	276	276	276

Reference: Finding Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Descriptive Statistics of data: The variables were measured from 1 = "Poor," 2 = "Fair," 3 = "Average," 4 = "Good," 5 = "Excellent," and 0 = "Did Not Use."

4-2- Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality of distributing studied variable:

In this section of research, before using of the tests, first the normality of research variables distribution should be guaranteed. If data related to research components are normal, testy is suitable to study parametric tests, but if research data isn't normal, so non-parametric test is used. To study the normality of components, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is used which is a non-parametric test. Calculating the statistics of this test is possible by SPSS software. As the rate of presented statistics by this test is more than 5%, statistical zero assumption (H_0) based on normality of distributing studied variable with 95% confidence is accepted.

The Test of Normality of Distributing of Variable Research:

- H₀:** The entire variable in this research: (tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality), are followed of the normality of distributing.
- H₁:** The entire variable in this research: (tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality), are not followed of the normality of distributing.

Table (4): The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test						
		Tourist Satisfaction	Mental Perception	Technical Quality	Functional Quality	Service Quality
N		276	276	276	276	276
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.8225	3.0507	2.9130	2.7174	3.4239
	Std. Deviation	2.18782	2.51345	1.94648	2.16413	3.16078
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.259	.202	.206	.181	.221
	Positive	.259	.202	.152	.181	.221
	Negative	-.155	-.141	-.206	-.105	-.157
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		4.300	3.354	3.422	3.000	3.670
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.783	.865	.928	.876	.954
a. Test distribution is Normal.						
b. Calculated from data.						

Reference: Finding Research (calculation by software SPSS).

4-3- The Correlations between Variable Research

All the solidarity factors are positive on Gronerz service measuring model dimension and this means that all the changes are in the same direction. Hence, the correlations between variable researches that calculation by of data, is present in the table number of (5).

Table (5): The Correlations between Variable Researches

Correlations						
		Tourist Satisfaction	Mental Perception	Technical Quality	Functional Quality	Service Quality
Tourist Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.868**	.751**	.813**	.849**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276
Mental Perception	Pearson Correlation	.868**	1	.883**	.857**	.961**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276

Technical Quality	Pearson Correlation	.751**	.883**	1	.818**	.814**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276
Functional Quality	Pearson Correlation	.813**	.857**	.818**	1	.839**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276
Service Quality	Pearson Correlation	.849**	.961**	.814**	.839**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	276	276	276	276	276
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						

Reference: Finding Research (calculation by software SPSS).

So, there is a positive factor between functional quality and the technical quality goes up too and (as the functional quality goes down technical quality goes down and decrease's too). There is a significant relation between functional quality and subjective perception, and there is a satisfaction between functional quality and tourist satisfaction by amount of 0.813, that shows there is a intensive relation there. There is also a positive and signification solidarity between technical quality and subjective perception. There is also a significant relation between technical quality and tourist's satisfaction, and between subjective perception and tourist satisfaction.

4-4- The Test of Hypotheses Research:

4-4-1-The First Hypotheses of Research:

There is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception

H₀: there is no significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception.

H₁: there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception.

Table (6): First Hypothesis Testing

Variables Entered/ Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Mental Perception	.	Enter
a. All requested variables entered.			
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction			

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (7): Model Summary of Variable in the First Hypotheses of Research

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.868 ^a	.753	.752	1.08867

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mental Perception

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

The amount of customer subjective perception of solidarity factor in a bar shape diagram with tourist satisfaction variable in Mehrabad international airport in Iran is equal to 0.868. The total determining factor is also equal to 0.753 and adjusts faction determining factor to 0.752 or about %90.it means that more than %9 percent at the tourist's satisfaction variable changes is determined by subjective perception variable.

Table (8): The Analysis of Variance in the First Hypotheses of Research

ANOVA ^b					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	991.555	1	991.555	836.611	.000 ^a
Residual	324.746	274	1.185		
Total	1316.301	275			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mental Perception
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (9): The Coefficients of Variable in the First Hypotheses of Research

Coefficients ^a					
Model	Un standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.518	.103		5.018	.000
Mental Perception	.755	.026	.868	28.924	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

As the Sig value (equals to zero) is less than 0/05 percent null hypothesis is rejected and we can say there is a significant relationship between mental perception logarithm and tourist satisfaction logarithm, regression model is as follows:

Regression Model (1): $\ln(Y_1) = 0.518 + .755 \times \ln(X_{11})$

Interpretation of First hypothesis regression model:

According to this model, since the logarithm coefficient of mental perception has a positive sign, it could be said, in Mehrabad international airport in Iran the two variables, tourist satisfaction and mental perception, have direct relationship. It means if one increases so does the other one and vice versa. Also according to tourist mental perception logarithm coefficient, it could be concluded that, for each unit increase in

mental perception logarithm, tourist satisfaction logarithm value increases 0.755 in average.

4-4-2-The Second Hypotheses of Research:

There is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and technical quality.

H₀: there is no significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and technical quality.

H₁: there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and technical quality.

Table (10): Second Hypothesis Testing

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Technical Quality	.	Enter
a. All requested variables entered.			
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction			

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (11): Model Summary of Variable in the Second Hypotheses of Research

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.751 ^a	.564	.563	1.44673
a. Predictors: (Constant), Technical Quality				

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

The amount of customer subjective perception of solidarity factor in a bar shape diagram with tourist satisfaction variable in Mehrabad international airport in Iran is equal to 0.751. The total determining factor is also equal to 0.564 and adjusts faction determining factor to 0.563 or about %90.it means that more than %9 percent at the tourist’s satisfaction variable changes is determined by subjective perception variable.

Table (12): The Analysis of Variance in the Second Hypotheses of Research

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	742.808	1	742.808	354.894	.000 ^a
	Residual	573.493	274	2.093		
	Total	1316.301	275			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Technical Quality						
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction						

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (13): The Coefficients of Variable in the Second Hypotheses of Research

Coefficients ^a					
Model	Un standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.363	.157		2.312	.022
Technical Quality	.844	.045	.751	18.839	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

As the Sig value (equals to zero) is less than 0/05 percent null hypothesis is rejected and we can say there is a significant relationship between technical quality logarithm and tourist satisfaction logarithm, regression model is as follows:

Regression Model (1): $Ln(Y_1) = 0.363 + .844 \times Ln(X_{12})$

Interpretation of Second Hypothesis Regression Model: According to this model, since the logarithm coefficient of mental perception has a positive sign, it could be said, in Mehrabad international airport in Iran the two variables, tourist satisfaction and technical quality, have direct relationship. It means if one increases so does the other one and vice versa. Also according to technical quality logarithm coefficient, it could be concluded that, for each unit increase in technical quality logarithm, tourist satisfaction logarithm value increases 0.844 in average.

4-4-3-The Third Hypotheses of Research:

There is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and functional quality.

H₀: there is no significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and functional quality.

H₁: there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and functional quality.

Table (14): Third Hypothesis Testing

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Functional Quality	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (15): Model Summary of Variable in the Third Hypotheses of Research

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.813 ^a	.660	.659	1.27719
a. Predictors: (Constant), Functional Quality				

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

The amount of customer subjective perception of solidarity factor in a bar shape diagram with tourist satisfaction variable in Mehrabad international airport in Iran is equal to 0.813 The total determining factor is also equal to 0.660 and adjusts faction determining factor to 0.659 or about %90.it means that more than %9 percent at the tourist’s satisfaction variable changes is determined by subjective perception variable.

Table (16): The Analysis of Variance in the Third Hypotheses of Research

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	869.351	1	869.351	532.950	.000 ^a
	Residual	446.950	274	1.631		
	Total	1316.301	275			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Functional Quality						
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction						

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (17): The Coefficients of Variable in the Third Hypotheses of Research

Coefficients ^a					
Model	Un standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.590	.124		4.775	.000
Functional Quality	.822	.036	.813	23.086	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction					

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

As the Sig value (equals to zero) is less than 0/05 percent null hypothesis is rejected and we can say there is a significant relationship between functional quality logarithm and tourist satisfaction logarithm, regression model is as follows:

Regression Model (1): $Ln (Y_1) = 0.590 + .822 \times Ln (X_{21})$

Interpretation of Third Hypothesis Regression Model:

According to this model, since the logarithm coefficient of functional quality has a positive sign, it could be said, in Mehrabad international airport in Iran the two variables, tourist satisfaction and functional quality, have direct relationship. It means if one increases so does the other one and vice versa. Also according to functional

quality logarithm coefficient, it could be concluded that, for each unit increase in functional quality logarithm, tourist satisfaction logarithm value increases 0.755 in average.

4-4-4-The Fourth Hypotheses of Research:

There is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and service quality.

- H_0 : there is no significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and service quality.
 H_1 : there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and service quality.

Table (18): Fourth Hypothesis Testing

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Service Quality		Enter
a. All requested variables entered.			
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction			

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (19): Model Summary of Variable in the Fourth Hypotheses of Research

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.849 ^a	.720	.719	1.15954
a. Predictors: (Constant), Service Quality				

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

The amount of customer subjective perception of solidarity factor in a bar shape diagram with tourist satisfaction variable in Mehrabad international airport in Iran is equal to 0.849 The total determining factor is also equal to 0.720 and adjusts faction determining factor to 0.752 or about %90.it means that more than %9 percent at the tourist's satisfaction variable changes is determined by subjective perception variable.

Table (20): The Analysis of Variance in the Fourth Hypotheses of Research

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	947.899	1	947.899	705.002	.000 ^a
	Residual	368.402	274	1.345		
	Total	1316.301	275			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Service Quality						
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction						

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (21): The Coefficients of Variable in the Fourth Hypotheses of Research

Coefficients ^a					
Model	Un standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.811	.103		7.877	.000
Service Quality	.587	.022	.849	26.552	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

As the Sig value (equals to zero) is less than 0/05 percent null hypothesis is rejected and we can say there is a significant relationship between service quality logarithm and tourist satisfaction logarithm, regression model is as follows:

Regression Model (1): $Ln(Y_1) = 0.8 + .587 \times Ln(X_{22})$

Interpretation of Fourth Hypothesis Regression Model:

According to this model, since the logarithm coefficient of service quality has a positive sign, it could be said, in Mehrabad international airport in Iran the two variables, tourist satisfaction and service quality, have direct relationship. It means if one increases so does the other one and vice versa. Also according to service quality logarithm coefficient, it could be concluded that, for each unit increase in service quality logarithm, tourist satisfaction logarithm value increases 0.755 in average.

4-4-5-The Main Hypotheses of Research:

There is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality.

- H₀:** there is no significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality.
- H₁:** there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality.

Table (22): Main Hypothesis Testing

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Service Quality, Technical Quality, Functional Quality, Mental Perception	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (23): Model Summary of Variable in the Main Hypotheses of Research

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.881 ^a	.776	.773	1.04269
a. Predictors: (Constant), Service Quality, Technical Quality, Functional Quality, Mental Perception				

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

The amount of customer subjective perception of solidarity factor in a bar shape diagram with tourist satisfaction variable in Mehrabad international airport in Iran is equal to 0.881 The total determining factor is also equal to 0.776 and adjusts faction determining factor to 0.773 or about %90.it means that more than %9 percent at the tourist's satisfaction variable changes is determined by subjective perception variable.

Table (24): The Analysis of Variance in the Main Hypotheses of Research

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1021.669	4	255.417	234.931	.000 ^a
	Residual	294.631	271	1.087		
	Total	1316.301	275			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Service Quality, Technical Quality, Functional Quality, Mental Perception						
b. Dependent Variable: Touristsatisfaction						

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

Table (23): The Coefficients of Variable in the Main Hypotheses of Research

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Un standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.523	.115		4.555	.000
	Mental Perception	.589	.116	.677	5.062	.000
	Technical Quality	-.155	.075	-.138	-2.074	.039
	Functional Quality	.290	.059	.287	4.883	.000
	Service Quality	.048	.076	.070	.635	.006
a. Dependent Variable: Tourist satisfaction						

Reference: Finding of Research (calculation by software SPSS).

As the Sig value (equals to zero) is less than 0/05 percent null hypothesis is rejected and we can say there is a significant relationship between mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality logarithm and tourist satisfaction logarithm, regression model is as follows:

Regression Model (1):

$$\text{Ln}(Y) = 0.523 + .589 \times \text{Ln}(X_{11}) + (-.155) \times \text{Ln}(X_{12}) + .290 \times \text{Ln}(X_{21}) + .048 \times \text{Ln}(X_{22})$$

$$\text{Tourist satisfaction} = \text{Ln}(Y) = 0.523 + .589 \times \text{Ln}(X_{11}) + (-.155) \times \text{Ln}(X_{12}) + .290 \times \text{Ln}(X_{21}) + .048 \times \text{Ln}(X_{22})$$

Interpretation of Main Hypothesis Regression Model:

According to this model, since the logarithm coefficient of mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality has a positive sign, it could be said, in Mehrabad international airport in Iran the variables, tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality, have direct relationship. It means if one increases so does the other one and vice versa. Also according to tourist mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality logarithm coefficient, it could be concluded that, for each unit increase in mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality logarithm, tourist satisfaction logarithm value increases 0.755 in average.

5-Discussion and Conclusion

The study of analysis outcomes that has two variables shows that there is a statistical significant relation between the dimension of Gronroos, C., (1984), servicing evaluation model and the amount of tourists satisfaction of airport services in Mehrabad international airport that is about 95% to specify this finding, we should say that when tourist are satisfied with different dimension of servicing quality so they are satisfied with other services and airport situations and rules. This finding also validates Hossainzadeh findings (2008) that in his research, the quality of services were effective on Homa Airport Company's customer loyalty.

5-1-Discussion and Conclusion for the First Hypotheses in This Research:

The first hypothesis of research was there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception. Hence, the result statistics related to this hypotheses show that, the first hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists subjective perceptions on their tourist satisfaction and the final outcome showed that this 5.357 variance specified. Moreover, the second hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists subjective mental perceptions on their tourist satisfaction and the final outcome showed that this 9% variance specified and in final this hypotheses was validated. Also, we can be doing a comparative with Iranzade and others (2010) studied, that was investigations to relationships between effects customer's subjective perception from Pasargadae bank services and had a primary effect on customer satisfaction. Because, the result of studied of the Iranzade and et. all (2010), findings of the this researchers and result of this study show that effects customer's subjective perception from Pasargadae bank

services and had a primary effect on customer satisfaction. To specify this in doing we can be clear that conception and subjection or mental perception that is created in customers and tourist to be satisfied.

5-2-Discussion and Conclusion for the Second Hypotheses in This Research:

The second hypothesis of research was there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and technical quality. Hence, the result statistics related to this hypotheses show that, the second hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists technical quality on their tourist satisfaction and the final outcome showed that this 2.916 variance specified. Hence, the second hypotheses of the research whit the name of the technical quality of services on tourist subjective perception from Mehrabad international airport service was effective too. The outcomes showed that services technical quality variable specified 75.10 percent (or 75/10%) of tourist subjective. Also, we are can be doing a comparative with Iranzadeh and et, all (2010) and Kang, G.D. James, J. (2004), studied, that was investigations to relationships between effects customer's subjective perception from "Service Quality Dimensions. In these studies there was a significant relation between different dimensions of servicing quality on customer's perception and subjective perception. To specify this finding, we can declare that the customers and tourists would choose and buy those products and services that they believe they had paid have the most valuable price and the best quality. The purpose of the most value and the best quality is the difference in the total value and the total value and the total expenses that they will pay. So as the customer satisfaction decreases due to low due to quality in servicing will cause a decrease in income and decrease in company's expenses. Accordingly all the airport managers and head masters should be sensitive about this problem and more sensitive about standards and they should be able to achieve the tourist expectation at quality of servicing whit competing trends. So the belief of most at marketing experts is that all the servicing company should achieve customer's expectation and perception from the quality of services.

5-3-Discussion and Conclusion for the Third Hypotheses in This Research:

The third hypothesis of research was that there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and functional quality. Hence, the result statistics related to this hypotheses show that, the third hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists' functional quality perceptions on their tourist satisfaction and the final outcome showed that this 3.879 variance specified. Also, we are can be doing a comparative with Lee, J. H., and et, all (2011), studied, that was investigations to the influence of service quality on satisfaction and intention. Hence, we can are said that the result of Lee, J. H., and et, all (2011), studied, is same with this current study.

5-4-Discussion and Conclusion for the Fourth Hypotheses in This Research:

The fourth theory's analysis and research showed that the quality of services effects on the tourists satisfaction of the airport services and supply 0 .8990 percent (or 89/90%) of the tourists satisfaction variance. Hence, the result statistics related to this hypotheses show that, the third hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists' quality of services on their tourist satisfaction and the final

outcome showed that this 8.939 variance specified. Also, we are can be doing a comparative with Iranzade and et, all (2010), studied, that was investigations to the influence of service quality on satisfaction and intention. Hence, we can are said that the result or this finding is the same as Iranzade and et, all (2010), findings and in this finding the quality of service was effective on customer satisfaction. On way that on service company can be different from other companies and competitors is offering permanent services with the best quality. Analysis shows that the quality of services had a good effect on customer satisfaction so they bought and used more. Finally the quality of services and customer's satisfaction are dependant variables.

5-5-Discussion and Conclusion for the Main Hypotheses in This Research:

The Main hypotheses in this research was with the title of the investigate of the impact of quality dimensions of airport services upon the foreign tourists satisfaction as a Case Study in the Mehrabad International Airport in Iran (MIAR). Hence, we are testing the main hypotheses in this research, that was with title of the there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction and mental perception, technical quality, functional quality, service quality. Hence, the result statistics related to this hypotheses show that, the third hypotheses was verified and validated that his title was the effect of tourists' functional quality perceptions on their tourist satisfaction and the final outcome showed that this 9% variance specified. Also, we are can be doing a comparative with Iranzade and others (2010) studied, that was investigations to relationships between effects customer's subjective perception from Pasargadae bank services and had a primary effect on customer satisfaction. Because, the result of studied of the Iranzade and et. all (2010), findings of the this researchers and result of this study show that effects customer's subjective perception from Pasargadae bank services and had a primary effect on customer satisfaction.

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Food, Power, and Immigrants in Timothy Mo's Sour Sweet

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0062**Abstract**

This paper attempts to explore food and foodways in Timothy Mo's *Sour Sweet* in order to comprehend how the power of food can shape immigrant experiences. With rich allusion to food and foodways, *Sour Sweet* depicts the Chinese diaspora in London in the 1960s. When illustrating ambivalent emotions, the Chinese use words that describe the tastes of food: *sour*, *sweet*, *bitter*, and *spicy*. On the other hand, "sour" and "sweet" refer to the taste of a typical ethnic dish in Chinatown: *sour and sweet pork*. The Chinese restaurant and takeaway counter in Mo's *Sour Sweet* provide good settings for eating, cooking, and a lot of activities associated with food. Critics have noticed the connection between Chinese culture and food. What will this preoccupation bring about in foreign soil, where the "foreign devils" consume quite diverse food cooked in various ways? From a diaspora perspective, the culinary language in *Sour Sweet* carries both the metaphorical and the metonymical significance. Food and eating, as the fundamental level in culture, are a sign and a battlefield for competing ideologies. Cooking and eating constitute power relations between the feeder and the fed. Moreover, the distinction between the eatable and the uneatable constructs the border between self and other, the tension between belonging and exclusion. Food and foodways are representations of power relations in terms of gender, class, and race. As *Sour Sweet* shows, power permeates in a social system where there is no permanent division between self and other, where the economic level always matters.

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Introduction

This paper attempts to explore food and foodways in Timothy Mo's *Sour Sweet* in order to comprehend how the power of food can shape immigrant experiences. With rich allusion to food and foodways, *Sour Sweet* depicts the Chinese diaspora in London in the 1960s. When illustrating ambivalent emotions, the Chinese use words that describe the tastes of food: *sour*, *sweet*, *bitter*, and *spicy*. "Sour" and "sweet" on the other hand refer to the taste of a typical ethnic dish in Chinatown: *sour and sweet pork*. The Ho Ho restaurant on Chinese Street where Chen works as a waiter and the takeaway counter he later runs with his wife Lily and sister-in-law Mui provide a good setting for eating, cooking, and a lot of activities associated with food. Critics have noticed the connection between Chinese culture and food. Chang (1977), for instance, remarks that "the Chinese people are especially preoccupied with food" (p. 15). What will this preoccupation bring about in foreign soil, where the "foreign devils" consume quite different food cooked in different ways? From a diaspora perspective, the culinary language in *Sour Sweet* carries both metaphorical and metonymical significance. Drawing on Foucauldian and Althusserian theories, this paper argues that food and foodways in *Sour Sweet* are representations of power relations in gender, class, and race.

Although food is commonly seen in literature, critics point out its importance in cultural imagination. Léve-Strauss (1978) emphasizes the cultural significance in cooking when he asserts that "the cooked being a cultural transformation of the raw" (p. 478). Keeling and Pollard (2009) further observe, "If food is fundamental to life and a substance upon which civilizations and cultures have built themselves, then food is also fundamental to the imagination and the imaginary arts" (pp. 5-6). Food and eating are not neutral; they function as a sign deserving semiotic analysis (Keeling and Pollard, 1999, p. 132; 2009, p. 8). Sceats (1996) indicates that "feeding, feasting, cooking and starving [are used by writers] for more than simple mimetic effect" (p. 118). In a foreign country, the immigrants' food carries much more hidden meaning because it is also an "ethnic sign" (Wong, 1993, p. 65), signifying the confrontation and negotiation between cultures.

Louis Althusser asserts that the social structure consists of levels which are relatively autonomic but contradictory to one another. What ultimately determines and dominates the structure is the economical level (Selden, Widdowson, & Brooker, 2005, p. 97). In *Reading Asian American Literature*, Wong (1993) highlights the theme of necessity, an important theme she reads in the story of Maxine Hong Kingston's mother "who burns the most unlikely creatures into food and allows absolutely no waste in her household" (p. 24). Accordingly, the immigrants' treatment of food parallels their struggle for survival in their host country, the economical level being a dominant factor.

Cooking and eating constitute a "materialist economy" which entails power relations between "who is the feeder and what—or who—is the food" (Fung, 1999, p. 259). Sceats (1996) points out "the relations between food and power" and explores "a whole gamut of hierarchical relations" (p. 117). Keeling and Pollard (1999) consider food and eating "compact metaphors for the power struggle inherent to family dynamics" (p. 132). Roth (2005) calls attention to the use of food to "punish, cajole, or otherwise negotiate power relations" (p. 163). Judging from Foucauldian theory,

feeding and cooking demonstrate the exercise of power in the family. As Foucault (1984) explains, “power is exercised rather than possessed” (p. 174). The combination of “the everyday” with “the discipline of the minute” (p. 184) creates a “useful body,” or a “manipulable body” (p. 180). Such a body is economically beneficial to the family structure.

Food and Power

Culinary activities distinguish self from other. Foucault indicates “normalizing judgment” as one simple instrument for the success of disciplinary power. Normalization entails exclusion because “within a homogeneity that is the rule, the norm introduces, as a useful imperative and as a result of measurement, all the shading of individual differences” (Foucault, 1984, p. 197). Lucy Long (2004) gives an enlightening remark about self and other in terms of food and eating: “The eater of the ‘not eatable’ is perceived as strange, perhaps dangerous, definitely not one of us, whereas the eater of the unpalatable is seen as having different tastes” (as cited in Roth, 2005, p. 175). Considered by the dominant culture as the other, ethnic food struggles between belonging and exclusion.

Adolph (2009) notices in literature “the connections between food and women . . . through representations of serving and providing” (p. 10). In *Sour Sweet*, it is supposedly feminine of Lily and Mui to take up preparing food and feeding. Visiting Chen’s ill colleague Lo with sponge cakes and herbal drought, for instance, highlights the role of Lily and Mui as a comfort provider. Roth (2005), however, reasons that there are more food functions beyond the function “to foster a heightened sense of group cohesion” (p. 163). Food and eating show Lily’s relationship with her family: Chen, Man Kee, and Mui. One scene in the kitchen alerts Lily to the influence Mui is likely to have on her son. Lily admits “trying to curry favour with Son” and decides to “avoid Mui influencing him with some of the increasingly peculiar ideas she had” (Mo, 1999, p. 180). When Man Kee refuses to eat a special dish Lily prepares for him, Mui speaks to him “in a tone . . . amazingly obsequious from a grown woman” (p. 181). Lily believes that it is Mui who triggers off Man Kee’s “unfilial behaviour” (p. 181). Culinary activities consequently involve what Sceats (1996) calls “the built-in power hierarchy of parent and child” (p. 119). Lily demands control over Man Kee through her special dish, whereas Man Kee refuses the food as an act of resistance. Keeling and Pollard (1999) observe in children’s literature a prevailing fantasy to “reject parental food” (p. 131), which actually denotes the rejection of social code imposed on kids. When Man Kee declines the biscuit Lily offers because he has eaten some English food in school, Lily feels excluded from “something she [can] give no name to; something which separate[s] her from Son” (Mo, 1999, p. 178).

According to Julia Kristeva (1982), “food loathing” is “a means of deconstructing cultural signifying regime” (as cited in Keeling and Pollard, 2009, p. 8). Man Kee’s refusal to eat indicates not only his rebellion against parental law, but also his perplexity in face of a culture foreign to him. The impact of food on Man Kee is conspicuous in the hilarious turkey-killing scene which lays bare the Chens’ ambivalent attitude toward what Lily terms as “alien cooking” (Mo, 1999, p. 184). Judging from the economical principle, Lily decides the best way to deal with a huge, living turkey is to eat it, instead of keeping it alive as Man Kee’s (or even Mui’s) pet. Confronting the huge turkey with elaborately portrayed *siu lum* kung fu, Lily chops

off the bird's head. The running decapitated turkey, however, frightens Man Kee. Even though Lily cooks the turkey in the same way the Chinese cook Beggar's Chicken, Man Kee rejects his portion and consumes only winter greens, which he used to spit out "as a colourless little ball of fibrous matter" (Mo, 1999, p. 181). Man Kee stays hungry until Lily gives him a "Buddhist dish" (p. 186), or a vegetarian dish. Man Kee's oscillation between love and hatred for "Mar-mar's cooking" (p. 186) implies his growing independence from Lily's control and from Chinese culture. Although Lily attributes the mystery of the Buddhist dish to MSG, which is ironically associated with Chinese Restaurant Syndromes, she takes pride in her triumph over Mui when Man Kee spurs the beef mince Mui makes.

Food and Gender

In *Sour Sweet*, Chen, Lily, and Mui display a noticeable reversal of gender roles, a reversal contradictory to traditional Chinese values but constructive to their family and business. Because her husband is only a quarter of an inch taller than she, Lily wears flat slippers at home to practice "domestic inferiority" (Mo, 1999, p.20). But this physical submission does not prevent her from exercising her feminine power in the household. In order to fulfill her "wifely duties" (p. 6), Lily prepares broth for Chen every night in spite of the employee's dinner Chen has had in the restaurant he works. Under the surveillance of Lily's gaze, the "reproachful eyes [that are] intolerable" (p. 6), Chen does nothing but swallow the "unwanted soup" (p. 23). After Mui becomes adapted to life in London, she also helps in preparing the soup. Lily and Mui's frugal lunch and Chen's enforced soup consumption come from the two women's desire to invest in Chen's body, for the sake of the family's sustainability. As Foucault insists, power has positive effects. It seems Chen is not reluctant to be the victim of Lily's power when he determines to "give Lily enough room to manoeuvre in the future—for both their sakes" (p. 90). Even though "irritated by [Lily's] casual assumption of superiority" (p. 128), Chen actually sees and consequently takes good advantage of the usefulness of Lily's power.

The division of labor in Chen's take away also shows the reversal of gender roles. In spite of his experience as a waiter and his lack of experience in cooking, Chen insists on doing kitchen-work and delegates Lily and Mui to the face-to-face work at the counter. In her criticism of Frank Chin's *Donald Duk*, Fung (1999) deems the unequal labor division between Donald's parents in the kitchen to be the father's attempt to "[valorize] his Master position in the hierarchical economy" (p. 261). Donald's father, a Chinese cook, is portrayed as a prototype of Chinese American men, who elaborate in the kitchen nationalism and masculinity, while Donald's mother, absent from the kitchen, or from "the social networks of economic systems," is a prototype of Chinese American women, who "become commodities that can be desired and consumed" (Fung, 1999, p. 257). The division of labor in *Sour Sweet*, however, brings about a different landscape. In the first place, Chen is perfectly aware that Lily is attractive to Westerners, so it is economically advisable to have Lily work on the counter. Lily and Mui, unlike Donald's mother, are not absent from the economic system. On the contrary, Lily's flexibility in management and Mui's proficiency in language expand the take away business in ways beyond Chen's imagination. Like Donald's father, Chen cares about his son's masculine development; he keeps Man Kee from being "subjected to all this female influence" (Mo, 1999, p. 115). Different from Donald's

father, Chen teaches Man Kee to explore in their back garden instead of in their kitchen.

Food and Class

According to Shang (1984), although members of the Chinese community are actually diverse “in the occupational sense,” Chinese immigrants in the UK are generally stereotyped as people in the “catering business” (p. 3). Mrs. Law in *Sour Sweet* does not fit into that stereotype, but her financial status as a rich widow makes her a provider of food in a much wider scale. The first present she gives Man Kee is a chocolate mouse, which carries rich culinary connotations. Lily and Mui are invited to her big flat for “tea drinking,” which is actually a display of “a sumptuous affair of delicacies” (Mo, 1999, p. 48). Mrs. Law and Lily are playing the role of the Sultan and Scheherazade in *Arabian Nights* when the former, “with a variety of emotions that would have enhanced the repertoire of an actor” (p. 52), inquires into the latter’s visit to Lo, the ill barbecue chef, and the latter makes herself a theatrical narrator. Mo provides a very interesting description: “Lily didn’t invent anything nor did she embroider her story but her tone changed as she began to enjoy talking about it, and this was the greater falsification” (p. 52). On the other hand, Lo’s plight is amusing: “The fact that he [Lo] was the central protagonist in a drama of absorbing human interest to others unknown to him did not by itself help him” (pp. 52-53). Mrs. Law and Lily thus verbally consume Lo in his plight. Gender and class are closely interwoven with the question of Mrs. Law meeting Lo. Despite her curiosity and sympathy, it is by no means advisable for Mrs. Law to visit Lo’s room as Lily and Mui do. A lady like her is not likely to stoop so low. It is equally impractical to meet in Ho Ho because Chen might have to wait on them. Though it is his job, Chen would lose face waiting on his wife and her friend. It is not until Lo gets a new job in a larger restaurant, where such embarrassment is nonexistent, does Mrs. Law take up her role as Lo’s patron.

Food connects Mrs. Law and Lo, but only to enhance the class division, or “artificial social obstacles” (Mo, 1999, p. 55), so much so that their relationship remains a “warm and almost entirely sexless attachment” (p. 57). Claiming Lo as a friend, Mrs. Law exercises power in Lo’s workplace by talking money and ordering more than enough food. The outcome is “a culinary as well as social success” (p. 56). The power relation intensifies in every detail after Mrs. Law becomes a regular customer. She always takes with Ah Jik the servant since a lady is not supposed to eat alone. Lo also exerts power by impressing Mrs. Law with his “culinary masterpieces” (p. 130), which also pleases his boss and ensures his job security. However, Lo shows Mrs. Law only a combination of “loyalty” and “gallantry” (p. 57). Lo neither sits when invited, nor drinks the cup of tea poured for him. As a chef, Lo does not consume the food he prepares as he is low in the hierarchical relationship. Although Mrs. Law and Lo practice “a marriage of convenience” in Chinese New Year’s celebration, the class barrier still remains. “Social considerations,” Mo (1999) reminds the reader, “made romance unthinkable” (p. 57). Judging from this perspective, Mui’s marriage with Lo, though unexpected to Lily, turns out more utilitarian. The two parties involved are equal in the sense of class. Lo and Mui can start up their own restaurant business. Mui’s illegitimate daughter Jik Mui and Man Kee, after Chen’s death, can possess fatherly love because Lo can give them “the man’s example” (p. 285).

Food and Race

Fung (1999) sees the tension between ethnic food and colonization when she comments that “the eroticization and mythification of ethnic food and the cultural enclave (i.e. Chinatown) where the food is produced all appear exotic to the white gaze” (p. 256). Roth (2005) terms the experience of going ethnic as “culinary tourism” and “adventure eating” (p. 180). There appears in *Sour Sweet* very scant white gaze as Mo refrains from depicting in the English perspective. One scene in *Ho Ho*, however, demonstrates this state of mind. When Fatty Koo is unable to deal with the English customers in English, he “look[s] blank, inspect[s] the ceiling, rolling his eyes”, but the customers “thrive on this abrupt treatment” (Mo, 1999, p. 33). Thus, Koo’s lack of power ironically has a very powerful effect on foreign customers.

Chinese restaurant owners internalize the white gaze and show the state of colonization in their treatment of food. They call the food sold to the Westerners garbage: “the food [Chen serves] from the ‘tourist’ menu [is] rubbish, total *lupsup*, fit only for foreign devils” (Mo, 1999, p. 21). Chen draws a fine line between the food for his family and that for their customers. The fried rice they sell is not the same as the *chowfaan* they fry for themselves. Chen also discourages Lily from cooking their home-grown produce to the customers because they are grown “for their own nourishment” (p. 175). The “unforgiving” recipes for the customers, on the other hand, are “constructed along cynical economic lines,” with only “the last elements of authenticity” (p. 144). Roth reasons that the goal of the ethnic restaurant is “to combine exotic details of the foreign culture with the dominant local culture, making the customer feel more secure” (p. 161). Wang explains Frank Chin’s term “food pornography” in cultural terms as “reifying perceived cultural differences and exaggerating one’s otherness in order to gain a food hold in a white-dominated social system” (p. 55). Wang deems this to be a strategy for the immigrants to survive in their host country. Drawing on their “stereotyped menu” (p. 111) with sweet and sour pork as the staple, Lily develops chips with sweet and sour source, the most profitable dish they cook.

Fung (1999) makes keen observations when she remarks, “Domesticating foreignness through the mouth is a way to fabricate multiculturalism; it is an act which emphasizes the polarity of otherness and sameness” (p. 266). Sweet and sour chips highlight the erotic features of Chinese food but at the same time intensify Lily’s stereotypical concept that “English tastebuds must be as degraded as their care of their parents” (Mo, 1999, p. 111). Grandpa’s feast to his new friends in England helps Lily move beyond the division between self and other. A food-oriented person, Grandpa wears two watches which tell him Hong Kong time and England time respectively. By looking at Hong Kong time Grandpa is able to imagine synchronically the foods his friends are having from morning till night. Grandpa makes his own coffin so that he can go back to his roots after he passed away. Different from him, Lily, Man Kee and Mui have to put down roots like the mango tree they plant in the garden. When Mui suggests mince, jam tart and custard as the suitable menu for the old people, Lily realizes it would be to their advantage to prepare and eat them. Mui and Lo’s decision to open a fish and chip restaurant signals their resolution to cross the line that characterizes them as the other. As Mui asserts to Lily, “I am taking out citizenship. Naturalisation. This is my home now” (Mo, 1999, p. 284).

Conclusion

Food and eating, as the fundamental level in culture, are a sign and a battlefield for ideologies to compete. Cooking and eating constitute power relations between the feeder and the fed. The feeder can exert power over the fed, but the latter can reject the food to show his/her desire to break free. Food and foodways also illuminate class distinction between those who are served and those who serve. Moreover, the distinction between the eatable and the uneatable constructs the border between self and other, the tension between belonging and exclusion. As *Sour Sweet* shows, power permeates in the social system where there is no permanent division between self and other, where the economical level always matters.



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Extremist Politics as a Catalyst to Ethnic Assertions in Northeast India: An Enquiry into Bodo Extremism

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Introduction

Ethnic assertions worldwide have assumed different forms ranging from moderate methods of articulation of autonomy to extremist means of violent struggle. Resort to extremism by some sections of an ethnic group usually triggers inter-ethnic conflicts with other groups on the one hand and leads to confrontation with the state on the other. This paper seeks to examine the dynamics of this phenomenon in the context of Bodos, the largest plains tribe of Assam, a State of Northeast India. The paper enquires as to whether extremist politics has met the Bodo aspirations for self-determination or has intensified the conflicts and contradictions within the Bodo society with ramifications for other ethnic groups inhabiting the Bodo-dominated areas. It is also necessary to explore the responses of the Union and State governments to Bodo extremist politics for an understanding of the conflict management process.

The paper has been divided into five sections. The first section deals with the conceptual framework in which working definitions of key concepts such as 'extremism', 'extremist politics', 'ethnic assertions' and 'conflict management' will be offered. Within this broad framework, the second section will discuss the contours of extremist politics as an instrument of Bodo ethnic assertions. The third section focuses on the conflicts that have arisen as a result of Bodo extremist politics. The fourth section examines the responses of the Union and State Governments to extremist politics and the measures undertaken by them for conflict management. The fifth and the final section will sum up the concluding observations of the paper.

Conceptual Framework

The term 'extremism' is generally used to describe the actions or ideologies of individuals or groups outside the perceived political centre of a society; or otherwise claimed to violate common standards of ethics and reciprocity. It is usually considered by those to whom it is applied to be a pejorative term. It is typically used in reference to political and social ideologies seen as irrational, counterproductive, unjustifiable or otherwise unacceptable to a civil society. The term connotes the illegitimacy of certain ideas or methods. An important point to note here is that the terms 'extremism' or 'extremist' are almost always applied by others rather than by a group labelling themselves as such. Rather than labelling themselves 'extremists', those labelled as such tend to see the need for militant ideas or actions in a particular situation. It seems that the term 'extremist' is used to describe groups and individuals who have become radicalised in some way.

It may be noted that the term 'extremist' is often used to label those who advocate or use violence against the will of the larger social body, but it is also used by some to describe those who advocate or use violence to enforce the will of a government or majority constituency. It is often seen that both ideology and methodology are combined under the single term 'extremism'.

In Sociology, several academics who are critical of extreme right wing have objected to the term 'extremist' which was popularised by centrist Sociologists in the 1960s and 1970s. It appears that the act of labelling a person, a group or action as 'extremist'

is sometimes claimed to be a technique to further a political goal, especially by governments seeking to define the status-quo or by political centrists.

On the other hand, according to George and Wilcox, the 'extremist' label has been historically applied to both the extreme right and extreme left, but they claim that some academics on the left wish to change the frame of reference to one in which only the far right, but not the far left, lies outside the pale of societal acceptability.

Eric Hoffer and Arthur Schlesinger, Jr. were two popular political writers during the mid-20th century who helped define societal understanding of political extremism. Hoffer wrote books about the Psychology and Sociology of those who join fanatical mass movements. Schlesinger in his writings talked about a centre of politics within which mainstream political discourse takes place and underscored the need for societies to draw definite lines regarding what falls outside of this acceptability. In this way, both Communism and Fascism were defined in the post war western democracies as extremist movements. The term was also used at times to describe groups which held views outside of the mainstream but which did not advocate militant or violent action, including the John Birch Society, the Black Muslims and the Nuclear Disarmament Movement.

An analysis of the perspectives discussed so far shows that most of these are status-quoist in the sense that their understanding of extremism revolves around a 'perceived political centre' which determines what constitutes 'extremist' by firmly demarcating the parameters of acceptability. This makes it imperative to look for a reasonably fair and impartial definition of 'extremism'.

One such definition may be attributed to Roger Scruton who considers 'extremism' as a vague term which can mean: (i) Taking a political idea to its limits, regardless of 'unfortunate' repercussions, impracticalities, arguments and feeling to the contrary, and with intention not only to confront, but also to eliminate opposition; (ii) intolerance towards all views other than one's own and (iii) adoption of means to political ends which show disregard for the life, liberty and human rights of others. Endorsing this definition as a fair one, Laird Wilcox comments that his own observation of political groups of the left and the right had shown that many people can hold very radical or unorthodox political view and still present them in a reasonable, rational and non-dogmatic manner. In contrast, he came across people whose views were shrill, uncompromising and distinctly authoritarian. Wilcox, therefore, argues that the latter demonstrated a starkly extremist mentality while the former demonstrated only ideological unorthodoxy, something which is hardly to be feared in a free society. He further observes that people who tend to adopt the extremist style most often champion causes and adopt ideologies that are essentially 'fringe' positions on the political spectrum although it provides a society the variety and vitality which are essential in a democracy. Wilcox refers to another popular definition of 'extremism' that it represents points of view we strongly disagree with, advocated by someone we dislike and whose interests are contrary to our own. He also notes with some concern that political ideologies often attempt definition of extremism which specifically condemn the view of their opponents and critics while leaving their own relatively untouched, or which are otherwise biased toward certain views, but not others. However, he rightly argues that, to be fair, a definition must be equally applicable across the entire political spectrum.

To summarise, it may be stated that extremism consists in advocating positions which may be regarded as 'fringe' or peripheral by the larger society. However, the so-called 'fringe' positions may open up the possibilities of greater debate and discussion on important issues of concern for a community. The other dimension of extremism is that it consists in total intolerance towards all views, other than one's own and is an important instrument to achieve certain political ends through means that show no concern for the life, liberty and human rights of others.

In the light of the above, this paper will look at 'extremist politics' in terms of politics that resorts to extra-constitutional means to achieve goals. This would imply rejection of the prevailing political institutions of parliamentary system of government, federal structure and judiciary as well as the basic ideological framework of the Indian Constitution. Taking such a position will mean ruling out the possibility of fulfilment of political ends within the framework of rights guaranteed in the Constitution, thereby forfeiting the legal means available for redressal of grievances and opting for violent means alone for achievement of goals.

Another key concept of the paper is 'ethnic assertions'. Such assertions become manifest when a group of people led by their dominant sections use culture to differentiate themselves from other groups. Ethnic assertions may lead to conflicts when different ethnic groups compete for valued resources and opportunities in societies undergoing rapid transformation. In a system of ethnic stratification in which one ethnic group is dominant over the other, some members from one ethnic group may attempt to move into the economic niches occupied by the rival ethnic groups and if they fail to do so, they are likely to protest against the system of ethnic stratification as a whole and attempt to mobilise members of their own ethnic group. On the other hand, the privileged group may mobilise to defend its interests and may also use ethnic sentiments in doing so. These assertions and counter-assertions lie at the core of ethnic conflicts. Paul Brass argues that the principal dangers of violent conflict arise when all routes to power in an existing system seem closed to an organised force and particularly when the possibility of changing the political arena is a real one. According to him, the existence of one of these conditions is often sufficient to be conducive to ethnic conflict. This paper views the ethnic conflicts generated by Bodo extremism in terms of a competition for resources and opportunities which has juxtaposed the dominant Assamese nationality against smaller nationalities like Bodos.

In this context, it is pertinent to attempt a conceptual understanding of conflict management. Scholars like M. Deutsch and Z. Maoz have observed that conflict management represents an attempt to reduce, limit or eliminate the level, scope and intensity of violence in a conflict situation and to build a structure where the need to resort to violence in future conflicts is controlled. Conflict management combines three elements, viz. Prevention, containment and termination. Prevention refers to a strategy which leads to the dilution of disputes so that no use of force is required and the conflict may be shelved under the carpet to be dealt with in the unspecified future. Conflict containment entails restraint in the use of force in order to deny victory to the aggressor and to prevent the spread of conflict. Finally, termination of conflict involves both settlement and resolution. Settlement means bringing violent hostilities to an end while resolution seeks to eliminate the very sources of conflict and to transform the attitude of the conflicting parties which is an understandably difficult

proposition. The paper will examine the responses of the Union and State Governments to Bodo extremism in order to comprehend the nature of conflict management within this conceptual framework.

Extremist Politics as an Instrument of Bodo Ethnic Assertions

The Bodos are the most numerous and widely spread plains tribe in northeast India. Their original home is believed to have existed somewhere between the 'Yang-Tse-Kiang' and the 'Hwang-Ho' rivers in China. It is estimated that the several hundred years ago, they had migrated to Assam, a state of northeast India. S.K. Chatterjee places them in the 'Indo-Mongoloid' group to connote "at once their Indian connection and their place within the cultural milieu in which they found themselves as well as their racial affinity".

Integral to an understanding of the dynamics of ethnic assertion of the Bodos are the two parallel and concurrent processes of nationality formation in the greater Assamese society. One is the process of Hinduisation of the various tribal communities of the region and the other is the process of tribalisation, particularly among the plains tribal communities of Western Assam because of its remoteness from the mainstream Assamese Society and culture. This phenomenon indicates that the emergence of a homogeneous Assamese national identity inclusive of both Hindus and tribals was a distant possibility, in view of an emerging identity consciousness among the tribal communities. Moreover, the underdeveloped colonial economy offered limited opportunities for the middle classes emerging within various ethnic groups, both Assamese Hindus as well as tribals, particularly Bodos. This resulted in a competition for resources and opportunities, thereby sharpening the cleavages between the tribals and Hindus within the Assamese Society.

In the beginning of the 20th century, identity consciousness of the Bodos found expression through a religious reform movement initiated by Kalicharan Brahma in 1920 which transcended the domain of religion and extended itself into the realms of society, polity and economy. The impact of this 'renaissance' on the sphere of education facilitated the entry of many Bodo Youths into the colonial job market, thereby triggering the advent of a middle class among the Bodos. The aspirations and interests of this class were articulated by the Tribal League which was formed in 1932. However, the League played no role in mobilising the masses on issues of poverty and socio-economic backwardness and was eventually disbanded after India's independence. During 1952-1967, the premier literary organisation of the Bodos, i.e. the Bodo *Sahitya Sabha*, was instrumental in the assertion of Bodo identity and the issues of language and script were integral to such assertion. In 1967, a new phase in Bodo politics began with the formation of Plains Tribal Council of Assam (PTCA). It raised the demand for a centrally administered territory for all the plains tribes of Assam, thereby taking the initiative to construct a pan-tribal identity. However, deviation from its declared goals and principles led to the exit of the PTCA from the centre stage of the autonomy movement and paved the way for a violent phase of identity politics centred on the demand for a separate Bodoland State spearheaded by the All Bodo Students' Union (ABSU). A parallel development during this period was the articulation of the demand for sovereignty by an underground militant outfit called the Bodo Security Force (BdSF). Meanwhile, the Bodo Accord was signed in February 1993, paving the way for the formation of the Bodo Autonomous Council

(BAC). However, an intense struggle for power and internal squabbling among the Bodo leadership for primacy within the BAC reduced the Bodo Accord to a political force.

It appears that a section of the Bodo educated youth was getting thoroughly disillusioned with constitutional safeguards like autonomy arrangements and resorted to a secessionist struggle by floating extremist outfits which has not only radically transformed the character and substance of the Bodo Movement from autonomy to secession in terms of goal, but also the methods of achieving it, by showing preference for extortion, murder, kidnappings and ambushes over strikes, road blockades etc. This shows a departure from mass movement to armed struggle. Two significant dimensions of Bodo extremism are: firstly, rapport between the pro-sovereignty groups and other major underground militant outfits of the North East like United Liberation Front of Assam (ULFA) and National Socialist Council of Nagaland (NSCN); secondly, the alleged moves by the government of Assam to encourage the floating of new militant groups to counter the influence of existing ones.

For an understanding of the nature of Bodo extremism, it is pertinent to examine the aims and objectives of the BdSF which was rechristened as National Democratic Front of Bodoland (NDFB) in 1994. According to its Constitution, the NDFB pledges (i) to liberate Bodoland from the Indian Expansionism and Occupation; (ii) to free the Bodo nation from Exploitation, Oppression and Domination; (iii) to establish a Democratic Socialist Society, promote Liberty, Equality and Fraternity and (iv) to uphold the Integrity and Sovereignty of Bodoland. So, the creation of a Sovereign Bodoland is the core issue for the NDFB. It argues that it was the British and not India who invaded and conquered the Bodo Kingdom and therefore, Bodos have the right to freedom after the British left India. In view of this argument, the NDFB is ideologically committed to a Sovereign Bodoland and not an autonomous Bodoland within the Indian Union. Since the question of sovereignty is not negotiable within the framework of the Constitution of India, the NDFB has resorted to extra-constitutional/extremist methods in pursuit of its goal of independence. Thus, the current phase of Bodo ethnic assertions is marked by extremist politics as outfits like NDFB exercise the right to self-determination in their quest for an alternative political space.

Conflicts Emanating From Bodo Extremists Politics

The aims and objectives mentioned in the Constitution of the NDFB clearly demonstrate the radical, secessionist agenda of this outfit. It appears that the NDFB has been carrying out three categories of activities, i.e. (i) Violence against the establishment; (ii) Violence against non-Bodo communities – ethnic cleansing and (iii) Violence against the rival groups- fratricidal clashes.

The NDFB was on a violent trajectory from 1993 onwards and indulged in activities like abduction, killing of civil and military officials, snatching of arms and ammunition and so on. It is alleged that extremist outfits like NDFB and Bodo Liberation Tiger Force (BLTF is believed to have been floated by the Government of Assam to counter the influence of other militant outfits) were involved in the ethnic cleansing operations in Barpeta in 1994, around Kokrajhar and Gosaigaon in 1996 and near Barama in the Nalbari district in 1997 and 1998. It appears that such

operations were prompted by the desire to turn these areas into Bodo-dominated ones in terms of demography and influence, by compelling the people of other ethnic groups to leave areas which came under the proposed Bodoland. This is in response to the contention that the territory claimed for Bodoland comprises many such areas where Bodos do not enjoy a majority. This has led to the displacement of huge populations belonging to other communities.

Another ramification of extremist politics has been the fratricidal clashes among different Bodo factions. In 1996, two rival groups, viz. NDFB and BLTF launched operations to annihilate each other. In 1996, three suspected NDFB cadres killed the All Bodo Students' Union President Swamla Basumatari and injured his wife at his residence at Kokrajhar. In August 2000, Bineswar Brahma, the President of Bodo *Sahitya Sabha* (Literary Association) was murdered by suspected NDFB cadres. The NDFB was in favour of the Roman Script and was unhappy with Brahma for adopting *Devanagari* Script for Bodo language. Thus, the NDFB is not only killing other communities but also killing Bodos due to mutual distrust and rivalry.

It is evident from the above that violent, extremist methods are being used by the NDFB and other extremist factions as effective weapons against the establishment, non-Bodo communities as well as rival Bodo groups for fulfilment of their extra-Constitutional objectives.

Government Response to Bodo Extremism

The Government of India has responded to Bodo assertions for self-determination in a number of ways. The first response was in the form of signing the bi-partite Bodo Accord of February 20, 1993, which resulted in the creation of the Bodoland Autonomous Council (BAC). But severe infighting among the Bodo factions and their leadership made it impossible to achieve stability within the BAC. After the failure of the BAC Accord, the Assam Government, the Union Government and the Bodo Liberation Tiger Force (BLTF) signed the Memorandum of Settlement on Bodoland Territorial Council (BTC) in New Delhi on February 10, 2003. After the return of the BLTF into the national mainstream, the Government of India made a ceasefire agreement with the NDFB which was signed on May 24, 2005. This agreement was to come into force from June 1, 2005. Meanwhile, a split in the NDFB brought a new dimension to Bodo extremist politics. In 2008, NDFB had split into two factions, viz. the anti-talks faction led by Ranjan Daimary and the pro-talks faction led by Govinda Basumatary. The pro-talks faction partially accepted the Constitutional norms and took shelter at designated camps, but the anti-talk faction declined to obey the ground rules of the ceasefire agreement. The founder President of NDFB, Ranjan Daimary, was arrested in Bangladesh on 2nd may 2010. Following his arrest, the sentiments of a section of the Bodos were hurt as the State Government declined to give him the status of a political prisoner. In April 2013, Daimary was released on bail for negotiation and in November, 2013, the Union Government signed a tripartite suspension of operation agreement with the Daimary faction of the NDFB¹. The Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, has also set up a Committee headed by a former Home Secretary G.K. Pillai to look into the demands of a separate Bodoland State to be carved out of Assam. Meanwhile, suspected Bodo extremists

belonging to NDFB's anti-talk Songbijit group have indulged in a series of attacks on civilians including migrants and police officials even as the Government of Assam is yet to rehabilitate over 1300 families which were affected during the ethnic clashes in the Bodoland Territorial Area Districts (BTAD) in 2012. It may be observed that both the Union and State Government have only sought to contain the conflicts arising out of Bodo extremism rather than eliminate the very sources of the conflict.

Concluding Observations

In the context of the above discussion, the role of the Indian State assumes a lot of significance. It appears that the mainstream ruling elite has taken an intolerant stance towards legitimate aspirations for autonomy voiced by smaller nationalities like the Bodos. This is because the ruling elite views India as one nation and perceives the concept of the State as inseparable from that of the nation. Refusal to recognise small communities as nationalities breeds discontent among these communities inciting some aggressive sections to propagate anti-Indian ideas. Recent trends in northeast India show that extremist factions of aggrieved communities like Bodos and Nagas have become thoroughly disenchanted with the existing arrangements and are seeking to explore new political frontiers beyond India. The dynamics of Bodo identity assertion reveal that the Bodo leadership was initially clamouring for territorial autonomy in the form of a state for all plains tribes of Assam. This was followed by the demand for a separate State of Bodoland. Both the demands met with a negative response from the Indian State. The autonomy accords which were signed in 1993 and 2003 were desperate attempts at conflict management. By then, a section of the Bodo youth had already embarked on a trajectory of extremist politics since prospects of democratic and Constitutional options seemed bleak as far as fulfilment of their goals for self-determination was concerned. Insensitivity to concerns of smaller communities for preservation of their identity, failure to protect the interests of minority communities in areas dominated by aggrieved tribal communities, inadequate measures for rehabilitation of victims of extremist violence – all these reflect the inept handling of the conflict management mechanism by the Indian State. Unless this trend is reversed, warns a political analyst, there may be an acute crisis in the Indian political community. It may, therefore, be argued that in order to dilute the appeal of extremist politics as a catalyst to identity assertions in northeast India, the Indian State needs to appreciate nationality aspirations within a framework of mutual understanding and trust and respect for other groups inhabiting the 'perceived' homeland of these nationalities.

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*Psychosocial Needs for Child Trafficking Victims
(A Case Study in Makassar, Indonesia)*

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Abstract

Victims of child trafficking, who have been rescued from exploitation, have the need to get recovery treatments or therapies. Being free from trafficking or prostitution is not the final episode. Though an absolute cure cannot be promised, they still need to under go through those recovery processes in order to go back to their normal lives on the society. In this qualitative research, in-depth interviews will be conducted for five respondents, namely girls between fourteen and seventeen years old, who were victims and currently getting protection and treatment at a recovery centre for trafficking victims in Makassar. The findings of this study revealed the various needs of child trafficking or prostitution victims, such as the need for protection and advocacy, the need for secrecy confidentiality, the need for reintegration or society adaptation treatments, the need for constant mediation with parents and other family members, the need for education and employment preparation training. These needs must be met to ensure that children were able to live and be accepted as normal by the society and to ensure that they do not return to traffickers who have exploited them. The cooperation of all parties is crucial in assisting a social worker to play his/her role as case manager

Keywords: Psychosocial Needs, Child Trafficking, Victims.

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Introduction

In Victimology, children were in the age group that is vulnerable to trafficking (Meadows, 2010), and one of them is human trafficking (Asis, 2008, Reid & Jones, 2011). In 2003, Cambodia's Police estimated that there were about 50,000 girls who were being trafficked for prostitution. The World Human Rights Organization and UNICEF estimated that one to three prostitutes in Cambodia were under 18 years old and they generally come from Vietnam. Cambodia's children were vulnerable to be trapped into prostitution, be abused, even more to have been killed (Shelley, 2010).

The department of State of the United States of America (2011) distinguished 3 forms of human trafficking, which were force child labour, child soldier, and child sex trafficking. The indicator of force labour can be understood from the condition of the children. He or she could be in the custody of any party, his or her members or non-family members and the children had no choice to leave the job (Department of State United State of America, 2011). On the other hand, the child soldiers were recruited not according to proper legal procedure. They were recruited by using pressure, deception, coercion and kidnapping to exploit their labour or for sexual exploitation by the army group. The perpetrators may be member of the government army, paramilitary organizations, or rebel groups. Many children were forcibly abducted to serve as fighters / soldiers, while others were employed as porters, cooks, guards, servants, messengers or spies. Young girls were forced to marry or have sex with the male soldiers. Both girl and boy soldiers often get sexual harassment and found high risk of transmitting sexual disease (Department of State United State of America, 2011).

Children from Indonesia were trafficked both within Indonesia and abroad in many forms, such as maids, forced prostitutes, and home industrial. The girls experience exploitation in the form of coercion to work between 14 to 16 hours a day with very low wages. Children who were abroad were often deceived into forced debt bondage. The agent argued that a mediator in Indonesia, had paid advances to their families. About 60 % of the children who were under five years old did not possess official birth certificates that put them at high risk of being exploited. The trafficker worried use any tactic and strategy to control the victims including making false promises of high-paid jobs, forcing debt bondage, putting them under community and family pressure, giving threats of violence, rape, false marriages, and confiscating their passports (Department of State United State of America, 2012).

Based on the data provided by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2011) Indonesia was in the top rank of human trafficking with 4,067 cases (96, 64%). South Sulawesi in the 11th rank nationally while West Java Province was in the first position (Tinggi Kasus Trafficking, 2012). Makassar city is one of the destinations for the female and child victims and they come from any district in North Sulawesi Province (Agustinanto et. al, 2003).

According to UNICEF, there were 2,000,000 children who were prostitution victims in global commercial sex trafficking. The International protocol and law of all countries in the world obligated the criminalization for children commercial sexual exploitation. Sex trafficking has destroyed the children's lives who faced. Risks of suffering long-term physical and psychology trauma, suffering diseases like

HIV/AIDS, drug addiction, unwanted pregnancy, malnutrition, social exclusion, and death (Department of State United State of America, 2011).

Age of 15 – 17 a majority of the children involved were between the second group is pre-puberty age. They were mainly traded for economic exploitation and some were forced to become beggars. They were also targeted for sexual and pornography exploitation. The third group consists of infant or babies mainly for illegal adoption. Child trafficking covers almost all forms of exploitation, even a combination model. In addition, the evidence also demonstrates that children experience progressive exploitation. Once the children become a victim, they will experience various forms of exploitation repeatedly and in various ways (Sorensen, & Nuyts, 2007).

These children experience a series of abuse and violence and exploitation that give negative impact psychologically and socially. The attempt to rescue these is not the final intervention because they will experience post-exploitation condition; they should be given protection, motivation and security. The most important thing is they will not be re-victimized and they can lead a normal life without stigma and discrimination.

Factors that make Children vulnerable to trafficking

The Parliamentary Union & UNICEF (2005) stated that at least there were five factors that make children vulnerable to be trafficked; the five factors are poverty, gender discrimination, lack of education opportunities, and negligence by parents, unregistered, human disaster and army conflict. Meanwhile, Miko (2003) suggested several factors that promote children trafficking, namely sub-ordination for girls, high demands for sex workers, including for cheap labour. The offenders feel many faces to commit the crime because of poor law enforcement to prevent child trafficking.

Another factor is expectation of parents for their children's better future. These parents are easily influenced with the modus-operand used by traffickers who promise to provide education, job and wealth for the children. The group of children who are at risk of being victims are street children, homeless children, and runaway children who ran away to escape from foster parents. Somewhere even kidnapped and forced into prostitution (Fong & Cardoso, 2010).

According to Logan, Walker & Hunt (2009) the vulnerability of children to be victims is related with the expectation of the children to improve their family status or income and to get self-income to be independent and to survive because of the absence of family support. In addition violence and sexual harassment are also cause children to run away from homes. Roby (2005) admitted that many girls and boys escape from their homes because of sexual abuse and domestic violence.

Bales (2005) explained that the vulnerability of children to be trafficked is not always due to poverty factor. It can be also from the context of local culture that does not any forms of trafficking as serious crime. Woman and girls were seen as a commodity that can be used to help improve their family economic status. They are expected to stay at home or to do household chores or to work at other places to earn money, such as by being maids (Inter-Parliamentary Union & UNICEF, 2005; Lie & Lund, 2008).

Impact on Child Trafficking

According to Inter-Parliamentary Union & UNICEF (2005), children trafficked will experience a series of abuse, exploitation and violence during the trafficking episode which will cause the children to be locked in a life of full of miseries. This condition will give a disastrous effect on the development of children emotionally, physically and psychosocial.

(i) Emotional effects.

A Trafficked child will show some forms of emotional disorder such as feelings of guilt, shame, low self-esteem and even often stigmatized. They feel betrayed especially if the trafficker is someone known to him/her. The experiences during the exploitation will cause nightmares sleep disorder, feeling of hopelessness, and depression.

(ii) Physical effects

A sexually exploited child is often phoned transmit Sexual Transmitted Disease (STD) like HIV/AIDS. The danger of mistaken faith in many countries that sexual intercourse with a virgin girl can cure HIV/AIDS has triggered a high demand for girls for prostitution. Several victims reported that the intercourse service without condom would be paid much more by the clients.

(iii) Psychosocial effects.

Children who are trapped into trafficking are deprived to education and social relationships. Most of them are homeless and are forced to work at a young age. They also do not have access to education or family support and social activities that will prevent the chance to develop their potentials. In addition, also experience intense control and restriction of movement. Since they do not have contact with the outside world and they do not know how to seek help. Abuses and violence will arouse the feelings of fear in their lives for a long term.

Objective and Methodology

This study aims to identify the psychosocial needs of child trafficking victims. This qualitative study was conducted through in-depth interviews and observation of five informants (14-17 years old). They are victims of child trafficking for sexual exploitation (prostitution). The study was conducted at a Healing and Protection House of child trafficking victims in Makassar, Indonesia.

Findings and Discussions

The findings of this research showed that there are five psychosocial needs of child trafficking victims. They were Protection and Advocating Needs, Need of Secrecy, Need of Mediation with the Family, Training and Education Needs and Reintegration Needs.

Protection and Advocating Needs

Once the children trapped into human trafficking networking, the perpetrators will then use various strategies ways to keep them in their control so as get much more

benefit. The possibility of the victim to escape is really very unlikely, and if the victim could escape, or be rescued from the trap, the trafficker will try to trace the victims continually to be exploited again.

For example, "RT" managed to escape from trafficking after he was rescued by the police. He subsequently admitted himself to the protection and recovery of victims of trafficking organization in Makassar. Unfortunately, he was re-victimized again by the trafficker after the healing process was of 6 months, but he was rescued again by police for the second time.

"This is the second time to enter this institution (Protection and healing home), I was here for the first time when the police arrested me. Because of my boss knew that I was here, so at that time he always came to see me and after finished the program of my rehabilitation, my boss picked me up to bring to his house and then I become prostitute again.

The victims also need legal protection since their personal belongings were kept by the trafficker. This is experienced by "RT", those savings and belongings were kept by the couple who exploited her. This situation makes "RT" vulnerable to be trapped again in trafficking or to be re-victimized. If she does not get legal protection, she would not be able back her savings or her personal belongings.

This indicates that the victims not only need time to heal, but they also need a legal protection in order to be free from the perpetrators. Victims should be sent back to their parents or families and it would be better if the presence of the victims after being rescued, should be kept confidential so that their presence will be confidential. The place of shelter should not be known to the public, especially the traffickers.

This condition was experienced by "RT":

I saved my money in my kos-kosan (rent room monthly), I stayed with my lover [trafficker]. He was sometimes angry with me if he were know that I want to go back to my hometown, Palu. So, He kept my money. He did not want me to go back to my home town. He said that he would keep my money, my clothes and my other belongings in my kos-kosan.

Based on the data, we can understand that the victim needs protection, especially legal protection to get back their personal belongings. A social worker as a case manager in the healing program can co-operate together with the police or other parties to help the victims.

Need of Secrecy

The need for secrecy is important to ensure the security and safety of the victim, as well as the dignity of the victims so that they can be accepted by their parents, to prevent discrimination, stigma and exclusion. Of course, this applies to victims who have not been acknowledged by their family and society members as they had been trapped into the prostitution. Some informants said that they were very scared and felt disgraced if their parents or relatives were to know they were prostitutes before. For example,

a. IR Said :

“I am really scared of my Parents if they know that I was a prostitute. They will be angry. I may be killed. I said to my friend who took me here not tell this to my father”.

b. DW Said :

“I hope none of my family members know that I had been a prostitute before. If anyone were to know, I will feel ashamed and I did not dare to meet them, they will insult, mock one even hit me”.

Fog and Cardoso (2010) also supported the need for secrecy of the victims needs to be given anonymous name, while being engaged in group therapy.

Need of Mediation with the Family

This is a very urgent need for the victims because some of the victims escaped from their homes because of conflict or personal problems with parents or with other family members. To resolve this conflict and to re-build harmony with their families the third party, A social worker, can play this role as mediator.

Generally, the victim ran away from home because of conflict with their parents or family members. Because of that, they would be afraid to go back to their homes. It can be seen from IW’s statement *“I want to go back to my home, but I am not sure that my parents can accept me again. For almost one year I have not gone back to my home, I am very afraid”*. This is similar with DW’s case *“I am afraid to go home they [Parents] will scold and beat me”*.

In mediation process, the social worker as a mediator, will make an effort to help parents understand about the victim’s condition and will persuade them to accept their children. The social worker also need to explain about the rights and needs of children for their care and protection. The parents have to realize the threat of danger that children face outside their homes. They are really vulnerable to child exploitation and abuse.

Training and Education Needs

Vocational training is really an important need for the victim’s future. It is really hard to live independently and to get a job in order to prevent re-trafficking if children have no skills to earn their living. When they were made prostitutes, they learned to become independent and not to depend on others, including parents. If they were not prepared to have an alternative job, they could go back into prostitution.

The case as presented by "END". *“I want get a job after I am out from here [centre of healing], but I do not know anything, I have no skill. I want to run a business, I need skills.”* Roby (2005) was in the opinion that when the victims are free from sex trafficking, they often lack education and skills to survive.

Reintegration Needs

Prostitution is a something unacceptable by the society for violating the norms and values of society. It would be a shame for the victims, parents and family. This will have an impact on their self-esteem, the victims will be judged for itself as having low dignity by the community. Sometimes people cannot understand and accept the fact that they were victims or had been victimized. They were children who had been trapped into prostitution by those who want to make fortunes. The community only sees that these children have been involved in something disgrace. That is why they need an effort / intervention to ensure that victims can be accepted back by their parents, families and communities, without any discrimination, stigma and exclusion. For example, GMK said:

My parents have already known what I had done before. They yell at me but they still love me. But how about my other family members, and my friends' opinion of me ?. I am embarrassed. How do I go back ? . "

Reintegration service is necessary to restore dignity to the victims and to prepare them to return to the community so that they will be able to live normally. This activity is very important to ensure that the children will not be return to prostitution.

The third parties can be involved in the integration process, such as the local government, police, religious leaders, and community leaders, including the victim's peers. They need to be given an understanding so that they are able to help the victims so that the victims can return to normal life and be accepted as citizens who have dignity. This is in line with the opinion of Roby (2005) that the model participatory involving children and their families as well as community leaders as key players is very helpful in the process of integration of the victim.

Conclusion

The issue of child trafficking is a problem that continues until now in every part of the world. Children who were victims of trafficking experience a various of problems that were complex. Once they were caught in the trafficking, the offender will continue to exploit them again and again. That is why the victim's needs should be responded appropriately by involving parties who are competent in helping them. The psychosocial needs that are reflected in the results of this study were advocacy and protection, education and training, assurance of confidentiality, mediation with family and reintegration services. These results demonstrate the importance of considering the social aspects of the environment (ecology) in providing interventions and services to child victims of trafficking. Social Workers can play roles as mediator, advocator and case manager to help the victims. The current intervention policy of child trafficking needs to be re-established. Child victims of trafficking should be viewed differently from professional prostitutes. So, child trafficking victim intervention must be planned and managed properly.

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Sequences of Social Security Program Development in the Developed and Developing Areas: A Comparative Analysis

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Abstract

The emergence of the welfare state in the developed world historically relates to capitalist industrialization and urbanization. The mainstream welfare state literature sees the development of social security programs as the state's responses to the "new social questions" that industrialization accompanies. Since capitalist industrialization involves similar social problems, industrializing nations generally come up with similar solutions to them. As a result, social security programs share common contents, and they develop largely in uniform sequences. These theoretical propositions are primarily grounded in the developed world, and their relevance in the developing nations has been hardly examined. The paper presents findings of a study that examined the sequences of social security program development in the developed and the developing nations.

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Introduction

A dominant practice in contemporary welfare state studies is to compare welfare states in terms of their social programs, policy patterns, programming objectives and practices, and political orientations to social programming. There are a number of theories that provide frameworks for those comparisons. Structural-functionalism is one of the dominant approaches that account for the emergence of and variations among the welfare states. It relates the development of the welfare states and variations among them to industrialization and economic development. It also assumes that social security programs emerge in uniform sequences and with similar contents in modern welfare states. Like other mainstream welfare state theories, the structural-functionalist perspective is largely grounded in the developed world. Its relevance in the developing areas has been hardly examined. Based on the structural-functionalist assumption about the sequence of social security program development, this paper addresses two questions? Did social security programs develop in advance democracies in any particular sequence? Do social security program in developing areas maintain a sequence of emergence similar to that of the developed democracies? Based on data from the *Social Security Programs throughout the World Surveys*, the study finds similar sequences of social security program development in the developed and developing areas. The finding thus indicates the relevance of the mainstream welfare state theories in understanding and explaining social policies and programs in the developing nations.

Literature Review

Literature on welfare states is very well developed in the economically advanced societies. While contemporary advanced democracies are generally known as welfare states (Kaufmann, 2001b), there is a large variation among them in terms of goals, scopes, ideological orientations, and patterns of welfare programming. A good number of theoretical approaches, such as the functionalist approach, the culturalist approach, the institutionalist approach, and the power resources approach, have emerged with the aim of explaining the origins and development of the welfare states as well as the variations among them. Among those theories, the functionalist perspective is empirically robust in accounting for the emergence of the welfare states.

The functionalist theory is rooted in the works of nineteenth century sociologist Emile Durkheim. In general, the functionalist theoretical tradition focuses on the functioning and integration of social systems.¹ In regards to the welfare state, functionalism seeks to capture the logic of the development of welfare states historically. It assumes that welfare policies emerge in response to functional necessities. Leading contemporary structural functionalists such as Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, and Kingsley Davis also suggest that welfare state policies and programs have served to re-establish

¹ Although Durkheim addressed social policies and welfare states only indirectly, he argued that political institutions arose in response to stresses and needs, which emerged as simple societies (traditional and undifferentiated societal systems) evolve into more complex (structurally differentiated) entities – existing social structures break down leading to social disorganization and disequilibrium; however, new social arrangements and institutions soon evolve more or less unconsciously to respond to these emergent problems and meet the new universal needs to restore social order and equilibrium (Olsen, 2002: 93).

balance in society by satisfying new social needs, which Parsons calls ‘functional prerequisites’ (Olsen, 2002, 1993).

The functionalist approach that directly addresses the origin and development of welfare states is the ‘logic of industrialism’ approach. This approach sees the development of the welfare state as a society’s way of adapting to the changes brought about by modernization and industrialization (Mishra, 1973; Pampel and Williamson, 1988). The forces attached to modernization and industrialization – social mobilization, urbanization, individualism, and market dependence – destroyed pre-industrial modes of social reproduction such as family, the church, *noblesse oblige*, and guild solidarity. For functionalists, the welfare state, therefore, emerged in response to the destruction of traditional forms of social security by modern industrial economy (Olsen, 2002). Norman Furniss summarizes the logic of industrialization as follows: “industrialization produces similar socio-economic problems [such as loss of traditional occupation, unemployment of unskilled labourers and the elderly; issues of safety, security, hazards, and accidents in workplaces; and tensions between workers and the factory owners]; these problems in turn produce the public policies to deal with them; these policies are needed – they are functional – therefore they occur. “Policy becomes the outcome of some demographic and economic process” (Furniss: 2000: 200).”

However, a nation’s capacity to respond to the challenges posed by industrialization, functionalists argue, depends on its level of economic development. Only economically advanced countries possess the ability to adopt social programs to meet social needs. Functionalists thus explain the emergence of the welfare state long after the destruction of traditional community by industrialization as well as the presence of welfare states only in the developed societies by their ‘logic of economic growth.’ Cutright (1965), Aaron (1967), Pryor (1968), and Wilensky (1975), through a number of time series and multiple regression analysis find a strong correlation between the level of economic growth (rather than political system) and the development of the welfare state. Regardless of dominant groups or dominant ideologies (both economic and political), they argue, nations institute similar policy sequences, and as a result, political ideologies of left and right become irrelevant (Wilensky, 1975; Furniss, 1992). In short, ‘politics do not matter’.² Proponents of the functionalist account of the welfare states, particularly, Wilensky (1975) and Furniss (1992), indicate that social security programs evolve in a linear sequence starting from programs on industrial accidents (through the introduction of insurance or assistance programs) followed by those on sickness, old age, family income support, and unemployment. This order, as they claim, applies irrespective of political systems or ideologies.

A number of scholars tested this functionalist assumption in the past. Flora and Alber (1981) compared social insurance policies in twelve European countries. They found that social insurance for industrial accidents tend to be introduced first, unemployment insurance last, and old age and sickness insurances in between. Based on the count of four social security programs – industrial accident insurance, sickness

² Proponents of the functionalist account of the welfare states, particularly, Wilensky (1975) and Furniss (1992), indicate that social security programs evolve in a linear sequence starting from programs on industrial accidents (introducing insurance or assistance programs) followed by social security programs for sickness, old age, family income support, and unemployment.

insurance, old age pensions, and unemployment insurance³ – in nations of the world prior to World War I, Kuhnle and Sander (2010) found that nations tend to introduce programs for industrial accidents first, followed sequentially by sickness insurance, old age insurance, and unemployment insurance.

Flora and Alber's (1981) study was based on only 12 nations all of which were from Europe. Moreover, they considered only four social insurance programs in their examination. Kuhnle and Sander's (2010) study considered programs until WWI when only 32 nations introduced some form of social security programs. Their study fails to account for patterns of social program development since the First World War. Moreover, these scholars assessed the order of programs simply through counting the number of programs introduced by the nations. That is, the number of nations having a program was considered as a marker for that program's place in the sequence. However, given that almost all nations in the developed world currently possess more than one of the social insurance programs, deriving program sequence simply by counting nations is inapplicable today. It is, therefore, unsure if the functionalist assumption about program sequence still is applicable in the developed world in the contemporary context, or if tested in the contexts of the developing world its relevance will be found.

This study includes 178 nations of the world of which 63 are developed nations and 115 are developing nations (according to the classification by World Bank 2013).⁴ The study examines the sequence of social security program development in both the developed and the developing nations, using the most recent data. It examines if the functionalist assumption still applies to the developed nations. Then it examines if the same assumption applies to the developing nations too. The study also examines if the same sequence of program development is observed in both areas of the world.

Data and Method

To test the functionalist proposition about the sequences of social security program development, years of introduction of social security programs on five areas – industrial accident, sickness, old age, family income and unemployment – were considered as statutory provisions in these five areas mark the early development (or the take-off) of the modern welfare state (Kuhnle and Sander, 2010). As Kuhnle and Sander (2010: 61) suggest, “[the] founding years [the last two decades of the nineteenth century] and the decades thereafter are very much associated with the emergence and growth of social insurance-like policies [such as industrial accident insurance, sickness insurance, old age pensions, family allowance and unemployment insurance].” It was observed if the developed and the developing nations followed the same sequence of program development as theoretically anticipated. Data to test this

³ That is, the number of nations having each of the programs.

⁴ World Bank (2013) identifies 75 nations as developed (high income) countries and 139 nations as developing (not high income countries - higher middle, lower middle, or low income) countries. Thus, based on World Bank's (2013) classification, total 36 (16.2%) nations were missing from the analyses, among whose 12 were developed nations (16% of the total number of the developed nations) and 24 were developing nations (17.27% of all developing nations). Given that high proportions nations from both the developed and developing nations were included (84% and 83% respectively) and equal proportion of nations were missing from each group, it is assumed that results based on the nations included were minimally biased.

hypothesis was collected from *Social Security Programs Throughout the World Surveys 2013* (for African nations), *2012a* (for European nations), *2012b* (for Asia-Pacific nations), and *2011* (for North and South American nations).⁵ Sequences of social insurance programs development in 178 nations were examined based on the availability of the data from the surveys. Thus, more than four-fifth (88.5%) of the nations of the contemporary world were included in the analysis.

Results

This section presents results of the examination of the order of social security program development in the developed and developing areas with a comparative perspective. It starts with presenting a picture of the state of social security program development in the contemporary world. It then accounts for the trend of social security program development in the developing world. Finally, it presents the sequence of social security program development in the developed and developing areas and sees if the functionalist assertion about the sequence of program development applies in both parts of the world.

The state of social security programs in the contemporary world

We observe some general support to the functionalist claim that nations come up with similar solutions to problems associated with modernization. We find almost universal presence of three social security programs – industrial injury insurance, old age pensions, and sickness insurance (in 95.5%, 99.4% and 80.9% nations respectively). Similarly, about half of the nations of the contemporary world have programs on unemployment and family income support. In terms the number of risks covered, we find that a majority of the nations have programs covering at least four contingencies that define the origin of the welfare state, and there is no nation in the current world without a statutory social security program (see table 2).

<i>Risk or program area</i>	<i>Nations</i>
Industrial accident	95.5%
Old age, disability, survivor	99.4%
Sickness, maternity	80.9%
Family income maintenance	45.5%
Unemployment	55.6%

⁵ *The Social Security Throughout the World Surveys* are conducted jointly International Social Security Association (ISSA) under the sponsorship of the U.S. Social Security Administration (SSA). International Social Security Association collected the data from country-based correspondents (social security officials of countries and jurisdictions that responded to the surveys), ISSA Documentation Service, the legislative database of the International Labour Office, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), The International Monetary Fund (IMF), The World Bank, The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), official publications, periodicals, and documents received from social security institutions. Data thus collected were later examined by international analysts at both ISSA and SSA for factual errors and contradictions in materials from different sources (ISSA, 2012). This is probably the most comprehensive, recent, reliable, and most widely used source of information about social insurance programs in 178 nations or jurisdictions in the world.

<i>Number of risk covered</i>	<i>Developing nations</i>
Five	35.4%
Four	26.4%
Three	20.2%
Two	15.7%
One	2.2%
No programs	0.0%
Total	100%

State of social security programs in the developed and the developing areas

To see social security programs from a comparative perspective between developed and developing nations, about all developed nations have programs for the elderly and industrial accidents (100% and 96.8% respectively), 90.5% nations have programs for sickness, and three-fourth of the developing nations have programs to address unemployment and support family income (76.2% and 74.6%) respectively. It is observed that almost equal (compared to the developed nations) proportions of developing nations have programs on industrial accidents and old age (94.8% and 99.1% respectively). Developing nations slightly fall behind the developed nations in programming for sickness (75.7% compared to 90.5%). However, significantly fewer developing nations have social security programs for unemployment and family income support compared to the developed nations (28.7% and 45.2% compared to 76.2% and 74.6% respectively).

<i>Risk or program area</i>	<i>Developed nations</i>	<i>Developing nations</i>
Industrial accident	96.8%	94.8%
Old age, disability, survivor	100.0%	99.1%
Sickness, maternity	90.5%	75.7%
Family income maintenance	76.2%	45.2%
Unemployment	74.6%	28.7%

In terms of the ranges of contingencies having social security programs for, about two-third (66.7%) of the developed nations have programs on all five areas (that constitutes the pillars of social protection), sixteen percent of them have programs covering four areas, only fifteen percent have programs covering less than four areas. Among the developing nations, less than one-fifth of them have programs covering all five pillars of social protection, one-third have programs covering maximum four areas, while half of them have programs covering less than four areas of social protection.

<i>Number of risk covered</i>	<i>Developed nations</i>	<i>Developing nations</i>
Five	66.7%	18.3%
Four	15.9%	32.2%
Three	7.9%	27.0%
Two	7.9%	20.0%
One	1.6%	2.6%
No programs	0.0%	0.0%
Total	100%	100%

It is interesting to observe that, in terms of the development of social security programs, the current state of the developing world is significantly better than the pre-WWII state of the developed world. Before 1945, more than one-fourth (28.6%) developed nations did not have any social security programs and only thirteen percent (12.7%) had programs on all five areas of social protection. Conversely, at present there is no nation in the developing world without a social security program, and about one-fifth of them have programs covering all five pillars of social protection (see table 5).

<i>Number of risk covered</i>	<i>Developed nations before 1945</i>	<i>Developing nations at present</i>
Five	12.7	18.3%
Four	27.0	32.2%
Three	19.0	27.0%
Two	4.8	20.0%
One	7.9	2.6%
No programs	28.6	0.0%
Total	100	100%

This finding has significant implication to contemporary practices of social welfare policy studies. It empirically disputes any rationale for limiting welfare state studies within the developed world today. Immediately after WWII, when the literature on the welfare state and social programming started to flourish in the developed world, the state of social programming in the developed world was less developed than its current state in the developing world. While the welfare state literature took its ground under that situation in the developed world, it is yet to gain a ground in the developing world despite the condition is more congenial. This finding thus also strengthens the justification of this research project.

Sequence of social security program development in the developed nations

We examined the sequences of program development in terms of the frequency distribution of the order of introduction of the programs. In addition, we calculated the rank averages of the programs to derive more precise sequences of their introduction across nations. We see that the programs on industrial accidents have most frequently (in 73.8% instances) been introduced as the first social security program in the developed world (see table 6). Only in few instances those programs were introduced after any of the other four pillars of social insurance. The modal category for the order of the introduction of programs on sickness is second. In about thirty percent (29.8%) instances these programs were introduced as the second social security provision in the developed nations. However, the frequencies for them of being introduced as the first and the third programs are also relatively high. Only rarely these programs were introduced as the fourth or fifth programs in the developed world (14% and 5.3% respectively). In majority instances programs on old age have been introduced in the developed world as either the second or the third programs. These programs were also introduced as the first social security provision in more than one-third instances. However, programs on old age have been introduced as the fourth program only in few instances (4.8%), and in no nations in the developed world these programs were introduced as the fifth social security provision.

<i>Program area</i>	<i>First</i>	<i>Second</i>	<i>Third</i>	<i>Fourth</i>	<i>Fifth</i>
Industrial accidents	73.8	11.5	6.6	3.3	4.9
Sickness	28.1	29.8	22.8	14.0	5.3
Old age	34.9	31.7	28.6	4.8	-
Unemployment	8.3	14.6	22.9	33.3	20.8
Family allowance	2.1	6.4	6.4	38.3	46.8

Conversely, in majority of instances (54.1%) programs on unemployment have been introduced as the fourth or the fifth social security program. In considerable instances (22.9%) these programs were introduced as the third program. However, only in few instances programs on unemployment were the first or second social security measure in a developed nation. Family allowances have most frequently (46.8%) been introduced as the fifth social security program in the developed nations. In about nine-tenth instances these programs were introduced as the fourth or the fifth programs by the developed nations.

Thus, we see that programs on industrial accidents have most frequently introduced as the first social security program in the developed nations. The order between programs on sickness and those on old age is not very clear since both types of programs are pretty equally distributed in the first, second, and the third positions in the order. On the other hand, it is seen that programs on unemployment and family income support more frequently appear in the last in the developed nations. Yet, the position of programs on unemployment is almost evenly distributed in the last three of the five positions in the order while in almost ninety percent cases family allowances are introduced as the fourth or the fifth program in the developed countries.

To acquire more precision in understanding the sequence of program development, rank averages of the programs were calculated based on their positions in the national order of program development. Programs that were introduced first in a nation were given one point and those introduced as the second program were given two points, those introduced as the third program were assigned three points, those introduced as the fourth program were given four points, and those introduced as the fifth program were given five points. Total scores of each program were then divided by its total number (that is, the number of developed nations in which this particular program exists) to find the rank average. Table 7 presents the rank averages of each program thus derived (standard deviation of rank averages are in brackets).

	Sequence of introduction					Ranks	Year of introduction			Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	Average	Mean	Median		
Industrial accident	45	7	4	2	3	1.54 (1.089)	1928	1924		1945
Sickness or maternity	16	17	13	8	3	2.39 (1.192)	1935	1938		1957
Old age, disability, survivor	22	20	18	3	-	2.03 (.915)	1937	1936		1961
Unemployment	4	7	11	16	10	3.44 (1.219)	1946	1942		1958
Family allowance	1	3	3	18	22	4.21 (.977)	1952	1947		1968

We see that programs on industrial accidents have the lowest rank average (1.54). This indicates that those programs are more likely to be introduced first by developed nations. Conversely, we find that the rank averages of programs on unemployment and those on family income support have rank averages higher (3.44 and 4.21 respectively) than those on old age and sickness (2.39 and 2.03 respectively). Thus, we observe in the contexts of the developed nations that programs on industrial accidents tend to appear first, those on unemployment and family income security tend to appear in the last and those on sickness and old age tend to appear in between. However, between programs on sickness and those on old age, the latter tend to appear before the former, and between programs on unemployment and family allowance, the former tend to appear before the latter in the developed world.

Sequence of social security program development in the developed nations

We observed the sequences of social security program development in the developing nations using the same methods that we used to observe program sequences in the developed world. We see that in developing nations where there are programs on industrial accidents, in four-fifth instances (80%) the programs were introduced as the first social security programs. Only one-fifth instances programs on industrial accident were introduced as second, third or fourth statutory social security initiatives (10.1%, 9.2%, and 2.8% respectively). In no nations programs on industrial accidents

were introduced as the fifth social security program.⁶ Table 8 presents the frequency distribution of the order of program introduction in the developing nations.

<i>Program area</i>	<i>First</i>	<i>Second</i>	<i>Third</i>	<i>Fourth</i>	<i>Fifth</i>
Industrial accidents	78.0	10.1	9.2	2.0	0.0
Sickness	27.6	42.5	21.8	6.9	1.1
Old age	15.2	44.7	15.8	14.5	1.8
Family income support	13.5	25.0	28.8	25.0	7.7
Unemployment	12.1	18.2	15.2	21.2	33.3

In most frequent instances (42.5%) programs on sickness were introduced as the second statutory social security measures in the developing nations. In considerable instances these programs were introduced as the first and third social security programs too (in 27.6% and 21.8% instances respectively). In few instances programs on sickness are the fourth or the fifth national social security initiatives (6.9% and 1.8% respectively) in the developing world.

Like programs on sickness, programs age old age also most frequently developed as the second program (in 44.7% cases) in the developing world. Of course, in one-third instances, programs on old age were introduced as the third or the fourth program (15.8% and 14.5% respectively). In relatively fewer instances old age provisions were introduced as the first (15.2%) or the fifth social security initiative (1.8%) in the developing nations.

Family income support is almost evenly distributed in the middle of the order of program development. In almost equal number of instances programs on family income support were introduced as the second, third and fourth social security program (25.0%, 28.8%, and 25.0% respectively) in the developing world. Only in few instances family income support provisions were introduced as the first or the fifth social security initiatives (13.5% and 7.7% respectively).

Finally, programs on unemployment are generally introduced latter than other pillars of social insurance in the developing world. In majority instances, programs on unemployment were introduced as the fourth or the fifth social security initiative (21.2% and 33.3% respectively). These programs are less frequently introduced as early social security measures in that part of the world. Thus, we observe a general pattern in the developing world that nations tend to introduce programs on industrial accident first, programs on unemployment in the last and those on sickness, old age and family income support in the middle. This pattern is similar to that we observed in the contexts of the developed nations.

⁶ Programs introduced in the same years were assigned the same order in the calculation of sequences. For example, if a nation introduced programs on industrial accidents in 1945, programs on sickness and old age in 1956, and programs on family income support in 1960, the program on industrial accident were assigned the first place, both programs on sickness and old age were assigned the second place, and the program on family income support was assigned the fourth place in the order of sequence.

Table 9 rank averages and mean and median years of social security program legislation in developing nations										
	Sequence of introduction					Ranks	Year of introduction			<i>Mean</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Median</i>		
Industrial accident	85	11	10	3	-	1.37 (.766)	1945	1945		1945
Sickness or maternity	24	37	19	6	1	2.11 (.933)	1957	1955		1957
Old age, disability, survivor	26	51	18	17	2	2.28 (1.035)	1961	1962		1961
Family allowance	7	13	15	13	4	2.88 (1.166)	1958	1955		1958
Unemployment	4	6	5	7	11	3.45 (1.438)	1969	1982		1968

Table 9 summarizes the total and average ranks, average and median years of introduction of social security programs in developing nations (Standard deviation of rank averages are in brackets). The rank average for programs on industrial accidents is the lowest (1.37) and that for programs on unemployment is the highest (3.45). The rank averages of program sequences suggest that programs on industrial accidents are generally introduced first in the developing nations and those on unemployment generally come in the last. Programs on sickness, old age, and family income support fall in between those on industrial accidents and unemployment in the order of development. This pattern resembles that observed in the contexts of the developed nations. However, while in the developed nations, programs on old age tend to appear before those on sickness and programs on unemployment tend to appear before those of family income support, we find an opposite order between those pairs in the contexts of the developing nations. That is, in the developing nations, programs on sickness are more likely to be introduced before those on old age, and programs on family income security are more likely to appear before those on unemployment in developing nations.

Discussion

Overall, we find similar sequences of social security program development in the developed and developing nations. In both contexts we find that programs on industrial accidents are more likely to be introduced first by nations. In both the developed and the developing areas, programs on family income support and those on unemployment are more likely to be introduced after other pillars of social insurance. In both areas programs on sickness and old age are more likely to be introduced after those on industrial accidents and before those on unemployment and family income support.

These findings are consistent with what is proposed by the functionalist scholars. The observed pattern of social security program development replicates that of Flora and Alber (1981) who examined the sequence of program development in twelve developed nations. Now with larger number of nations, including both the developed

and the developing nations, we have found the same sequence. This implies that the functionalist proposition about the sequence of program development equally applies to both the developed and developing nations.

The findings are also similar to those of Kuhnle and Sander (2010) also found similar sequence in the development of programs until World War I (WWI) at the global level. This similarity implies that the pattern of program development have remained consistent since the time when the modern welfare state started to grow. This finding further strengthens the functionalist claims about the growth of the welfare state, now not only in the contexts of the developed world, rather in the global context.

Findings of this examination have significant academic implications. First, the observation that the state of social security program development in the contemporary developing world is more advanced than the state of social security programming in the pre-War developed world when the literature of the welfare state started to gain ground dismisses any claim to confine the study of the welfare state within the developed world. Second, the finding of similar sequences of social security program development in both the developed and developing nations indicates the relevance of mainstream welfare state theories in the developing areas. This means that efforts may be made to use the welfare state theories to systematically understand social welfare programs in the developing nations, which have largely remained absent till date. Third, the findings also suggest the possibility of promoting the welfare state theories to global theories through examining their relevance in the contexts of the developing nations and including developing nations in welfare state analyses. Finally, the observed differences between the developed and the developing areas in the order between programs on sickness and those on old age and that between programs on unemployment and those on family income maintenance may suggest the importance of paying attention to the contextual issues while using welfare state theories in the developing nations.

Conclusion

During the last six decades a good number of theories and models have developed that account for the emergence of and variations among the welfare states. These theories and models are largely grounded to the developed world, and empirical studies around them have also largely remained confined to the developed world. We have observed that social security programs are increasing in the developing nations. The current state of social security program development in that part of the world is even more advanced than the state of social programming when the literature of the welfare state started to flourish in the developed world. However, there have been little efforts to understand the social welfare programs in the developing nations systematically. Examination of the relevance of the mainstream welfare state theories and models in explaining welfare programs and policies in the developing nations is also rare. The study was an attempt to examine a proposition of the functionalist perspective regarding the growth of the welfare state. Similar findings in the contexts of both the developed and the developing nations indicates the hope that further effort can be made to use the mainstream welfare state theories in understanding and explaining social welfare programs and policies in the developing areas.

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***“Is that paradoxical? Probably. But it’s also true”:
Saving Diversity Training from Itself through Cultivating a Both-And Mindset***

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Abstract

This paper engages the concepts of *individualism* and *collectivism* (I/C) through a critique of their typical polarisation by cross-cultural scholars and organizational consultants. It is argued that the tradition of applying these labels to cultures in *either/or* terms, or ranking cultures by degrees along an I/C spectrum, inhibits accurate and productive intercultural understanding. An alternate conceptualization is proposed, one which recognizes that cultures vary much more by *types* of individualism and collectivism than by degrees – and even then, oft-paradoxical similarities abound. These theoretical arguments are grounded, and directed prescriptively, in a critique of workplace diversity-training (DT) programs. Primary and secondary research is referenced to support a diagnosis that most DT fails in its objectives, especially through oversimplifying cultural differences – and especially by framing them in terms of *either/or* opposites. By way of exemplifying the *both/and* intercultural sensibility that DT should instead seek to cultivate, the author summarizes his frequently-delivered lecture on ‘Japanese individualism and Canadian collectivism.’ Other possibilities, and challenges, for putting culture’s paradoxical realities into pedagogical practice are then discussed.

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I. Introduction

The terms *individualism* and *collectivism* (henceforth in combination, I/C) comprise possibly the most commonly-referenced conceptual pairing in social science. And for a century, these labels have usually been used to describe cultures and countries in starkly contrasting terms. More nuanced reinterpretations of I/C have begun to emerge within disciplines such as psychology (e.g., Brewer and Chen, 2007) and communication studies (e.g., Wang, 2009). However, there remains a pressing need to rethink I/C in organizational/business research and consulting. Such scholars and trainers almost always promote the timeworn polarization of these terms, portraying Asian societies and psychologies as intrinsically group-oriented and Westerners as fundamentally more self-oriented. In fact, it is much more accurate and productive to focus on how such cultures manifest their own varieties of individualism and collectivism. In other words, the differences at stake are much more a matter of type than degree – and not at all a case of opposites.

This paper grounds such theoretical arguments with reference to organizational research into North American ‘diversity training’ programs, specifically those involving cultural diversity: training employees and managers from different countries, cultures, and ethnicities to work together. The opening section (Section II) discusses the author’s ongoing primary, interview-based research into diversity training (henceforth, DT). This discussion is followed, and contextualized, by Section III’s review of scholarship on the subject. These two essay sections establish the widespread shortcomings of DT and explain a key reason for this failure: the tendency to oversimplify and overstate cultural differences, including (and often primarily) those involving I/C. Very often, employees undergoing DT either reject the oversimplification, or it ironically *exacerbates* their perception of cross-cultural discrepancies.

Section IV of the essay exemplifies how a more nuanced and accurate conception of I/C can be taught, by summarizing the author’s oft-delivered lecture on how Japanese and Canadians manifest different *types* of I/C, rather than one people being *more* individualist or collectivist than the other. This explanation is supported with reference to past and present cross-cultural scholarship, although the argument hinges largely on the author’s own conception of ‘internalized’ (Japanese) and ‘externalized’ (Western) variants of individualism. Section V concludes the essay with a discussion of how such paradoxical insights, and others, can inform DT to sorely-needed beneficial effect.

II. Diversity Training: Primary and Secondary Research

The present study began in 2014 with small-scale primary research – several semi-structured interviews with workers who have undergone cultural diversity training – in Alberta, Canada. This province’s oil-based economic boom has attracted a recent, rapid influx of labour from all over the planet, leading to an increase in DT and other types of ‘diversity management’ among companies and other organizations. The author’s interviews (and more informal conversations with DT trainees) yield mostly neutral to negative reports, for a wide variety of reasons. Many criticisms testify, explicitly or implicitly, to the pressing need for DT to adopt a more nuanced conception of culture and cultural difference.

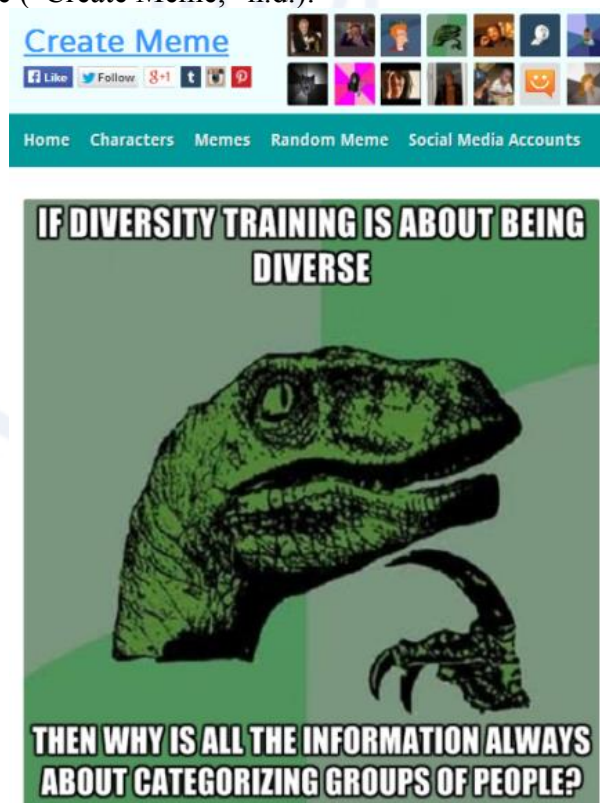
Several respondent complaints state or suggest that diversity trainers compel employees to focus on cross-cultural incompatibilities that previously were barely noticed, or were rightly downplayed or ignored. Ironically, then, training sessions meant to cultivate cultural sensitivity can actually *increase* perceived discrepancies and divisions by managers and among workers:

“Honestly, hearing over and over again about how differently different cultures think about work-related stuff, it gets you wondering how you’re going to be able to work together at all. And, this is after I didn’t think there were many big problems to begin with!” (Carl, IT worker)

A separate, also common, complaint is that diversity trainers overstate cultural differences, or that they neglect an equally important emphasis on human universals and/or the salience of individuality:

“For sure these cultural differences matter, and they’re important to learn about. But you’ve got to somehow teach this information while also emphasizing common values, and personality differences, and so on. Is that a bit paradoxical or something? Probably. But it’s true.” (Samina, 34, accountant)

These responses are drawn from a small, hence not properly representative, sample of interviewees. However, such gripes about DT are common enough to have earned their own internet meme (“Create Meme,” n.d.):



The criticisms articulated by interviewed Alberta workers are also reflected in the scholarly literature on DT, at least in the North American context. Especially since the mid-2000s, a cottage industry of research essays and consultant blogs has developed around calling for fundamental changes to DT, or for abandoning such programs altogether (e.g., Bregman, 2012; Clark, 2011; Dobbin, Kalev, & Kelly, 2007; Kowal, Franklin, & Paradies, 2013; Von Bergen, 2013). The greater gist of these findings is summed up by economist and DT consultant Marc Bendick: “If you ask what is the impact of diversity training today, you have to say 75 percent is junk and will have little impact or no impact or negative impact” (as cited in Vedantam, 2008, p. 2).

Critical commentary on DT offers up a profusion of reasons as to why diversity programs so often fall short. For oft-noted example, a clumsily-handled focus on white or white-male privilege usually results in a defensive backlash from privileged or unprivileged whites, especially when the DT is mandatory, which it usually is (Dobbin, Kalev, & Kelly, 2007; Wilson, 2013). More generally speaking, the design of DT is often given little thought, especially when organizations implement these programs to fulfill or fend off legal obligations. And even when cross-cultural understandings and attitudes do improve, this usually fails to translate into more hiring or promotion of minorities, or higher productivity, or other desired results.

Probably the most widely-cited DT researchers are Frank Dobbin, Alexandra Kalev, and Erin Kelly (e.g., Dobbin & Kalev, 2013; Dobbin, Kalev, & Kelly, 2006; Dobbin, Kalev, & Kelly, 2007; Dobbin & Kelly, 1998; Kalev, 2014). In the largest systematic analysis of DT to date, Dobbin, Kalev, and Kelly (2006, 2007) conducted survey-based and statistical analysis of 829 U.S. firms over 31 years. They mined this data to determine the effectiveness of different ‘diversity management’ approaches, specifically in relation to the share of women and minorities in management positions. Based on their findings, the authors argue that instead of DT, or DT alone, it’s much more effective to focus on mentorship programs and to appoint high-ranking diversity managers and taskforces who are responsible for specific, measurable improvements in diversity (however defined).

In many cases this would likely translate into implementing some form of ‘affirmative action,’ such as hiring or promotion quotas, to help minorities achieve organizational positions of power. Dobbin, Kalev, and Kelly rarely advise such specific practices – perhaps because the present author is misreading them, or perhaps because affirmative action is so contentious (Strauss, 2014; Dobbin & Kelly, 1998). In any case, mentoring programs, diversity task forces, and hiring or promotion quotas aren’t going to work for every organization everywhere. This is partly because DT programs operate with various objectives in mind, beyond increasing the proportional representation of minorities (Kalinowski et al., 2013). In many cases, the aim is focused on improving intercultural relations at an interpersonal level, rather than on effecting personnel changes at organization-structural scales. Within such an interactional scope, at least, there remains room for hope that DT can foster global sensitivities in practicable ways that translate into organization-operational improvements.

But this can’t happen as things stand, with DT almost always oversimplifying culture, especially by presenting cultural difference in terms of oppositional values, attitudes,

and behaviours – such as Asian societies being collectivist while western societies are individualist. Instead of propounding *either/or* polarization and generalization, intercultural research and training should simultaneously emphasize difference *and* commonality, alongside the salience of personality-based and other contextual factors. In regards to I/C, this ‘sensitization’ would prepare people, when interacting with others from any culture, to tuck in real time, alert to situational contexts, between perceiving them as being individualist *and* as being collectivist – in different ways rather than different degrees. This calls for DT teachers to cultivate within themselves, and then bring forth in trainees, a mindset and ethos that is nuanced and flexible, if not contradiction-friendly. But such attunement to ambiguity goes against the grain of both traditional social science and management theory. Practitioners in these disciplines prefer explanations and recommendations to be more clear-cut – that is, to be *either/or* – if not quantified or ideologically single-minded (Chia, 1995).

However, an aforementioned interviewee observation testifies to the mainstream applicability and accessibility of more ambivalent thinking: “Is that a bit paradoxical or something? Probably. But it’s true.” (It might also merit mentioning that this observation was articulated by an accountant.) This subtle awareness is the subject of much erudition (e.g., Chen, 2002), but it is apparently also fashionable enough to market on bags and mugs (‘Steckemgood,’ n.d.):



Many researchers report respondent complaints that DT oversimplifies – in academic terms, it ‘essentializes’ – culture and cultural difference (Kowal, Franklin, & Paradies, 2013). Intelligent laypeople know, even if instinctively or subconsciously, that such matters are more complex and contextual than an *either/or* framework can account for. However sophisticated, the *both-and* sensibility that DT needs to actuate in trainees often pre-exists on an intuitive (‘embodied’) level of latency (Chia, 1995; Wilson, 2013). The challenge for DT lies in fashioning pedagogical tools and tactics that can help people apprehend, affirm, and activate such commonsensical albeit tacit wisdom.

III. Cross-Cultural Theory and the Binary-Opposition Paradigm

So why does DT typically focus instead on framing cultural differences in terms of polar opposites? A major reason is that cross-cultural theory in general does this – especially when it’s applied to business and management (Chia, 1995). Therefore, this paper now moves beyond DT to engage cross-cultural theory more generally. The

points made against *either/or* conceptualization are then exemplified with a discussion of Japan's 'internalized individualism' (Section IV). The paper concludes with DT recommendations for putting into pedagogical practice the cultivation of a *both-and* intercultural mindset (Section V).

The default theoretical tendency to frame cultural differences in terms of polar opposites has a preeminent exemplar in Geert Hofstede (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Hofstede is a godfather figure in cross-cultural theory, and he remains the most oft-cited social scientist in the world of global business (Herdin, 2012). Based on his massive-scale, statistically-modeled surveys of multinational IBM employees undertaken during the 1980s, Hofstede ranks the world's countries along spectrums of binary-opposite values, such as authoritarianism versus egalitarianism ('power distance') and collectivism versus individualism. In the most basic terms, Hofstede defines this dimension thusly (with his son Gert Jan Hofstede):

Individualism on the one side versus its opposite, collectivism, is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. On the individualist side we find societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after her/himself and her/his immediate family. On the collectivist side, we find societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. The word collectivism in this sense has no political meaning: it refers to the group, not to the state. Again, the issue addressed by this dimension is an extremely fundamental one, regarding all societies in the world. (Hofstede & Hofstede, n.d., 'Individualism')

No doubt the fact that Hofstede remains the paramount cross-cultural scholar in most management studies (certainly among consultants or in other applied research) has something to do with both his longstanding reputation and the fact that his statistical approach appeals to those who like their answers presented as quantified, unambiguous data.

It is only recently that any traction has been gained by fundamental critiques of Hofstede's methodology, in the sense of targeting his underlying *either/or* conceptual orientation. It is true that soon after he began publishing his studies in the 1980s, other quantitatively-oriented researchers began challenging the *details* of his survey and statistical number-crunching, or argued that he needs different cultural dimensions (e.g., Triandis, Leung, Villareal, & Clack, 1985; Triandis, 1995; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Some have pointed out that cultures don't fit neatly into country categories, or argued that cultures change fundamentally over time. But most social scientists and management researchers don't question the basic idea of quantifying culture, or otherwise framing it, according to binary typologies.

However, in recent years this underlying dualism has become targeted by criticism, especially from more qualitatively-oriented researchers of culture, and often from those who are non-western or bi-cultural (Herdin, 2012). Frequently their angle of attack argues that the reification of abstractions such as I/C dualities is a distinctively

western peculiarity, rooted in Greco-Roman logic, Judaeo-Christian absolutism, a science fetish, and even phonetic alphabets (e.g. Chia, 1995; Wang, 2009):

The recent critique from Asian scholars is based, *inter alia*, on the discrepancies between the Aristotelian linear *either/or* thinking of the West, and the tradition in East Asia based on a cyclic process which can be described as a *both/and* framework (Chen, 2002) or a Taoist *yin/yang* mode of thinking (Lu and Gilmour, 2006; Wang, 2009). (Herdin, 2012, p. 607)

Certainly, Asian commentators frequently echo the belief in Asian collectivism – sometimes proudly, sometimes as a complaint. But much recent Asian scholarship, perhaps especially out of China, seeks to reject or refine this hoary antithesis between East and West. It is often observed that the “[I/C] typology cannot explain self-evaluations by the Chinese, who see themselves both as collectivists and individualists (Zhai, 1998)” (Herdin, 2012, p. 606; see also Hazen & Shi, 2012). Another common rectification of I/C emphasizes that Asian collectivism is more accurately delimited to small-group or in-group collectivism – ‘relationalism’ – in which one’s attachment is to family, workplace, or other institutions one is personally involved with, rather than to broader society or humanity as a whole (e.g., Wang & Liu, 2010). Such arguments arguably imply a ‘mirror-opposite’ Western collectivism: Liberal ideals of civic responsibility or universalism, such as human rights, mark Western societies as *more* collectivist than many Asian societies, but just on broader scales.

Most of the contemporary surge in critiques of I/C dualism has reflected the global resurgence of interest in China, being written by Chinese scholars and/or about Chinese societies (Herdin, 2012). However, the differences between Asian and Western cultures are no more pronounced than the cultural differences within each region (Saint-Jacques, 2012). Therefore, consideration of Japan sheds a distinctively illustrative light on the deficiencies of an overly binary I/C framework. In this vein, it is fairly common to assert that, for better or worse, contemporary Japanese are not as collectivistic as were previous generations – or even no longer more collectivistic than westerners (e.g., Matsumoto, 2002, cited in Saint-Jacques, 2012). Some push this point further, arguing that the collectivism of Japanese society has *always* been least as much rhetoric as reality (e.g., Befu, 1980; Mauer & Sugimoto, 1986).

As well as deconstructing collectivism, some of these thinkers work to convey a distinctly Japanese individualism. Matsumoto (2002) declares that “there is no support for the claim that Japanese are less individualistic and more collectivistic than Americans” (p. 41, as cited in Saint-Jacques, 1941). He goes on to theorize contemporary Japan’s “individualistic collectivism,” which blends traditional group orientation with modern self-reliance. Yamazaki (1994) emphasizes “the universal principle of individuation, which transcends culture” (p. 120). He then proposes the concept of “gentle individualism,” which distinguishes Japanese from more ‘rugged’ Western variants of his “pre-cultural ... individuation” (p. 119). Along similar lines, management scholar Aoki (1998) coined “horizontal hierarchy” to capture the paradox that conservative corporate Japan, however authoritarian in many regards, prioritizes ‘consensual’ individual input into decision-making.

Such writings have influenced the present author's comparative discussions of Japanese and Canadian societies in intercultural-communication university courses and in DT workshops. The pedagogical aim is to capture the involved cross-cultural complexity and conundrums, but all the while keeping content accessible to educated laypeople – college students and organizational employees. This paper's following section encapsulates some such lessons. This illustrates how DT, and intercultural education generally, can avoid oversimplifying I/C without becoming too vague or abstruse. (On the following couple pages, readers will note a rhetorical shift towards comparatively conversational prose.) Students and trainees come away from these sessions on 'Japanese individualism and Canadian collectivism' with sharpened awareness that cultures are at once distinct and alike, and that situation-specific contexts determine which element – difference or similarity – is most interactionally salient in any encounter.

IV. Japan's 'internalized' individualism

Hofstede ranks Japan as being more egalitarian and individualistic than most other Asian cultures, but more hierarchical and collectivistic than any western country. It scores a 54 in 'power distance' (authoritarianism versus egalitarianism) and 46 in 'individualism,' compared with Canada's respective 39 and 80 ("What about Japan?" n.d.; "What about Canada?" n.d.). And indeed, in some basic senses, Japanese culture is obviously more collectivist than Canadian society. However, in equally basic senses Canadians are at least as group-oriented and conformist as the Japanese. For a couple random examples, our neighbourhoods are more cookie-cutter, and our sports fans are more inclined to mob behaviour.

Less superficially speaking: in key respects, and for better or worse, North American societies operate under a more 'nanny state' mentality than Japan does. Much of this involves laws restricting individual behaviour – that is, individual liberty. Canadian bars close too early. And on the walk home, one is not going to grab a beer from the vending machine. Plus, one is definitely not going to enjoy a cigarette at that bar, not to mention at a restaurant after your meal. Another basic respect in which Japanese society is more libertarian – and therefore individualistic – involves free speech. Censorship laws between Canada and Japan vary in type as much as in degree. But in key senses or cases, Japan places less restrictions on offensive discourse and pornography.

Canada's hate speech laws would banish from the roads Japan's notorious *uyoku dantai* buses, criminalizing the xenophobic and neo-imperialist messages festooned along their sides and blaring from their loudspeakers. And it was only in June 2014 that Japan outlawed the possession of child porn – while preserving the legality of manga or anime cartooning every taboo and/or forbidden form of sexuality imaginable, expressly in the name of free speech and artistic freedom. There are many reasons for this Japanese variant of libertarianism. Japan's postwar constitution was written largely by American political idealists exercising the free hand they didn't have at home to create democracy from scratch. As well, the Japanese are self-governing enough that giving them free access to booze, horror porn, and fascist ideology does not lead to social anarchy. Arguably, it wouldn't in Canada either, but that's an argument for another paper.

This fact of Japanese self-governance or self-discipline leads to a second aspect of Japanese individualism – what the present author terms their *internalized* or *aesthetic individualism* (with a nod to Matsumoto’s (2002) “individual collectivism” and Yamazaki’s (1994) “gentle individualism”). It has been observed that the Japanese exaltation of emotional reserve, psychological and physical discipline (*ganbare*), and dedication to study or other duty, all demand a mastery of self that is intensely self-focused and therefore individualistic, if ‘inversely’ so – a matter of self-control and self-improvement rather than immediate self-gratification (Miike, 2012; Chen, 2002).

Moreover, partly in response to social pressure for outward conformity, the Japanese place much greater emphasis than North Americans do on having, as a defining component of self-identity, an artistic, aesthetic, or craft-based hobby, from flower arrangement or karate, to ham radio or jazz-record collection (Reischauer & Jansen, 1977). When it comes to such amateur expertise, broadly comparative demographic statistics between Japan and Canada aren’t available. However, with an estimated one million Japanese having studied haiku under a teacher’s guidance (“Haiku,” 2013, para. 2), Japan boasts one of the world’s largest populations of poets per capita. And of course, Japan in general is famed worldwide for its artistic sensibilities – the creation of art being typically if not intrinsically self-oriented.

This internalized or aesthetic individualism definitely differs from western individualism: Westerners are much more concerned with projecting the self outward than we are interested in perfecting it inwardly. Western individualism – which is the definition of individualism most widely disseminated – prioritizes having one’s prerogatives and perspective affirmed by others (Miike, 2012). But it is clear upon reflection that neither variant of individualism – externalized or internalized – is more intensely experienced or richly meaningful than the other.

V. Paradox and pedagogy – directions and challenges for future research

Lectures and discussion, couched in plain language and grounded with reference to everyday realities, are effective in themselves at illuminating paradoxes such as ‘Japanese individualism’ (and Canadian collectivism). But more than conscious, explicit knowledge is involved in the *both-and* intercultural sensibility which DT needs to activate within participant subjects. The transformational aim for trainees is for them to become more naturally adept in their intercultural relations at oscillating, in tune with situational contexts, between recognizing cultural difference, common human nature, and individual personality. This sensitivity is more a habitual attitude than an explicit behavioural code to remember and adhere to. Hence:

[D]iversity work concerned with changing behaviour cannot focus upon rational thinking alone Attending to the enactment of difference in everyday life ... demands a more experimental ethic of cultivation than more traditional forms of diversity training might perhaps allow. (Wilson, 2013, pp. 75-76)

Imparting such tacit knowledge should combine the traditional instruction of explicit knowledge with *tacit* learning – if not through real-life interactions then through pedagogical approaches such as role-playing, story-telling, priming activities, etc. (Wilson, 2013; Miron-Spektor, Gino, & Argote, 2011). However, little research has been published on integrating such implicit-knowledge instructional tactics into DT

programs and sessions. Wilson (2013) offers a partial exception to this dearth of information, describing and discussing a few ‘prejudice reduction’ exercises. One of these activities is common in intercultural-communication classes and workshops, including DT sessions: A list of identity markers is called out – from more obvious distinctions such as ethnicity, gender and age, to less visible categories such as social class, sexual preference, religion, and criminal record. Attendees stand up whenever they self-identify with a listed label. Because of category overlaps, typically each participant will find themselves standing at least once with everybody else. Wilson (2013) states that this “serves to remind people that social space is constantly divided by habits of categorisation that ... create ‘false antimonies between groups’ ... at the expense of recognising other commonalities” (p. 78).

But the other DT activities Wilson (2013) describes are less broadly applicable to organizational milieus. These “prejudice reduction” exercises are designed by an international non-profit specializing in conflict-resolution for highly fraught social issues, “including ‘gang violence’ in Chicago, growing Islamophobia in London, anti-Semitism in Vienna and community work following ... riots” (p. 73). The workshop activities often target racism at a habitual and emotional level specifically by having participants tap into and articulate feelings of *shame*. For example, ethnic-minority attendees are afforded cathartic sessions in which they ‘vent’ about episodes of discrimination they have suffered. In another exercise, an identity category is named repeatedly, and each time, participants say aloud the first thought that comes to mind. Typically, the ensuing list of descriptors forces the utterer to publically confront their own prejudices, which often are heretofore unacknowledged and unexamined.

Such discomfiting drills and discussions are designed to address intercultural tensions in which there is at least the threat of blatant discrimination, if not violence. Yet Wilson (2013) proffers some cautionary comments. For one thing:

[W]hilst much work goes into ensuring that participants feel safe in being uncomfortable, the resonances ... of discomfiting emotions make it very difficult to predict what kind of effects the workshop might have beyond the event. ... [I]t might be the case that more needs to be done to investigate the lasting benefits of such workshops, [and] perhaps more also needs to be done to understand the long-term consequences of staging such discomfiting exercises. (p. 79)

She also notes that attendees always volunteer for these ‘prejudice reduction’ workshops; client organizations are not allowed to make employee participation mandatory. Participants therefore recognize beforehand that their biases are problematic, and they have sought out this opportunity for self-improvement. This won’t be the case for all DT trainees, especially because most such programs are not voluntary. Wilson (2013) adds an intercultural concern:

Finally, there are worries about which types of participants may feel alienated: Whilst the atmospherics and emotive nature of the workshops are clearly productive, they are arguably underwritten by a series of cultural norms. Confrontational approaches and the direct communication of negative messages – along with direct eye contact and physical touch – are essential to the workshop programme and yet can be highly offensive or disrespectful to a

variety of cultures – a problem that is yet to find an effective solution despite being vital to such intercultural work and dialogue. (p. 80)

So, this type of ‘embodied-learning’ exercise, with its emphasis on intense emotion and even interpersonal contention, likely has limited transferability across various types of DT milieus. Wilson’s (2013) activities might need to be modified – ‘toned down,’ in some manner – for usage in workplaces where intercultural communication is a challenge but not (yet) a zone of outright dysfunction.

However, there is no doubt that some form of non-traditional pedagogy is necessary to cultivate the *both-and* transcultural mindset that must be targeted by DT, whatever its organizational milieu. Indeed, recent research is indicating that attunement to ambiguity and ambivalence can boost overall brainpower – not only involving intercultural relations, but more generally. Reporting experimental results, Miron-Spektor, Gino, and Argote (2011) argue that strategic creativity, “defined as the generation of novel yet useful ideas or solutions to a problem” (p. 230), can be markedly enhanced by the adoption of “paradoxical frames”: “*mental templates individuals use to embrace seemingly contradictory statements or dimensions of a task or situation*” (p. 229, italics in original). They explain the process in detail:

Instead of eliciting ‘either/or’ thinking, paradoxical frames elicit the type of ‘both/and’ thinking that can result in the discovery of links between opposing forces and the generation of new frameworks and ideas (Lewis, 2000; Luscher & Lewis, 2008). When adopting a paradoxical frame, one acknowledges the tension between opposing task elements, yet understands that combining opposing task elements tempers the undesirable side effects of each element alone and leads to new solutions that integrate both elements. (p. 230)

The authors describe a number of priming exercises that can prompt this ‘strategic-creative’ mindset in workers and students. In one experiment, participants complete a Remote Association Task (RAT) (Mednick, 1962), commonly used to measure creativity through word-association tests. Subjects were ‘primed’ by reading product descriptions that emphasized affordability, quality, or – paradoxically – both. Those reading about the seeming contrariety of low price but high quality went on to score more highly in the RAT tests. In another experiment, some subjects were asked to write down paradoxical statements, whereas other subjects were only given instructions to write ‘interesting’ statements, before performing the Duncker candle problem (Duncker, 1945), followed by a brief creative-writing exercise. The paradox-primed participants performed better on both tasks. Depending on the reproducibility of such findings, it’s feasible that lectures and activities built around cross-cultural paradoxes (such as ‘Japanese individualism’ and ‘Canadian collectivism’) could simultaneously improve intercultural savvy alongside other creative capacities.

More study and experimentation are needed to determine what ‘tacit learning’ exercises can best augment traditional teaching techniques in DT, so as to prepare trainees for the cross-cultural problematics and paradoxes that are an increasingly ubiquitous fact of life – suddenly even in Edmonton, North America’s northernmost large city. But it is no stretch to presume that one’s critical faculties are sharpened by whatever education and experience enhances willingness to second-guess ingrained presumptions; and to engage and embrace complexity, rather than just trying to

reduce and control it. Indeed, in this age of globalization effective intercultural education – simultaneously illuminating and softening differences in worldviews – makes not just for better thinkers, but more cosmopolitan citizens. But as presently practiced, DT's *either/or* oversimplification often exacerbates ill will between cultures, and is usually at best fruitless. Therefore, however much *both-and* thinking goes against the grain of Western cultural orientations and institutional traditions, thereby making it hard to articulate much less actuate, it is now necessary to start this paradigm shift.



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Product Harm Crisis Management: A Systematic Review and Future Research Directions

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Abstract

Product harm crisis management has caught much attention among academics and practitioners because product safety issues received increasing customer and media attentions in recent years. This study systematically reviewed 155 articles that investigate product harm crisis management published between 1993 and 2013. The sample articles are from multiple disciplines of literatures, such as marketing, management and communications. We developed a summary of article distributions based on various classifications such as year of publication, product type investigated and research methodology implemented. We identified five major research domains based on Situational Crisis Communication Theory and summarized the research focus and major findings for each research domain. This study concludes with future research trend in product harm crisis management literature.

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Introduction

Product harm crises are defined as well publicized instances of defective or dangerous products (Dawar & Pillutla, 2000). Well known examples are Mattel's massive toys recalls in 2007 (Teagarden, 2009) and Toyota's massive automobile recalls since a fatal car crash in 2009 (Andrews, Simon, Tian, & Zhao, 2011). Defective product can harm consumers, companies as well as the society. The deaths, injuries, and property damage arising from faulty products are estimated to cost the U.S. alone more than \$900 billion annually (CPSC, 2012). During a product harm crisis, consumers receive negative information and thus create negative attitudes toward the company (Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994). Tackling the cost involved in the crisis, enhancing existing operations, and rebuilding reputation in the long-run are critical. Therefore, understanding on product harm crisis is beneficial to operations managers and the whole society.

However, there is not yet a comprehensive and systematic review on product harm crisis in the literature. Therefore, the objectives of this study are:

1. To describe product harm crisis related articles distribution by various classifications
2. To summarize the main findings in previous studies
3. To conclude research trend and suggest future research opportunities

Methodology

Product harm crisis is an inter-disciplinary issue. Therefore, sample articles are collected from the following five electronic databases to capture a wide range of journal articles.

1. Business Source Complete
2. Science Direct
3. ABI/INFORM
4. Emerald Fulltext
5. JSTOR

We conducted a full text search of the journal articles by relevant keywords "product harm crisis", "product recall", "product crisis" and "recall crisis" published from 1993 to 2013. 155 articles from 104 journals were collected as sample.

Article Distribution

This section presents article distribution based on year of publication, journal, product type and country researched, and analytical approach.

Distribution of Articles by Year of Publication

Figure 1 shows the article distribution by year from 1993 to 2013. Product harm crisis is getting much attention, especially after 2008, which may relate to the increasing product harm incidents, for instance, 2007 was called as “the year of recall” in which many China-made products were recalled (Beamish & Bapuji, 2008).

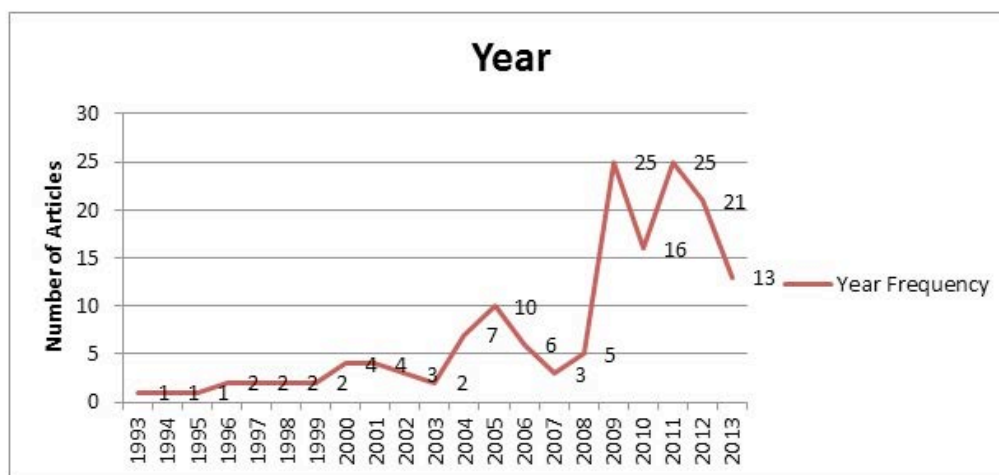


Figure 1. Article distribution by year of publication

Distribution of Articles by Journal

Sample articles were collected from 104 journals. Table 1 presents a list of 14 journals that published three or more product harm crisis related articles. It shows a wide range of disciplines, from food safety to marketing, management to communication management. The top one is Public Relations Review, which publishes articles examining communication between companies and the public, public relations, marketing and management.

Table 1

Journals Publishing Three or More Articles on Product Harm Crisis

Journal	Number of articles
Public Relations Review	12
British Food Journal	4
Business Horizons	3
Corporate Communications	3
Corporate Reputation Review	3
International Journal of Production Economics	3
International Journal of Production Research	3
Journal of Business Ethics	3
Journal of Marketing	3
Journal of Marketing Management	3
Journal of Marketing Research	3
Management & Organization Review	3
Management Science	3
Organization Development Journal	3

Distribution of Articles by Product Type Researched

As shown in Figure 2, 108 out of 155 sample articles (69.68%) conducted researches on one product type only while 25 articles (16.13%) conducted researches on multi-product types. The rest (22 articles (14.19%)) did not mention a particular product type. They focused on general issues. For example, ways to increase the effectiveness of recall messages (Berman, 1999; Gibson, 1997, 2000a; Gurau & Serban, 2005; Nawasaki, Oono, & Inoue, 2009) and supply chain issues in product recalls (Chao, Irvani, & Savaskan, 2009; Lyles, Flynn, & Frohlich, 2008; Tse, Tan, Chung, & Lim, 2011). Figure 2 presents the frequently researched product types were food (47 articles (30.32%)), followed by automobile and parts (32 articles (20.65%)), toys (10 articles (6.45%)) and pharmaceuticals (10 articles (6.45%)). The distribution suggests future research may consider products other than food and automobiles.

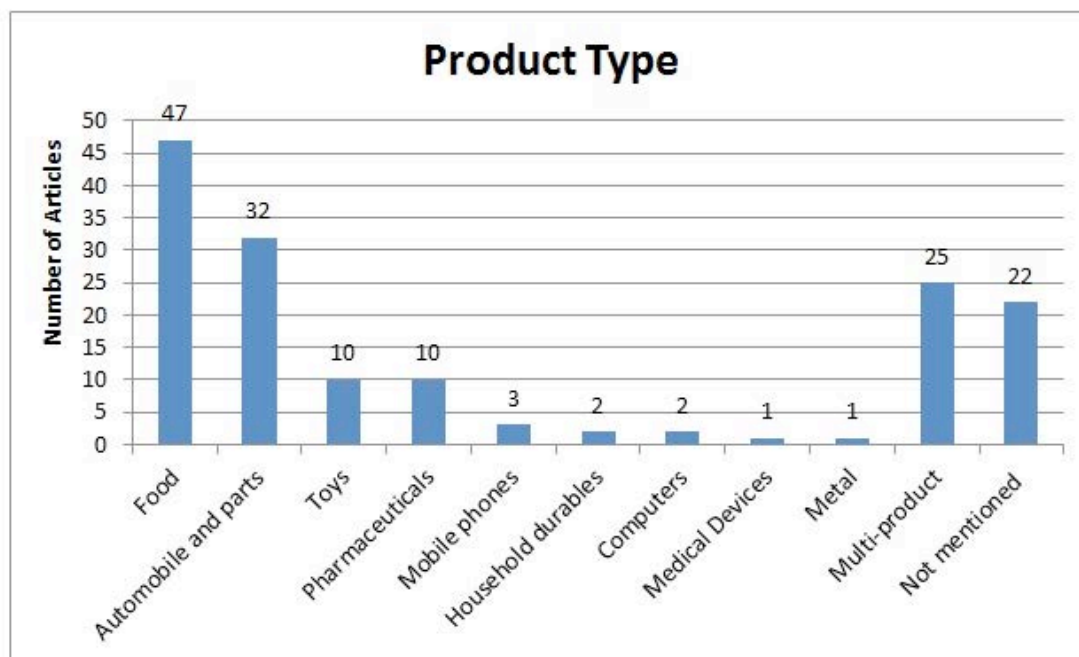


Figure 2. Article distribution by product type researched

Distribution of Articles by Country Researched

As shown in Figure 3, 105 out of 155 sample articles (67.74%) conducted researches on single country. Only 7 of them (4.52%) involved multiple countries. Therefore, more cross-countries researches are suggested to compare the differences between various cultures. The rest (43 articles (27.74%)) did not mention a particular country. Some of these articles discussed issues in a global perspective. For instance, Toyota had massive vehicle recalls globally since the end of 2009. Conceptual papers discussed the case in a global sense (Andrews et al., 2011; Heller & Darling, 2011, 2012; Kumar & Schmitz, 2011). Other general issues were examined irrespective of countries, include effective recall systems (Gibson, 2000a; Kumar, Dieveney, & Dieveney, 2009; Nawasaki et al., 2009; Piramuthu, Farahani, & Grunow, 2013; Wynn, Ouyang, ter Hofstede, & Fidge, 2011) and optimal recall time (Sezer & Haksöz, 2012).

Figure 3 shows that United States (65 articles (41.94%)) and China (16 articles (10.32%)) were the most popular countries, while other countries contributed less than 2.58% respectively. It is surprising that the large Japanese, European and Australian markets received little attention.

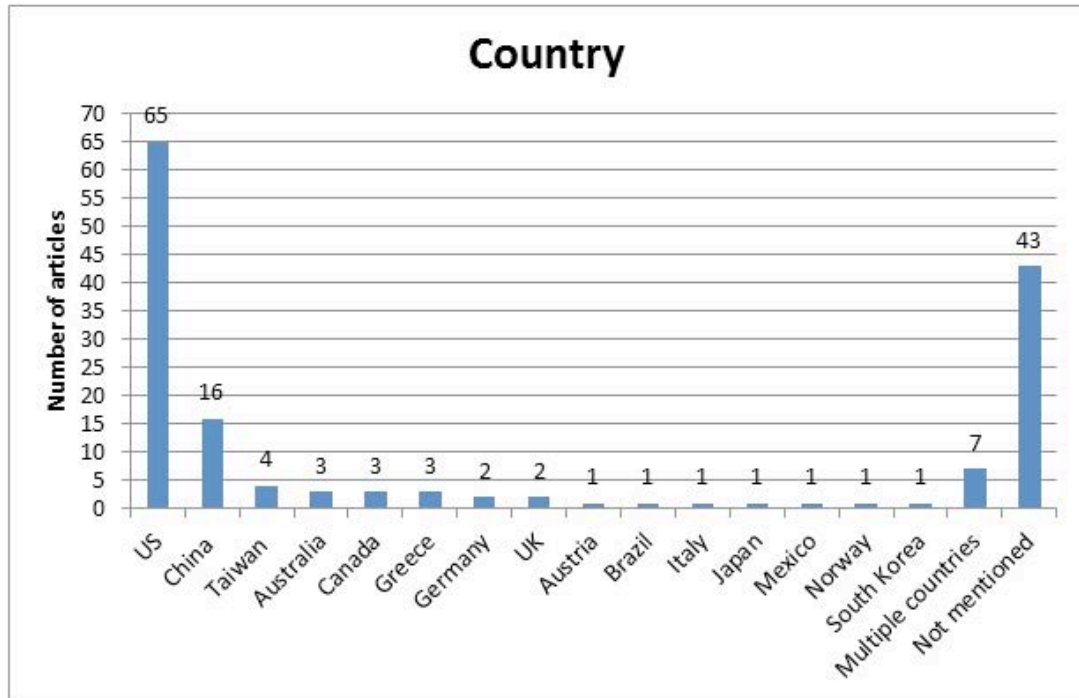


Figure 3. Article distribution by country researched

Figure 4 shows the distribution of the sub-sample of single-country researches (105 articles) by continent. The largest proportion (70 articles (66.67%)) is the Americas including the U.S. and Canada, while there are only a few works researched in Europe (10 articles (9.52%)) and Oceania (3 articles (2.86%)). More works are suggested to study on Japan, countries in Europe, and Oceania such as Australia and New Zealand.

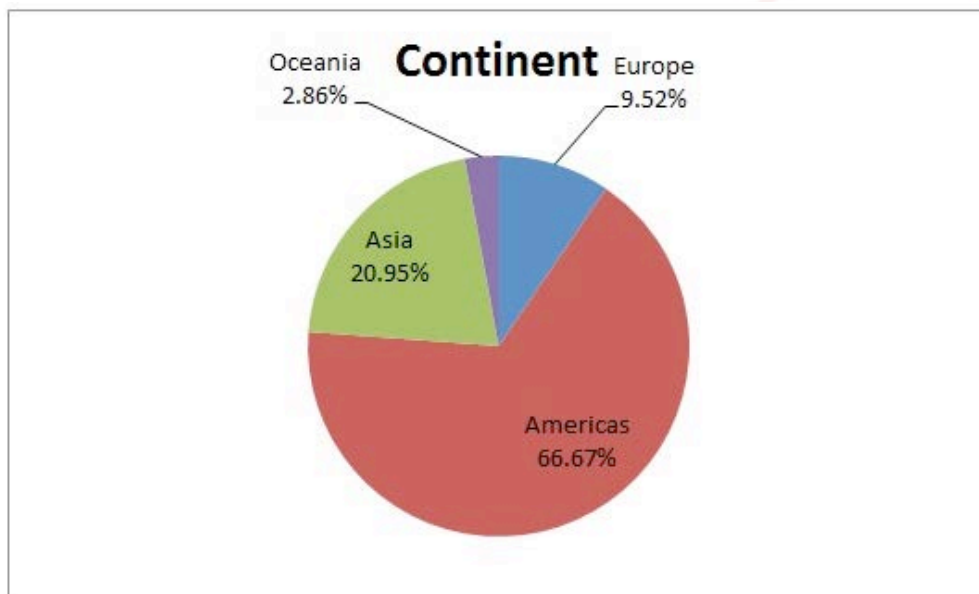


Figure 4. Article distribution by continent researched (single country researched)

Distribution of Articles by Analytical Approaches

Figure 5 shows that the most frequently used analytical approaches are empirical studies (100 articles (64.52%)). The rest are articles do not present any empirical data. 45 articles (29.03%) are conceptual works and there are 10 mathematical modeling papers (6.45%).

The majority is empirical studies in our sample. A possible reason is the linkage between the crisis and stakeholders. Unlike internal crisis of a company, product harm is negative publicity to the public (Xie & Peng, 2009). Therefore, researchers focused on investigating suitable management concerning stakeholders, rather than developing models for internal optimisation. The focus of the reviewed empirical works is the suitability of different crisis response strategies in order to lessen the harm, and the effect of different moderators involved in product harm crisis. On the other hand, the focus of modeling papers is on developing mathematical models on supply chain management (Piramuthu et al., 2013; Tse & Tan, 2012), recall planning such as optimal recall time (Sezer & Haksöz, 2012) and calculation of direct recall cost (Marino, 1997; Velthuis, Meuwissen, & Huirne, 2009). Future research may consider developing more optimization models for internal management.

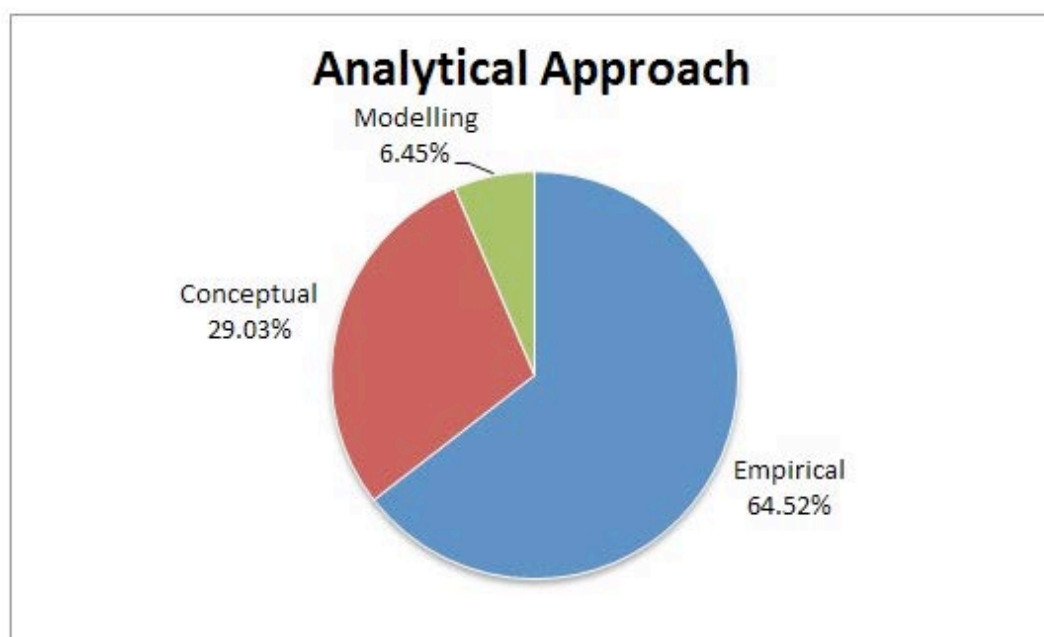


Figure 5. Article distribution by analytical approach

Research Domain

This section presents our classification of research domains and the article distribution by research domain.

Our research domain classification is presented in Figure 6. It is based on the structure in the Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), which suggested a framework on crisis management and communication (Coombs, 2007b). SCCT serves

as one of the key theories in crisis management literature. Coombs (2004) explained that SCCT is evolved from a number of studies that examined how a crisis might shape the selection of crisis response strategies and examined the effect of crisis response strategies on organizational reputation e.g (Bradford & Garrett, 1995; Coombs & Schmidt, 2000; Coombs, 1999; Coombs & Holladay, 1996). It is recently developed and enhanced by researchers in the crisis management literature (Claeys, Cauberghe, & Vyncke, 2010; Coombs, 2004, 2007a, 2007b; Coombs & Holladay, 2002, 2008; Jeong, 2009; Sisco, Collins, & Zoch, 2010). Previous review paper also studied the application of the theory in the crisis management literature (Avery, Lariscy, Kim, & Hocke, 2010). Product harm crisis is within crisis management, SCCT thus helps to provide the classification of the key research domains in this review.

The first domain is “Responsibility in causing product harm crisis”. The SCCT identified crisis clusters based upon attributions of crisis responsibility (Coombs, 2007b). In product harm crisis, manufacturers are seen as direct defendants towards the crisis (Kumar & Schmitz, 2011; Luo, 2008). However, there are other parties accountable. Therefore, examining the responsibility in causing the crisis is one key domain.

The second domain is “Product harm crisis impact”. A crisis will create reputational threat, which is related to behavioral intentions such as purchase intention and support for an organization (Coombs, 2007b), which in turns affect the firm performance. These impacts are critical to companies. Thus, the impact of product harm crisis serves as another key domain.

The third domain is “Product harm crisis moderators”. The SCCT suggested a number of factors affect the shaping of negative effects during a crisis, including the reputation, crisis history and crisis severity (Coombs, 2004). The model suggested moderators can affect the level of crisis impact level. Therefore, we classified the role of moderators in product harm crisis as one key domain.

The last domain identified from the SCCT is “Product harm crisis response strategy”, which is a key component in the SCCT. The post-crisis communication between companies and stakeholders are critical. SCCT aimed to develop guidelines to utilize crisis response strategies to reduce negative crisis impact (Coombs, 2007b). Therefore, discussion on different crisis response strategies choices is also an important domain.

The SCCT provides a basic structure to identify the key domains of product harm crisis management, as one kind of corporate crisis. In addition, we identified one more domain, “Product harm crisis management with supply chain partners”. Product recall is a reverse logistics activity that withdraws goods from consumers (Jayaraman, Patterson, & Rolland, 2003). Managing recalls after a product harm crisis is a part of the reverse supply chain, because it requires logistical planning to take the product back efficiently and effectively from consumers (Berman, 1999; Hora, Bapuji, & Roth, 2011). Product recalls interrupt the supply chain and affect the players across it. Traceability could help building trust and long-term relationships among supply chain partners and consumers to reduce recall cost (Kumar & Schmitz, 2011), so maintaining the traceability by cooperation between supply chain partners is essential.

Therefore, how to manage well the crisis with supply chain partners is also a key domain.

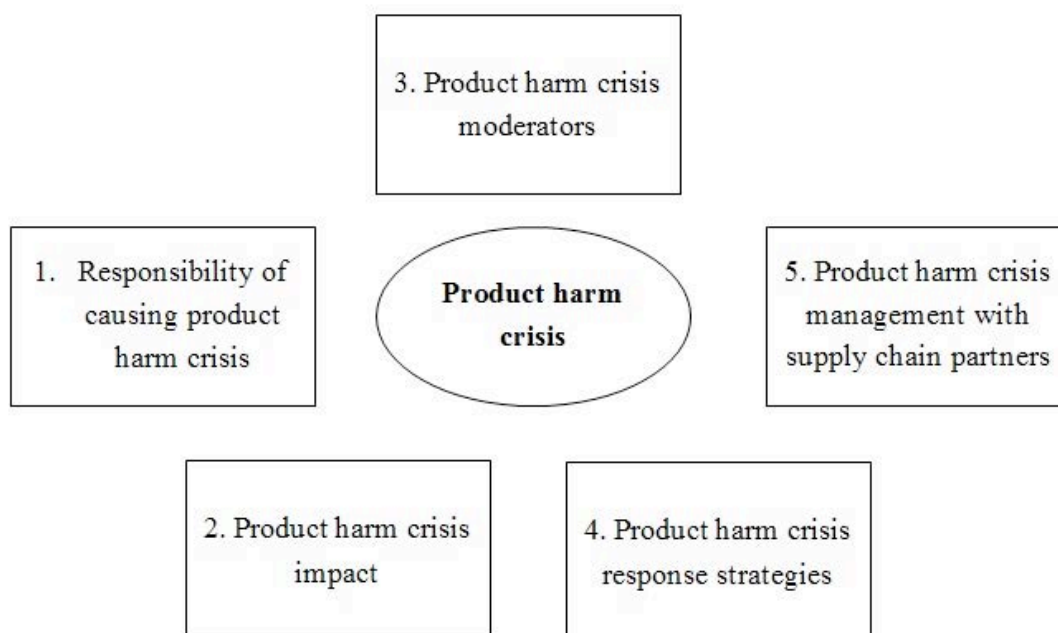


Figure 6. Research domains

As shown in Figure 7, the largest domain in this review is “Product harm crisis response strategy” (64 articles (41.29%)), followed by 48 articles (30.97%) in “Product harm crisis moderators”, 18 articles (11.61%) in “Product harm crisis impact”, 16 articles (10.32%) in “Product harm crisis management with supply chain partners”, 5 articles (3.23%) on “Other issues” and 4 articles (2.58%) in “Responsibility in causing product harm crisis”. “Other issues” include an overview of food recalls and the hazard involved (Salin, Darmasena, Wong, & Luo, 2006), the difference between nature of recalls issued by government and manufacturers (Rupp & Taylor, 2002), business ethics issues in product recalls (Arce, 2005; Roman & Moore, 2012) and a review paper discussed on the role of theories the literature (Coombs, 2007a). Little attention had been paid to the causes of product harm crisis. We believe building a deeper understanding on the causes would be useful for effective prevention. A complete list of reviewed articles classified in different research domains is presented in Appendix A.

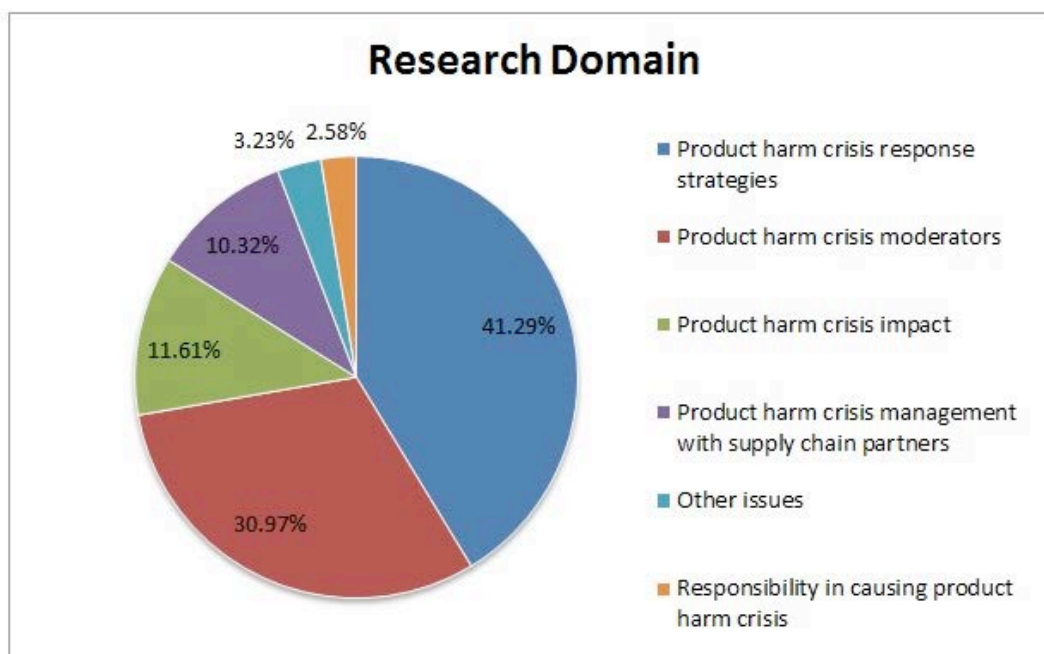


Figure 7. Article distribution by research domain

Summary of Research Issues and Findings

This section presents a summary of key issues and findings in the classified research domains.

Responsibility in Causing Product Harm Crisis

Only 4 articles (2.58%) focused on responsibility in this domain. Outsourcing to manufactures in low cost regions is a common strategy to save production cost but this can lead to quality control problem. Manufacturers in these regions are viewed as the main defendants on making defective products (Luo, 2008). Nonetheless, with globalization of the supply chains, questions towards the responsibility for such crisis have been raised. For example, Beamish and Bapuji (2008) indicated the main reason of toy recalls in 2007 were flaws in product designs which conducted in the toy companies headquarters, rather than poor manufacturing in Asian factories. Teagarden (2009) suggested the causes of defective products is poor manufacturing in China factories as well as U.S. retailers who pressured the suppliers for lower prices. Moreover, the question of responsibility had been raised for products which are components of another brand such as tires for vehicles (Noggle & Palmer, 2005). It is appeared that the responsibility towards product harm crisis not the sole responsibility of any party, more future works are needed to reveal the root causes and responsibility to assist the crisis prevention.

Product Harm Crisis Impact

There are 18 articles (11.61%) belong to this domain. Researches generally found product harm crisis involve direct cost deriving from recall procedures (McDonald, 2009; Velthuis et al., 2009) and indirect cost, which is the negative impact including financial performance such as stock prices (Govindaraj & Jaggi, 2004), sales (Van

Heerde, Helsen, & Dekimpe, 2007), market share and penetration (Ma, Zhang, Li, & Wang, 2010); public attitude and buying behaviour such as purchase intention and demand (Marsh, Schroeder, & Mintert, 2004), brand loyalty (Eagle, Hawkins, Kitchen, & Rose, 2005), public attitudes (Piotrowski & Guyette, 2010) and brand image (Custance, Walley, & Jiang, 2012; Gao, Knight, Zhang, & Mather, 2013), despite some found the positive impact such as accident number was reduced by product recalls (Bae & Benítez-Silva, 2011, 2013). It is appeared that few works had been done on investigating the direct cost. More researches are needed as companies must handle the direct cost after a product harm crisis.

Product Harm Crisis Moderators

There are 48 articles (30.97%) discussed on the moderators affect the crisis impact. This is the second largest domain. Other than the three factors suggested in SCCT (i.e., reputation, crisis history and crisis severity) (Coombs, 2007b; Coombs & Holladay, 2002), researchers also examined the effect of other moderators. Internal moderators include product type, firm characteristics, level of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and timing of recall. External moderators include external effect and consumer characteristics. Nine moderators will be discussed in this section.

Moderators in SCCT - reputation.

Reputation is a key moderator in SCCT. Researchers have different findings. Some found that higher reputed firms suffer less from a product harm crisis (Cleeren, Dekimpe, & Helsen, 2008; Dawar & Pillutla, 2000; Haas-Kotzegger & Schlegelmilch, 2013; Jung, 2011; Siomkos & Shrivastava, 1993; Siomkos, 1999; Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994) while others revealed that higher reputed firms suffer more (Korkofingas & Ang, 2011; Rupp, 2004). The reputation effect depends on situations. Moowoon and Haunschild (2006) indicated the reputation effect depends on the uniqueness of products and organizational identity. Grunwald and Hempelmann (2010) found the reputation of high quality brands can help protecting manufacturers from receiving blame, but do not have positive effect on perceptions on problem severity. Lei, Dawar, and Gürhan-Canli (2012) found brands with positive prior reputation leads to less blame to the brand, but only when the crisis is considered similar to other crises in the same industry.

Moderators in SCCT - crisis history.

Crisis history is another key moderator in SCCT. Researchers found the absence of recall history causes companies suffer more. Wang, Salin, Hooker, and Leatham (2002) indicated an initial food recall is associated with reduced financial returns and higher volatility while repeated recalls are not associated with strong reactions. Rupp (2004) also observed the significant goodwill losses for the initial recall of an automobile model. On the other hand, Thirumalai and Sinha (2011) revealed the benefits of the presence of recall history. The likelihood of recalls decreases with the number of prior recalls, indicating the presence of learning of organizations. Seo, Jang, Miao, Almanza, and Behnke (2013) discovered that firms with a past history suffered less severe impacts on stock price compared to firms that had no prior safety incidents.

Moderators in SCCT - crisis severity.

Crisis severity is also a key moderator in SCCT. Generally, researchers found the higher the severity of the crisis, the impact are more negative (De Matos & Rossi, 2007; Haas-Kotzegger & Schlegelmilch, 2013; Korkofingas & Ang, 2011; Laufer, Gillespie, McBride, & Gonzalez, 2005; Siomkos, Triantafillidou, Vassilikopoulou, & Tsiamis, 2010; Sun, Chen, & Wang, 2012; Thomsen & McKenzie, 2001). Vassilikopoulou, Lepetsos, Siomkos, and Chatzipanagiotou (2009) found the importance of several factors varies with the crisis severity level. Organizational response and time are the most important factors in medium-extent product harm crises, whereas social responsibility and external effects influence consumer purchase intentions most in severe crises.

Internal moderators - product type.

The negative effect of product harm crisis depends on product type. Some products are found more vulnerable than the others. For example, food (Haas-Kotzegger & Schlegelmilch, 2013; Zhao, Li, & Flynn, 2013), drugs and toys (Chu, Lin, & Prather, 2005), automobile (Chen & Nguyen, 2013; Yeung & Ramasamy, 2012). In the automobile industry, particularly, Rupp (2004) found the type of defective components matters. For example, defective heater recalls are less costly while air bag recalls lead to larger equity losses. Yeung and Ramasamy (2012) also observed some products are more vulnerable when negative impact does not diminish over time, including automobiles, luxury goods and apparels while financial services, beverages and electrical appliances are less vulnerable.

Product types in terms of other nature and characteristics were also examined. For example, in terms of country of manufacture, Laufer, Gillespie, and Silvera (2009) suggested consumers view less favourably towards products manufactured in developing countries such as China. In terms of substitutability, Bunniran, McCaffrey III, Bentley, and Bouldin (2009) found substitute products appeared to be affected more in a product harm event.

Internal moderators - firm characteristics.

Moderator effect of firm characteristics also provides some insights. For instance, firm size is a factor to influence the magnitude of the impact on stock price (Salin & Hooker, 2001; Seo et al., 2013). Salin and Hooker (2001) observed that stock prices fell immediately after recalls for smaller firms, but not necessary for larger firms. Moreover, Thirumalai and Sinha (2011) indicated that firms with a research and development focus have a higher likelihood of another recall. Zhao et al. (2013) found that Chinese companies suffered greater financial losses than their Western competitors.

Internal moderators - level of corporate social responsibility (CSR).

CSR is the perceived "societal obligation" of an organization (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Examples are environmental conservation, employee support and fair consumer treatment. Researchers found the crisis impact depends on CSR level. High CSR level can moderate the negative impact (Assiouras, Ozgen, & Skourtis, 2013; Jung, 2011;

Kong, 2012; Minor & Morgan, 2011; Vassilikopoulou, Siomkos, Chatzipanagiotou, & Pantouvakis, 2009) and low CSR level firms suffered more (Lin, Chen, Chiu, & Lee, 2011; Siomkos et al., 2010). However, some scholars suggested CSR is more effective in some aspects. For example, Klein and Dawar (2004) found CSR can moderate the crisis impact on consumers' brand evaluations only for CSR-sensitive-consumers.

Internal moderators - timing of recall.

Time serves as a moderator in product harm crisis. Magno (2012) revealed the longer the time taken to start the recall after primary signals of potential injuries, the more negative is the post-recall brand attitude. This suggests firms should immediate recall defective products as earlier as possible. However, Gao, Knight, Zhang, Mather, and Tan (2012) discovered the "early information" effect in consumer blame in a multi-brand product harm crisis that the first accused brand get more harm than late-reported ones.

External moderators - external effect.

Researchers examined how the external parties such as the press and government agencies affect the product harm crisis impact. Positive external effect refers to external parties hold positive attitude towards the troubled company such as reporting its social responsible act during the crisis (Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994). Positive external effect helps positive changes of consumer attitude (Siomkos & Shrivastava, 1993; Siomkos, 1999; Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994; Wei, Lo, & Lu, 2010). Conversely, negative external effect causes more negative consumer attitude towards the company (Sun et al., 2012; Yannopoulou, Koronis, & Elliott, 2010). Moreover, extensive news coverage was found to increase the harm by the crisis and caused the companies suffer more (Feng, Keller, Wang, & Wang, 2010; Seo et al., 2013).

External moderators - consumer characteristics.

Researchers indicated demographic characteristics of consumers such as age and gender affect the extent of attitude changes towards the companies. Laufer and Gillespie (2004) found women blame a company more than men for a product harm crisis because they feel more personally vulnerable. Older customers tend to blame the company less (Laufer, Silvera, & Meyer, 2005; Silvera, Meyer, & Laufer, 2012).

Other consumer characteristics were also examined in the literature. While Siomkos, Rao, and Narayanan (2001) indicated there was not a strong difference in changes of pre-crisis and post-crisis attitude between positively and negatively oriented individuals, other consumer characteristics were observed to affect the extent of product harm crisis impact. Dawar and Lei (2009) revealed that consumers with lower brand familiarity are more sensitive and vulnerable to crisis information while consumers with prior crisis experience and product knowledge are less affected (Haas-Kotzegger & Schlegelmilch, 2013).

Moderators appeared to be complex towards the impact of product harm crisis, except some are straight forward: crisis history: it is beneficial to have prior recall history; crisis severity: the more severity of the crisis, the more negative impact it is; CSR

level: higher CSR level lessens the negative impact; external effect: positive attitude from external parties leads to positive impact and vice versa. More works are suggested to explore on internal moderators, because companies could control it to a large extent, and consumer characteristics because such crisis is directly related to end customers.

Product Harm Crisis Response Strategies

There are 64 articles (41.29%) focused on response strategies to tackle product harm crisis. This is the largest domain. Researchers discussed on planning and choosing appropriate response, including crisis response strategy type, communication channel and style.

Accommodative and defensive strategies.

Marcus and Goodman (1991) divided crisis responses into either accommodative or defensive. Accommodative strategies include proactive actions that accept responsibility, such as remedial action, whereas defensive strategies are passive actions that try to evade from taking crisis responsibility such as denial.

Generally, accommodative strategies are more effective than defensive ones. Accommodative responses are found to lead to higher trust level and future purchase intention from customers and organizational learning level while defensive strategy indicated reputational damage (De Blasio & Veale, 2009; Haunschild & Rhee, 2004; Madera & Smith, 2009; Souiden & Pons, 2009).

Typical cases in certain industries show the success of adopting accommodative strategies and failure from adopting defensive ones. For example, the cases of Toyota vehicle recalls and Ford and Firestone tire recalls showed the companies tried to minimize the responsibility by slow, passive responses (Gibson, 2000b; Heller & Darling, 2011, 2012) and putting blame on other companies (O'Rourke, 2001) resulted in failure. Other examples are, Coca-Cola denied responsibility led to government bans (Tsang, 2000); Snow Milk Products' prompt response, published apologies and investigated production processes led to success in its 1955 contamination crisis whereas it refused to issue a recall in its 2000 crisis resulted in severe damage (Wrigley, Ota, & Kikuchi, 2006). Some studies compared the cases of adopting accommodative and defensive strategies by different companies. For instance, Hargis and Watt (2010) indicated Johnson and Johnson proactively assumed its responsibility for the defective products even it had no responsibility for the crisis. This helped the company to recover sales quickly. However, in Bausch & Lomb's case, the slow and passive response intensified the damage. Venugopal, Soni, Tiwari, and Gupta (2012) suggested that Dell's proactive actions such as closely followed the investigation helped to improve brand image successfully while Toyota recalled products passively led to reputation and sales loss. Moreover, a leadership of accommodative strategies is also important. The honesty and compassion of the CEO was found to be able to rescue company from potential failure and earn trust from consumers in food product harm crises (Charlebois, 2011; Stanwick & Stanwick, 2012).

On the other hand, some researchers found defensive strategies could be advantageous. Chen, Ganesan, and Liu (2009) observed that proactive recall strategies that recall products before any safety incidents have a more negative effect on firm value than passive ones. Moreover, defensive strategy is found to lead to higher perceptions of the organization-public relationships and corporate social responsibility (Haigh & Brubaker, 2010). It is tend to be effective for crises in which organizational responsibility is not obvious and the organization's reputation is low (Dardis & Haigh, 2009).

Marketing and public relations strategies.

Researchers also investigated into marketing and public relations strategies such as marketing campaigns. Carroll (2009) revealed that companies can potentially withstand a product harm crisis without following traditional accommodative strategies. The study examined a food contamination case of Cadbury Schweppes. Although there are severe damage such as damage to reputation, lost sales and financial penalties, launching an effective marketing communications campaign restored consumer confidence and normalized the demand. Shah and Chen (2010) noted that consumers consider public relations actions more credible than advertising in building a good image in a product harm crisis while Piotrowski and Gray (2010) indicated that marketing and public relations strategies failed in Toyota's case. Pranav (2011) found that public relations campaigns can create attitudinal or behavioural compliance. Future research may analyse the success factors in these strategies as previous findings are mixed.

Public communication strategies.

Strategies in communication with the public during product harm crisis are examined. For instance, making use of multi-channels such as press releases, direct mail, display ads and flyers are found positive influence when handling a product harm crisis (Gibson, 1997; Wang & Lu, 2010). Cyber recall system and communication tactics are also suggested to assist the effectiveness of recall, but speed and automation are the keys to be improved (Gibson, 2000a; Nawasaki et al., 2009).

The communication style and elements of recall message to the public are also investigated. However, the communication style tends not to be critical. For instance, the degree of danger of the defective product is unrelated to the advice style given to consumers (Gurau & Serban, 2005). Moreover, showing victim visuals do not significantly affect perceptions and reactions to the crisis situation (Coombs & Holladay, 2011).

From the reviewed articles, it is appeared that traditional accommodative strategies may not always be the best way to handle product harm crisis, and companies may use different strategies simultaneously. More future works are needed on the mixture usage of both accommodative and defensive strategies. Also, relatively little research has been conducted into other strategies such as marketing and public communication style. There is a need to analyse the success factors in these strategies as previous findings are mixed. Unlike other domains such as crisis impact and moderators, response strategies are elements that companies could largely control. Therefore, future research may consider focus on this issue.

Product Harm Crisis Management with Supply Chain Partners

There are 16 articles (10.32%) in this domain. Product harm crisis become complex when more supply chain members are involved, especially for globalized supply chain. Researchers discussed on the challenges in product recall supply chains (Donnelly, Karlsen, & Dreyer, 2012; Kinsey, Seltzer, Ma, & Rush, 2011; Lyles et al., 2008; Marucheck, Greis, Mena, & Cai, 2011; Tse et al., 2011) and made suggestions on effective recall management. For example, the usage of technologies and systems were investigated. Radio-frequency identification technology is beneficial to enhance the traceability between different supply chain partners in a product recall (Kumar & Budin, 2006; Kumar et al., 2009; Piramuthu et al., 2013). Moreover, frameworks and models for supply chain partners coordination were developed. For example, agreements between supply chain members such as recall cost sharing contract types were compared. It is noted that for both contracts, using root cause analysis is more beneficial than a contract which shares the total recall cost between the parties (Chao et al., 2009). Also, traceability optimization models and workflow-based coordination frameworks between supply chain partners have been developed (Wang, Li, & O'Brien, 2009; Wynn et al., 2011). In addition, for supplier evaluation and selection processes, that are the processes important to the risk of future product harm crisis, margin incremental analysis approach is suggested (Tse & Tan, 2011, 2012).

Effective product harm crisis management involves maintaining good traceability throughout the supply chain. Researchers investigated ways to manage the crisis well with supply chain partners including technologies and different frameworks for supply chain partners coordination. We believe more works on examining various ways to maintain traceability could give insights for different supply chain players.

Conclusion and Limitations

This article reviews 155 articles in the product harm crisis literature and identifies five research domains. Through the article distribution and the summarization of key findings, research trend is analyzed and future research directions are proposed.

There are several limitations. Firstly, only the journals in the particular searched databases were included. However, we believe searching in five databases made this review comprehensive. Secondly, there is a possible limitation due to the time period. Including articles earlier before our review period may make the review more comprehensive. However, we believe a recent coverage would be more appropriate as product recall regulations are changing from time to time.

Appendix A. Complete list of sample articles by research domains

Research domain	Sample articles
1. Responsibility in causing product harm crisis	Beamish and Bapuji (2008); Noggle and Palmer (2005); Teagarden (2009); Luo (2008)
2. Product harm crisis impact	Bae and Benitez-Silva (2011); Bae and Benitez-Silva (2013); Ma et al. (2010); Choi and Lin (2009a); Piotrowski and Guyette (2010); Custance et al. (2012); Dawar (1998); Eagle, Hawkins, et al. (2005); Gao et al. (2013); Govindaraj and Jaggi (2004); Maggini et al. (2004); Marino (1997); Marsh et al. (2004); McDonald (2009); Van Heerde et al. (2007); Velthuis et al. (2009); Xi and Peng (2010); Zhao, Zhao, and Helsen (2011)


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3. Product harm crisis moderators	<p>Assiouras et al. (2013); Bunniran et al. (2009); Chu et al. (2005); Cleeren et al. (2008); Dawar and Pillutla (2000); Dawar and Lei (2009); De Matos and Rossi (2007); Gao et al. (2012); Grunwald and Hempelmarm (2010); Haas-Kotzegger and Schlegelmilch (2013); Jung (2011); Kalaignanam, Kushwaha, and Eilert (2013); Klein and Dawar (2004); Kong (2012); Korkofingas and Ang (2011); Laufer and Gillespie (2004); Laufer, Gillespie, et al. (2005); Laufer, Silvera, et al. (2005); Laufer et al. (2009); Lei et al. (2012); Lin et al. (2011); Magno (2012); Minor and Morgan (2011); Moowoon and Haunschild (2006); Sun et al. (2012); Rhee (2009); Rupp (2004); Salin and Hooker (2001); Seo et al. (2013); Silvera et al. (2012); Siomkos (1999); Siomkos and Kurzbard (1994); Siomkos and Shrivastava (1993); Siomkos et al. (2001); Siomkos et al. (2010); Thirumalai and Sinha (2011); Thomsen and McKenzie (2001); Feng et al. (2010); Vassilikopoulou, Lepetsos, et al. (2009); Vassilikopoulou, Siomkos, et al. (2009); Vassilikopoulou, Chatzipanagiotou, Siomkos, and Triantafillidou (2011); Wang et al. (2002); Wei et al. (2010); Yannopoulou et al. (2010); Chen and Nguyen (2013); Ye, Zhao, Prahinski, and Li (2013); Yeung and Ramasamy (2012); Zhao et al. (2013)</p>
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4. Product harm crisis response strategies	<p>Andrews et al. (2011); Bauman (2011); Berman (1999); Byrd (2012); Carroll (2009); Charlebois (2011); Chen et al. (2009); Choi and Chung (2013); Choi and Lin (2009b); Cleeren, van Heerde, and Dekimpe (2013); Coombs and Holladay (2011); Dardis and Haigh (2009); De Blasio and Veale (2009); Eagle, Rose, Kitchen, and Hawkins (2005); Felcher (2003); Freitag (2002); Gibson (1995); Gibson (1997); Gibson (2000a); Gibson (2000b); Gurau and Serban (2005); Haigh and Brubaker (2010); Hargis and Watt (2010); Haunschild and Rhee (2004); Heller and Darling (2011); Heller and Darling (2012); Jacobs (1996); Joel (2011); Koronis and Ponis (2012); Kramer, Coto, and Weidner (2005); Laestadius, Lagasse, Smith, and Neff (2012); Laufer and Coombs (2006); Laufer and Jung (2010); Li and Tang (2009); Liu, Kerr, and Hobbs (2009); Madera and Smith (2009); Martinelli and Briggs (1998); Miller and Littlefield (2010); Millner, Veil, and Sellnow (2011); Moll (2003); Shah and Chen (2010); Nawasaki et al. (2009); Olaniran, Scholl, Williams, and Boyer (2012); O'Rourke (2001); O'Rourke (2006); Peijuan, Ting, and Pang (2009); Peng and Chen (2011); Piotrowski and Gray (2010); Pranav (2011); Rubel, Naik, and Srinivasan (2011); Sezer and Haksöz (2012); Shehane, Huan, and Ali (2010); Souiden and Pons (2009); Standop and Grunwald (2009); Stanwick and Stanwick (2012); Taneja, Pryor, and Sewell (2012); Tsang (2000); Uzumeri and Snyder (1996); Venugopal et al. (2012); Wang and Lu (2010); Wasserman and Dure (2008); Shang and Hooker (2005); Wrigley et al. (2006); Zavyalova, Pfarrer, Reger, and Shapiro (2012)</p>
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5. Product harm crisis management with supply chain partners	Chao et al. (2009); Donnelly et al. (2012); Hora et al. (2011); Kinsey et al. (2011); Kumar and Budin (2006); Kumar et al. (2009); Kumar and Schmitz (2011); Lyles et al. (2008); Marucheck et al. (2011); PIRAMUTHU et al. (2013); Tse and Tan (2011); Tse and Tan (2012); Tse et al. (2011); Wadhwa and Lien (2013); Wang et al. (2009); Wynn et al. (2011)
Other issues	Coombs (2007a); Arce (2005); Roman and Moore (2012); Rupp and Taylor (2002); Salin et al. (2006)

The logo for the International Association for Business and Economics (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by several overlapping, curved lines in shades of light blue and light red, creating a circular, abstract design.

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The logo for the International Association of Business and Economics (IABE) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, faint, light blue circular graphic that has a slight gradient and a soft shadow, giving it a three-dimensional appearance. The background of the page is white.

The Social Development of Children of Irregular Overseas Filipino Workers: Life Stories from Manila, Cavite, and Rizal

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Abstract

The entire population of migrant workers worldwide includes permanent, temporary, and irregular workers. Moreover, a significant portion of OFWs today are parents hence, this has brought several inquiries concerning on its impact on the social development of their left behind children. Within this context, this paper aims to focus on irregular OFWs only. In light of Karl Marx's Historical Materialism and Rauniyar and Kanbur's aspects of Human Capital Development and Social Capital Development, this paper examines the impact of irregular migration on the social development of children from Manila, Cavite, and Rizal. The qualitative data collected from one-on-one, unstructured interviews were thoroughly weaved into five narratives in order to find out the status of these children in terms of Education, Health, and Participation in the decision making in the family.

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Introduction

International migration has become a fundamental feature of globalization and has perpetuated mostly in developing countries such as the Philippines. As an outcome of this, the country is considered to have the most number of migrant workers (Chia, 2007) distributed in more than 190 countries around the world (Custodio & Ang, 2012). In the Philippine society, sustaining the basic necessities of the family appears to be a major priority but as a result of unstable economy and lack of decent job opportunities in the country, Filipinos are now inclined to seek for better options and for some, migration has always been a more acceptable way of addressing the needs of one's family (Bala, 2008).

A significant portion of OFWs today are parents (Edillon, 2008) who are motivated to leave their families in pursuit of substandard but better-paying job overseas (Bala, 2011). Although it may seem to be a positive inclination for most Filipinos, this issue has brought several inquiries concerning its impact on the social development of their left behind children. In the Philippines, there is around 3 to 6 million (10-20%) children left behind (Tobin, 2008). Moreover, an array of studies (Ang, 2008; Edillon, 2008; Tobin, 2008; Sutaria, 2011; Bala, 2011) associated with parental migration have exposed diverse effects on the social development indicators of children such as education, health, microfinance, social networks, institutions, and participation in decision making in the family thus, most of them have claimed that migration improves the economic status and social capabilities of the family which according to UNICEF (2011) are considered to be crucial factors towards development.

Notably, the entire population of Overseas Filipino Workers worldwide includes permanent, temporary, and irregular migrant workers (Custodio & Ang, 2012; Fresnoza Flot, 2009). However, a considerable amount of literatures would often give emphasis on the children left behind, but not discriminating if they are children of permanent, temporary, or irregular migrant workers.

Within this context, this paper aims to focus only on irregular Overseas Filipino workers. Furthermore, the main objective of this study is to further examine the impact of irregular migration on the social development of left behind children in the Philippines. The sub-objectives of this study are as follows;

- a. To find out their academic status
- b. To examine their health status and their access to health care services
- c. To examine their participation in decision making in their family

Guided by Karl Marx's Historical Materialism, a Marxist class analysis attempts to establish the current situation of irregular OFW workers. Since local studies are rather lacking, this study contributes to further studies concerning children of irregular OFWs. Moreover, the findings of this study have also provided recommendations that will cater to the social development of children of irregular OFWs. Lastly, this paper argues that irregular migration has its significant effects on the social development of left behind children based from their access to opportunities and essential services.

Studies on the Social Development of Children of OFWs

The concept of social development is merely broad but it can be understood as the enhancement of well-being and the progressive enrichment of the quality of people's lives (Bautista, 1997). According to Rauniyar and Kanbur (2010), there are four components of social development namely; Human Capital Development, Gender and Development, Social Protection, and Social Capital Development. However, this study specifically focuses on the concepts of Human Capital Development and Social Capital Development.

Human Capital Development refers to access to education, primary health care, and other essential services. On the other hand, Social Capital Development means increasing the opportunity of the poor for participation in decision-making and self-managed community services such as in the creation of community-based groups in microfinance, health, and natural resources management. To provide a better grasp on these two concepts, this section will be divided into three different development indicators: Education, Health, and Participation.

Education

A study conducted by Ang (2008) suggests that migration does affect basic education indicators positively. This result is consistent in the improvement in the drop outs, participation and cohort survival rates. However, this effect becomes significant only if the migrant is a female. This claim can be supported by studies from (Mansour et al., 2011; Edillon, 2008; Morooka & Liang, 2009) and they have also pointed out that migration has a positive outcome on the economic mobility of the families left behind thus, it improves the attendance and performance of children in school. However these claims are in contrast with the study of Sutaria (2011) which indicated that while the improved economic status of migrant families has produced more healthy OFW children, the children of migrant mothers did not do as well in school compared to other children. This has implications for the nature of care giving that should be provided children of migrant mothers in order not to dwarf their development and to develop them into citizens ready to face the challenges of the new millennium.

Health

In terms of health, most studies claimed that migration has a negative implication on the psychological well-being of children (Robila, 2011; Hoang & Yeoh, 2012; Smeekens et al, 2012). With this, children of migrant workers are more prone to depression and anxiety due to the absence of the migrant parent especially the mother. On the other hand, children that are living with their parents are found to be psychologically stable. In terms of reproductive health, children of migrant workers tend to be sexually active. In a study conducted by Ramos et al (2010), they found out that children of migrant workers would engage in different risk taking behaviors such as drinking, partying, outing that often makes them susceptible to do sexual activities.

Participation

In a study conducted by Edillon (2008), children of OFWs are less likely to participate in family decision making, in the community and organizations compared to children of non-OFW parents. However, this is in contrast with the study of Ang (2008) which indicates that migration increases participation rate of children specifically among secondary students.

Above all, the gathered literature findings on international migration provided a substantial amount of positive and negative claims on the education, health, and participation of left behind children. However, local studies concerning social development of children of irregular OFWs are rather lacking and therefore, this is what the study would like to direct its focus on.

Theoretical Lens

Historical Materialism

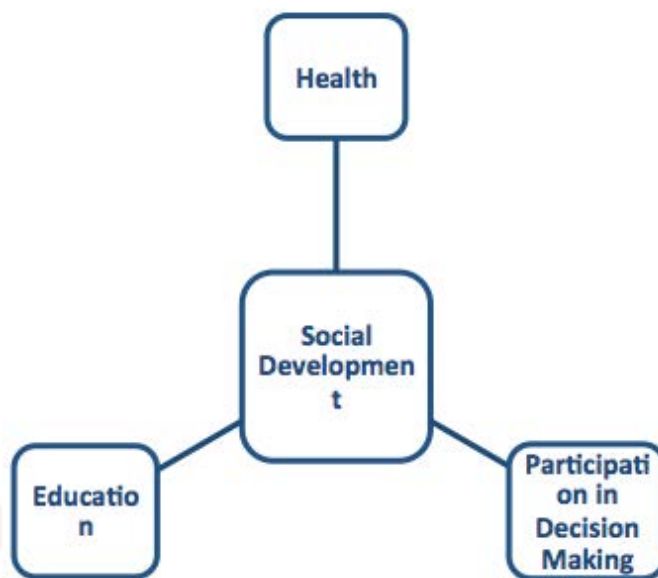
The study uses Karl Marx's Historical Materialism in order to provide a theoretical foundation on the nature of Social Development.

Historical materialism studies the most general laws of social development. Significantly, this theory recognizes the role of labour production, people, social classes, social communities, and social consciousness in Social Development (Afanasyev, 1987). In relevance of this theory to the study, a Marxist class analysis attempts to establish the current situation of the irregular migrant workers.

In the context of migrant workers, their entire population worldwide could be classified into three distinct classes namely; permanent, temporary, and irregular migrant workers (Custodio and Ang, 2012; Fresnoza Flot, 2009). Among those three classes, the irregular migrant workers are considered to be the underprivileged because they earn less and their status reduced their bargaining power with employers compared to permanent and documented workers. Moreover, irregular migrant workers often face numerous structural, bureaucratic, and financial obstacles (Fresnoza Flot, 2009) which make their access to opportunities and services limited and which can also greatly affect the social development of left behind children specifically on their education, health, and participation in the decision making in the family.

Conceptual Framework

This study is guided by Rauniyar and Kanbur's concepts of human capital development and social capital development in order to further examine the impact of irregular migration on the social development of left behind children. Given in this conceptual framework are the different development indicators namely; Education, Health, and Participation in decision-making.



Indicators of Human Capital Development and Social Capital Development based from Rauniyar and Kanbur (2010)

Methods and Design

The method of the study is qualitative and utilizes a narrative approach of presenting the data. Narratives are understood as stories that include a temporal ordering of events and an effort to make something out of those events: to render or to signify the experiences of persons-in-flux in a personally and culturally coherent, plausible manner (Sandelowski, 1991). For the respondents, five children of irregular OFWs were chosen from Manila, Cavite, and Rizal through snowball sampling. Notably, they have successfully met the criteria for the respondents that; (a) they should be within the ages of 13 years old to 25 years old and (b) their parents must be working abroad for two years in above.

As revealed in table 1, the respondents are composed of two males and three females with their age ranging from 14 years old to 24 years old. Educationally, most of them are still in school as high school and college students. One respondent is already a college graduate and was formerly enrolled in a private and secular school. Two respondents are currently enrolled in private and non-secular schools while the rest are enrolled in public and secular schools.

Table 1 Socio Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Indicators	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male		
Female	2	8.3
Total	3	12.5
	5	20.8

Age			
	14-16		
	17-19	1	4.2
	20-22		
	22-24	3	12.5
	Total		
		-	-
		1	4.2
		5	20.8
Educational Level			
	Elementary		
	High School	-	-
	College	2	8.3
	Others		
	Total	3	12.5
		-	-
		5	20.8
Type of School			
	Public		
	Private	2	8.3
	Total	3	12.5
		5	20.8

In table 2, three of the respondents have their mothers as their migrant parent while the two have their fathers. Subsequently, their parents have been working abroad within the course of six years to nine years. In terms of location and work classification, three migrant parents are working in Middle East as unskilled workers while the rest are working in USA and Russia as skilled and semi-skilled workers.

Table 2 Respondents' Migration Characteristics of their OFW Parents

Indicators		Frequency	Percentage
Migrant Parent			
	Father		
	Mother	2	8.3
	Total	3	12.5
		5	20.8
Years of Work			
	5-6		
	7-9	3	12.5
	Total	2	8.3
		5	20.8
Work Destination			
	Asia		
	Middle East	-	
	Europe		
	North America	3	12.5
	Central America		
	South America	1	4.2
	Sub-Saharan Africa		
	Australia and Oceania	1	4.2
	Ocean		
	Total	-	
		-	
		-	
		-	
		5	20.8
Work Classification			
	Skilled		
	Semi-Skilled	1	4.2
	Unskilled		
	Total	1	4.2
		3	12.5
		5	20.8

For the data gathering instrument, one on one unstructured interviews were conducted and consisted of open-ended questions that have allowed the respondents to answer adequately. With the consent from the respondents, the interviews were audio

recorded for data analysis purposes. Consent forms were also provided for the protection of the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents.

Results

This section summarizes the life experiences of five children of irregular Overseas Filipino Workers. The data collected from the interviews were thoroughly weaved into five narratives in order to reveal the impact of irregular migration on the social development of the respondents prior to their access to opportunities and essential services specifically on the areas of education, health, and participation in the decision making in the family.

Criza

Criza, 14 years old, is a sophomore high school student from Bacoor, Cavite. Her mother has been working in Dubai as a waitress since when she was 8 years old. She is an only child and unfortunately, her father died when she was still very young. Her aunt assumed the responsibility of being her primary caregiver ever since her mother decided to work overseas.

Criza is an outstanding student in school. She likes Mathematics because she loves solving computations thus; she also recalled how she was awarded as best in math in her class last year. On the other hand, she considers Araling Panlipunan as her least favorite subject because she is not very much fond of doing memorizations. Criza makes it a point to attend her classes regularly in order not to miss a lesson. She is also an active member of their school's dance group and a choir member in their local church. She also mentioned that she admires her teachers from Math and TLE because of the way they facilitate their students. Criza belongs to a small but close-knit class in their school. She was always friendly towards her classmates and she also have a best friend whom she is very close with.

Criza admitted that her mother's remittances from abroad are not merely sufficient to support her tuition fee in school. Criza narrated that when she was still studying in her former school, her mother's remittances could only then afford a small percentage of her school expenses and the rest will then be shouldered by her aunt. Due to the fact that life is hard in the Philippines, her mother would keep reminding her to study very well in order for her to achieve her dreams in the future.

Criza seems to be a healthy child as she stated that she has not been experiencing any health problems for quite some time now. Normally, she seeks for a medical check-up only when she gets sick. Criza stated that if she gets sick, the most common are fever, coughs, colds, but nothing more severe. Criza stated that she maintains her health by eating healthy foods and taking her daily vitamins which she could afford through the aid of her mother's remittances. Her mother always reminds her to take care of herself because they do not have enough money to buy medicines.

As a young child who could be easily tamed by words and promises, her mother explained to her that working abroad would provide her a better life, a chance to study in a private school, and a bright future. As she explained, she eventually accepted her mother's decision to work abroad.

Despite of growing up without her parents around, Criza has maintained her close relationship with her mother. She is also very much close and open with her aunt whom she sees as her second mother. At home, whenever there are household decisions or problems that need to be sorted out, her aunt would usually seek for her help and would listen to her opinions. Criza believes that children must also be consulted by their parents when making family decisions in life.

Jeric

Jeric, 18 years old, is currently enrolled in the Alternative Learning System program in Bacoor, Cavite. Due to their family's financial hurdles, his mother decided to work in Riyadh as a dish washer when he was 13 years old and since then, his older sister became their primary caregiver at home. According to him, his father left them for another woman when he was still young and they did not hear from him again ever since.

Before getting into the ALS program, Jeric recalled that his grades during high school were merely problematic which resulted from spending too much time with his friends and randomly skipping classes. However, he mentioned that he likes English because he loves writing essays while his weakness was Science because he was having a hard time most especially when doing a Science module. In ALS, Jeric stated that he is very close with his teachers. When it comes to his classmates, he would treat everyone differently depending on their personality and maturity. Jeric admitted that he is not good terms with some of his classmates but he gladly mentioned that he have friends in class that he can get along with.

Jeric sadly narrated that his mother's remittances from abroad are merely not enough to provide for his needs in school. Financially, his mother's side of the family are entirely dependent of the remittances and other than that, they have no any other source of income. His mother would constantly remind him to study hard and do well in school because it's not easy to work and earn money overseas.

When consulted about his health, Jeric insisted that he is physically well though he had also mentioned his experience with having an ulcer before and how he has not undergone a medical check-up ever since he was young. At that time when he was dealing with his ulcer, he would just drink some sterilized milk and eat biscuits because they cannot afford to seek for a proper medical attention. Currently, his mother's remittances are still not quite enough to sustain their health needs. But fortunately, Jeric is not experiencing any health problems at the moment but his mother would always insist him to stop drinking and to sleep early so that when she gets home, she would see him healthy.

As a child who has been motherless for years, Jeric sadly admitted that he had developed a feeling of resentment towards his mother. He stated that sometimes he would feel mad when their mother cannot send them money back home whenever they need it. Aside from his mother, Jeric also described his relationship with his siblings especially with his older sister as somewhat problematic ever since they were still young.

When asked about his opinion towards his mother's decision to work abroad, Jeric admitted that he was not in favor of it because for him, it's not easy to grow up without a mother around. Jeric deeply expressed his great longing for her mother's care and support. Jeric felt angry when his mother did not explain to him why she suddenly needs to work abroad and instead, she just promised them that she would send them money in order for them to buy the things that they want.

In terms of family decisions, Jeric does not usually join or voice his opinions out because he feels that no one tends to listen but for him, it is important in order to be called a member of the family.

Jon

Jon, 19, is a senior college student from Manila. His father started working in United States as a watch technician when he was 13 years old. He is the youngest son in the brood of 4.

Since high school, Jon is an academic achiever as he had already received numerous awards from actively participating in different organizations. He also recalled that he graduated in high school with academic distinctions. At present, he is taking up Bachelor of Arts in Sociology in a prestigious university in Manila. Aside from that, he is also an active member of their school organization since junior year. When asked about his current academic performance, he admitted that his last semester grades were way better compared to his recent grades because he had primarily directed his attention on his responsibilities with his organization and on his thesis.

In regards with school subjects, he profoundly expressed his interest for History and anything that falls under Humanities; specifically Art Appreciation and Literature. Jon loves reading history books and he can thoroughly express his self through aesthetics. But then, he also had his academic weakness just like any other students especially when it involves Mathematics. In terms of school attendance, he professed that at times he is absent in class due to his unorganized schedule and constant lack of sleep.

In school, Jon described his relationship with his professors as solely professional. However, he expressed his appreciation towards his professors who are very much passionate and dedicated in teaching. On the other hand, he also mentioned a professor that he is not in good terms with. As for his classmates, he stated that his relationship with them is okay as he could interact with them inside the classroom. He also have friends in school.

When asked about his father's remittances, Jon explained that the shoulder of the money is not their tuition fee but rather, their monthly house dues. He explained:

In regards with his health, Jon said that he is physically okay yet he mentioned that his asthma came back when he was in freshman year. He also admitted that he has not undergone an executive check-up in his whole life though it is one of his mother's perks from work.

However, he recalled that he was rushed in the hospital when he was 7 years old because of dengue fever. For Jon, his father's remittances are not doing any help in

maintaining their health because his mother also happens to be the one who shoulders it aside from their education and other expenses.

Despite of the relatively great distance, Jon has maintained his good relationship and communication with his father with the help of the internet. However, he admitted that until now, he is still not in favor of his father's decision to work abroad because he worries about his father's health very much.

Just like with his father, Jon is also very close with his mother whom he often shares his life stories to. However being the youngest in the family, Jon admitted that he is slightly distant towards his siblings because of their great age gap.

Jon admitted that his parents do not usually listen to him when he tries to voice out his opinions regarding family decisions.

For Jon, he believes that his parents should also take into consideration his opinions about family decisions in life because he is a member of the family and he is knowledgeable enough to know what is right from wrong.

Gabrielle

Gabrielle, 20, is a journalism student from Cainta, Rizal. She was 11 years old when her mother decided to leave their family in order to work in Kuwait as a domestic helper. Throughout her college life, Gabrielle is a consistent president's lister since her freshman year and she attends her classes regularly. Now that she is already in her senior year, she stated that school is much easier for her because they are now primarily more focused on writing subjects. Then again, just like everyone else, she also mentioned that she hates Mathematics. In school, Gabrielle admitted that she is currently not involved in any of their organizations because she wants to focus more on her studies.

As a student, Gabrielle is close with some of her professors because at times, she and her friends get to hang out with them. She also regarded them as her favorite professors from her news writing class. Inside the classroom, she is very much okay with her classmates. She have a barkada in school and at the same time, she also revealed that she have enemies. When it comes to her education, Gabrielle stated that her tuition fee in school is cheaper unlike any other universities/colleges and her father is usually the one who provides for it.

When it comes to giving advices, her mother would always tell her to study well so that her efforts to work overseas would not be put into waste.

Gabrielle is physically well and so far, she does not have any health problems. She sees to it that she gets a medical check-up regularly.

She recalled that when she was 3 years old, she had undergone a kidney re-implementation wherein a tube was placed in her kidney. However, her kidney problems did not end there and it continued to occur until she reached her elementary years. At present, she maintains her health by lessening her intake of sodium and soft drinks. She also added that through her mother's remittances from abroad, she can afford to get her regular check-up and her daily dose of vitamins. As she explained,

her mother prioritizes their health very much and she would always remind her to stay away from anything that could harm her health and to never tire herself too much. Despite of the fact that she had spent the rest of her teenage years without her mother, Gabrielle insisted that she is still close and in good terms with her just like how she is close with her father and her siblings. As she explained the reason behind her mother's decision to work abroad:

At home, Gabrielle does not express her thoughts and opinions that often though for her, she believes that parents should also consult their children about family decisions in life.

Lovely

Lovely, 24, is a college graduate from Manila. She was 16 years old when her father decided to work in Russia as an Electrical Engineer. She is the eldest daughter in the family.

Lovely earned a degree in Computer Science in an ICT university in Manila. She recalled that during her college days, she had no problems with her grades and she did not incur any failing marks. She mentioned that she likes Computer because she can easily apply it in her course while the least was Mathematics because she admitted that she is having a hard time dealing with numbers and computations. Lovely was also a working student during college and according to her, she was able to support her needs in school without asking her parents for allowance. Fortunately, her part time job did not affect her studies and with the support of her friends, she was still able to attend her classes regularly. In school, she was always friendly towards her teachers and her classmates.

When her father became an irregular OFW in Russia, looking for a decent job became completely difficult. His father's remittances could only then afford her tuition fee and as a result, her other sibling was forced to stop attending school.

Lovely is fortunately a healthy person. She believes that getting a regular check-up is not really necessary because for her, it costs a lot of money. However, back when she was in college, she had experienced some health problems such as fever, flu, and pneumonia. Interestingly, she mentioned that she was never brought in the hospital because of a severe illness. For her family, there are more important things to prioritize rather than health.

When asked about her relationship father, Lovely admitted that she belongs to a broken family. As compared to her father, she is much closer with her mother whom she tells all of her problems to and the same goes for her younger siblings. She also mentioned that aside from them, they also have some relatives staying in their home which for her is really hard because they lack some sense of privacy.

Lovely narrated that she was in school at the time her father suddenly left without providing her any further explanations. She was so upset with her father for leaving without them knowing but eventually, she had accepted it because her father never failed fulfilling his obligation towards them.

When it comes to family decisions, her mother is more open and amiable towards her opinions rather than her father who likes to put all things under his control. For Lovely, parents should also turn to their children in sorting out family matters.

Discussion

The prevalence of international migration in the Philippines brought about by globalization mirrors the present economic condition of the country wherein Filipinos often deals with the difficulty of pursuing a decent job and sustaining the basic necessities of the family. Due to the financial gains that can be accumulated from working overseas, most Filipinos considered migration as an avenue for acquiring the quality life that they desire for their families and children left behind.

Based from the narratives on education, this study found out that children of irregular OFWs have a positive academic status which stem from getting good grades, consistent school attendance and establishing a good rapport towards their teachers and classmates. According to Alunan Melgar & Borromeo (2012), the children's peer group, school, and community provide a sense of belongingness while both the school and community foster positive involvement for the children. However, it is also observed that children of irregular OFWs experience delays in paying their tuition fee and other needs in school significantly whose parents are unskilled workers abroad because the amount of remittances that they receive back home could only then cover a limited proportion of their school expenses. In the context of children of irregular OFWs, the financial gains that they accumulate from their parents' remittances significantly depend upon the work classification and the status of their parents abroad.

In accordance with health, it is observed that children of irregular OFWs are physically stable at present yet they also have a history of health problems. In addition, these children only seek for proper medical attention when they experience some health problems because they think that getting a regular check-up is not merely necessary hence, it will only cost them a lot of money. This suggests that their access to health care services is rather limited and as claimed by Edillon (2008), the economic advantage resulting from the presence of an OFW parent does not seem to have altered health-seeking behaviour, which remains poor. In general, visits to the doctor and dentist are event-conditioned, meaning that an individual only seeks health care when he or she becomes ill.

When it comes to family decisions, this study found out that children of irregular OFWs are less likely to participate and express their opinions when sorting out family related matters and this was proven by Edillon (2008) who pointed out that most children of OFWs do not feel that they have active participation in the decision-making in the family. Moreover, this study found some factors that could significantly affect the way children perceive and participate in the decision making in the family such as the age gap between family members and the relationship that they have with them.

Conclusion

This study concludes that irregular migration has its significant effects on the social development of left behind children prior to their access to opportunities and essential services which are in line with education, health, and participation in the decision making in the family. It is figured out in this study that the social development of children of irregular OFWs is greatly influenced by the status and work classification of their parents abroad wherein children whose parents are considered to be unskilled workers often experience delays and problems in their access to education, health care services and the way they perceive and participate in the decision making in the family as compared to children whose parents are skilled and semi-skilled workers overseas.

The logo for the International Association for the Study of the Family (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs. The outer arc is a light blue color, and the inner arc is a light red color. The arcs are positioned such that they appear to frame the text, with the red arc on the left and the blue arc on the right, creating a sense of a circular path or a protective ring.

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The Natural Disaster Management in ASEAN Countries

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Abstract

Objectives of this study are to (1) find the impacts from natural disaster in ASEAN countries, (2) find the key success factors that affect to disaster management ability in ASEAN countries, and (3) find the model to improve disaster management ability in ASEAN countries. The information about disaster management of public sector on national level in ASEAN countries before, during, and after disaster were reviewed and analyzed.

The results found that the impacts from natural disaster in ASEAN countries were loss of life and property, injury, destruction of buildings and infrastructures, damage of agriculture and livestock, and depress of economic and social. In addition, the key success factors that affect to disaster management ability in ASEAN countries before disaster were appropriate policies, laws, and plans, disaster awareness, and education and training on disaster; during disaster were effective leadership, suitable decision, standard operating, adequate resources, good network between public sector and stakeholders, and updated data and technology; and after disaster were knowledge management, damage assessment and recovery, and long-term disaster planning.

Consequently, the model to improve disaster management ability in ASEAN countries should have six elements. First, proactive disaster management, second, allocation resources, third, empowerment the local authorities in disaster management, fourth, linkage key stakeholders, fifth, community based disaster risk management, and the last, management information system.

Keywords: Disaster management, disaster risk reduction, community based disaster risk management, ASEAN

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1. Background

Most of disasters in the world are natural disasters, for example, flood, earthquake, volcanic eruption, tropical cyclone and tsunami (Coppola, 2007). Disasters arising from natural disasters can be divided into two groups. First, hydrometeorological disasters are related water and weather, which include extreme precipitation incident, flood, drought, windstorm, and tropical cyclone. Second, geological disasters are volcano eruption and earthquake (Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010). The natural disasters are catastrophe to people and property, such as loss of life, injury, and destruction of buildings and communications (Carter, 1991). In addition, damage to infrastructures, agriculture and livestock, and depress of economic and social.

The ASEAN countries comprise 10 countries as the following, Brunei Darussalam Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. Because of distinct economic, demographic, and social characteristics are unique geographic and climatic conditions. Therefore, ASEAN is considered as one of the world's most vulnerable regions (Uy & Shaw, 2010). The most of the ASEAN countries have located in vulnerable areas to disaster, for example Indonesia is one of the most disaster prone countries in the world and faces manifold dangers such as earthquake, tsunami, volcanic eruption, flood, and forest fires (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011b). Moreover, country which is far from the risk must also face with disasters, for instance Lao PDR is frequently affected by flood and drought (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013b). The ASEAN countries have different geographic areas, public policies, laws, leader, and resources. Consequently, the ASEAN countries have different of ability, strength and weakness in disaster management.

In 2015, the ASEAN countries will be established as the ASEAN community which consists of three pillars namely: first, the ASEAN political and security community, second, the ASEAN economic community and third, the ASEAN socio-cultural community (Department of Disaster Prevention and Mitigation, n.d.). The disaster management within the ASEAN countries have been mentioned in the first pillar (article B5) and the third pillar (article B7) which emphasis on the issue of preparedness, response, coordination, participation, increasing awareness and competency in disaster management. In addition, the ASEAN community has established the ASEAN Committee on Disaster Management (ACDM) to enhance cooperation in all aspects of disaster management prevention, mitigation, preparation, response and recovery through mutual collaborative activities in the ASEAN countries (Department of Disaster Prevention and Mitigation, n.d.).

Moreover, the ACDM has specified the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER) which was signed by the Foreign Ministers of ASEAN in 26 July 2005, just a few months after the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami and entered into force on 24 December 2009. The AADMER is a regional legally-binding agreement that binds the ASEAN countries states together to promote regional cooperation and collaboration in reducing disaster losses in the ASEAN countries. Furthermore, the AADMER contains provisions on disaster risk identification, monitoring and early warning, prevention and mitigation, preparedness and response, rehabilitation, technical cooperation and research, mechanisms for coordination and simplified customs and immigration procedures. The AADMER also provides for the

establishment of the ASEAN Coordinating Centre for Humanitarian Assistance on disaster management (AHA Centre) to undertake operational coordination of activities under the agreement (Post Nargis Knowledge Management Portal, 2005).

Although, the ASEAN countries have instituted agreements in disaster management. However, the ASEAN countries have faced more natural disaster in terms of quantity, damage and loss as the following table.

Year	Occurrence	Deaths	Injured	Affected	Home-less	Total affected	Total damage ('000 USD)
2000	54	2,526	4,379	19,352,611	198,255	19,555,245	892,449
2001	43	1,949	730	8,323,915	161,180	8,485,825	345,041
2002	51	1,055	2,206	15,187,461	39,104	15,228,771	731,570
2003	39	1,051	517	1,826,367	102,223	1,929,107	178,663
2004	58	177,674	11,954	4,695,647	589,144	5,296,745	6,945,655
2005	37	1,733	1,506	2,670,034	18,205	2,689,745	1,012,131
2006	61	11,334	143,696	17,471,189	1,061,045	18,675,930	4,817,464
2007	57	1,835	3,317	5,352,293	127,437	5,483,047	3,639,315
2008	57	139,925	21,340	23,849,353	71,225	23,941,918	5,184,279
2009	51	3,232	5,711	20,351,866	108,745	20,466,322	4,508,307
2010	40	3,009	128,557	23,055,389	6,450	23,190,396	1,576,787
2011	66	3,717	6,959	26,537,618	13,247	26,557,824	41,798,177
2012	45	2,648	3,593	12,993,655	336,652	13,333,900	1,380,581
2013	26	431	2,605	2,434,673	26,500	2,463,778	3,206,680
Totals	685	352,119	337,070	184,102,071	2,859,412	187,298,553	76,217,099

Source: EM-DAT The international disaster database (2013).

Therefore, it is interesting and important to study the ability to manage natural disasters in the ASEAN countries which lead to finding the key success factors that affect to the ability to manage natural disaster in the ASEAN countries and lead to constructing the model to improve the ability to manage natural disaster in the ASEAN countries.

2.Objectives

- 2.1 To find the impacts from natural disaster in the ASEAN countries.
- 2.2 To find the key success factors that affect to the ability to manage natural disaster in the ASEAN countries.
- 2.3 To find the model to improve the ability to manage natural disaster in the ASEAN countries.

3.Literature Review

The author reviewed knowledge about disaster management and natural disaster management in the ASEAN countries as the following.

3.1 The definition of disaster

The definition of disaster are not yet accepted universally, because of the definition depend on the discipline using the terms (Shaluf, Admadun & Said, 2003), but in general terms, typical meaning or effects of disasters tend to be loss of life, loss of livelihood, loss of national economic, destruction of property, damage to national infrastructure and disruption to government systems, sociological and psychological after effects (Carter, 1991). In addition, it depend on the definition of each country which as a result of policy, law, organization and activity in disaster management of these countries. The trends of disasters are rapidly increasing. These changes are generally accepted as resulting from human actions and development patterns (Coppola, 2007). Therefore, related actors, for example public and private sector, community, and key stakeholder should investigate appropriate pattern for sustainable disaster management.

3.2 The disaster management

The disaster management is not the management process only after the disaster, but it is the management which needs to focus before, during, and after disaster. Hence, the definition of disaster management “is an applied science which seeks, by the systematic observation and analysis of disaster, to improve measures relating to prevention, mitigation, preparedness, emergency response and recovery” (Carter, 1991). In addition, it is process which deal with disaster since before, during and after disaster. Coppola (2007) concluded that complete disaster management has four components as the following.

- 1) Mitigation involves reducing or eliminating the likelihood or the consequences of a hazard, or both.
- 2) Preparedness involves equipping people who may be impacted by a disaster or who may be able to help those impacted with the tools to increase their chance of survival and to minimize their financial and other losses.
- 3) Response involves taking action to reduce or eliminate the impacts of disaster that have occurred or are currently occurring, in order to prevent further suffering, financial loss, or a combination of both.
- 4) Recovery involves returning victims’ lives back to a normal state following the impact of disaster consequences.

Moreover, Asian Development Bank (1991 cited in Carter, 1991) established the basic format of the disaster management cycle as the following figure.



Source: Asian Development Bank (1991)

3.3 The natural disaster in the ASEAN countries

Most likely, the ASEAN countries have faced with natural disaster, as a result of they have located in an area at risk. For example, Cambodia is one of the most disaster prone country in ASEAN, is highly vulnerable to the impacts of natural disasters like flood, drought, and landslide (Plan UK, 2005 cited in Nguyen, Shaw & SVRK, 2010). Indonesia is one of the most disaster prone countries in the world. It faces multiple hazards for instance, earthquake, tsunami, volcanic eruption, flood, and forest fire (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011b). Lao PDR is one of the countries frequently affected by river flood and drought (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013b). Myanmar is affected from multiple natural hazards which include cyclone, flood, earthquake, tsunami, drought, and forest fire (Relief and Resettlement Department, 2009). Philippines situated along a stretch of risk prone area, near the most seismically active part of the earth, the Pacific Ring of Fire. Hence, Philippines also vulnerable to volcanic eruption and earthquake (ADPC, 2001 cited in Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010). Vietnam has located in the tropical monsoon area in ASEAN, it is one of the most hazard prone area in the Asia Pacific Region (World Bank, 2011).

On the contrary, Brunei Darussalam is generally free from severe natural disasters such as earthquake, volcanic eruption and typhoon. However, it faced thunderstorm, monsoon flood, man-made disaster, and haze (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013a). Malaysia has located outside the Pacific Ring of Fire and is generally free from severe natural disasters such as earthquake, volcanic eruption and typhoon. Nonetheless, it is affected from other disasters such as flood, man-made disaster, and landslide (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011a). Singapore has located

outside the Pacific Ring of Fire, thus it is away from the ravages and destruction caused by natural phenomena for example earthquake and volcanic eruption. However, being highly urbanized, Singapore's main challenges are man-made and technology-based disaster (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013c). Thailand, there have been many disasters over the past decade, such as tsunami and flood, especially flood disaster in 2011 which appear loss of life and asset in many areas. Therefore, mostly natural disasters in the ASEAN countries are flood and storm (Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010; Pereira, Tiong & Komoo, 2010).

3.4 The disaster management in the ASEAN countries

All of the ASEAN countries have established national organizations to disaster management as the following. In Brunei Darussalam, the National Disaster Management Centre (NDMC) has led initiatives to ensure all aspects of disaster management, mitigation and prevention, preparedness, and response and recovery are considered though policies, strategies and practices implemented guided by international, regional and national drivers. The NDMC's strategy is to enhance capacity in both response and preparedness with the main objective in building disaster resilience community. The NDMC has also embarked on public awareness program to increase community resilience through the community based disaster risk management (CBDRM) (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013a).

The National Committee for Disaster Management (NCDM) of Cambodia has established the actions for achieve the goals of the disaster management (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013e), review and improve the legislations, policies, and promote resources and budget allocation, improve system and mechanism of disaster management, mainstream disaster risk reduction into social-economic development and poverty elevation agenda, invest long term disaster management knowledge building and strengthen regional, international collaboration and cooperation in disaster management.

National agency for disaster management (known as Badan Nasional Penanggulangan Bencana, or BNPB) is an independent body that has the authority to coordinates and implements disaster management programs and activities in Indonesia (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011b). Indonesia has law on disaster management (Law 24/2007) that outlines the principles, division of labor, organization and implementation of the national disaster management system, including the role of international organizations. In addition, Indonesia was among the first few countries in Asia to formulate a national action plan for disaster risk reduction (World Bank, 2011). Moreover, Alexander, Halbrendt and Salim (2006), concluded that resources management in Indonesia, the sustainable vulnerability reduction for disaster risk management (DRM) of Indonesia tsunami rehabilitation and reconstruction plans are listed under the categories of resource provision. Furthermore, disaster management by people or community based has occurred in Bantul district, Indonesia. People rebuild their house by themselves after disaster. Local government has only supported basic housing needs (Kusumasari & Alam, 2012).

Lao PDR, the National Disaster Management Committee (NDMC) have responsibilities for developing policies and coordinating disaster risk management activities in the country. The disaster risk management framework developed by the

Government is appropriately structured both vertically and horizontally to identify and address the threats of hazards at the village, district, provincial, municipal and national levels of society (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013b).

The National Security Council (NSC) is the principal policy making and coordinating body for disaster management in Malaysia (Komoo, Aziz, & Lim, 2009a cited in Pereira, Tiong & Komoo, 2010). The NSC has been organizing community based disaster management programmes in collaboration with other agencies such as the Malaysian Meteorological Department (MMD), and the Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia, (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011a).

Moreover, Malaysia has various experiences of disaster management, for example biological, structural collapse, fires and explosions, landslides and meteorological incidents (Said & Ahmadun, 2007). Malaysia has undertaken various measures to enhance disaster prevention, mitigation, response, relief and recovery in the country such as; amendments to existing laws and acts, public awareness and education, establishment of forecasting and early warning systems, mitigation structures, national disaster relief fund; and development of standard operating procedures (Che Moin, 2006 cited in Said & Ahmadun, 2007). In addition, Billa, Shattri, Mahmud and Ghazali (2006) discovered that spatial decision support system (SDSS) in Malaysia has the role in the collection and processing of information to speed up communication between the proponents of the disaster management program.

The National Disaster Preparedness Central Committee (NDPCC) is responsible for disaster management in Myanmar. The NDPCC has established the Myanmar Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction (MAPDRR) for disaster resilient. Moreover, four working groups were constituted to develop the specific components of MAPDRR, namely: 1.hazard, vulnerability and risk assessment and multi-hazard early warning systems, 2.policy, institutional arrangement and further institutional development and preparedness and response programs at national, state/division, district and township levels, 3.mainstreaming disaster risk reduction into development, and 4.community based disaster preparedness and risk reduction and public awareness, education and training (Relief and Resettlement Department, 2009).

National Disaster Coordinating Council (NDCC) is the highest policy-making and coordinating organization for disaster management in Philippines. Philippines have disaster management which covers risk reduction and preparedness before disaster, response during disaster and recovery after disaster (Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010). Moreover, Pulhin et. al (2010) concluded that factors led to an effective integration of disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation were awareness raising, enabling policies, effective leadership and cooperative, and technological and capacity building.

The Singapore Civil Defence Force (SCDF) is Singapore's leading operational authority. The SCDF is responsible for leading and coordinating the multiagency response. The emergency preparedness and disaster management activities undertaken by Singapore are based on three main principles, namely: 1) prevention, 2) readiness, and 3) awareness (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013c).

In Thailand, start from the legal framework, by enacting the Disaster Prevention and Mitigation Act 2007 or DPM Act 2007, the foundation of legal mechanism of Thailand's disaster management system. The Department of Disaster Prevention and Mitigation (DDPM) is stipulated as the core government department in handling national disaster management tasks. Afterwards, by launching the National Disaster Prevention and Mitigation Plan 2010-2014, Thailand's disaster management system was formulated by focusing on three main parts; 1) principles of disaster management, 2) disaster countermeasure procedure, and 3) security threat and countermeasure procedure in managing both natural disaster and national security issues. The severe flood situation in Bangkok and surrounding areas is consequently brought about the launch of royal decree in the creation of National Catastrophe Insurance Fund 2012 to provide risk management caused by flood, earthquake and windstorm. The fund includes the insurance and reinsurance of household, small and medium enterprises and industry sector (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013d). Moreover, the National Committee on Disaster Prevention and Mitigation (NCDPM) has been instituted and served as a policy making body on disaster management. This Committee is chaired by the Prime Minister and comprised of designated members from related Ministries and government agencies (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2013d). The NCDPM has function to formulate the national disaster prevention and mitigation plan, approve the national plan before submitting to the cabinet, integrate the development of disaster prevention and mitigation system among all concerned sectors, give recommendations, consultation, and support to concerned agencies propose regulation on remuneration.

Vietnam's government approved the national strategy for natural disaster prevention, response and mitigation to 2020 which lays out Vietnam's primary disaster risk management objectives, focusing largely on water related disaster. The main objectives of the national strategy are the integration of disaster risk management into socio-economic development plans with a focus on disaster response, ensuring sustainable disaster recovery which integrates disaster risk management, planning five different regional disaster risk management strategies for the five geographical regions of the country, combining structural and non-structural measures in disaster risk management and dividing implementation responsibilities, and timing for risk reduction among a range of ministries (World Bank, 2011). Moreover, management tools were applied for disaster management in Vietnam. For example, Tu and Nitivattananon (2011) discovered that adaptation process to cope with flood risk in Ho Chi Minh city, focused on integrating vulnerability assessment with the assessment tools in order to develop as well as implement adaptation measures effectively.

Although, the ASEAN countries have national organizations and many procedures of the natural disaster management. However, disaster management in the ASEAN countries have weakness as the following; location near the most seismically active part of the earth namely: the Pacific Ring of Fire; the high population density in many of the larger cities increased the vulnerability of the population in case of large scale disasters (World Bank, 2011); deficiency in economic planning, economic forecasting, and annual budgetary planning process (Benson, 2009 cited in Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010); lack a coordination among stakeholders are also among the weakness of the disaster management; lack a system of disaster risk and vulnerability indicators at national and sub-national scales (World Bank, 2011); lack a master for natural

disaster management, participation of local and international NGOs, education and knowledge for tsunami, and information management system (Moe & Pathranarakul, 2006; Lebel, Lebel & Daniel, 2010); resources (budget) constraints (World Bank 2007 cited in Nguyen, Shaw & SVRK, 2010); and limitation of professional staff and low commitment of government staff (Nguyen, Shaw & SVRK, 2010).

Therefore, first, there is a need to update the disaster management system and practice, particularly including medium and long term visioning for mitigation and reducing risks to natural disaster. Second, the need to integrate efforts on disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation has been recently gaining greater recognition (Pulhin, Tapia & Perez, 2010). Third, the need to improve sub-regional, regional, and international coordination in the field of disaster management and disaster risk reduction, particularly in the development of early warning mechanisms and disaster preparedness to minimize the impacts of disaster (ASEAN Inter Parliamentary Assembly, 2011b). Fourth, the need capability for disaster management cycle in local government are evaluation, monitoring, dissemination, planning, exercise, training, assessment, information exchange, logistical expertise, damage assessment expertise, debris removal and disaster assistance skills (Kusumasari, Alam & Siddiqui, 2010).

Fifth, the need to improve warning information system because of management information system and network system have the role for saving people and property before and during disaster (Martin, 2007). Sixth, the need for better awareness on disaster risk reduction at the community level to encourage community prepare to mitigate disaster risks properly (Shikada, Myint, Ko Gyi, Nakagawa & Shaw, 2012). In addition, the community based disaster risk management (CBDRM) methodology need to be continually used as a core concept in the future disaster risk reduction program which the key success recommendations as the following (Nguyen, Shaw & SVRK, 2010).

- 1) Ensuring community participation and government linkages, including communications with authorities and disaster management focal points.
- 2) Focusing projects more on sustainable livelihoods and strengthening capacity.
- 3) Mainstreaming disaster risk reduction into national and local development planning rather than “stand-alone” projects.
- 4) Accessing more resources and longer funding cycles to enable disaster risk reduction initiatives to be fully integrated into development plans.
- 5) Addressing food security issues for rural households when constructing disaster risk reduction projects at a community level.

Therefore the CBDRM is a process in which at risk communities are actively engaged in the identification, analysis, treatment, monitoring and evaluation of disaster risks in order to reduce vulnerabilities and enhance capacities (Centre for International Studies and Cooperation, n.d.).

Moreover, an integrated database management system needs to be developed, regular educational and community awareness programs are also required on disaster

prevention measures, specifically for disaster risk mitigation strategies, and need to establishment of the Ministerial Integrated Disaster Prevention and Mitigation Action Plan on disaster management with focusing on disaster management by participation of all involved agencies at provincial and ministerial, private and government sectors, and foundation and NGOs.

4.Methodology

The related information with the natural disaster management of the ASEAN countries were collected from academic journals such as Disaster Prevention and Management journal, books such as Community Based Disaster Risk Reduction, Climate Change Adaptation and Disaster Risk Reduction, country report such as World Bank, and website such as www.aipasecretariat.org. Afterwards, the author reviewed and analyzed information for investigate the key success factors that affect to disaster management ability in the ASEAN countries and the model to improve disaster management ability in the ASEAN countries.

5.Results

The author found results of study as the following.

5.1 The impacts from natural disasters in the ASEAN countries were loss of life and property, injury, destruction of buildings and infrastructures, damage of agriculture and livestock, and depress of economic and social.

5.2 The key success factors that affect to disaster management ability in the ASEAN countries as the following.

1) Before disaster were appropriate policies, laws, and plans, disaster awareness, and education and training on disaster.

2) During disaster were effective leadership, suitable decision, standard operating, adequate resources, good network between public sector and stakeholders, and updated data and technology.

3) After disaster were knowledge management, damage assessment and recovery, and long term disaster planning.

5.3 The model for improve disaster management ability in the ASEAN countries should have six elements as the following.

1) Proactive disaster management means that should to emphasis on before and long term of disaster management.

2) Allocation resources mean that related organization with disaster management should to obtain sufficient budget, staff, and material.

3) Empowerment for local authorities in disaster management because of local organization must face to disaster before other organization.

- 4) Linkage key stakeholders among public, private, and NGOs sectors for enhance participation, collaboration, and potential in disaster management.
- 5) Community based disaster risk management should to implement seriously for promote community prevent, respond, and recovery damage from disaster by themselves.
- 6) Management information system for disaster management should be always accurate, fast, and modern.

6. Conclusion

The combination of the ASEAN countries as the ASEAN community in 2015 is good opportunity for cooperation to manage natural disaster in the ASEAN region. The calamity from natural disaster have broadly effected to countries in the ASEAN, for example the tsunami on 26 December 2004 ruined to Indonesia and Thailand. Although, they have instituted many organizations and laws for the natural disaster management within their countries, but have acquired huge destroy from the tsunami. Because of, each country in the ASEAN countries has different of experience, strength, weakness, and readiness in the natural disaster management. Therefore, each country in the ASEAN should to support knowledge, personnel, resources (budget), and material each other for conduce to strength in the natural disaster management and decline destroy from natural disaster.

Moreover, the ASEAN's cooperation in management natural disaster should not be only law binding, but must lead to implement seriously. Furthermore, the natural disaster management in the ASEAN countries should be more intensive and concentrate to all cycle of disaster management; before disasters are prevention, mitigation, and preparedness, during disasters are response and support, and after disasters are recovery and development.

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Assessment of Undergraduate Research Experience: A Tool Towards a Research-Oriented Curriculum

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Abstract

Undergraduate research course should be regularly evaluated in order to explore and assess student gains and the overall impact of the course to student learning outcomes. Undergraduate students in two engineering programs in the College of Engineering and Technology are the subjects of this study. The assessment was based on eleven Program Outcomes (PO) to be measured as mandated by the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET). The ABET a-k outcomes served as criteria to obtain a reliable assessment of the course's impact on participating students. A range of methodology and instruments were used from perception based to structured conversations of the students before and after the research experience to examine the current practice of undergrad research and to better understand its strength and weaknesses. Results showed that prior exposure to tasks that involve research and mentoring relationship will give a better feel for the research environment. Based on the findings of the study, an undergrad research program aim to achieve the program outcomes of NEU-CET is proposed.

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study aimed to evaluate the existing undergraduate research practice of the College of Engineering and Technology Department - New Era University will answer the following questions:

1. How did students describe their expectations about undergrad research
 - 1.1. before the research started, and
 - 1.2 after the research experience?
2. How did students assess the level of skills they have
 - 2.1 before the research started, and
 - 2.2 as a result of the research experience?
3. Is there a significant difference in the students' expectations about undergrad research before and after the research experience?
4. Is there a significant difference in the assessment of skills of the undergraduate students before and as a result of the research experience?
5. How may an undergrad research program be designed to achieve the Program Outcomes of NEU-CET?

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In the Philippines, one of the missions of the Commission of Higher education is to produce thoughtful graduates imbued with the competency to learn continuously throughout life that will enable them to live meaningfully in a complex, rapidly changing and globalized world while engaging in their community and the nation's development issues and concerns. In order to attain this competency, the Commission on Higher education integrates the subject undergraduate research in the curriculum. The curriculum is designed to guarantee a certain breadth of knowledge through a set of core courses and to ensure depth and focus in certain fields of specialization. However, for a country where research is at the periphery of higher education curricula and where universities are mostly 'teaching universities' as opposed to 'research universities' (Bernardo, 2007), the Philippines faces one of the greatest challenges in restructuring its higher education to compete globally, or even with its closest neighbor countries, in areas of research.

In 1997, the Council on Undergraduate Research defines undergraduate research as an inquiry or investigation conducted by an undergraduate that makes an original intellectual or creative contribution to the discipline. Research is the development of new knowledge or understanding in order to advance science and technology. To develop new knowledge universities are challenged to involve students in research to enhance their learning (Merkel, 2003). Undergraduate research was described as a partnership between students and their mentors through which students apply knowledge gained in the classroom to explore new problems and increase intellectual capacity. For most students, actual experiences with their peers provide the best learning tools that will enhance their ability and most of them conduct research by teams (Doerschuk, 2004). To attain the goals of undergraduate research, student researchers are engaged in consulting experts, presenting conference papers, writing for publications, participating in research clubs, and networking or collaborating with peer mentors or faculty mentors (Dohm & Cummings, 2002; Johnston & McCornack, 1997; Merkel, 2003). The undergraduate research experience is widely promoted as an effective educational tool for enhancing the students experience with multiple

benefits (Lopatto, 2004). It increased the interest of the students in the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics workforce (Fitzsimmons et al., 1990; Zydney et al., 2002).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study is anchored on situated cognition theory of instruction that suggests learning as naturally tied to authentic activity, context, and culture (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Situated learning usually involves engaging in tasks which parallel real world applications (Heeter, 2005). Situated examples include “apprentice-like” situations where most skills are taught by working with masters in the same way as physicians learned to operate by watching and assisting other physicians. Thus, a beginner moves from the periphery of a community to its center. While doing so, becomes more active and engaged within the culture eventually assuming the role of an expert (Learning Theories Knowledgebase, 2008b).

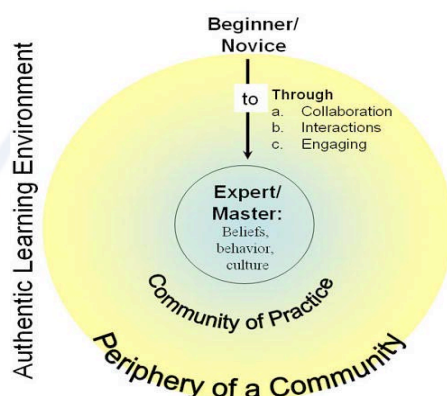


Figure 1. The Concept of Apprentice-like Undergraduate Research Experience

Communities develop their practice through a variety of methods, including: problem solving, requests for information, seeking the experience of others, reusing assets, coordination and synergy, discussing developments, visiting other members, mapping knowledge and identifying gaps, thus social interaction and collaboration are essential components of situated learning (Learning Theories Knowledgebase, 2008b).

METHODOLOGY

The researchers used the descriptive method of research. The respondents of the study are the students taking up undergraduate research. The researchers employed the use of questionnaire and interview guide. The questionnaire was drafted and validated with other students who are enrolled with undergraduate research that were not included in the respondents of the study. The figure below outlines the research paradigm of the study.

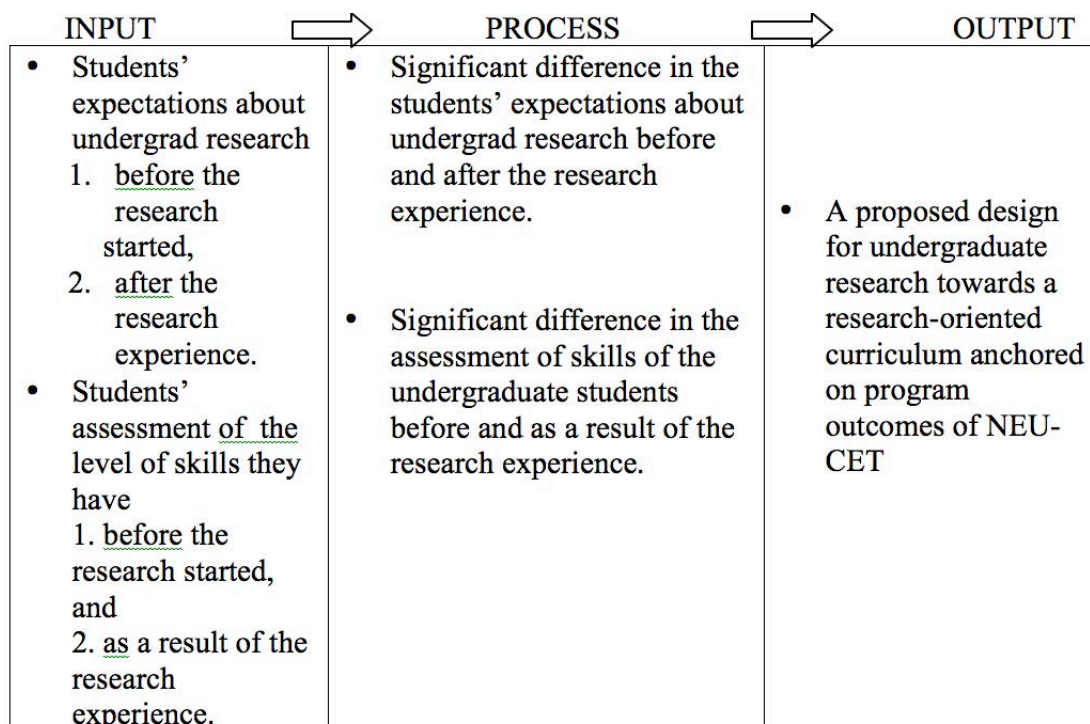


Figure 2

The Research Paradigm

The researchers employed the following evaluation procedures to gather the data required in the study:

1. Survey. A valid and reliable questionnaire developed by David Lopatto was used to describe students' expectations about undergraduate research and the skills they have before the research experience. The same questionnaire was used to assess the level of skills gained as a result of research experience

Before the survey was conducted, the researchers first considered to address the alignment of the skills gained out of research experience with Program Outcomes as shown in Table 1 (next page).

Table 1. Alignment of Program Outcomes to the Level of Skills Gained as a Result of the Research Experience

Program Outcomes. A graduate of the Bachelor of Science in any Engineering program should be able to:											
a. apply knowledge of mathematics to the practice of engineering.											
b. design, analyze and interpret data.											
c. design, build, improve, and install systems or processes to meet desired needs.											
d. practice multi-disciplinary skills											
e. recognize, formulate, and solve engineering problems.											
f. recognize professional, social, and ethical responsibility.											
g. effectively communicate orally and in writing the use of the English language.											
h. relate the effects of engineering solutions in a comprehensive context.											
i. engage in life-long learning and keep current of the developments in the specific field of specialization.											
j. use the techniques, skills and engineering tools necessary for engineering and business practice.											
k. perform services in the form of analysis, design, preparation of plans, specifications, estimates, and implementation of work standards, statistical process control systems, production planning and materials control systems, manufacturing and service facilities, operations research models for production and operation, information systems											
Skills Gained	PO Code Link(s)										
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	K
1. Skills in interpretation of results		√									
2. Tolerances for obstacles faced in the research process			√								
3. Readiness for more demanding research								√			
4. Understanding how knowledge is constructed	√										
5. Understanding of the research process in your field		√	√					√		√	√
6. Ability to integrate theory and practice	√										
7. Understanding of how engineering students work on real problems	√		√		√					√	√
8. Understanding that scientific assertions require supporting evidence								√		√	
9. Ability to analyze data and other information		√									
10. Learning ethical conduct in your field						√					
11. Learning laboratory techniques										√	
12. Ability to read and understand primary literature							√				
13. Skill in how to give an effective oral presentation							√				
14. Skill in research writing							√				
15. Self-confidence						√					
16. Understanding how students work as a team				√							
17. Learning to work independently		√									
18. Becoming part of learning community						√					
19. Confidence in my potential to in the academe									√		

2. Interview. Students were interviewed before and after the research experience to verify some information and gather additional data needed to answer the research questions.

The survey was administered to 44 graduating engineering students. They were also asked to reflect and provide suggestions to their undergrad research experience. The results of the survey were treated statistically. The perceptions and reflection of the respondents were interpreted qualitatively based on the quality of data gathered from the questionnaire.

TREATMENT OF DATA

The data gathered were tailed, tabulated and analyzed in accordance with the stated problem described in this study.

For the assessment of skills gained during the undergraduate research experience the following scale and the corresponding interpretation were used:

1. *Likert Scale*. A 4-point Likert scale was used in this study.

	Scale	Interpretation
1	1.00 – 1.49	Little Accomplishment
2	1.50 – 2.49	Partial Accomplishment
3	2.50 – 3.49	Substantial Accomplishment
4	3.50 – 4.00	Full Accomplishment

2. *Percentage* was used to determine the number of responses against the total number of respondents.

3. *Weighted Mean* was used to determine the central tendency of the responses.

4. *Standard Deviation* was used to measure how spread the scores of the respondents are.

5. *t-Test* was to determine the significant differences between the responses of the undergraduate students against the recent graduates on the level of skills gained as a result of the research experience

FINDINGS

The following are salient findings of the study based on the problems raised:

1. Students' expectations about the undergraduate research experience at NEU-CET.

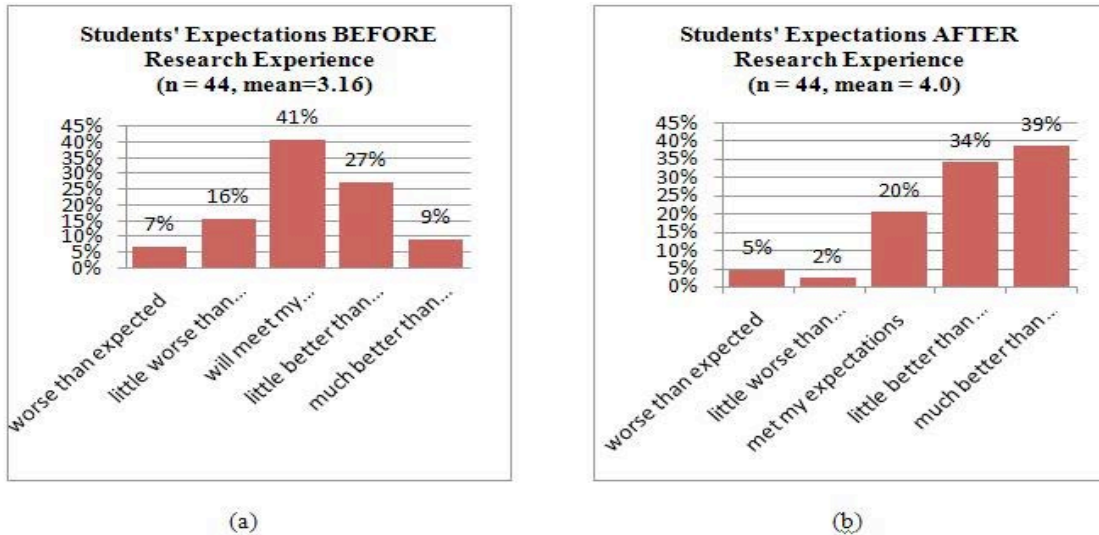


Figure 3. Description of Students' Expectations about the Undergraduate Research Experience

In Figure 3a, forty one per cent of the undergraduate students perceived that the undergrad research experience met their expectations. However, result of a survey after the research experience (Figure 3b) indicated that thirty nine per cent described the experience as much better than expected. Applying T-test, there is significant difference before and after the research experience at 0.05 level of significance.

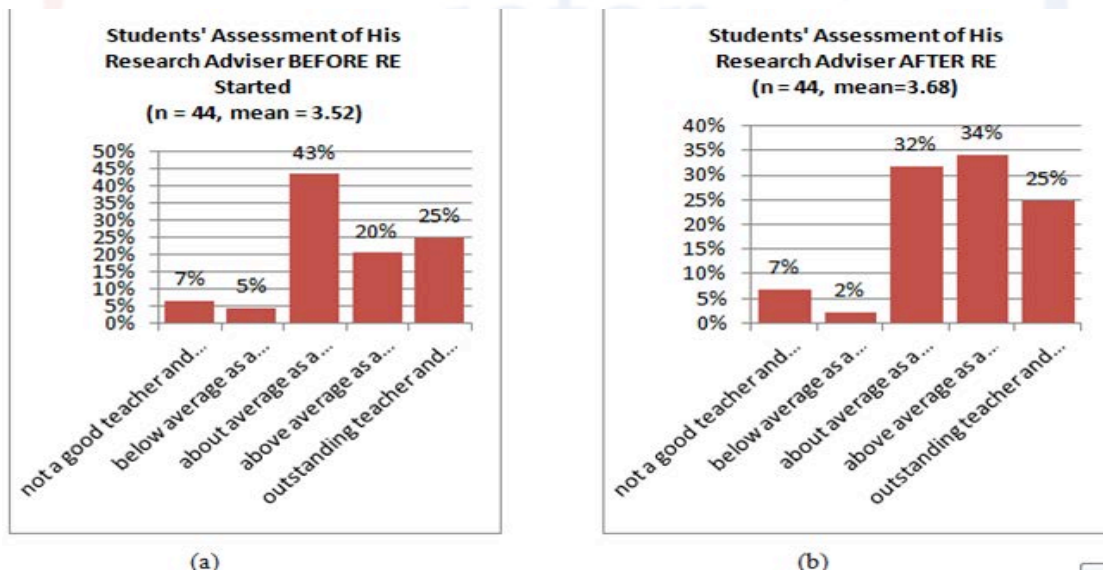


Figure 4. Description of Students' Assessment of the Research Experience as to Mentor

In Figure 4a, forty three per cent of the respondents agreed that their adviser is about average as teacher and mentor. However, the students' assessment to adviser's mentoring ability has changed positively after the research experience as shown in Figure 4b. More than fifty nine per cent of respondents agreed that their research adviser was more than average as a mentor and a teacher. Applying T-test, there is no significant difference before and after the research experience at 0.05 level of significance.

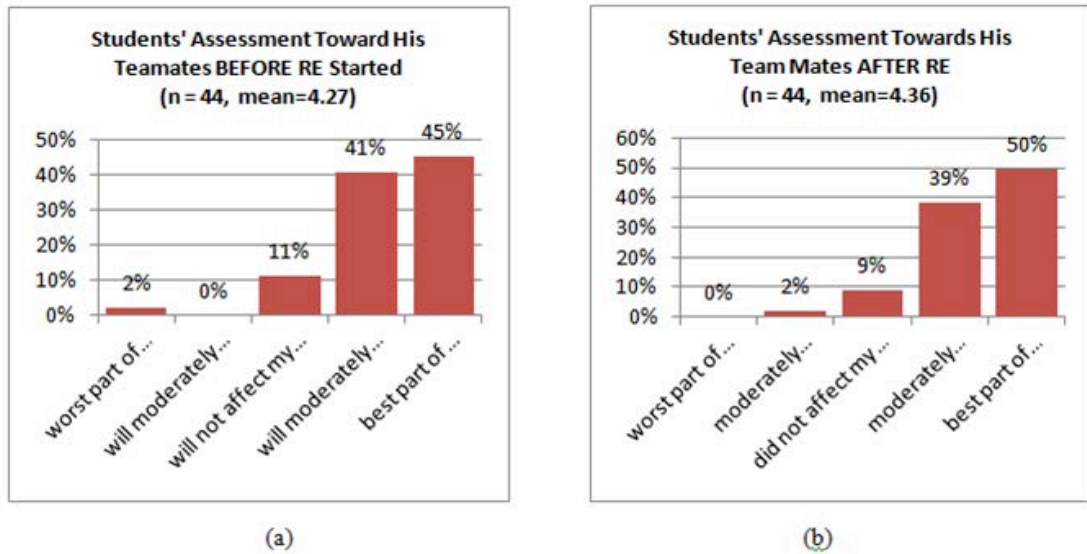


Figure 5. Description of Students' Assessment of the Research Experience as to Team Mates

In Figure 5, assessment of the respondents showed an almost similar assessment before and after the research experience when asked to describe how working with others students enhanced their research experience as shown in Figure 5a and 5b. Applying T-test, there is no significant difference before and after the research experience at 0.05 level of significance.

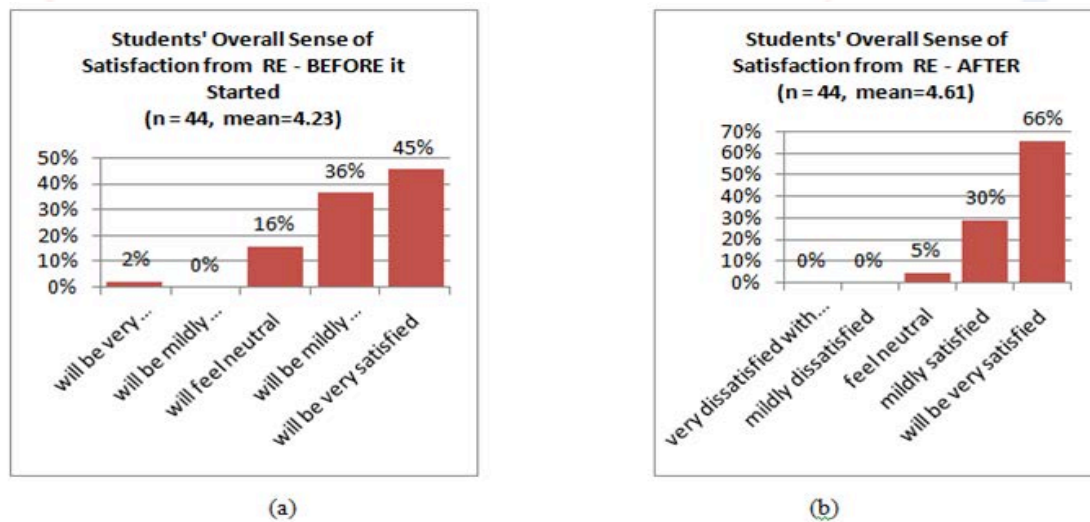


Figure 6. Description of Students' Assessment of the Research Experience as Overall Sense of Satisfaction

In Figure 6, result of the survey indicated an increase of nearly 20 per cent in terms of overall sense of satisfaction of the undergrad student before and after the research experience. Applying T-test, there is significant difference before and after the research experience at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 2. Extent to Which Behaviour Has Changed as a Result of Undergrad Experience

	Before (%)	After (%)
I feel that I have become better able to think independently and formulate my own ideas	There is significant difference	
I feel that I have become more intrinsically motivated to learn.	There is significant difference	
I feel that I have become more active learner.	There is significant difference	

In Table 2, a change in response was observed as regards to what extent they consider the ways in which their behaviour has changed as a result of research experience. The same holds true as to whether they *have become more intrinsically motivated to learn* and as to changes in *becoming a more active learner* before and after the research experience.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics and Paired t Tests Before vs. After the Research Experience as to Skills Gained

Skills Gained	After			Before			T-test
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Verbal Interpretation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Verbal Interpretation	
1. Skills in interpretation of results	3.00	0.00	Substantial Accomplishment	2.91	0.63	Substantial Accomplishment	0.37
2. Tolerances for obstacles faced in the research process	3.29	0.37	Substantial Accomplishment	2.73	0.47	Substantial Accomplishment	2.64
3. Readiness for more demanding research	2.43	0.53	Partial Accomplishment	2.45	0.52	Partial Accomplishment	-0.08
4. Understanding how knowledge is constructed	3.43	0.40	Substantial Accomplishment	2.73	0.71	Substantial Accomplishment	2.36
5. Understanding of the research process in your	3.43	0.40	Substantial Accomplishment	2.82	0.56	Substantial Accomplishment	2.49

field			ishment			ishment	
6. Ability to integrate theory and practice	2.86	0.38	Substantial Accomplishment	2.45	0.64	Partial Accomplishment	1.51
7. Understanding of how engineering students work on real problems	3.57	0.40	Full Accomplishment	3.00	0.56	Substantial Accomplishment	2.34
8. Understanding that scientific assertions require supporting evidence	3.57	0.40	Full Accomplishment	3.00	0.40	Substantial Accomplishment	2.95
9. Ability to analyze data and other information	3.29	0.37	Substantial Accomplishment	2.91	0.49	Substantial Accomplishment	1.73
10. Learning ethical conduct in your field	3.29	0.37	Substantial Accomplishment	2.91	0.63	Substantial Accomplishment	1.42
11. Learning laboratory techniques	2.43	0.71	Partial Accomplishment	2.55	0.52	Substantial Accomplishment	-0.42
12. Ability to read and understand primary literature	2.57	0.70	Substantial Accomplishment	3.09	0.73	Substantial Accomplishment	-1.49
13. Skill in how to give an effective oral presentation	3.00	0.51	Substantial Accomplishment	2.82	0.56	Substantial Accomplishment	0.69
14. Skill in research writing	3.14	0.29	Substantial Accomplishment	2.55	0.52	Substantial Accomplishment	2.74
15. Self-confidence	3.43	0.40	Substantial Accomplishment	3.00	0.68	Substantial Accomplishment	1.50
16. Understanding how students work as a team	3.86	0.29	Full Accomplishment	3.09	0.46	Substantial Accomplishment	3.92
17. Learning to work independently	3.86	0.29	Full Accomplishment	3.18	0.65	Substantial Accomplishment	2.58

			shment			Accomp lishment	
18. Becoming part of learning community	3.29	0.37	Substanti al Accompli shment	3.18	0.51	Substant ial Accomp lishment	0.47
19. Confidence in my potential to in the academe	3.29	0.37	Substanti al Accompli shment	3.00	0.56	Substant ial Accomp lishment	1.19

Tabulated $t=1.746$ at 0.05 level of significance

In Table 3, the skills that ranked the most in terms of skills gained as a result of research experience as shown in Table 3 were *understanding how students work as a team* and *learning to work independently* whereas the skills that ranked lowest were *readiness for more demanding research* and *learning laboratory techniques*. In terms of the level of skills gained as a result of undergrad research experience, the following are the skills that showed significant difference at 0.05 level of significance.

- tolerances for obstacles faced in the research process
- understanding how knowledge is constructed
- understanding of the research process in your field
- understanding of how engineering students work on real problems
- understanding that scientific assertions require supporting evidence
- skill in research writing
- understanding how students work as a team
- learning to work independently

5. Based on the findings of this study, an undergrad research program aim to achieve the program outcomes of NEU-CET will be proposed as reflected in Table 4 (see next page).

Table 4. Proposed Undergraduate Research Program

Focus of Concern	Objective	Strategies	Personnel involved	Time Frame	Success Indicators
Research Capability of students	To develop the research competence of the students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct Research Mentoring and Advising activities • Create study groups • Facilitate exchange of ideas with peers and faculty • Involve students in research projects of faculty • Regular seminars and workshops on research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faculty • Students • School administration • University research center 	continuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% of students are involved in research • Increase in institutional research outputs authored by faculty and students • Research outputs are presented in local and international conferences • CET students are also research leaders • Faculty/students publications
Student Motivation	To encourage students to conduct studies in their own field of specialization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student researcher awards • Scholarships • Research grants • Facilitate connection of classroom learning and student interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faculty • School administration • University research center 	continuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% of students' participation in Research Colloquium • At least 50% of students avail of the scholarships and awards offered • Increase in the number of scientific research outputs/patents • Undergraduate researches are highlighted in campus media
Project planning	To ensure that projects of CET students are effectively managed to meet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Project planning assistance such as provision of gantt chart style planner or an electronic planner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faculty • students 	continuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in research projects by discipline • Undergrad Research Progress Management System (URPMS)

	critical dates and budget				
Curriculum	To produce engineering graduates who are equipped with the necessary tools to conduct scientific studies To produce highly accomplished leaders/researchers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review and enhance existing curricula by mapping the subjects prior to undergrad research (introductory, enabling and demonstrative) Enhance syllabi to ensure that students are prepared for scientific research undertakings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Subject leaders Program chairs faculty 	Start of every academic year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Production of graduates who are research experts Higher chance of CET programs in meeting the requirements of accrediting bodies

CONCLUSION

The respondents' description of their expectations about undergraduate experience indicated that a number of them had no idea what they were into. Prior exposure to tasks that involve research will give a better feel for the research environment, hence, better if not excellent expectations.

Faculty members play an integral role in undergrad research experiences. In this study, mentoring relationship may also be described as either average or above average indicating a need to further enhance the relationship because it is frequently the defining factor when measuring the quality of students' overall undergrad experiences (Kinhead, 2003). The same may also be said about the working relationship and self satisfaction as a result of the experience with other students doing research.

The impact of undergraduate research experience to the respondents in terms of being able to think independently and formulate own ideas, becoming more intrinsically motivated to learn, and becoming more active learner is moderate and even lower for recent graduates. This may imply that students' connection to learning opportunities were not strong enough to give positive results.

Finally, *understanding how students work as a team* had the most impact among the skills gained as a result of the undergrad research experience. This may indicate that a strong connection and collaboration between peers were established out of the research experience.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the researchers humbly offer the following recommendations:

1. Enhance the productive collaboration between faculty and students through research apprenticeship with faculty. Students in the 3rd year level should already be involved in research studies lead by faculty and be immersed of the benefits in the research experience to gain increasing independence and to facilitate the introduction of graduate-school education to these students. This may be achieved by providing students the opportunity to present their work at symposia and poster presentation sessions.
2. An undergraduate research program service designed to enhance collaboration between academic researchers and researchers from public and private sectors of the community should be in placed to provide opportunities for undergraduate research projects. The same program should provide funds for undergraduate research project supplies and expenses. Undergraduate research scholarship may also be provided as well as arrange for summer research residence and enrichment programs. This may also result to more opportunity to do researches that will have side-benefit of facilitating faculty and commercial researches, thereby leading to the creation of better research products and more interaction with the industry, engineering practice and academic world outside New Era University.
3. Participation of the alumni in undergraduate research program should be proposed for they have the advantage of distance and seeing how educational experiences helped with career or graduate school.

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Examining the Role of Leadership Styles and Leader Communication Styles on Leader-Member Exchange Relationship and Conflict Management among Bank Employees in the Philippines

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Abstract

This paper examines the direct causal link between leadership styles and leader communication styles, the direct causal link between leadership styles and quality of leader-member exchange relationship (LMX), and the extent to which leader communication styles mediates the relationship between leadership styles and LMX. Using hierarchical multiple regression analysis, three regression models were estimated on data drawn from 228 domestic bank employees in the Philippines. The results showed that transformational leadership style was negatively related to the communication style of verbal aggressiveness and positively related to preciseness. Verbal aggressiveness and preciseness partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and LMX. Transactional leadership was significantly related to leader emotionality, questioningness, and preciseness, which explained the relationship of transactional leadership with quality of LMX. Another important finding is the emergence of female communication styles given that over 78 percent of the respondents were females. *T-test* results found that females may be adopting male communication styles in order to be perceived as effective leaders. This paper concludes that leadership is enacted through leader communication styles. The managerial implications focus on the importance of leader communication styles in building quality dyadic relationships in the workplace, particularly in conflict management due to the impact that leader communication plays in proximal, power relationships, intercultural relations, and gender communications. The paper contributes to the field of conflict management, leadership communication, and gender communication by examining the role of leader communication in avoiding conflict that leads to quality dyadic relationships.

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Introduction

Communication and conflict follow a cause and effect relationship. Communication could either lead to a productive relationship or a conflicted relationship (Deutsch, 2006). The basic mechanism of communication is dialogue, and dialogue is the interactive pathway upon which relationships are built but dialogic interaction inherently contains divergent meaning interpretations, tensions, and struggles (Baxter, 2004; Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Cunliffe, 2009; Littlejohn & Foss, 2011; Richmond & McCroskey, 2009; Schuster, 1998; Shetach, 2012; Spaho, 2013; Stewart, Zediker, & Black, 2004). Proceeding from the idea that leadership is relational, and that relationships are built upon communication, then communication stands as the fundamental mechanism of the leadership process, the dynamics and outcome of which may lead to a productive or convergent relationship or in a conflicted or divergent relationship (Ayoko & Pekerti, 2008). As a relational process (Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Grean & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hosking, 1988; Hosking & Fineman, 1990; Uhl-Bien, 2006) however, leadership theories have subsumed leader communication behavior under the broad concept of communication (e.g. Bambacas & Patrickson, 2008, 2009), and it is only recently that leader communication styles (LCS) has been examined in relation to the leadership process (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; De Vries, Bakker-Piper, Siberg, Van Gameren, & Vlug, 2013). Yet, there remains a gap within the leadership literature that addresses the mechanism by which the leadership relationship is constructed.

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between leadership styles, leader communication styles, and the mediating effect of communication styles on the quality of leader-member exchange relationship (LMX). This research contributes significantly to leadership conflict management by understanding how dialogic discourse in different manners of conveyance embodied in communication styles mitigates interpersonal and organizational conflicts. In so doing, this research fills the gap by focusing on the manners of conveyance that draw attention and emphasis on leadership as communicative by nature (Bambacas & Patrickson, 2008, 2009; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Gaines, 2007; Hamrefors, 2010).

Leadership Styles

Transformational leadership is a leadership style that focus on inspirational relationships (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006; De Vries et al., 2010). All four behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership (a) idealized influence, (b) individualized consideration, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) inspirational motivate followers by appealing to the follower's need of self-esteem and self-actualization (Bass, 1990), thus requiring forms of communication that inspire and elevate follower motivation to transcend self-interest (Burns, 1978; Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, & Van Dick, 2012). Transformational leaders adapt forms of language and rhetoric (Yukl, 2010) involving the use of symbols, slogans, imagery, and metaphor (Amernic, Craig, & Tourish, 2007; Conger, 1991; Conger & Kanungo, 1998), as well as take the form of epideictic rhetoric (Bryman, 1992; Den Hartog & Verbug, 1997), which refers to the persuasive use of praise or blame in promoting social identification and conformity (Sheard, 1996; Summers, 2001). These forms of communication include impression management styles intended to create an image of being inspirational (Gardner & Cleavenger,

1998; Sosik & Jung, 2003). It may relate positively with specific communication styles but negatively with others (De Vries et al., 2010). For example, a transformational leader may be charismatic but not oratorically expressive (Bryman, 1992). Thus, this research examines the following hypotheses:

H_1^a : Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_1^b : Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_1^c : Transformational leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication style of questioningness.

H_1^d : Transformational leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of preciseness.

H_1^e : Transformational leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of emotionality.

H_1^f : Transformational leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of impression manipulateness.

In contrast, transactional leadership, which is a task-oriented leadership styles tend to adapt a more directive, controlling, and power-oriented communication styles in order to induce the successful completion of tasks (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; De Vries et al., 2010; Whittington, Coker, Goodwin, Ickes, & Murray, 2009). Transactional leadership assumes a contractual relationship that depends on the exchange of mutually beneficial outcomes in a dyadic relationship (Burns, 1978). It is a temporal and non-eduring relationship that does not extend beyond task performance where the performance is induced by rewards and punishments (Bass & Avolio, 1997). It is a behavioral compliance-gaining approach that follows a different dialogic discourse (Marwell & Schmidt, 1967). The following hypotheses are examined:

H_2^a : Transactional leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of expressiveness.

H_2^b : Transactional leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness.

H_2^c : Transactional leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of questioningness.

H_2^d : Transactional leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of preciseness.

H_2^e : Transactional leadership style is negatively related to the leader communication style of emotionality.

H_2^f : Transactional leadership style is positively related to the leader communication style of impression manipulateness.

Leader Communication Styles

Social interaction occurs in communication involving verbal, non-verbal and para-verbal modes (De Vries, et al., 2009; Kellerman, 1987). Interpersonal communication is a distinctive set of communicative behaviors “geared toward the optimization of hierarchical relationships in order to reach certain group or individual goals” (De Vries, et al., 2010, p. 368). Communication assumes an unconscious nature yet purposeful and intentional (Motley, 1990), thus more autonomic than deliberate in the

sense that a person, “cannot not communicate” (Bavelas, 1990; Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967, p. 51). In other words, a person is always communicating whether he is conscious of it or not, regardless of mode. In the lexical study of De Vries and colleagues (2009), interpersonal communication styles has six dimensions (a) expressiveness, (b) verbal aggressiveness, (c) questioningness, (d) preciseness, (e) emotionality, and (f) impression manipulateness. In explaining leadership in terms of communication styles, De Vries and colleagues (2010) found that charismatic leadership style significantly relate positively to preciseness, assuredness, supportiveness, and argumentativeness but negatively related to verbal aggressiveness, and surprisingly, it did not relate with expressiveness. Task-oriented leadership style was significantly related to verbal aggressiveness, preciseness, assuredness, and supportiveness. In the model of De Vries and colleagues however, communication styles predicted leadership styles. In this research, that model is reversed in that leadership style is examined to predict leader communication styles and the latter predicts LMX (Figure 1).

H_3^a : Leader communication style of expressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX relationship with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^b : Leader communication style of verbal aggressiveness is negatively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^c : Leader communication style of questioningness is negatively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but positively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^d : Leader communication style of preciseness is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

H_3^e : Leader communication style of emotionality is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational but negatively related with transactional leadership.

H_3^f : Leader communication style of impression manipulateness is positively related to the quality of LMX with transformational and transactional leadership.

Leader-Member Exchange

Leader communication styles reflect power differentials, which means that leader rhetoric is used to define and create supervisor-subordinate relationship (Morand, 1996, 2000). In creating power differentials, rhetorical tensions gives rise to conflicting values, which in turn influence the quality of LMX (Blau, 1986; Rogers & Lee-Wong, 2003). In the leadership context, LMX defines the role of the leader and follower in a reciprocal interaction, which is based on a mutual evaluation of expectations (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Bhal, Uday Bhaskar, & Ventaka Ratman, 2009; Brandes, Dharwadkar, & Wheatley, 2004; Dansereua, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When the evaluation leads to high expectations of the fulfillment of individual goals, each party engages into a close relationship of reciprocal behavior, thus high-LMX. Inversely, when the expectation is low, the willingness for reciprocal behavior is limited, thus low-LMX. The construction of this relationship is based on communication (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Fairhurst (1993) stated that it is “communicatively constructed” (p. 322).

Within a mediated model and consistent with previously proposed hypotheses, the current study argues that TF and TL predict LMX, and the LCS mediates this relationship. Thus, the following hypotheses are tested.

H_4^a : Transformational leadership style predicts the quality of LMX relationship.

H_4^b : Transactional leadership style predicts the quality of LMX relationship.

H_5^a : Leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and quality of LMX.

H_5^b : Leader communication styles mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and quality of LMX.

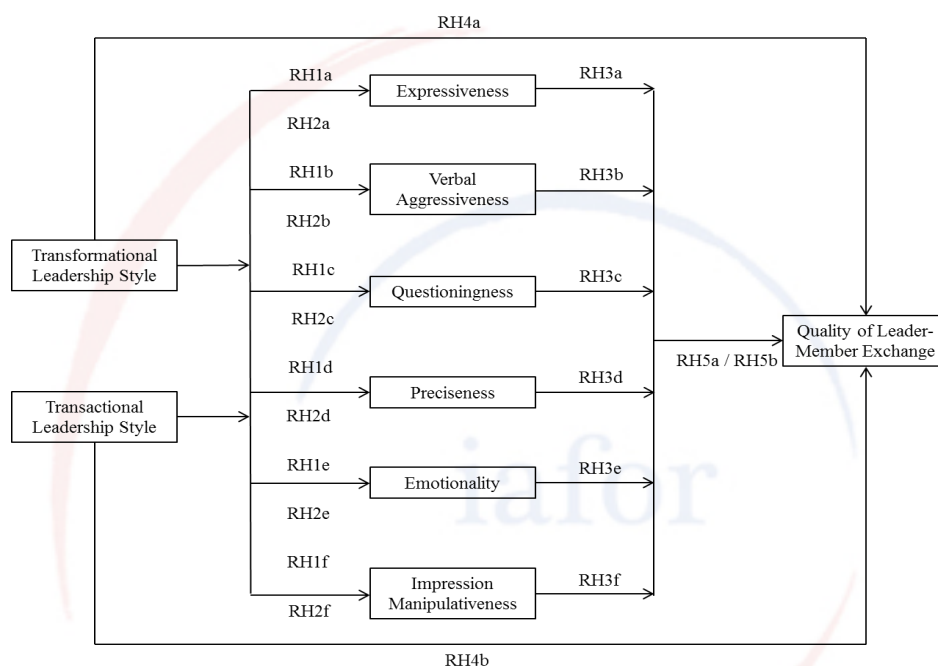


Figure 1: Hypothetical causal path of leadership styles on leader communication styles and on the quality of LMX. All H_1 hypotheses relating to transformational leadership are indicated above the line. All H_2 hypotheses relating to transactional leadership are indicated below the line.

Methodology

Sample and Data

The sample was drawn from domestic bank organizations in the Philippines. Data were collected online using SurveyGizmo. A total of $N = 228$ usable surveys were collected for a response rate of 76 percent. Male respondents comprised 28.9 percent while females were 71.1 percent. The age of the respondents ranged from 18 to 55 with the median age at 29. Over 76 percent of the respondents had bachelor's degrees. At least 55 percent or 126 of the respondents have been employed between 1 to 6 years. The supervisors among the sample group comprised 34.2 percent while non-supervisors comprised 64.5 percent.

Instrumentation and Variables

Leadership styles were measured using the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire-5X Rater Version (Bass & Avolio, 1997) to measure the independent variables, transformational and transactional leadership styles. The MLQ-5X comprise 16-items to measure four factors of transformational leadership and 12-items transactional leadership styles. Examples of transformational leadership questions are “Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her,” and “Talks optimistically about the future.” Examples of questions on transactional leadership are “Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts” and “Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.” The respondent answers the questions on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from 0-4, with 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Internal reliability for TF and TL leadership styles in the current study are $\sigma = .91$ and $\sigma = .71$, respectively.

Leader communication styles were measured using the 96-item Communication Style Inventory Rater Version (De Vries et al., 2009) scale comprising six sub-scales of 16-item each to measure leader communication styles of (a) expressiveness, (b) emotionality, (c) preciseness, (d) verbal aggressiveness, (e) questioningness, and (f) impression manipulateness (see Appendix B). The CSI is a 5-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1-5, with 1 = *completely disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *completely agree*. Examples of questions are “He/she always has a lot to say” (expressiveness); “When he/she tells a story, the different parts are always clearly related to each other” (preciseness); “If something displeases him/her, he/she sometimes explode in anger” (verbal aggressiveness); “He/she often say unexpected things” (questioningness); “When he/she sees others cry, he/she has difficulty holding back my tears” (emotionality); and “He/she sometimes praise somebody at great length, without being really genuine, in order to make them like him/her” (impression manipulateness). All sub-scales demonstrate acceptable internal reliabilities ranging from $\sigma = .69$ to $\sigma = .87$.

The unidimensional LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) was used to measure quality of relationships. The seven-item scale measures the effectiveness of the working relationship between a leader and follower dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Respondents answer a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from 1 = *rarely, not a bit, none, strongly disagree, or extremely ineffective*, 2 = *occasionally, a little, small, disagree, or worse than average*, 3 = *sometimes, a fair amount, moderate, neutral, or average*, 4 = *fairly often, quite a bit, mostly, high, agree, or better than average*, to 5 = *very often, a great deal, fully, very high, strongly agree, or extremely effective*. Sample item include “How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?” Internal reliability for the current study is $\sigma = .88$.

Data Analysis

In testing the mediated causal relationship of leadership communication styles and LMX with leader communication styles as mediating variables, hierarchical multiple regression was used to estimate three significant regression models (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2013). Baron and Kenny recommended estimating three regression equations to test the mediation linkages of the hypothesized model. Bivariate correlations are presented in Table 1 to examine the correlations of the

independent variables, leadership styles, and leader communication styles for covariation. The presence of significant covariation patterns makes accurate prediction possible in regression models.

Results

As indicated in Table 2, the first regression estimate shows that the model is significant, $F(7, 217) = 4.14, p < .001$. The results indicate that leadership styles predicted leader communication styles, $R = .34, p < .001$ controlling for age, education, employment, gender, and position. In the second regression estimate, the model is significant $F(7, 217) = 28.01, p < .001$, which shows that transformational leadership style predict LMX, $R = .69, p < .001$. In the third regression estimate, the model is significant showing that transformational leadership style and leader communication styles predicted LMX, $F(13, 211) = 25.18, p < .001$, and leader communication styles indicating the presence of mediation effects. Although the regression coefficients of transactional leadership, appear not significant in model 2 and 3, the bivariate correlation however are significant, thus possibly predictive of LMX, $r = .52, p < .01$. As Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) recommended, this research used the estimated regression model for prediction only and no attempt to interpret the regression coefficients of leadership styles was made. Instead, Hair et al. (2010) recommended examining the independent–dependent relationship of the variables individually when the regression coefficients appear inconclusive of prediction, thus each bivariate correlation was examined to determine significant relationships.

The bivariate correlations (see Table 1) shows transformational leadership has significant positive correlations with expressiveness ($r = .20, p < .01$), preciseness ($r = .44, p < .01$), and questioningness ($r = .19, p < .01$), but the causal propositions for expressiveness and questioningness are in the negative direction; thus, H_1^a and H_1^c are not supported. The results support the proposition that transformational leadership is negatively related to verbal aggressiveness, thus H_1^b is supported. Support was also found for preciseness in the positive direction, thus H_1^d is supported. Significant negative correlations were found with emotionality ($r = -.40, p < .01$), impression manipulateness ($r = -.16, p < .05$), and verbal aggressiveness ($r = -.57, p < .01$). Emotionality and impression manipulateness were hypothesized to have a positive relationship, but the results were significant in the negative direction, thus H_1^e and H_1^f are not supported. For transactional leadership style, three of the leader communication styles showed significant positive correlations with transactional leadership, expressiveness ($r = .19, p < .01$), preciseness ($r = .27, p < .01$), and questioningness ($r = .16, p < .05$), thus supporting $H_2^a, H_2^c,$ and H_2^d . Verbal aggressiveness was significant in the negative direction ($r = -.29, p < .01$), and impression manipulateness was found not significant ($r = .05, p > .05$), thus H_2^b and H_2^f are not supported. Emotionality is positive and significant ($r = -.16, p < .05$), thus H_2^e is supported. Figures 1 and 2 show the results of the predicted causal path.

The causal propositions of this research argued that the relationships of leader communication styles with LMX would follow the causal (linear) propositions of transformational leadership, H_1^a to H_1^f , and transactional leadership styles, H_2^a to H_2^f . The directional results for transformational leadership show that only verbal aggressiveness and preciseness followed the causal propositions of H_1^a to H_1^f (see

Table 3), thus H_3^b and H_3^d are supported while the causal propositions for expressiveness (H_3^a), questioningness (H_3^c), emotionality (H_3^e), and impression manipulativenness (H_3^f) are not supported (Table 3). The results for transactional leadership show that questioningness, preciseness, and emotionality followed the causal proposition of transactional leadership, thus H_3^c , H_3^d , and H_3^e are supported (see Table 4). Although expressiveness is positively related to transactional leadership, it is not significant in relation to LMX, while verbal aggressiveness and impression manipulativenness were negatively related to both transactional and LMX, thus H_3^a , H_3^b , and H_3^f are not supported. Based on these results, the presence of a partial mediation effect supports H_4^a , H_4^b , H_5^a and H_5^b .

Table 1: Bivariate Correlations Leadership Styles, Leader Communication Styles, And LMX (N = 228)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
LMX	1.00													
Age	-.17*	1.00												
Education	.05	.42**	1.00											
Employment	-.09	.76**	.30**	1.00										
Gender	.05	.07	-.21**	.09	1.00									
Position	-.01	-.37**	-.25**	-.39**	-.04	1.00								
Transactional	.52**	-.24**	.01	-.19**	-.13*	.02	1.00							
Transformational	.66**	-.13*	.01	.01	-.03	-.02	.68**	1.00						
Emotionality	-.45**	-.13*	-.03	-.10	-.04	.12	-.16*	-.40**	1.00					
Expressiveness	.09	.14*	-.12	.17**	.23**	-.09	.19**	.20**	.00	1.00				
IM ¹	-.29**	-.02	-.05	.02	-.18**	-.02	.05	-.16*	.52**	.08	1.00			
Preciseness	.58**	.06	.09	.06	.02	-.15*	.27**	.44**	-.69**	.01	-.31**	1.00		
Questioningness	.27**	-.07	-.01	-.09	-.20**	-.01	.16*	.19**	.01	.06	.11	.30**	1.00	
VA ²	-.60**	.04	.06	-.07	-.02	.11	-.29**	-.57**	.72**	-.08	.30**	-.71**	-.27**	1.00
M	3.69	2.26	1.38	2.55	1.71	1.65	2.28	2.77	2.66	3.30	2.81	3.44	3.19	2.58
SD	.73	.75	.76	1.38	.45	.48	.47	.67	.55	.37	.44	.52	.38	.63
N	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228	228

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). 1 = Impression Manipulativenness. 2 = Verball Aggressiveness

Table 2: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models (N = 228)

Step		Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
Step 1	(Control variables)			
	Age	.06	-.33**	-.33**
	Education	-.03	.17*	.17*
	Employment	-.05	.08	.08
	Gender	-.09	.10	.10
	Position	.00	-.06	-.06
Step 2	(Unmediated model)			
	Age	-.02	-.08	-.08
	Education	-.03	.11	.11
	Employment	.08	-.07	-.07
	Gender	-.07	.11*	.11*
	Position	.00	-.03	-.03
	Transformational	-.46**	.59**	.59**

Step		Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
Step 3 (Mediated Model)	Transactional	.33**	.19	.10
	Age			-.13
	Education			.10*
	Employment			-.01
	Gender			.10*
	Position			.02
	Transformational			.32**
	Transactional			.17**
	Emotionality			.05
	Expressiveness			.00
	Impression manipulativeness			-.14*
	Preciseness			.25**
	Questioningness			.09
	Verbal aggressiveness			-.15
	<i>R</i>	.34	.69	.78
<i>F</i>	4.14***	28.01***	25.18***	
<i>df</i>	(7, 217)	(7, 217)	(13, 211)	
<i>R</i> ² change	.11***	.41***	.14***	

Note. Model 1 predicted LCS and represents the first regression equation of the mediation model. Models 2 and 3 predicted LMX and represent the second and third regression equation of the mediation model.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations

Variable	Causal proposition	Transformational	LMX	Results
H ₁ ^a /H ₃ ^a Expressiveness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H ₁ ^b /H ₃ ^b Verbal aggressiveness	-	-	-	S / S
H ₁ ^c /H ₃ ^c Questioningness	-	+	+	NS / NS
H ₁ ^d /H ₃ ^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H ₁ ^e /H ₃ ^e Emotionality	+	-	ns	NS / NS
H ₁ ^f /H ₃ ^f Impression	+	-	-	NS / NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = not significant.

Table 4: Directional Results of Bivariate Correlations

Variable	Causal propositions	Transactional	LMX	Results
H ₂ ^a /H ₃ ^a Expressiveness	+	+	ns	S / NS
H ₂ ^b /H ₃ ^b Verbal aggressiveness	+	-	-	NS /
H ₂ ^c /H ₃ ^c Questioningness	+	+	+	S / S
H ₂ ^d /H ₃ ^d Preciseness	+	+	+	S / S
H ₂ ^e /H ₃ ^e Emotionality	-	-	-	S / S
H ₂ ^f /H ₃ ^f Impression manipulativeness	+	ns	-	NS /NS

S = Supported, NS = Not Supported, ns = nonsignificant

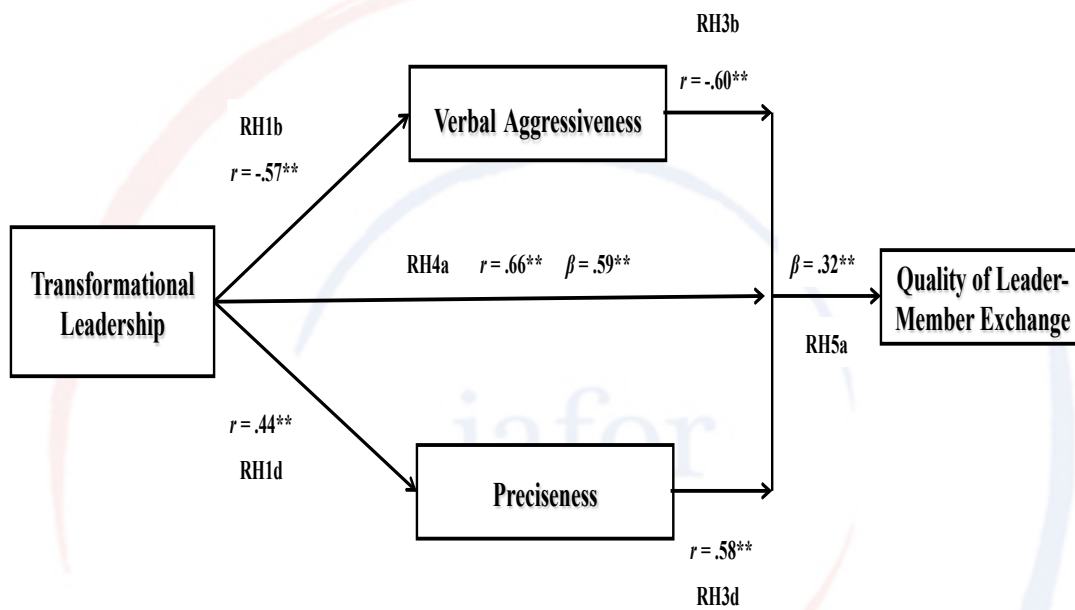


Figure 2: Predicted mediated model for the RP sample indicating two significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (β) of transformational leadership on LMX.

** $p < .01$.

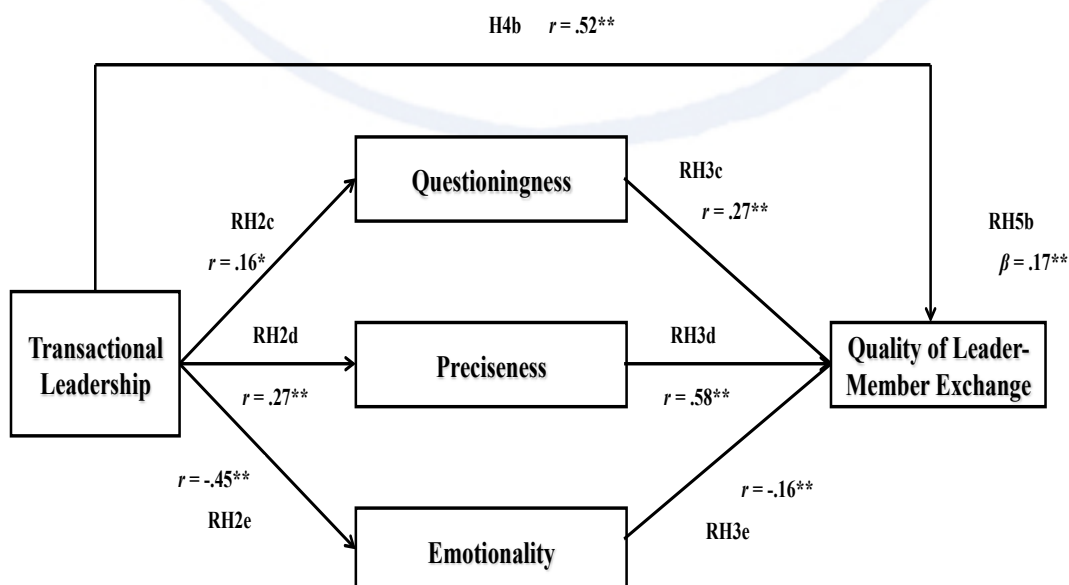


Figure 3: Predicted mediated model for the RP sample indicating three significant regression relationships that show two leader communication styles partially reducing the variance (β) of transactional leadership on LMX.

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Discussion

Present findings give support to the proposition that “leadership=communication” (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010, p. 376). Although not all forms of communication style reflect particular leadership styles, the conclusion can be drawn that leadership styles may be enacted through leader communication styles, and how a leader communicates would influence proximal (close or distant) relations, thus the quality of LMX. As the results show, precision and verbal aggressiveness mediate the relationship between TF and LMX in the positive and negative direction, respectively. In contrast, preciseness and questioningness mediate the relationship between TL and LMX in the positive direction, while emotionality was in the negative direction.

Whether one is articulating a compelling and inspiring vision or clarifying work requirements for the successful completion of tasks, a transformational or transactional leader must be precise in communicating by being thoughtful, substantive, concise, and structured. In communication the process of encoding-decoding messages in a one-to-one correspondence is not always consistent wherein undesired signals, referred to as “noise” introduces deleterious effects on communication thus creates conflict and worsens relationships (Kraus & Morsella, 2006). A leader communication style that exhibits preciseness lessens the opportunity for noise, which in turn mitigates the potential for conflict (2006).

For transformational leadership, verbal aggressiveness has the opposite effect of preciseness and increases the likelihood of conflict. As an impression management approach, a verbally aggressive leader would create an environment of fear and intimidation (DuBrin, 2011; Tedeschi & Riess, 1981), which pushes people away, thus creating distance or wider divide between a leader and follower. The inclination for closer attachments and LMX in a dyadic relationship is less. The psychological threats and barriers (Bowlby, 1969) created by verbal aggressiveness prevent the formation of attachment. Attachment is based on security (1969), thus relationships based on intimidation are less likely to develop close dyadic relationships (Boatwright et al., 2010) but engage in attachment avoidance (Hansbrough, 2012). Attachment avoidance is negatively related to both transformational and transactional leadership (2012). The formation of adaptive behaviors in the development of quality relationships is more difficult under conditions of attachment avoidance (Berson, Dan, & Yammarino, 2006) and even more so in conflict situations.

Transactional leadership was found to have a positive link to questioningness, which in turn show a positive effect on LMX. Leaders who are questioning tend to be unconventional, philosophical, inquisitive, and argumentative (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, et al., 2013). The positive link contributes to a positive development of dyadic relationships, because it helps followers to gain a better understanding of the leader as much as the work environment. In this context, it reflects the dynamics of social penetration, wherein the interactants are engaged in increasing self-disclosure for a closer relationship (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011; Taylor & Altman, 1987). The

unwitting engagement in self-disclosure through questioningness leads to the escalation of the relationship to a deeper level (Roloff, 1981). The self-disclosure could serve as a basis for followers to evaluate the likelihood that a transactional leader would be inclined to recognize hard work and good performance, which in turn may lead to a reciprocal behavior (Fishbein, 1980). Although argumentativeness is part of leader questioningness, which may lead to conflict, it is also a way to stimulate dialogue and debate (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Siberg, Van Gameren, & Vlug, 2013) as a way to resolve divergence and disagreements in conflict situations.

Transactional leadership has a negative relationship with emotionality, which in turn has a negative effect on LMX. Emotionality involves failing to control emotions and suggest unpredictability of behavior because of the inability of the leader to talk about important things in a rationale manner but shows more anxiety, tension, and defensiveness (De Vries et al., 2009). Emotions affect motivation, and when negative emotions prevail, rational thinking is subverted, thus any form of critical thinking or rationale discourse results in misunderstandings in relationships (Matsumoto, Yoo, & LeRoux, 2010). The failure to regulate negative emotions in dialogue by failing to hold them back leads to the deterioration of relationships, which tends to accentuate differences among those in the relationship, thus reinforces ethnocentric and stereotypic ideas (2010).

In a collectivist-leaning culture such as the Philippines, the sense of unpredictability is mitigated by acceptance of high power distance relationship. Power distance is the degree of inequality in power that exists between two individuals within a social system (Hofstede, 2001). Power inequality is generally accepted with a preference for an autocratic or paternalistic type of leader (Hofstede, 2001), because such a leader is perceived as being stable and certain, thus less emotional. Emotionality may be perceived as confrontational among Filipinos owing to their high sensitivity (Mujatba & Balboa, 2009), thus a threat performance and productivity. Among Filipinos emotionality is not a positive attribute, and would distance themselves from this type of leader. In a work environment, any close relationship becomes difficult to achieve under an emotional leader.

The relevance and implications of these findings can be situated in several aspects of conflict management such as proximal relations, power relations, intercultural relations, and gender communication. In proximal relations, leader communication styles determine quality of LMX relationships. Leader communication styles are also expressions of power in the form of compliance-gaining messages or strategies (Marwell & Schmidt, 1967), and that communication style or manner of linguistic form is different between a supervisor and a subordinate. Individuals in positions of power and authority tend to be less polite, and those under the authority tend to be more polite (Morand, 2000). Politeness is a communication goal or a linguistic gesture or behavior that individuals pursue in order to meet the face needs of self and of others (Ting-Toomey, 1985, 1988, 1994). Face-threatening acts are serious considerations in intercultural relations because cultures determine the types of identities that are acceptable and unacceptable (Ting-Toomey, 2005), thus manners of communication, or communication styles, become the most important element when culture is a factor in building relationships. Lastly, given that 78 percent of the respondents were females, the findings reflect female communication styles. Von Hippel, Wiryakusuma, Bowden, and Shochet (2011) argued that females in positions

of leadership tend to adapt masculine communication styles in response to stereotype threats and stereotype reactance. These findings are consistent with the idea that communication is gendered (Foss, Foss, & Griffin, 1999). A *t-test* found no significant difference in preference for five of six leader communication styles, which suggest that females may be adapting male communication styles.

Conclusion, Limitation and Future Research

This paper examined the direct causal link between leadership styles and leader communication styles, the direct causal link between leadership styles and quality of leader-member exchange relationship (LMX), and the extent to which leader communication styles mediates the relationship between leadership styles and LMX. The findings show that certain leader communication styles explain how leadership behavior of transformational and transactional leadership affects the quality of dyadic relationships. The findings build upon the concept of leadership as relational and also contribute to the overall effort to shift the focus of leadership studies from trait-based to examining how leader-member dyadic relationships are built or constructed. The findings highlight the importance of leader communication styles in creating productive or conflicted relationships in the workplace. The derived model upholds the fundamental premise that relationships are built through communication. As such, conflict management may depend on the communication skills of the leader. The managerial implications focus on the importance of leader communication styles in building quality dyadic relationships in the workplace, particularly in conflict management due to the impact that leader communication plays in proximal and power relationships and intercultural relations. Overall, new findings contribute to the field of conflict management, leadership communication, and gender communication by examining the role of leader communication in avoiding conflict that leads to quality dyadic relationships.

This research is ex-post facto research, which is a major limitation in non-experimental designs (Jarde et al., 2012). In ex-post facto research, independent variables cannot be manipulated, thus the data drawn from independent variables may not be sufficient to explain the phenomenon under investigation. This research is a modification of the model investigated by De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, and Oostenveld (2010). The divergent findings of this study with De Vries et al. (2010) provide an opportunity to clarify the causal path through path analysis or structural equation modeling in future research. Future research opportunities also exist in examining the construction of social realities in the workplace is formed through a system of meaning and discourses that may lead to a psychological state destructive to the work environment, such as workplace aggression given its considerable impact on interpersonal conflict.

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Has the Social Media Performed Better than the Traditional Ones for Political Advertising? An Analysis on Structural Models

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Abstract

Political advertising is a type of advertising that attempts to influence upon matters of extensive political debate. It includes advertising or marketing communication with community about a political party representative or candidate, advertising about political issue or issue of public interest and advertising in relation to government politics. Nowadays, its role in the society has becoming essential especially with the arrival of the modern-day social media. During the past a few general elections in Malaysia, public witnessed changes in political campaigns with the use of advertisements not only on the mainstream television and in the newspapers, but also in other form of online media like websites. In the recent 13th General Election the use of the social media was seen as dominant. This study was conducted to investigate voters' advertising perceptions and attitudes toward political advertising in Malaysia, delivered through three different media i.e. traditional television and printed media and modern-day social media. The study confirms that attitudes toward political advertising can be predicted using two main variables namely: (i) product information and (ii) hedonic/pleasure. The study found a serendipitous finding amidst the popular use of Facebook in the recent general election. The implications of the study focus on consumers' perceptual shift in terms of the relevance of social network sites (SNS) in propagating political parties in Malaysia. The limitations of the study are also discussed.

Keywords: Attitudes towards advertising, political advertising, Malaysian 13th General Election, SEM

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1.0 Introduction

Advertising are part of our social and economic systems and it has evolved into a vital communication method to deliver information to a target group. In general advertising is defined as any paid form of non personal communication about an organization, product, service or idea by an identified sponsor. Advertising also reflects how people see themselves: who they are and who they identify with, and can enter or force a way through status, economically and socially. Advertising was claimed to be able to demonstrate wholesome values like sociability, affection, generosity, patriotism, ecumenism, personal enrichment and security (Holbrook 1987). Images shown in advertising generally provide prototypical expectations about consumption patterns, characteristics of consumers, young or old, male or female, and blue collar or professional (Hirschman and Thompson 1997).

However, advertising also faces a barrage of criticism (Yaakop, et al. 2011). A major indictment of advertising reached its peak when it was criticized by several humanities and social sciences scholars for having unintended consequences which related to its influential emphasis on materialism, cynicism, irrationality, selfishness, anxiety, social competitiveness, sexual preoccupation, powerlessness and/or a loss of self-respect (Pollay 1986; Pollay 1987).

Like any kinds of advertising, political advertising also faces the same issue. Political advertising is advertising that attempts to influence upon a matter of extensive political debate (Political election advertising: What is Political advertising). It includes advertising or marketing communication with community about a political party representative or candidate, advertising about political issue or issue of public interest and advertising in relation to government political. In spite of “no rule” ruling to the content and form of political advertising, it has become increasingly essential to campaign strategy. As a matter of fact, the current state of political advertising has been considered within the world of commercial advertising (Greening and Gray, 1994). Political advertising does not exist occasionally, the presence is apparently ubiquitous. Similar to other parts of the world, political advertising is more prevalent during the elections in Malaysia’s political scene. According to Jamieson and Campbell (2000), mass media has an important role to affect the voters’ decision to vote due to its informative role. Media is also of paramount important to inform voters about candidates’ positions and affecting the ‘preferences and participatory ethos of the electorate (Ansolabehere and Iyengar, 1995).

At this point, some preliminary questions need to be answered. Firstly, what are Malaysians’ perceptions and attitudes towards political advertising? And secondly, what kind of roles do media play in propagating political issues? Therefore, in this study, we are interested to understand Malaysian voters’ perceptions and attitudes towards political advertising specifically delivered through printed media, the television and the social media.

In Malaysia’s political scene, political advertising have been practiced since the 1960’s. In 1969 election, the use of printed media such as national newspapers to disseminate information to voters was crucial (Ratnam and Milne, 1970). Nowadays, public witness changes in political campaigns when political advertisements appeared

not only on newspapers and the television, but in many forms of modern media. Likewise, the contemporary political campaigns in Malaysia now have evolved dramatically from mainly relying on using traditional media including mainstream media (electronic and printed), videotapes, banners and flyers to advertise their agenda to using the world wide web. To the practitioners, this demonstrates how mass media plays an important role in changing political landscape in Malaysia. However, from the voters' perspective, do they think political advertising has become the key to winning any political election? This is the question that needs answers prior jumping into any bandwagon.

2.0 Political Advertising on the Television

Television has played a major role in political campaigns for a long time. Although the use of television in political campaigns has changed significantly since it was first introduced in the early 1950's, it has proven to be one of the single most important and expensive strategies that candidates employ. Television affects how the general public perceives candidates and may be the most effective campaign tool. Numerous studies have shown that voters exposed to political advertising on television retain knowledge and information about the candidates, such as their name, stance on issues, or image attributes (Atkin & Heald, 1976; Kaid, 2002; Valentino et al., 2004). Exposure to political ads is also effective in influencing viewers' evaluations of the candidates (Kahn & Geer, 1994; Kaid, Chanslor, & Hovind, 1992; Kaid & Sanders, 1978; Tinkham & Weaver-Lariscy, 1993) as well as voters' perceptions of the political process in general and their political behavior (Ansolabehere & Iyengar, 1995; Kaid et al., 1992). In this study, the product information dimension of advertising (PI) is used to measure respondent's beliefs about advertising as a valuable source of information for products or services, in this case, information about candidacy or political parties.

The importance given by candidates and campaigns to political advertising on the television has prompted substantial research about its effects. One of the most important outcomes was the impact on voter evaluations of the candidates featured in the advertising. Candidates make use of advertising to generate positive feelings among the electorate about their own qualities or to denigrate their opponents. Research has shown that advertising exposure can influence a voter's evaluations of the candidates, either in a positive or negative direction (Kahn & Geer, 1994).

In general, television is known for its ability to evoke feelings through the use of motions, colours, sound and special effects is undeniable and it is not surprising that television advertising is placed near to the attribute "stimulating emotions" in Leong et al.'s (1998) perceptual mapping. The authors suggested that television advertising has the ability to arouse emotion and to entertain viewers, and this has made it superior to the other advertising media. In fact, mixed emotions of enjoyment and dignity stimulated by television ads influenced people's overall attitudes towards advertising (Shavitt et al. 1998). For example, one of the functions of television which was found to be highly inter-correlated with people's attitudes towards television advertising was its entertainment function; in particular, people found television advertisements were fun to watch and a lot of the ads were funny or clever (Alwitt and Prabhaker 1992). Recent analysis by Tan and Chia (2007) also upheld this notion that the hedonic/pleasure function of advertising was positive and significant in

predicting attitudes towards television advertising. In this study, hedonic/pleasure (HP) is a dimension that encompasses the individual's beliefs about advertising in terms of it being entertaining, amusing and pleasurable. With this matter in mind, it is therefore predicted that:

H_{1a}: Product information role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising on the television.

H_{1b}: Hedonic/pleasure role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising on the television.

3.0 Political Advertising in Printed Media

As mentioned earlier, the use of printed media in disseminating information to voters in Malaysia can be traced back in 1969. During that time, magazines and newspapers were the only major media available to campaigners. Its popularity was, however, declining with the introduction of television to propagate political issues. But despite the competition from the television, print media has remained important media to political campaigners because of its high-involvement impact.

Although researches on the effectiveness of print media in promoting political matter, in general, for many consumers newspapers are their primary source of product or service information. Print media is also seen as not intrusive like radio and television, and they generally require some effort on the part of the reader for advertising message to have an impact. For this reason, print media are often referred to as high-involvement media. This finding is similar to previous research showing that online advertising has the ability to deliver rich information and detail, which is also in line with other traditional media such as print media (Schlosser and Shavitt 1999; Ducoffe 1996; Brackett and Carr 2001; Lei 2000; Yaakop, A et. al 2011). Leong et al. (1998) carried out a cluster analysis and produced a dendrogram that suggested that attributes such as creating brand/product/corporate awareness, communicating product/brand image and communicating corporate image are the best to characterize the press (or print advertising media). Even adolescents at the tender ages of 14 to 19 preferred to read newspapers to find out about news and current events (La Ferle et al. 2000). For that reason, it is hypothesized that:

H_{2a}: Product information role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising in printed media.

With no reference to advertising in printed media as characterized by its ability to amuse and entertain readers, it is hypothesized that:

H_{2b}: Hedonic/pleasure role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising on printed media.

4.0 Political Advertising on Social Media

Social networking sites such as Facebook have recently offered a new outlet for political candidates to reach out to the voting population. Since this method is relatively new and able to draw mass attentions especially the youth and new

generation of voters, they are being used by many campaigners. So it is not surprising that social media went from being virtually unknown in the realm of Malaysian politics in the past few general elections to a budding form of political communication during the recent one. In an advanced country like the United States, Web sites have been used by candidates for fund-raising and communicating directly with supporters for so many years. However, the recent 2013 general election showed that the social media has become increasingly popular platforms for political participation (Quily, 2008; Smith, 2009; Vitak et al., 2009). In fact, the use of Facebook for political purposes was so significant that it caused major headlines in news (Rawlinson, 2007).

It is well known that politicians view social networking as a legitimate form of publicity and that they use it accordingly. However, to what extent do voters make full use of political advertising on the social networking sites? In this regard, we should consider the potential impact of voters' perceptions to their attitudes towards political advertising as they are portrayed in the social media such as Facebook. Analyzing the content and the extent to which it adheres to such portrayals may both indicate how pervasive such stereotypes are in social media and serve as a first step to future studies of the effects of such portrayals. Although the use of Facebook is increasingly popular, Yaakop, A. et al. (2013) argued that consumers have concerns about the credibility of Facebook to disseminate truthful information. Yaakop, A et al. (2013), however, posited consumers' attitudes towards internet advertising are influenced by the capability of internet advertising to ring and entertainment. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{3a}: Product information role of advertising does not significantly predict Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising in the social media.

H_{3b}: Hedonic/pleasure role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising in the social media.

Broadly, the focus of this research is to understand the perceptions of voters of the various use of media for political advertising and to investigate how do they relate to the respondents' overall attitude towards political advertising. This will involve testing a set of predictive variables in relation to the attitude of political advertising, by identifying and comparing the factors that influence consumer attitudes toward political advertising measured through the variables of advertising perceptions of product information (PI) and hedonic / pleasure (HP) during the 13th General Election.

5.0 Research Methodology

This study aims to examine the perceptions and attitudes of Malaysian voters' towards political advertising delivered through three different media in print, television and the social media. The questionnaire of the study consists of five sections. The first section is about measuring respondents' perceptions towards political advertising on the television, printed media and the social media. The next three sections are about measuring respondents' attitudes towards political advertising on the television, printed media and the social media, respectively. The final section consists of multiple questions regarding respondents' demographic profile.

In section one, four constructs were developed to measure political advertising perceptions using 5 items for each construct on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g. 1 – strongly agree to 5 – strongly disagree). The variables used were product information (PI); to measure individual's beliefs about advertising as a valuable source of information for products or services. Secondly, social role/image; to describe individual's beliefs about advertising that reflect and shape his/her personal image as well as the image of other external subjects. Thirdly, hedonic/pleasure; a variable that encompasses individual's beliefs about advertising in terms of it being entertaining, amusing and pleasurable. And finally, falsity/no sense; which explains the individual's beliefs about advertising as a source of manipulation, exaggeration or misleading information.

Meanwhile, in the section of measuring political advertising attitudes, three items were measured the construct. The items of measuring attitudes using semantic differential scales with 7-point scale (e.g. 1 – good to 7 – not good). All the items in the questionnaire were developed based on Petrovici and Marinov (2007) and Yaakop, A. and Hemsley-Brown, J. (2013).

The data collection was conducted via *surveymonkey.com* and it was carried out for a period of one month following the dissolution of the Malaysian Parliament on 4th April 2013. During this period, the campaigns from political parties participated were very aggressive and the use of the media was employed to reach the audience. The survey was posted in the *Facebook* and those respondents interested to follow the survey could click on the survey's link and would be directed to the survey. All information provided by respondents was kept confidential. A total of 266 useable set of questionnaires were collected and all data collected went through a series of analyses include confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and regression by using AMOS 18.

6.0 Analysis and Findings

6.1 Respondent Profile

Based on the Table 6.1, participation from female respondents were higher than male respondents which contribute to 72 percent and 28 percent, respectively. Majority of respondents' age were range between 21-30 years old (65 percent), followed by 31-40 years old (16 percent) and 20 and below years old (9 percent). Malay ethnic contributes to the highest ethnic composition in Malaysia to participate (77 percent), followed by Chinese (16 percent) and Indian and Bumiputra with percentage of 3 percent and 1 percent, respectively. Most respondents were Diploma and Degree holder with percentage of 56 percent. Respondents with postgraduate degree and secondary school contribute 22 and 19 percent, respectively. Respondents live in city were with the highest participation 42 percent compared to suburban and rural area, 19 percent and 36 percent respectively.

Table 6.1: Respondent Profile

CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL (%)
Sex (N =266)		
Male	75	28
Female	191	72
Age (N = 266)		
20 and below	24	9
21-30	174	65
31-40	43	16
41-50	17	6
51-60	1	1
61 or older	2	1
Missing	5	2
Ethnicity (N = 266)		
Malay	206	77
Chinese	43	16
Indian	8	3
Other bumiputera	3	1
Missing	6	3
Highest education level (N = 266)		
Completed primary school	0	0
Completed secondary school	51	19
Completed diploma/degree	150	56
Completed postgraduate degree	58	22
Missing	7	3
Residential are (N = 266)		
City area	112	42
Suburban residential	52	19
Rural area (village)	95	36
Missing	7	3

6.2 Measurement Model

This study applies SEM as the method of analysis – the measurement model and the structural model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The measurement model is measuring by the analysis of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to determine the relationships between the constructs and its indicators (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The results of CFA show the convergent validity for each construct use in this study. Thus, the convergent validity determines (1) factor loadings – with each item's factor loading ranging between 0.6 and 0.9 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), (2) average variance extracted (AVE) – with each exceeding the 0.5 threshold and (3) composite reliability – with values exceeding the 0.7 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). For the establishment of the discriminant validity, one could find on the variance extracted from two constructs is greater than the square of the correlation between those two constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study, there are three models developed to answer all the hypotheses of the study. Table 6.2 shows the results of measurement

model for each model. Based on the results, it shows that all constructs for each model have achieved the threshold of CFA.

Table 6.2: The results of measurement model

Construct and Item	Composite Reliability	AVE	The Squared Path Coefficient	
			PI	HP
Political Advertising on Television				
Printed Information (PI)	0.853	0.596		
Hedonic Pleasure (HP)	0.794	0.659	0.570	
Attitude (Att)	0.872	0.697	0.204	0.252
Political Advertising on Printed Media				
Printed Information (PI)	0.829	0.550		
Hedonic Pleasure (HP)	0.70	0.498	0.141	
Attitude (Att)	0.829	0.622	0.249	0.142
Political Advertising on Social Media				
Printed Information (PI)	0.793	0.5		
Hedonic Pleasure (HP)	0.787	0.649	0.619	
Attitude (Att)	0.901	0.754	0.187	0.186

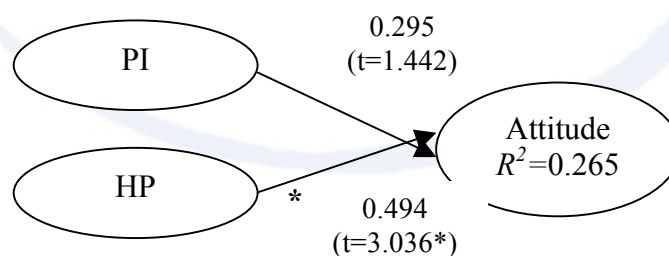
Note: To determine the discriminant validity, the AVE must be higher than the squared path coefficient results.

6.3 Structural Model

The model of Political Advertising on Television

In the first model (see figure 6.1), H1a hypothesis is not significant and rejected (path coefficient = 0.295, t-value=1.442, P = 0.149) whilst H1b is significant and show that the product information role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising on the television (path coefficient = 0.494, t-value = 3.036, P = 0.002).

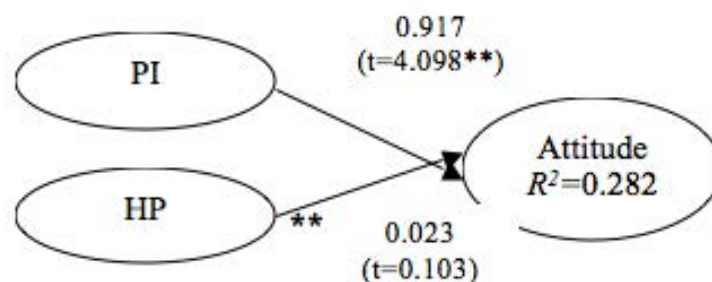
Figure 6.1: The SEM model of Political Advertising on Television



The model of Political Advertising on Print Media

On the next model (see figure 6.2), H2a hypothesis is significant which show product information role of advertising significantly predicts Malaysia voters' attitudes towards political advertising in printed media (path coefficient = 0.971, t-value=4.098, P = 0.000) whilst H2b is not significant and rejected (path coefficient = 0.023, t-value = 0.103, P = 0.918).

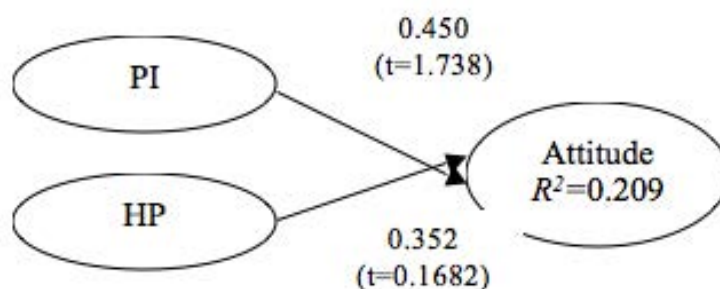
Figure 6.2: The SEM model of Political Advertising on Printed Media



The model of Political Advertising on Social Media

On the final model (see figure 6.3), both H3a and H3b hypotheses are not significant and rejected (path coefficient = 0.450, t-value=1.738, P = 0.082) (path coefficient = 0.352, t-value = 1.682, P = 0.093). Thus, product information role and hedonic pleasure are not significantly predicting Malaysia voters' towards political advertising on social media.

Figure 6.3: The SEM model of Political Advertising on Social Media



7.0 Discussion

SEM results had partially supported the hypotheses; as expected that political advertising on printed media is favoured due to its informative nature while political advertising on the television is favoured by the Malaysia voters because of its ability to amuse viewers. To our surprise, the two predictors have no significant influence at all on Malaysian voters' attitudes towards political advertising in the social media.

It is, in fact, interesting to understand that the social media is a medium of sharing information simply for the sake of sharing. Public still feel that the news they read (from the newspaper) are the most reliable ones, the stories they watch on television are the most entertaining ones. In politics, public are now more knowledgeable to distinguish between facts and rumours communicated through the social media. In it important to note that news, regardless if they were factual or fiction, presented especially in the social media during a month before the 13th General Election were substantial. In the most crucial time just a month before the election, some

campaigners were seen to fully utilize the media unethically by propagating rumours to create panic given the time constraint. This probably has an effect to the voters' doubts about the social media and in return has posted a major challenge for it. Issues related to lack of confidentiality and danger of non-verified information are common and these communication strategies can be the fear that too much information too soon will create panic (Currie, 2009).

8.0 Limitations and Future Research

As mentioned earlier, researchers who used limited-parent population could only justify the dimensions explaining the research framework without generalizing the findings and drawing conclusions about the overall public attitude towards political advertising. In this particular study, any conclusion drawn from this limited-parent population sample (Malaysian voters) would be misleading because the sample basis does not represent the total population despite the justifications as mentioned above. The findings represent responses from respondents' perceptions from a sufficiently diverse background, however collected from a short period of time (one month period). Future research may consider using a more general and representative population of voters (i.e. raising the sample size).

9.0 Conclusions and Implication

Hirschman and Thompson (1997) opined that issues in vast areas of advertising must be tackled with a deeper understanding of consumers' relationships with advertising and the media. This present study fully supports this notion and, in addition, has discovered that any generic issues, such as what were uncovered in this study, must be seen from a specific media frame of reference (i.e. the traditional media and the modern media). In this study, advertising perceptions such as product information and hedonic/pleasure have great effects on the attitudes towards political advertising delivered through the traditional media but not through the modern-day media like Facebook. From the findings of this research, the political parties, campaigners and advertising practitioners need to understand and pay more attention on how the consumers perceive the function of these advertising media when making decisions, especially in the selection of media to propagate political issues, before jumping on the social media bandwagon.

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*An Exploratory Study of the Cross-cultural Management Curricular in
Hospitality and Tourism Education*

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Abstract

In recent decades, the hospitality industry has faced intense competition, globalization and the explosion of technology; which gives businesses that have techniques of knowledge creation and innovation domination in competitive environments. The internationalization of business has led to a significant increase in the cross-cultural interactions of business people and firms. Cross-cultural International Human Resource Management has been growing importance, both in the field and in the academic literature (Adler, 1991; Blunt and Richard, 1993; Moran, Harris, & Moran, 2011). However, researches seeking to examine service-oriented human resources lies only with the hospitality organization, but little focus on the system of hospitality management education. Therefore, this study will investigate the cross-cultural management curricular of hospitality master education and reports the initial findings for a qualitative research project undertaken for an assessment of the master education system. The concept and the needs of hospitality cross-cultural management education are explored and their struggle for identity is described. Furthermore, the graduates' views on hospitality cross-cultural management education that they received will be examined through in-depth interviews. Finally, based on the research findings, a number of conclusions will be drawn and specific suggestions for the future of the cross-cultural hospitality management education are proposed.

Keywords: Cross-Cultural Management, Hospitality and Tourism Education,
Adult Learning, Curriculum Development

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Overview

Within education and labor market policies, adult learning is becoming a priority for economic growth and social development in many countries (OECD, 2006); higher and changing skill requirements and a minimum of higher education are prerequisites to obtaining employment in many countries. The internationalization of business has led to a significant increase in the cross-cultural interactions of business people and firms. Cross-cultural International Human Resource Management has been growing importance, both in the field and in the academic literature (Adler, 1991; Blunt and Richard, 1993; Moran, Harris, & Moran, 2011). Service quality is a very important factor for achieving competitive advantages and efficiency. Consequently, organizations try to select and retain talented employees to compete in global market. Efforts are also made to create conditions in the organizations to achieve optimal production by the employees; yet researches seeking to examine service-oriented human resources lies only with the hospitality organization, but little focus on the system of hospitality management education.

Literature Review

Hospitality industry is part of a multi-service industry. More than 205 million people work worldwide in the hospitality industry comprising 11% of total employment and representing 10.2 % of the Global National Product. This is the highest percentage of all service industries. To meet the market demand for the hospitality personnel, hospitality educational institutes in Taiwan has prospered in recent years. Up to 2005, there are 31 universities and colleges offering hospitality/tourism management programs throughout Taiwan (Horng & Lu, 2006); and then there are more than 40 universities and colleges offering hospitality/tourism master/EMBA programs in Taiwan at 2012. To compete in today's marketplace, international hospitality organizations should be prepared to consider the opportunity of global service design and workforces. Hospitality master education can be perceived as a mixture of academic professional, attitude, and managerial skills to satisfying the needs for future hospitality CEOs. And there are indications that the variable of ethnicity is being taken with increasing seriousness in the area of cross-cultural adult learning. However, extremely little research studies have considered the hospitality master students perceptions of cross-cultural management curricular and to identify the relationship of the underlying cross-cultural management dimensions to hospitality master students occupational performance toward cross-cultural management competencies.

Adult Learning

Adult learning may be defined as teaching model that incorporates strategies of student self-direction toward goals of practical relevance to the learner; and it generally incorporates problem or case-based learning, small group discussions, and multisensory delivery of instruction (Arnold, 2001). Ultimately, these learning levels are developed that based on degrees of difficulty and includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities, critical thinking, and managerial skills in master education. The four major areas of research adult learning are:

Self-directed learning - focuses on the process by which adults take control of their own learning, in particular how they set their own learning goals, locate appropriate resources, decide on which learning methods to use and evaluate their progress (Brookfield, 1992).

Critical reflection - focuses on three interrelated processes; (1) the process by which adults question and then replace or reframe an assumption that up to that point has been uncritically accepted as representing commonsense wisdom, (2) the process through which adults take alternative perspective on previously taken for granted ideas, actions, forms of reasoning and ideologies, and (3) the process by which adults come to recognize the hegemonic aspects of dominant cultural values and to understand how self-evident renderings of the 'natural' state of the world actually bolster the power and self-interest of unrepresentative minorities (Mezirow, 1991).

Experiential learning - emphasis on experience as a defining feature of adult learning, as well as a continuing process of evaluating experiences (Lindeman, 1926). The belief that adult teaching should be grounded in adults' experiences, and that these experiences represent a valuable resource, is currently cited as crucial by adult educators of every conceivable ideological hue. However, experience is culturally framed and shaped; therefore, experiences learning should be neither innocent nor free from the cultural contradictions that inform them

Learning to learn - to become skilled at learning in a range of different situations and through a range of different styles - has often been proposed as an overarching purpose for those educators who work with adults (Smith, 1990). Learning how to learn is much more frequently spoken of in studies of clearly defined skill development or knowledge acquisition, and much less frequently referred to in studies examining emotional learning or the development of emotional intelligence.

In the study of adult learning, one major trend emerged since 1990s' is cross-cultural dimensions of adult learning (Brookfield, 1992); and adult learning needs to be understood much more as a socially embedded and socially constructed phenomenon (Jarvis, 1987). There are also indications that the variable of ethnicity is being taken with increasing seriousness in the area of cross-cultural adult learning. One major challenge to hospitality master education is to develop the ability to use hospitality management knowledge; and the cross-cultural management skills can be a key learning device for the development of appropriate knowledge, understanding, values, and skills. Many more cross-cultural perspectives are needed, and it is suggested that the predominant focus in studies of adult learning on instrumental skill development needs widening to encompass work on spiritual and significant personal learning and to understand the interconnections between these domains Based on literature reviews, the cross-cultural management course should be in design with both cognitive and emotional intelligence competencies concepts. research on adult learning needs to be integrated much more strongly with research on adult development and adult cognition (Tennant, 1988; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991). Therefore, this study will analyzed and compared the cognitive and emotional intelligence competencies concepts that developed in Taiwan's

hospitality master curriculum.

Cross-Cultural Management Education

Culture-based behavior shapes a nation's corporate social conduct (Katz, Swanson & Nelson, 2001); and the most common obstacles to global services are cross-cultural adaptation, different organizational or workforce values, differences in management style, and training programs (Marquardt & Engel, 1993). In recent decades, the hospitality industry has faced intense competition, globalization and the explosion of technology and cross-cultural issues; which give businesses that have techniques of knowledge creation and innovation domination in competitive environments. High service quality is a strategy that has been related to success especially during times of intense competition both domestically and internationally (Wong, Dean, & White, 1999).

Cross-cultural management is often regarded as a discipline of international management focusing on cultural encounters between what are perceived as well-defined and homogeneous entities, where organizations and educational institutes offering tools to handle cultural differences seen as sources of conflict or miscommunication. Ruben (1989) points out that there are three facet of intercultural competence: *building and maintaining relationships*, *transferring information* and *gaining compliance*. Thus, the main objective of cross-cultural training and education is to enable participants to learn both content and skills that will facilitate effective cross-cultural interaction by reducing misunderstanding and inappropriate behavior (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Richards, 2012). Furthermore, Black *et al.* (1991) identified major factors that determine interaction adjustment in cross-cultural management, which are:

Self logical well-being – self efficacy and effective stress management to be maintained;

Relationship skills – or relationship dimension, which are the skills necessary to further relationship with nationals from difference cultures; and

Perceptual skills – or perception dimension, which encompass cognitive abilities that allow the environment to be correctly perceived and evaluated.

Increasing attention has begun to be paid by companies to developing cross-cultural and communication competencies; with transnational companies that face the challenges of the management of global knowledge networks and multicultural project teams, interacting and collaborating across boundaries using global communication technologies. So, the development of hospitality students' transferable skills and cross-cultural management techniques is considered to be of major importance. The main distinction between types of cross-cultural training/education programs is between culture-general and culture-specific courses (Hofstede, 1980). Generalizations about cultural differences are possible within such programs and such techniques have been adapted to give a more culture-general approach (Brislin *et al.*, 1986); on the other hand, culture-specific training/education may be preferable of cross-culture practices and techniques.

The cross-cultural management skills can be a key learning device for the development of appropriate knowledge, understanding, values, and skills. The course should be in design with both cognitive and emotional intelligence competencies concepts. Although there are often need supplementing with a culture-general approach; but many post-graduate training or MBA programs in international management usually have taken for culture-general approach (Richards, 2012). Hence, the master educational programs in Taiwan should also emphasize the need for an alternative approach which acknowledges that growing complexity of inter-organizational and intra-organization connections; and offers theoretical concepts in a globalizing education curricular context. Therefore, this study will investigate the cross-cultural management curricular of hospitality master education and reports the initial findings for a qualitative research project undertaken for an assessment of the master education system. The concept and the needs of hospitality cross-cultural management education is explored their struggle for identity is described.

Methodology

As diverse workforce is becoming a major part of business practice, it is important to be able to measure and research its effectiveness. Based on literature review, there are evidence demonstrates that cross-cultural management skills shape employees' global occupational competency. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore and compare hospitality master students perceptions of cross-cultural management curricular. In addition, this study extended the scholarship in the area of further improve the psychometric qualities of the cross-cultural management especially for hospitality master education. Main research hypotheses of this study are proposed:

Hypothesis 1: The gap between the perceived Importance and Performance of cross-cultural management course attributes by various hospitality master students differs significantly.

Hypothesis 2: The perceived performance of cross-cultural management course attributes has a significant relationship with hospitality master students learning behavior.

Hypothesis 3: The perceived performance of cross-cultural management course attributes has significant relationship with hospitality master students demographic and occupational characteristics.

Research Design and Analysis of Data

The purpose of this study is to explore and compare hospitality master students perceptions of cross-cultural management curricular and to identify the relationship of the underlying cross-cultural management dimensions to hospitality master students occupational performance toward cross-cultural management competencies. Calbert, Lin, and Martin (2005) reported that cultural factors, such as business etiquette, interpersonal communication, and intercultural communication, can affect the competitiveness of international organization. Thus, the research design for this study will be a cross-sectional descriptive research that investigated

the relationship between hospitality master students and cross-cultural management curricular. To learn more about cross-cultural management curricular of hospitality master education, a self-administered questionnaire will be designed to gather the specific cross-cultural management curricular and information regarding cross-cultural management attributes/competencies (Self logical well-being, Relationship skills, and Perceptual skills).

The structured measurement technique that relied on the Likert-type scale and itemized-rating scale that related components of cross-cultural management curricular attributes is adopted. The scales measurement techniques are utilized to capture the unique assessment of cross-cultural management dimension and hospitality master students perceptions regarding current hospitality cross-cultural management in master education. The end goal is to understand the current hospitality master education on cross-cultural management curricular design and development. Furthermore, this study will employ factor analysis so that can be used to analyze interrelationships among a large number of variables and their common underlying dimensions. In this study, exploratory factor analysis created correlated variable composites from cross-cultural management course attributes and subsequent dimensions to explore the impact of hospitality master students' occupational competency. With possible limited sample size, this study will adopts a non-parametric test when comparing hospitality master students from different Taiwan education institutes. Then Multivariate Analysis is another major statistical technique that will be used in this study. Based on the cross-cultural management course attributes and hospitality master students learning behavior characteristics derived from factor analysis in this study, the multivariate analysis could provide a better interpretation of the relationship among cross-cultural management course performance between dependent variables.

Expectancy of the Result

For years, there has not yet been little study in the cross-cultural management and individual behavior characteristics that specifically focused on examining master education and curricular, or hospitality master students' cross-cultural management skills upon occupational performance. These issues associated with poor cross-cultural management skills and curricula design could cause major setbacks for hospitality managerial competency development that are trying to gain through diversified higher education systems. Many human resource management issues can be automated, but research is needed to identify the major cross-cultural management issues that hospitality managerial education development must be automated. There are 50 universities in Taiwan offer hospitality/tourism related graduated programs; and over 50 syllabus or required managerial courses were collected. Data collection stills an ongoing process in order to gather sufficient course information.

Research in developmental psychology, sociology and anthropology show that there are major differences among the cognitive processes of people from different cultures; it is suggested that cross-cultural management would greatly benefit from comparative studies considering the impact of the aspects of culture on managerial practice (Adler, Doktor, & Redding, 1986). Therefore, this study will investigate

the cross-cultural management curricular of hospitality master education and reports the initial findings for a qualitative research project undertaken for an assessment of the master education system.



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The logo for the International Association of Business Schools (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a light blue arc on the left and a light red arc on the right, which together form a partial circle around the text.



Socio-Impacts in the Formation of Organic Settlement

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0176

Abstract

This research is a study of the theory to a reality of socio - impacts in the formation of organic settlement in Indonesia. In the past, rural community in Indonesia tend to move to new areas and established residential area. The residential area developed into a settlement that grew based on their thinking. Literature review in this research, based on observations of many communities occupy new areas in the Medan city Indonesia, which was originally a forest area. Along with time, groups of people who occupy these new areas may have different social systems or equalled their home rural origin. Process and components of the creation of the new settlement area was integrated with the resident social circumstances. Social conditions of rural communities occupying new areas in the city of Medan Indonesia offers a challenge study of social influences on the formation of the physical manifestations of unplanned settlements. The physical manifestations are studied theoretically as residential typology and morphology organically formed settlements in Medan city. The study of social impact to the shape of the settlement that grew organically will produce a theoretical concept. The concept is the theory of the formation of settlements which have characteristic physical manifestations, the evolution of the concept of the formation of residential areas and the concept formation and morphological typology of settlements that occur organically.

Keywords: Social, settlement, organic pattern, typology, morphology.

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Introduction

The formation process of a settlement as a living space is inseparable from the social factors. That condition could possibly happen when human occupied a new area. This phenomenon is the reality that was found in areas dominated by particular community. As the time flows, that area forms a settlement. Author did some literature reviews which are related with the social factors and the changing of unplanned settlement formation. Then, the unplanned settlement will develop into an organic settlement (irregular).

Background of Study

Unplanned settlement pattern in Medan City Indonesia has been implicated since the Dutch colonial era. Settlements grew without infrastructure planning and economic networks based on the city government planners. This unplanned settlement pattern shows physical manifestations of social organization of its inhabitants. This study analyzes the theory generated by previous writers and connects it to the settlement forms in the Medan City, Indonesia. According to the observation on unplanned settlement pattern in Medan Indonesia, the author develops a theoretical concept of the formation of a settlement, settlement patterns, and the concept of social influences on the formation of unplanned settlements. The concept of the theory is an effort to enrich the existing theory based on the fact that unplanned settlements exist in Medan Indonesia.

The Design of Study

In this study, the author used qualitative methods in order to comprehend the research area. In the research area, the author looked at the social circumstances that affect the occurrence of unplanned settlement formed irregular (organic). The author obtained the data by physically observing the settlement condition and interviewing based on the residents' perception. Observations and interviews are physically linked by researcher with preconceived theories. The result of this analysis is the fact that nature enriches existing theories. The theories that based upon the reality of unplanned settlement in the Medan city, Indonesia are the forms of vigorous social influence.

Settlement Formation

Factors that could cause the formation of a settlement are: (a) evolution; (b) environmental circumstances; and (c) value. Men in modern times and prehistoric times have a different meaning toward these factors. A settlement can be formed because of evolution. The evolution of rural settlement can be divided into three stages: colonization, spread and competition (Hudson, 1969 in Sarkar, 2010). In the first stage, the occupation, happened because of the growing population of the occupied territory is no longer able to accommodate the number of people who want to inhabit. As a result, they have to find a new place that have no occupants and declare it as their own. The second stage is the spread. At this second stage, there is population displacement process from the origin to the new colonized area and gradually the area became a settlement. The increasing number of the inhabitants, then on the third stage, there was a competition for space. This process will produce regularity in settlement pattern that was made in groups or clusters.

A settlement can also be formed by the initiation of the very first settler of the territory and gain authority over it. Newcomers who came later had to ask permission to previous dwellers in order to settle and establish residence (Taschner, 2001 in Fernandez, 2011). Then asserted by Matos (1977) in Fernandes (2011) that the settlement will ultimately lead to more compact and requires a leader who is responsible for collecting taxes, developing a better settlement and divide the greater land from the old settlers to the new settlers.

Murray (2008) identifies that the form of settlement tends to grow in four phases. The four phases are: (1) phase to get land; (2) phase to occupy the newly acquired land; (3) phase to process the land to become plantation; and (4) phase to enhance residential areas and the circulation system of farm produce to take home. Spiro Kostof (Smith, 2007) identifies the spatial models of urban planning into four, which are: (1) organic, is a city development that occurs without visible overall direction and coordination; (2) grid, is a reference to the development of orthogonal planning; (3) The diagram cities, is the development of inflexible city planning; and (4) the grand manner, is the planning with buildings and spaces that are designed to convey visual messages of pride and coherence. Environmental circumstances that can lead to the formation of settlement are the availability of natural resources, water, flora and fauna, as well as land. Since ancient times, men had made use of the natural resources such as wood and soil which are available in the surrounding area to build their homes. For example, the ancient settlement that is found in Bylany, Czech Republic (Kvetina and Koncelová, 2013) has longhouses with pole structures of wood and walls of wattle and daub. Many of the traditional houses in Indonesia are built on stilts and they are made by using the ideal materials that are easy to be obtained from the natural surroundings. One of the traditional houses in Indonesia that is built on stilts is traditional Batak Toba house (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Traditional Batak Toba house is one of the traditional houses in Indonesia that is built on stilts.

Photo by: Yuly E. Aryatnie (2012)

Since ancient times, man had had a way of thinking to solve the disposal problems. This can be seen from the prehistoric settlement in Bylany, Czech Republic (Kvetina and Koncelová, 2013). In this prehistoric settlement, adjacent pits were found along the houses' walls of the residential area which are assumed to be the result of excavation used to build houses. Later, these pits will be covered with settlement wastes or natural runoffs (Figure 2).

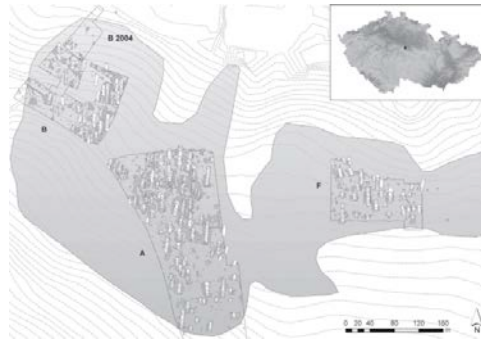
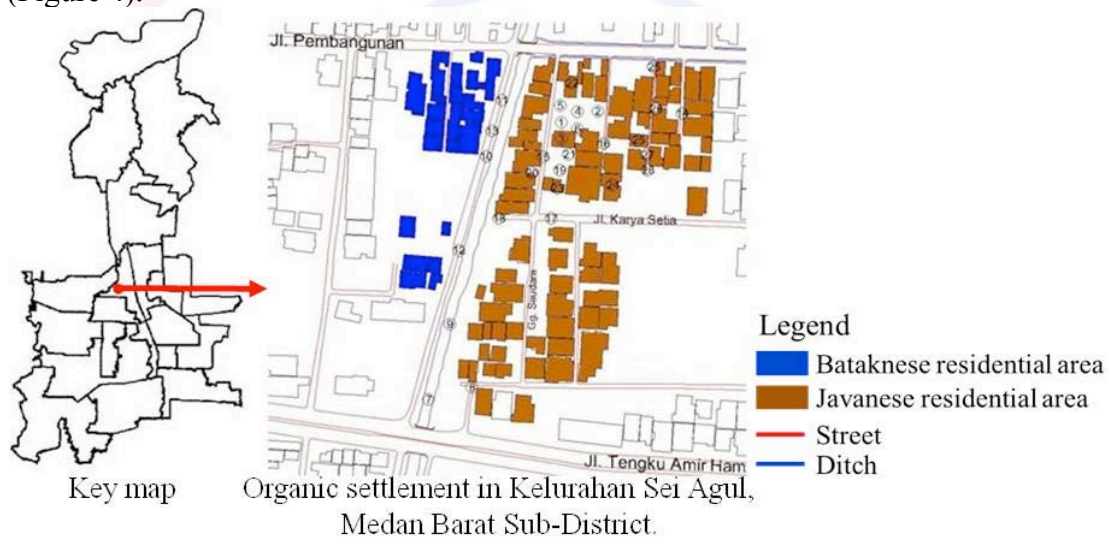


Figure 2. Condition of archaeological excavations in Bylany, Czech Republic.
 Source: Kvetina and Koncelová, 2013

In modern times, the pits are formed as ditches around the house. The ditches are drainage canals that are used to drain the sewage from household and rainwater. For example, these can be seen from organic settlements in Kelurahan Sei Agul, Medan Barat Sub-District (Figure 3) and in Kelurahan Lalang, Medan Sunggal Sub-District (Figure 4).



The ditch is located in front of the house.



The ditch is located in front of the house.



The ditch is located in the middle between the two rows of the houses.

Figure 3. Organic settlement in Kelurahan Sei Agul, Medan Barat Sub-District which has ditches around the residential area.

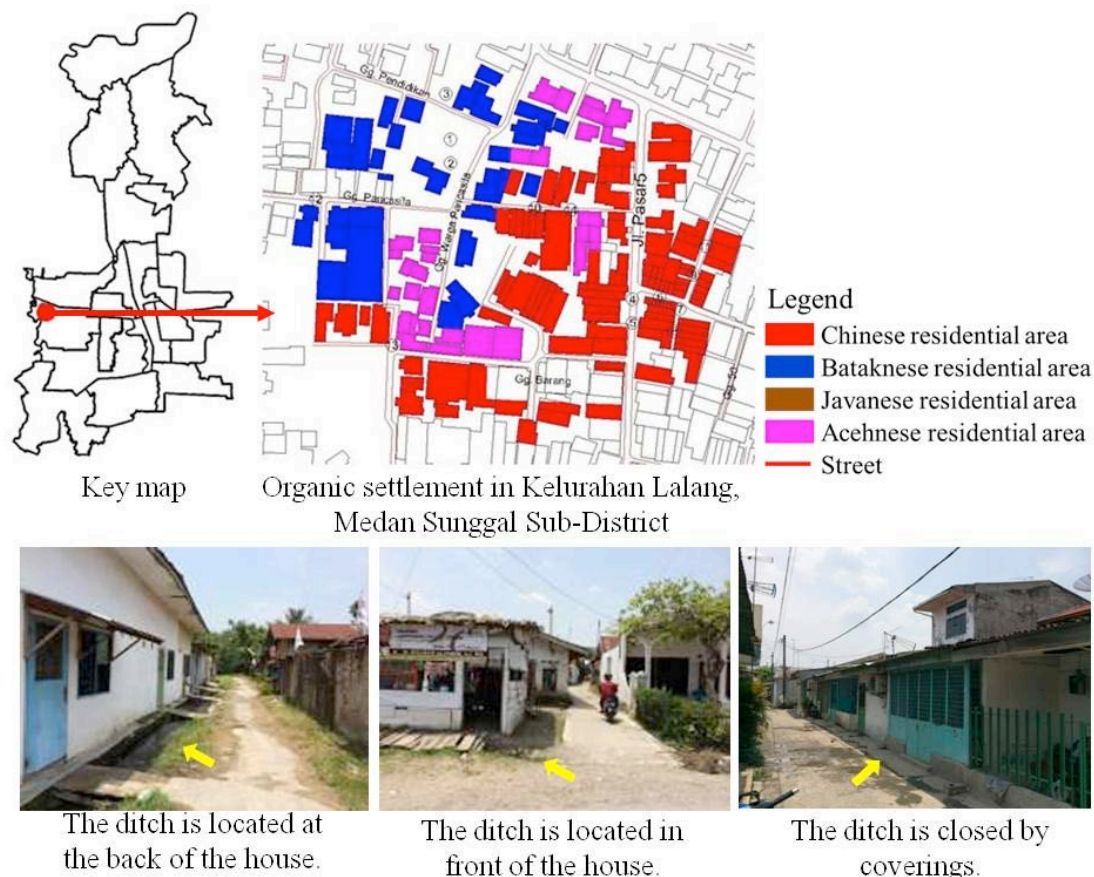


Figure 4. Organic settlement in Kelurahan Lalang, Medan Sunggal Sub-District which has ditches around the residential area.

Value can be a factor to form a settlement. Since ancient times, men have recognized the value of the economic, social and cultural. On the economy aspect, men have recognized medium of exchange with metal and gold. While in the social aspect, men have recognized the social strata. This condition is shown by having a leader. In aspect of culture, men have been able to make pottery, sculpture and painting. Settlements' existence since ancient times can be identified by the existing hints. Indicators used by Katsamudanga (2007) to identify ancient settlements in the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe are: the wall construction, the remains of grain bins, rock painting, the remains pit structures and pottery (Figure 5).



Figure 5. Hints of prehistoric settlements' existence.

Source: Katsamudanga (2007)

Settlement

According to Declaration of Vancouver (Sarkar,2010), settlement can be formed based on some supporting elements which are physical, social, spiritual, organization, and culture. Settlement is divided into two categories which are large-scale settlement

called urban and small-scale settlement called rural. The basic difference between rural and urban settlement lies on the economic activity and the social interaction (Sarkar,2010). Rural people gain their economy resources from the ground, as the majority of the citizen farm for a living. In the other hand, urban people gain their economy resources from cultivating raw material to a fine, ready-for-sale material as the majority of the citizen works in factories and industries. Regarding the social interaction and their way of living, rural people have some sort of differences with the urban people. Rural people tend to have an intimate - familiar relationship and a simple way of living while urban people tend to have a formal relationship and a complex way of living. This case can be seen in Medan Polonia Sub-District and Medan Labuhan Sub-District. The majority of citizen in Medan Polonia Sub-District (Figure 6) are entrepreneur and employee which means the economic activities in this sub-district are entrepreneurship and office complex. Whereas the majority of citizen in Medan Labuhan Sub-District (Figure 7) are fisherman, driver and labor.

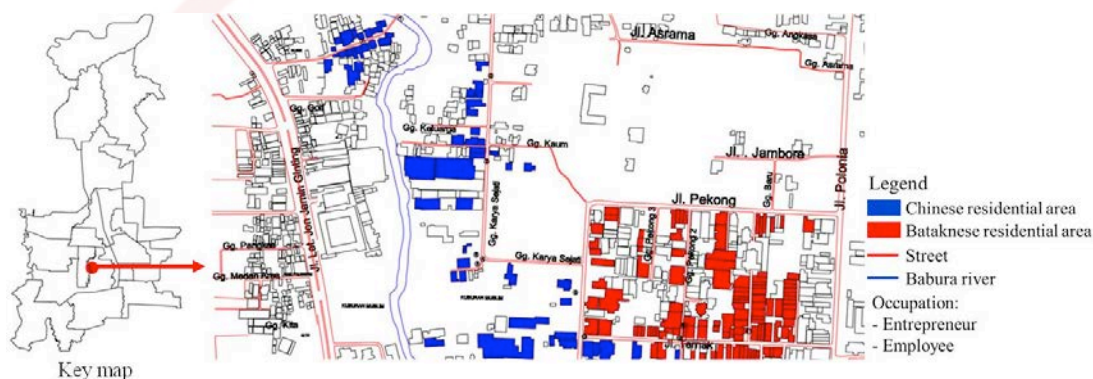


Figure 6. Settlement in Kelurahan Polonia, Medan Polonia Sub-District which the majority of the settlers are entrepreneur and employee.



Figure 7. Settlement in Kelurahan Pekan Labuhan Deli, Medan Labuhan Sub-District which the majority of the settlers are fisherman, driver and labor.

The immigration of rural citizen to the city tends to cause some urban-problems, one of which is building an unplanned residential area in downtown. This residential area sooner or later will grow into an organic settlement. According to Fernandez (2011), the easier an unplanned resident could be found, the easier for the government to take over that resident. The example of unplanned residents can be found in Kelurahan

Silalas, Medan Barat Sub-District (Figure 8). This settlement is placed in a narrow alley, border to the Deli River. The citizens purposively build their settlement in a small alley beside the river so that their slums will not be evicted by the government and they will not disturb the downtown constructions.

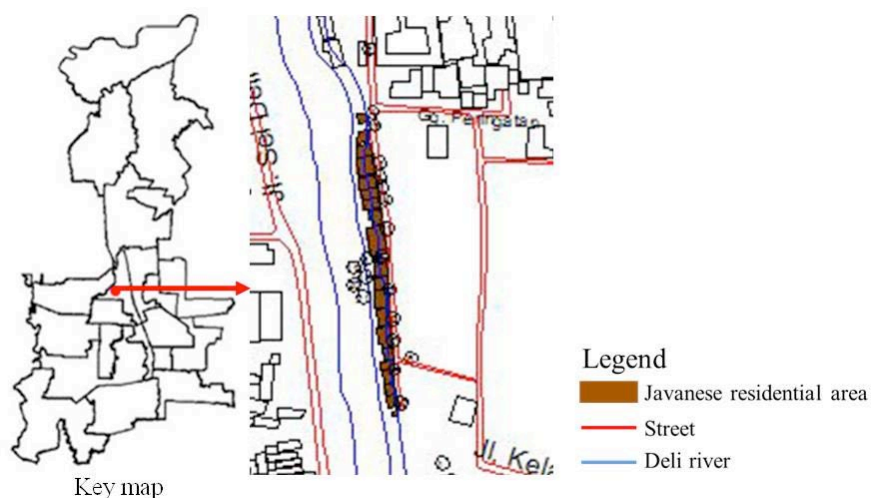


Figure 8. Settlement in a narrow alley, border to the Deli River in Kelurahan Silalas, Medan Barat Sub-District.

In Drolet, Robertson and Robinson (2010) studies, it is stated that the settlement is a process that continuously grow and cannot be set in a certain time as a form of individual adaptation to the environment. This case can be seen in Medan Johor Sub-District (Figure 9) where a lot of wasteland can be found and that wasteland will continue to experience the growing process.

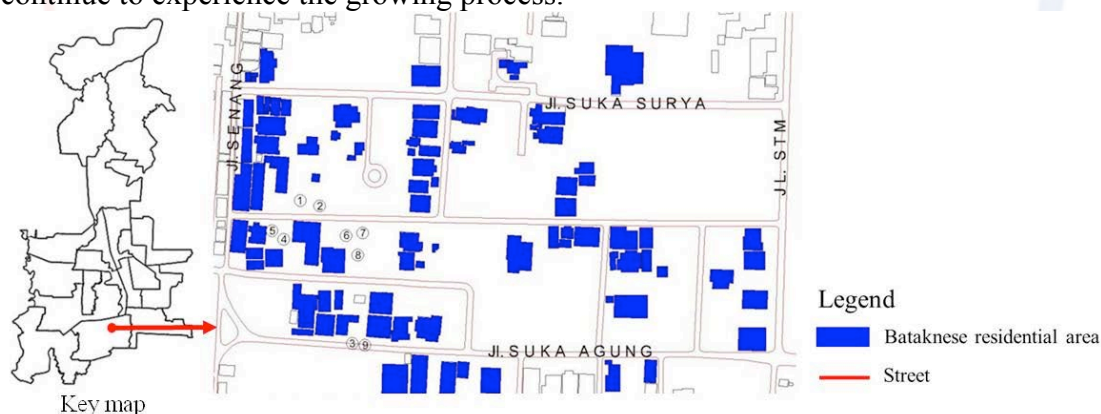


Figure 9. A lot of wasteland in Kelurahan Sukamaju, Medan Johor Sub-District.

Settlement Pattern

According to Katsamudanga (2007), prehistoric men built their settlement by choosing land that was suitable for farming and ranching. The adaptation of the land will cause a different settlement pattern over. There are two types of settlement, the first one is planned settlement (built by architect, consultant, government, and the authorities) and the second one is unplanned settlement that is a form of human adjustment with the surroundings (Kubat, 1999). According to Fernandez (2011), there are seven types of unplanned settlement pattern: (a) regular grid pattern (Figure 10a and 10b); (b) irregular grid pattern (Figure 11a and 11b); (c) the adaptive form towards topography (Figure 12a and 12b); (d) the main corridor pattern (Figure 13a

and 13b); (e) radial pattern (Figure 14a and 14b); (f) platform occupation pattern (Figure 15a and 15b); and (g) hill flat heads occupation pattern. The settlement pattern according to Fernandez can be seen from the figure below.

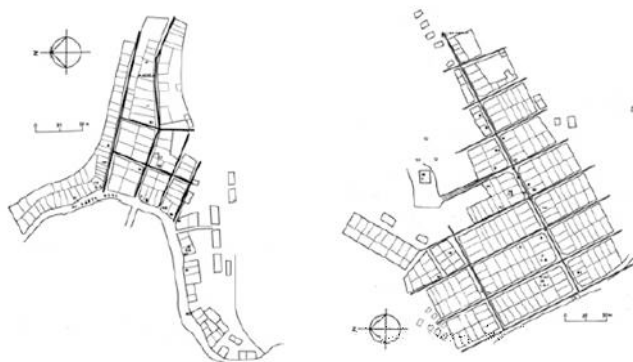


Figure 10a. Regular grid pattern.

Source: Fernandez (2011)

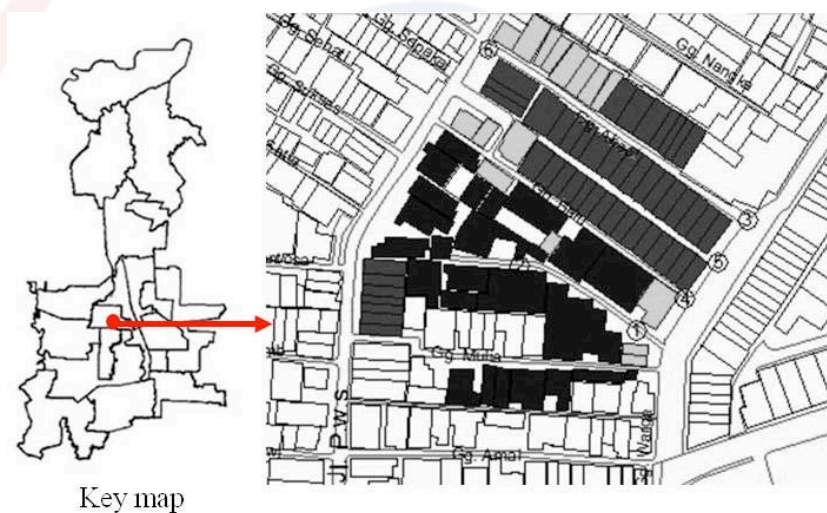


Figure 10b. The example of regular grid pattern in Medan Petisah Sub-District.

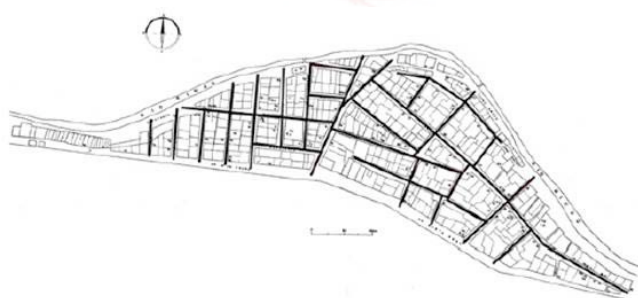


Figure 11a. Irregular grid pattern.

Source: Fernandez (2011)



Figure 11b. The example of irregular grid pattern in Medan Labuhan Sub-District.



Figure 12a. The adaptive form towards topography.
Source: Fernandez (2011)

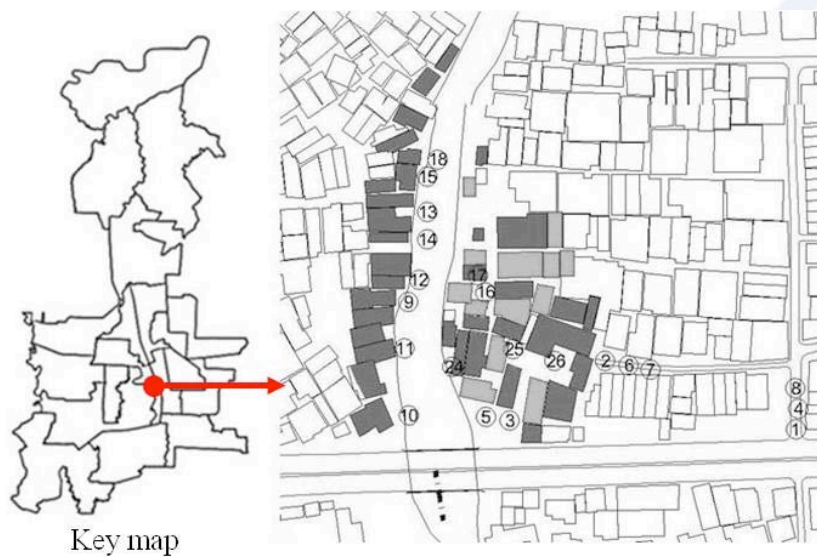


Figure 12b. The example of the adaptive form towards topography in Medan Maimun Sub-District.



Figure 13a. The main corridor pattern.
Source: Fernandez (2011)

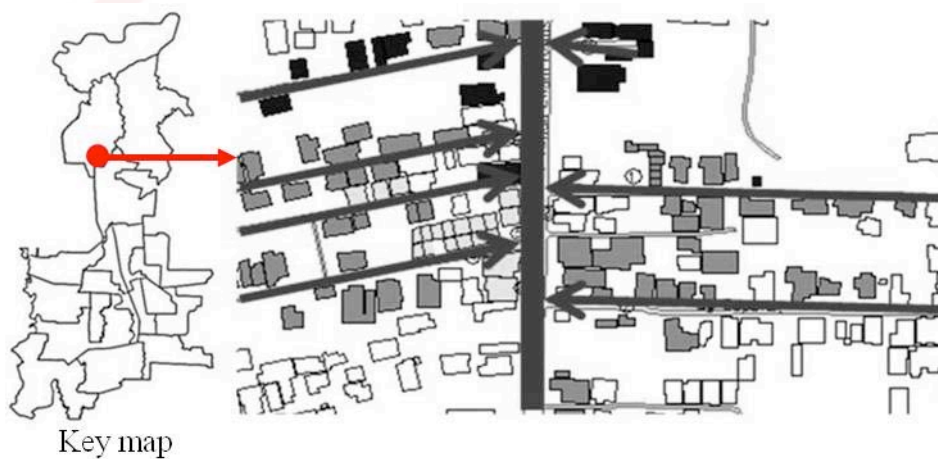


Figure 13b. The example of the main corridor pattern in Medan Marelan Sub-District.



Figure 14a. The radial pattern.
Source: Fernandez (2011)



Figure 14b. The example of radial pattern in Vila natal Salvador de Bahia, Brazil.

Source: Fernandez (2011)

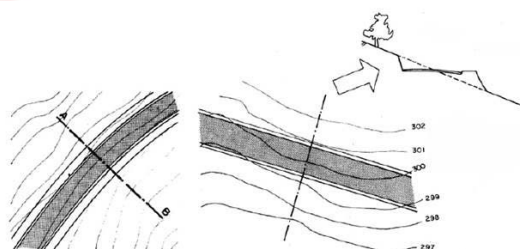


Figure 15a. Platform occupation pattern.

Source: Fernandez (2011)

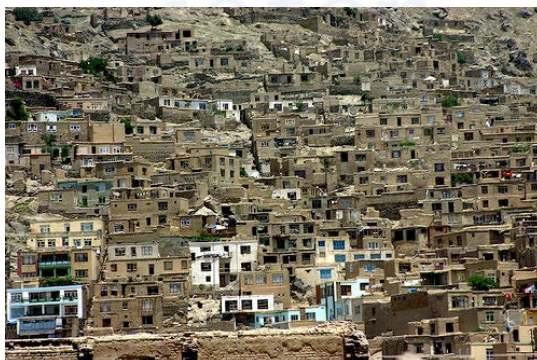


Figure 15b. The example of platform occupation pattern in Kabul, Afghanistan.

Source: <http://www.happytellus.com/kabul/afghanistan>

According to Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010), there are five types of settlement pattern: (a) a settlement pattern that dominates a certain single area or compact development (Figure 16a and 16b); (b) a settlement pattern that is scattered around a certain area or scattered development (Figure 17a and 17b); (c) a settlement pattern that is scattered around a certain area with some of it dominates a single region or leapfrogging development (Figure 18a and 18b); (d) a settlement pattern that dominates the main transport infrastructure or linear strip development (Figure 19a and 19b); and (e) a settlement pattern that dominates some certain region or polynucleated development (Figure 20a and 20b). The settlement pattern according to Galster et al. in Bessusi et al. can be seen from the figure below.

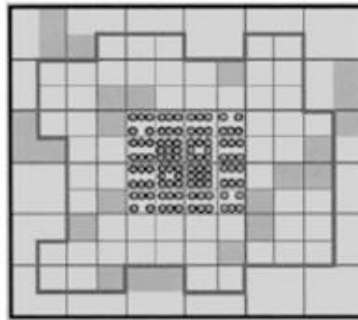


Figure 16a. Compact development.

Source: Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010)

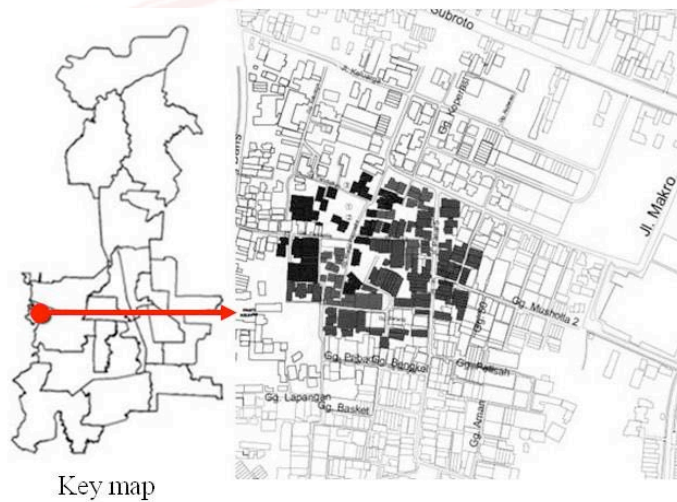


Figure 16b. The example of compact development in Medan Sunggal Sub-District.

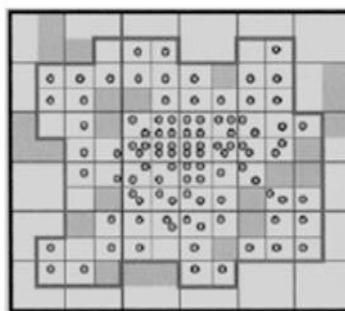


Figure 17a. Scattered development.

Source: Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010)

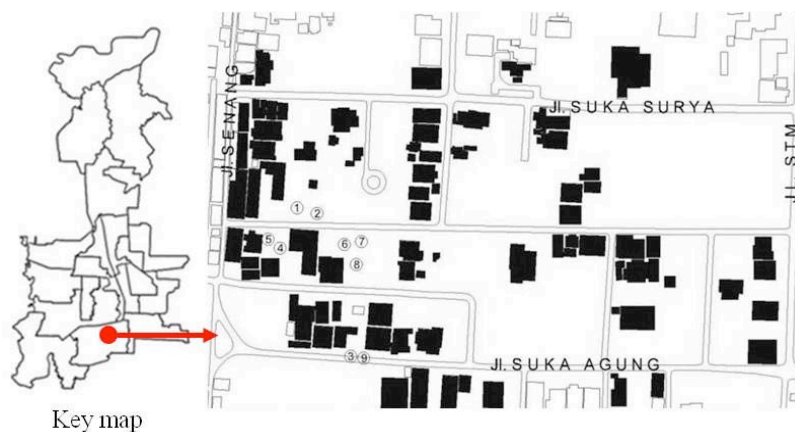


Figure 17b. The example of scattered development in Medan Johor Sub-District.



Figure 18a. Leapfrogging development.
 Source: Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010)

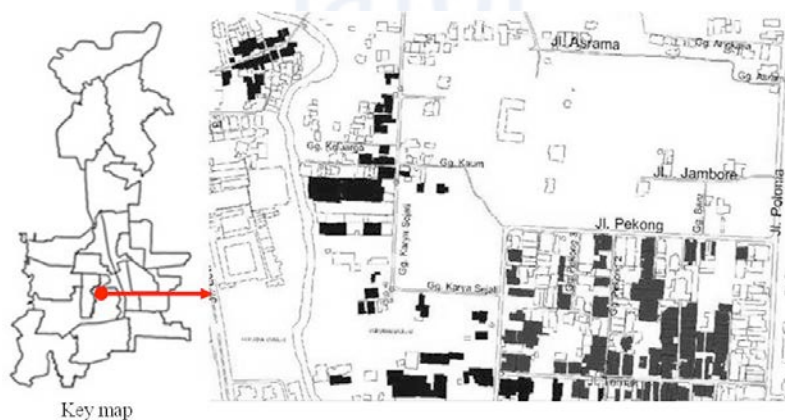


Figure 18b. The example of leapfrogging development in Medan Polonia Sub-District.

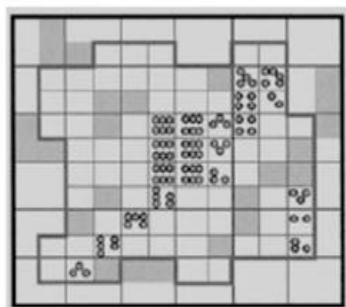


Figure 19a. Linear strip development.
 Source: Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010)

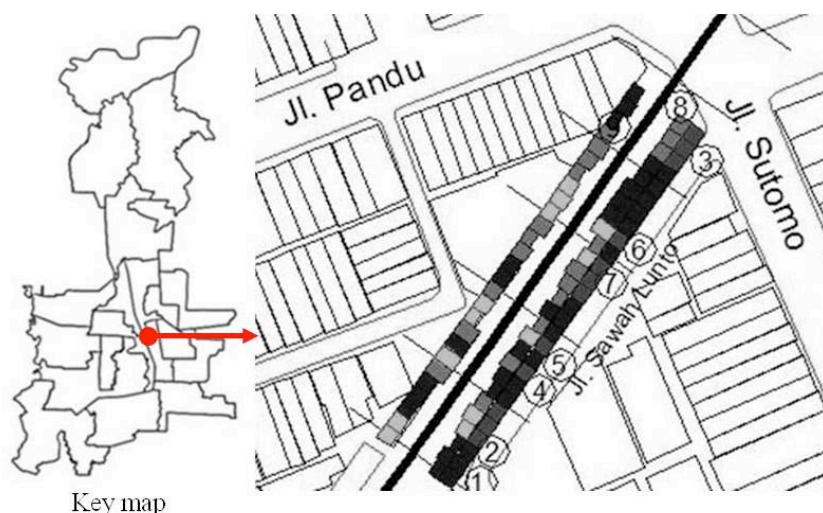


Figure 19b. The example of linear strip development in Medan Kota Sub-District.

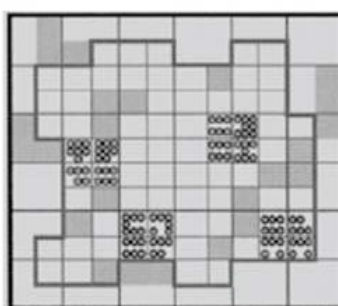


Figure 20a. Polynucleated development.
Source: Galster et al. (2001) in Besussi et al. (2010)

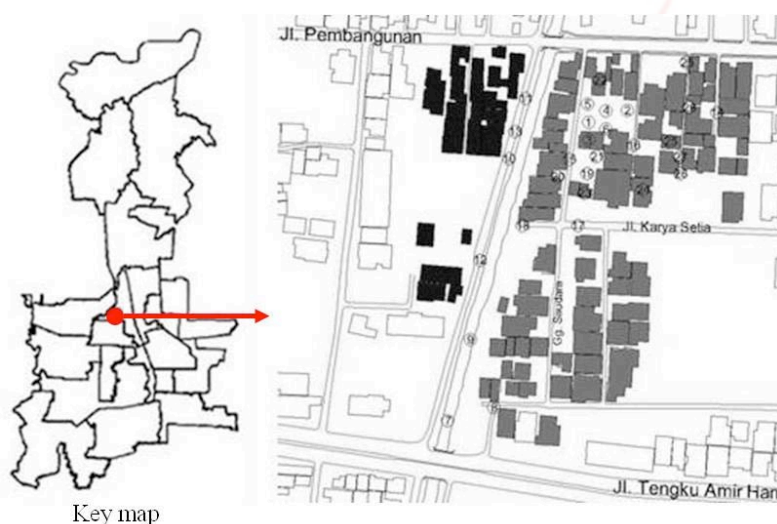


Figure 20b. The example of polynucleated development in Medan Barat Sub-District.

According to Camagni et al. (2002), there are five types of suburban development: (a) construction is sited on an empty field which the previous settlement was built; (b) the widen of settlement on the border site of the settlement; (c) linear construction along side of main transportation infrastructure; (d) new construction which are spread equally on all region; and (e) large scale construction which is independent against the

existing settlements. These types of suburban development will impact on unplanned settlement. This unplanned settlement usually tends to become organic settlement pattern.

Social Impact in Settlement Formation

Social impact has important role in settlement formation. These social impact factors are: (a) social factor; (b) cultural factor; (c) economical factor; (d) political factor; (e) environmental factor; and (f) safety factor. These factors will affect the settlement formation. In terms of social factor, for instance, can be seen from population growth which affects human settlement (Scott, 1996). This especially happens in urban settlement. According to Neuman (2005), increased population growth in the city cause increased population density. This increased population density led to decreasing of urban land which can be used as settlement area. With the limited land in the city, cheap open land outside the city became a magnet which is very appealing to most people, so people tend to expand or build settlement in area outside the city. This can be seen from the number of settlement formed in Medan Johor Sub-District, which is an area outside the city. One of the unplanned settlement in Medan Johor Sub-District is located in Kelurahan Sukamaju (Figure 21).

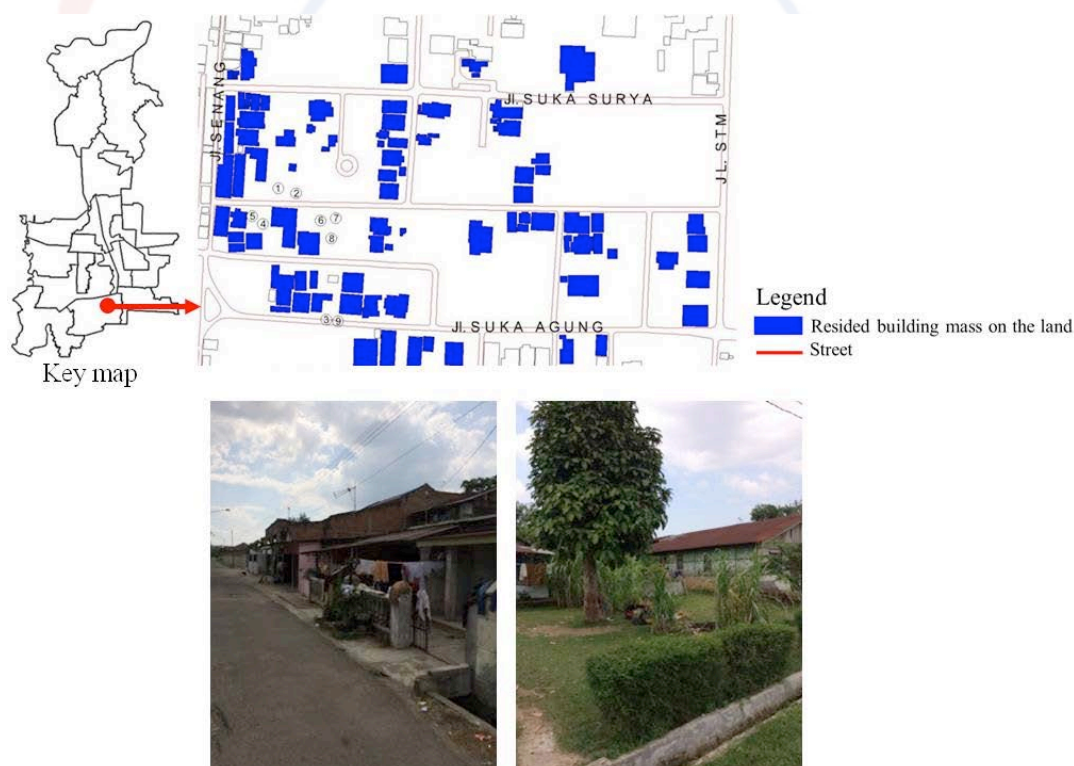


Figure 21. Unplanned settlement in Kelurahan Sukamaju, Medan Johor Sub-District.

As seen in Figure 21, unplanned settlement in Medan Johor Sub-District is located at Jalan Senang, Jalan Suka Surya, and Jalan Suka Agung. Part of the settlement in this Sub-District is quite dense, but another is rather distant. This is possibly because the land in this Medan Johor Sub-District, which is located outside the city, is still quite vast, so people are free to build anywhere. The fact that people build in Medan Johor Sub-District affect to formation of organic mass. Besides, this settlement in Medan

Johor settlement is occupied by Batakese, who work as carpenter, bus driver, and policeman.

Settlement pattern is also influenced by human culture (Mookodi, 2001). In settlement formation, either in the village or in the city, there are always factors that affect the type or condition of the settlement. These factors are vary in the village and in the city due to different conditions. The settlement in the village is more influenced by cultural factor, such as ethnics, caste, and religion (Sarkar, 2010). On the other hand, settlement in the city is more influenced by needs, lifestyle, and perspective. Neighbourhoods provide residents social needs according to their lifestyle (Okta, 1998). Besides, man also formed settlement using existing materials. This mostly happens in uncontrolled development (de Bustillos, 2003).

Settlement in Kelurahan Silalas, Medan Barat Sub-District, is one example of settlement which materials' using improvised materials. This settlement is occupied by Javanese, who work as vendor, parking attendant, beggar, entrepreneur, and employee. In this settlement, the house's wall using bamboo plait or wooden plank, roof using zinc, and foundation using wooden poles structure (Figure 22a and 22b).

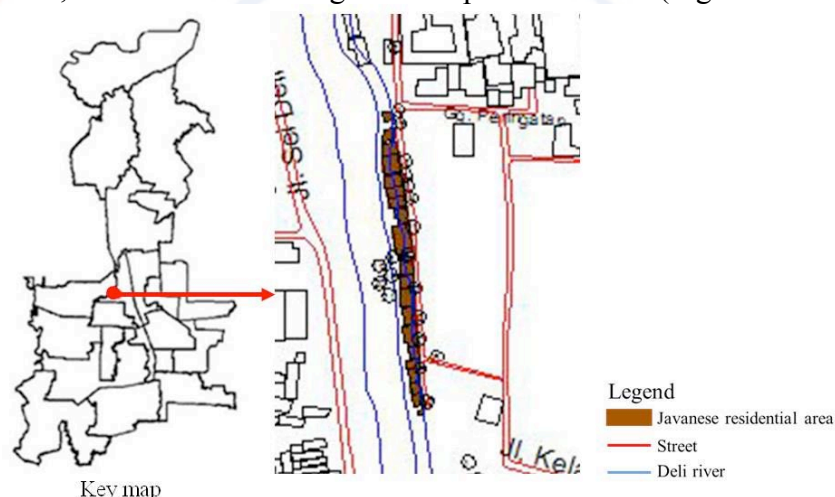


Figure 22a. Settlement in Kelurahan Silalas, Medan Barat Sub-District has houses that made from improvised materials.

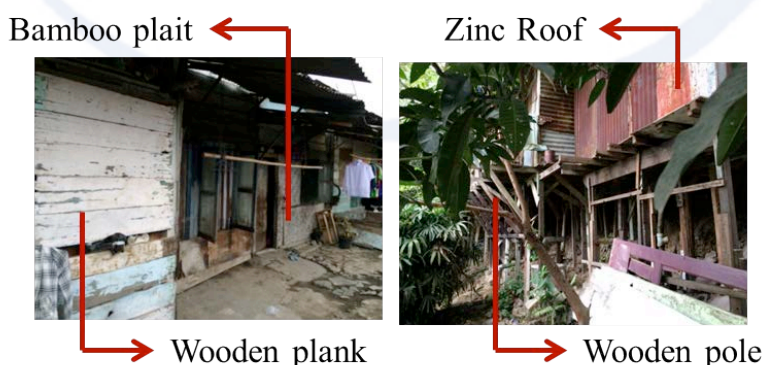


Figure 22b. Buildings are made from materials that are easily found, such as bamboo, wood and zinc.

In Limanarkasi, the old city of Girne (Kyrenia), which still retains its space quality and local identity, there is a small port that creates high economic attractiveness. This

is because the port associated with the transport of goods (export-import) and human resource requirements are high, so many people come and form settlement in the vicinity (Oktay, 1998). On the other hand, in India, precisely in Tamilnadu and Andhra Pradesh, most of the water area had been made shrimp farming area. The shrimp farming creates jobs for the local population with a sizable salary and benefits of shrimp farming is also quite high. This encourages people to form settlement in the area (Kagoo, 2002).

Besides Limanarkasi, this also happens in Indonesia, precisely in Medan Belawan Sub-District, Medan, North Sumatera. In this Medan Belawan Sub-District, there is Belawan city which is a port city in Medan. Belawan city is the only water transport facility in Medan, where the transport of goods (export-import) happens, so many people came and formed settlement around it (Figure 23).



Figure 23. Belawan city is a port city which is located in Medan Belawan Sub-District.

Source: <https://maps.google.co.id/?hl=id>

In Figure 23, can be seen a very dense settlement in area around Belawan port. Belawan port city is the center of local economic activity, so that triggers the formation of local settlement. Political factor, such as social organization also has a role, either positive or negative, in a settlement (Katsamudanga, 2007: 68). Besides, people in a settlement, in this case slum, can survive because they are empowered by local community and political system that shelter it. As happens in Tehran, Iran, where people are empowered by local community. This community may come from the closest social relationships, even by people of different ethnics, but with the same social status. Besides, people of higher social status and the government also take role in empowering the people in this slum (Babaei, 2012).

This can be seen from settlement in Kelurahan Mabar, Medan Deli Sub-District, which is located near downtown. People in this settlement tend to be empowered by the citizen or local community. This can be seen from the people's occupation. People in this settlement work as builder, labourer, public transportation driver, maid, and employee. This shows that these people chose to live in this area because the location of this settlement which is near to their work location, which is downtown (Figure 24a and 24b).



Figure 24a. Organic settlement in Kelurahan Mabar, Medan Deli Sub-District is formed near the residents' working areas.



Figure 24b. Settlement's atmosphere in Kelurahan Mabar, Medan Deli Sub-District which is unplanned and located near downtown.

Environment determines the location of the settlement because it can determine the survival of society (Katsamudanga, 2007). In countryside, people survive by cultivating the surrounding natural resources, such as farming, fishing, hunting, and cattling. In choosing settlement location, people consider the land condition with the existing natural resources, because the people's livelihood largely depends on the land condition. For example, if the land around the settlement is potential as land for farming, then most people in this area work as farmers; whereas if the settlement is located near the sea, then most people in this area work as fishermen, and so on (Kitula, 2006).

In Indonesia, this can also be seen in Belawan fishing village in Medan, Medan Belawan Sub-District. This village is located in the riverside, so the natural resources which have the potential to be processed are all available resources in the river. That's why most of the people in this village work as fishermen (Figure 25).



Figure 25. Fisherman Village in Belawan Medan.

An area has a strategic value for a country. This is because the control of area will benefit military (Hensel, 2000, in Weidmann, 2009). Settlement form is influenced by the need for defence against attacks from the outside. This causes many found

settlement built on the side of a mountain or forest (McKay, 1968). Settlement in Bylany, Czech Republic, in 5500-5000 BC also formed because of the element of defence. Residential buildings in Bylany are not all uninhabited, because of the motivation behind the residential development. The motivation is to trap the enemy (Kvetina and Koncelova, 2013: 5). Besides, the type of animal that occupies a location also determines the settlement location. If a site was inhabited by large animal, then this animal can be dangerous to the public, so settlement can't be found in this location (Katsamudanga, 2007). As in settlement in the period before, settlement was formed by considering the safety factor, such as defence from large animals and defence from enemies. Now, safety factor is still one important factor for the settlement formation. In Newfoundland and Labrador, for example, people tend to form settlement in the city because of the low crime rates and a safe and quiet environment (Gien and Law, 2010). At present, the safety factor remains a consideration in forming a settlement. However, the safety factor is not defence of large animals or enemies, but the safety factor against crime. The safety factor against crime is applied in gated community housing type. Cemara Asri Housing in the Percut Sei Tuan Sub-District is one example of gated community in suburban of Medan city. This can be seen from the entrance guarded by security and walls which is boundary to the housing. (Figure 26a and 26b).

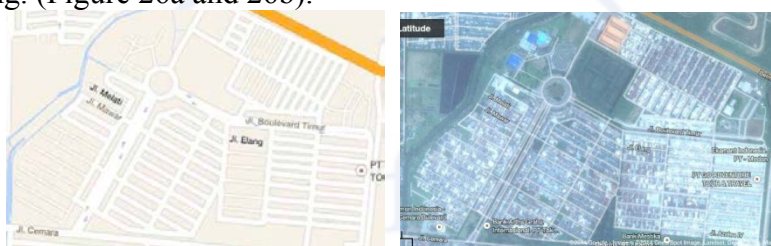


Figure 26a. Cemara Asri Housing in Percut Sei Tuan Sub-District, Kabupaten Deli Serdang.
Source: Google Map (2014)



Figure 26b. Gates control entry for the sense of security.
Photo by: Jenny (2014)

Theoretical Concept

The settlement formation is because of evolution, environmental circumstances, and value. There are also phases and forms which are form and development of a settlement (Figure 27).



Figure 27. Theoretical concept of settlement formation.

Settlement is divided into 3 types, such as: (a) urban settlement; (b) rural settlement; (c) slum. Settlement can be valued based on certain criteria. Besides that, settlement also has physical elements which are the most important element in settlement formation (Figure 28).

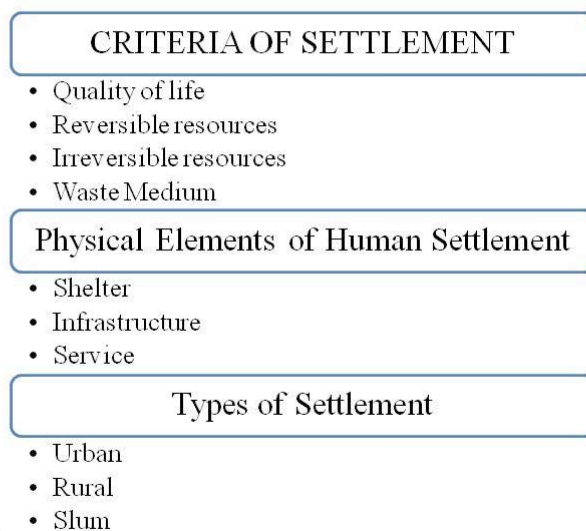


Figure 28. Theoretical concept of settlement.

Settlement pattern can be formed by 2 ways, which are by planned and by unplanned. The planned settlement is built by architect, consultant, government, and the authorities. Otherwise, the unplanned settlement is a form of human adjustment with the surroundings (Figure 29).

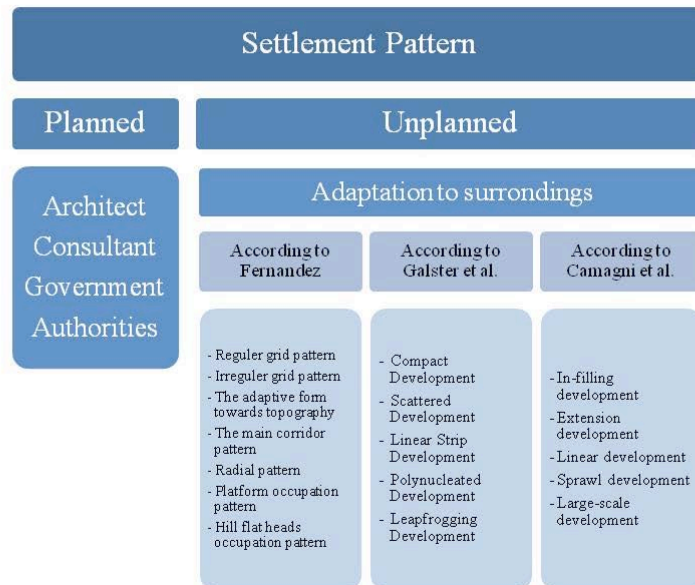


Figure 29. Theoretical concept of settlement pattern.

Social impact take role in settlement formation. Social impact which influence settlement formation, such as social factor, cultural factor, economical factor, political factor, environmental factor, and safety factor (Figure 30).



Figure 30. Theoretical concept of social impact in settlement formation.

Conclusion

The theory concept built by the author provides a clear relationship to the facts about the relationship between the forms of unplanned settlement with the social condition of resident’s community. The author has made a theoretical concept about the formation of settlement and settlement forms. In theory, the author states that basically the human have social values that affect the ability to create form and space within a settlement. Social values that affect an individual's personality will determine

the orientation of life. The orientation of life gives an idea that affect the form of unplanned settlement. The idea enriches the theoretical concepts of the social influences on the formation of settlement, especially irregular settlement (organic).



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The logo for the International Association for the Study of the History of the City (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a larger light blue arc and a smaller, slightly offset light red arc.

Hong Kong's Mental Health Policy—Preliminary Findings

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Abstract

People in Hong Kong bear the brunt of diverse types of mental disorder and yet the mental health services in Hong Kong are criticized as seriously insufficient. Psychiatrist F.K. Tsang (2007) even lamented about the lack of a consistent mental health policy. The present paper offers the theoretical framework and the preliminary findings of a full-scale research on Hong Kong's enigmatic mental health policy in the colonial era and under China's sovereignty respectively. Shedding light on the two-way interaction of government consultation, the theoretical framework is followed by in-depth interviews with the different stakeholders. Initial findings from the in-depth interviews with a small group of interviewees from different sectors have yielded a consensus about the lack of a long-term mental health policy in the governments of both the colonial and post-colonial periods, which only administered and still provide short-term annual budgets for renewable mental health services. The change of sovereignty has not brought about any change in either the philosophy of budget allocation or the process of policy-making.

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Introduction

It is widely recognized that people in Hong Kong bear the brunt of diverse types of mental disorder such as major depressive disorder, anxiety disorder, personality disorder, to name a few. According to the survey by the Hong Kong Mood Disorders Center, Faculty of Medicine, Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) (2009), 200,000 people suffered from anxiety disorder and 600,000 people suffered from depression. Another survey by the same CUHK unit also estimated that a staggering number of 570,000 people suffered from paranoia personality disorder. Due to the marked prevalence of mental disorder in Hong Kong, the public mental health policy warrants special attention. The current provision of public mental health care in Hong Kong can be clearly delineated in a four-stage approach ranging from prevention, treatment, prevention of relapse to the follow-up system.

For prevention, the Hospital Authority piloted a prevention programme “Early Assessment Service for Young Persons with Psychosis” (EASY) in 2001 targeting the teenagers aged 15-25 (Hospital Authority, 2010). This programme aims at disseminating information to the public about the early symptoms of mental disorder, assessment and intervention. Similarly, the Hospital Authority initiated, from 2002 onwards, another programme entitled “Elderly Suicide Prevention Program” (ESPP) (Hospital Authority, 2010), which aims to facilitate the early detection of mental disorder among the elderly and prompt treatment simultaneously via continuous education and promotion.

As the patients proceed to receiving treatment, those who suffer from common mental disorders or even severe mental disorders could visit specialist outpatient clinics provided by the Hospital Authority so as to get acute care and health maintenance services. In contrast, patients who suffer from more serious mental disorders such as schizophrenia could be admitted to the inpatient hospitals which encompass both acute care and rehabilitation services for an extended period.

A comprehensive intervention should not only encompass prevention and early intervention, and most importantly, the prevention of relapse to be run in tandem. To decrease the rate of relapse, the Hospital Authority now prescribes patients with the new anti-psychotic medicine with less debilitating side-effects.

Upon discharge from the psychiatric hospitals, mental disorder patients with a history of violence are required to register in the Priority Follow-Up (PFU) system, as stipulated by the Hospital Authority since 1983 (Expert Panel for Better Community Care of Psychiatric Patients in Hong Kong, 2010). The PFU cases are to receive top priority and PFU patients are required to pay mandatory visits to outpatient clinics. In addition, the PFU patients shall be visited by psychiatric nurses periodically. Notwithstanding its logical soundness, these patients could still reject the nurses’ visit because of the lack of a legal status of PFU. Apart from the PFU system, how to facilitate reintegration of the patients into society represents another pressing issue. In this regard, the Hospital Authority now operates cluster-based community psychiatric services to help the patients.

After the short overview of the current provision of mental health care, this paper proceeds to first establish the theoretical framework that sheds light on the two-way

interaction on the consultation between the Hong Kong Government and the citizens as regards mental health services in terms of the both top-down and bottom-up approach. It is then followed by the application of the corresponding theoretical framework in the colonial era and under China's sovereignty respectively.

Theoretical Framework

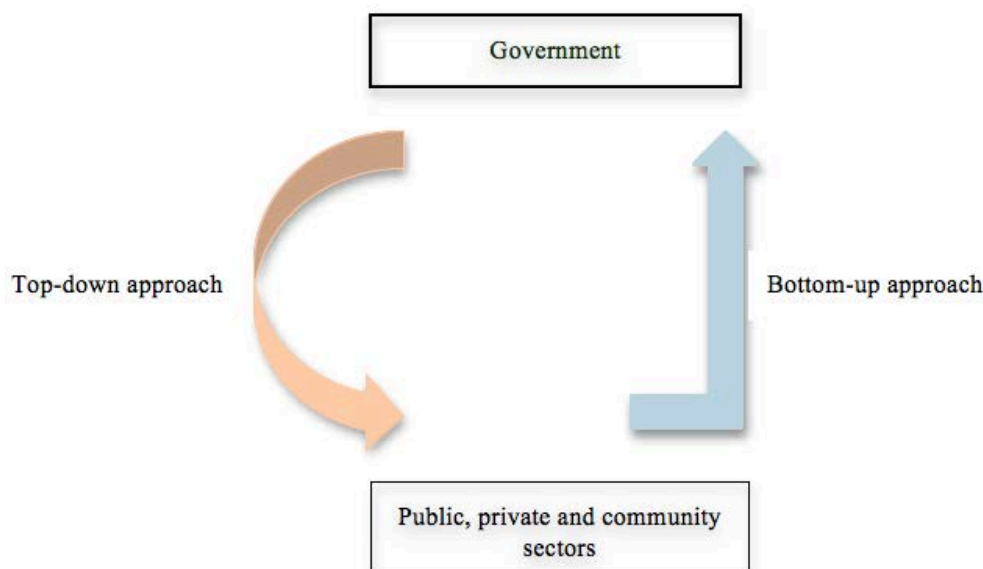


Fig. 1: Theoretical framework of two-way interaction on the consultation between the Hong Kong Government and the citizens

The theoretical framework of the two-way interaction on the consultation between the Hong Kong Government and the citizens is depicted in Figure 1. The top-down approach refers to the Government acting as an executive-led and non-democratic polity without collating the opinions from different parties. While social construction has constantly evoked the stigma of deviance on mental disorders, the lukewarm attitude of the local Government seems to have dismissed the importance of the formulation of a mental health policy. Meanwhile, mental health patients are the disadvantaged group with very few people really concerned about their interest. The top-down approach, however, could hardly operate in isolation. It should be studied in conjunction with the bottom-up approach of “governance beyond government”, which refers to fostering partnership by government officials across the public, private and community sectors (Ng, 2005). This should go hand in hand with the development of social institutions and networks in which citizens could discuss mental health issues, work together, and eventually help build up confidence and capacities of local governance in terms of the mental health policy. Equilibrium of the formulation of mental health policy can be attained in terms of striking a balance between the top-down and bottom-up approaches.

Preliminary Findings of in-depth Interviews with Stakeholders of Eight Sectors

Interview Plan and Selection of Interviewees

To gauge the opinions of the stakeholders, in-depth interviews were planned and have been carried out from late October 2013 onwards. Stakeholders from eight different sectors were identified, and they include government officials, Legislative Councilors, psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, counselors, social workers, mental health policy advocates and academics, mental health patients and their families. With seven to eight interviewees within each sector, the sample size will be around 56 to 64 interviewees.

Prospective interviewees from the government sector include current officials and ex-officials from the relevant government bureau and departments. After having examined the structure in the pre- and post-1997 Hong Kong Government, the four bureau and departments of Labour and Welfare Bureau, Health, Welfare and Food Bureau, Social Welfare Department and Department of Health have been selected and the Secretary or director identified. These four bureau and departments are mainly responsible for setting up and implementing the mental health policy.

From the political parties, the Legislative Councilors with the mental health policy in their portfolios have been identified for interviews. Currently, there are fourteen political parties in Hong Kong including the Business and Professionals Alliance for Hong Kong, Civic Party, Democratic Alliance for the Betterment and Progress of Hong Kong, Democratic Party, Hong Kong Association for Democracy and People's Livelihood, Hong Kong Federation of Trade Unions, Neo Democrats, Labour Party, League of Social Democrats, Liberal Party, Neighbourhood, New People's Party, People Power, The Professional Commons, and Workers Services Centre.

Representative self-help patient groups include Alliance of Ex-mentally ill of Hong Kong, Amity Mutual-Support Society Christian Oi Hip Fellowship, Concord Mutual-Aid Club Alliance, Hong Chi Association, Hong Kong FamilyLink Mental Health Advocacy Association, and New Life Psychiatric Rehabilitation Association. Two other related organizations include the NGO, Society for Community Organization, and the voluntary agency, Society of Rehabilitation and Crime Prevention. The chairpersons or chief executive officers of the patient groups have been identified for interviews.

Professional organizations for the psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, counselors and social workers have been identified for interviews with their chairpersons. These include the Asian Professional Counselling Association, Hong Kong Clinical Psychologists Association, Hong Kong Psychological Society, and Hong Kong Social Workers' Association. As a federation of non-government social service agencies of Hong Kong, the Hong Kong Council of Social Service has also been identified as a stakeholder.

A semi-structured interview lasting about an hour is to be conducted with each interviewee. The interview questions focus on early identification and prevention of mental illness, treatment and rehabilitation of mental health patients, the Mental Health Commission, community treatment order, the Mental Health Review

Committee and whether a comprehensive mental health policy has ever existed in Hong Kong. A follow-up interview will be arranged if further clarification necessitates. All the interview scripts are to be and the majority will be translated from Cantonese into English.

Implementation and Preliminary Findings

From October 2013 onwards, a total of 20 interviews were held with interviewees from the different sectors including one ex-government official, six Legislative Councilors, three psychiatrists, two academics, and representatives from four patient groups, the Society for Community Organization, Hong Kong Social Worker Association, Hong Kong Council of Social Service, and the Hong Kong Association for the Promotion of Mental Health.

Initial findings from the in-depth interviews have yielded a consensus about the lack of a long-term mental health policy in the governments of both the colonial and post-colonial periods, which only administered and still provides short-term annual budgets for renewable mental health services. It has been noted, however, that there was a change in the provision of services with the establishment of the Hospital Authority, a statutory body established on 1 December 1990 to manage all public hospitals in Hong Kong. While the patient groups focused on the discussion of the effectiveness of the various kinds of mental health services provided in the different periods, the Legislative Councilors mostly lamented on the absence and neglect of a comprehensive and long-term mental health policy, while also remarking on the deficiency and disjointedness of the psychiatric services among government departments. Meanwhile, the psychiatrists, academics and also representatives from the professional groups commented on the importance of both the promotion and awareness of mental health, together with the prevention and early identification of mental health problems. Suggestions were made about introducing newer-generation antipsychotic drugs for patients' better self-administration to prevent a relapse, and bringing in counseling services for family or child-raising problems at the Maternal & Child Health Centres under the Family Health Service, Department of Health. More importantly, it is interesting to observe the view of the ex-government official in the claim of the existence of a mental health policy in Hong Kong by the provision of mental health services against the framework of the legislation of the Mental Health Ordinance. In spite of the reluctance of the current and ex-government officials to accept the invitations to be interviewed, the researchers deem it essential for the project to engage the input of this sector, with whom the line-up of interviews will be persevered.

Discussion:

Mental Health Measures and Services in place of a Substantial Mental Health Policy

In Colonial Hong Kong:

In a review of the mental health care provision in the 154 years of colonial Hong Kong, Kam-Shing Yip has found that the mental health care system before Hong Kong's return to China's sovereignty had developed from the pre-asylum period, the asylum period, the organization period, the initial and then centralized rehabilitation

periods, into a parallel mode of institutional care and community care, instead of the de-institutionalization model that was the common movement elsewhere internationally (Yip, 1998). This is the result, as Yip suggests, of the unique political and social context of Hong Kong. As it will be demonstrated in the current discussion, this unique political and social context also underlies the key to understanding the intricate forces and deliberation process behind policy formulation and political participation in the colonial era, which, in turn, would have borne a distinct and necessary impact on the process of policy formulation in post-colonial Hong Kong.

The extremely efficient and unbeaten administrative model of colonial Hong Kong has been a case study for quite a number of social and political researchers who have offered a range of factors contributing to its success. Notwithstanding, the hundred-year-long unchanging political structure before 1980s was “the result of the China factor”, which prevented decolonization as occurred in other British colonies in the late 20th century, and brought to a freeze in the development of the political structure until 1985 (Ngo, 2000). Research on the political representation in the colonial era has also highlighted the predominance and dependence on the business sector at all levels of political consultation (Davies, 1989). On the one hand, the two decades immediately preceding the signing of the Sino–British Joint Declaration to return Hong Kong to China had witnessed an enormous growth of nearly three-fold of per capita GDP, alongside a 70 percent increase in the working population (1.55 million in 1965 to 2.64 million in 1986) and a 50 percent increase in the general population to 5.54 million in 1986 (Davies, 1989). Ngo states that Hong Kong had achieved levels of modernity by the late 1970s in terms of the soaring development in a market economy, urbanization, literacy and higher education, and community well-being. At the same time, Hong Kong citizens enjoyed a high level of freedoms of expression, association, and assembly, bringing into existence a wide range of autonomous social, economic and political groups and organizations. On the other hand, there was no popular form of political representation, no political party and no elected assembly (Ngo, 2000). Even in face of the subsequent changes introducing a drastic expansion of the representative system in the composition of the two tiers of the Legislative Council (LegCo), Urban and Regional Councils of the colonial government, as a result of a major government policy review in 1984, the wholly-appointed first-tier Executive Council was relatively immune to change, and had been persistently dominated by the business interest with a representation of around 40 percent through the same twenty-year period (Davies, 1989).

In fact, the top-down approach in the governance of colonial Hong Kong had been supplemented by an elaborated advisory system of over four hundred advisory bodies in the 1980s, ranging from statutory bodies with executive powers to ad hoc committees (Ngo, 2000). Ngo observes that this advisory system allowed office-bearers of major associations or interest groups to be appointed in their private capacity, thus rendering possible a two-way co-responsibility process in this system of “government by consultation” whereby the views of the co-opted associations were reflected through their representatives in the policy formulation process, while support from these associations was offered, in return, to the policies adopted after deliberation. As such, this two-way process of both the top-down and bottom-up approach had presented an informal mechanism of what Ngo calls “government licensing” to social groups who were encouraged to seek official recognition as the

legitimate representative and spokesperson of a social collective (Ngo, 2000). Where labour and lower class groups had no access, at the other end of the power structure in the top policy council was an oligarchy representing the interests of big business and banking, the industrialists and the employers (Ngo, 2000). By means of a limit on their privilege and relative power, consensus was forged among this oligarchy of business elites through a pact of alliance to pursue a laissez-faire policy and to uphold the principle of non-selective intervention, in order to allow for profit maximization (Ngo, 2000).

In the late 1960s and the early 1970s, dissatisfaction with the system of oligarchic politics had prompted a series of riots and protest. With the advent of the year 1971, a new “reforming governor”, Sir Murray, and later Lord, MacLehose, was brought in, who instigated, among other initiatives, the establishment of the Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC) and a very ambitious public housing programme (Davies, 1989). Changes in the policy councils first took place in the lowering of overall expatriate representation to less than 43.5 percent in 1975. Then, direct elections were introduced in 1982 for the first time ever in the colony to the new District Boards (Davies, 1989). Davies argues that the addition of an influential group of educated middle-class professionals in the membership of the Legislative Council was in the process of starting to reflect a new reality in Hong Kong politics. As a result of a major increase in 1985 in the number of Unofficial Legislative Councillors, who were also appointed as chairmen or senior members of a range of advisory bodies, the broadening of representation continued with a concurrent decrease in that of official members (Davies, 1989). Ngo claims that the opinions of the appointed members in the councils and other advisory committees were highly respected and the consultation exercise was a genuine one. Neither the Governor nor the colonial government had acted in opposition to the consensual views of the unofficial members. Contrary to the post-1997 state of affairs in the LegCo, the majority of the official members in the colonial LegCo maintained until the 1980s had not been used to overcome the unanimous opposition of the unofficial members since 1953 (Ngo, 2000).

In the colonial era, government emphasis had always been placed on the creation of wealth rather than the distribution of wealth. With promoting capital accumulation as the prime objective, pro-business measures undertaken by the colonial government of Hong Kong included low profits tax, free enterprise, free flow of capital, minimal labour protection, and limited social welfare protection (Ngo, 2000). This laissez-faire policy was the guiding principle of the government, exerting its influence even on the current post-colonial administration. Coupled with the tradition of maintaining the self-imposed financial discipline for solid fiscal reserves, recurrent expenditure on education, health-care and other social services were tightly controlled at a limited level. This could partially explain the constant lukewarm and dismissive attitude of the Government in even initiating a discussion about a substantial mental health policy, and the enduring minimal percentage of per capital GDP allocated in the expenditure for the provision of mental health care. Taking into account Hong Kong’s ageing population and widening wealth gap, it is high time for the current SAR Government to conduct a review of whether Hong Kong should increase its recurrent public expenditure on certain areas such as health and welfare in a more targeted and sustainable manner.

Under China's Sovereignty

The pressing need for the formulation of a substantive mental health policy has been re-positioned on the agenda only as a result of a series of grave incidents involving ex-mentally ill patients, and at the time period of nearly a decade after Hong Kong's Handover to China. The most recent piece of testimony of its urgency is the 2012 Submission by the Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy in its call for a substantive mental health policy to replace the piecemeal supply of measures and services as regards mental health care. Meanwhile, the Secretariat of the Legislative Council provided an Information Note in May 2010 that put in comparison the policy frameworks of Hong Kong, England, Australia and Singapore, identifying clear mental health policies for the 3 other selected places, but the policy framework for Hong Kong as only including the white paper on rehabilitation in 1978, white paper on rehabilitation services in 1995, the Rehabilitation Programme Plan in 2007, and relevant legislation provided by the Mental Health Ordinance (Cap.136), Disability Discrimination Ordinance (Cap. 487), and the Enduring Powers of Attorney Ordinance (Cap.501) (LegCo Secretariat). Reference to and description of the mental health policy has been at a minimal as found in a few other LC papers for discussion; only two paragraphs in the 22 November 2007 paper of 12 pages are set apart for the current mental health policy, and no details are offered in the six-paged 19 May 2008 paper on "Mental Health Policy and Services".

The intriguing question of which department in the HKSAR Government shall hold responsible for designing mental health policies after 1997 has continued to perplex researchers. The Government, however, argues that the Taskforce on Mental Health Service has already been set up in 2006 by the Food & Health Bureau (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012). Be that as it may, the Taskforce remains elusive about specific mental health policies on the agenda, and whether the discussion by this Taskforce should be made transparent to the public (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012). Although there was another similar task force jointly organized by the Social Welfare Department, the Hospital Authority and non-governmental organizations, its role was only limited to reviewing the cooperation among different government departments in light of the provision of mental health services; evaluation of existing mental health services and, hence, any feasible mental health policy were not put forward (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012).

Uncertainty about the mental health policy in Hong Kong was seemingly attenuated by the occurrence of a tragedy in May 2010, whereby a mentally-ill patient physically injured three people and killed two neighbours in Kwai Shing East Estate. As this tragedy sparked public outcry, the Hong Kong SAR Government undertook to set up the Task Force on Community Mental Health with membership for the different government departments ranging from the Hospital Authority, the Social Welfare Department, the Housing Authority, to the Hong Kong Police Force (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012). This is the very first concerted effort made to discuss related mental health strategies and their implementation. This Task Force, however, failed to address mental health issues in a timely manner as meetings were convened only twice a year (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012).

Since the tragedy in Kwai Shing East Estate had generated substantial public outcry, the Chief Executive echoed in the 2010-2011 Policy Address the importance of setting up mental health integrated community centers. It was proposed that 24 mental health integrated community centers were to be established in 18 districts, so as to better accommodate the needs of different groups including the discharged mental patients, persons with suspected mental health problems, their families and residents living in the relative districts. This proposal, however, was rendered futile as it has failed to execute coordination by any one relevant department (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012). No department was assigned to explore suitable venues or to consult the citizens within the communities. This predicament is further exacerbated by a lack of funding for mental health services and a shortage of expert medical professionals in the field. Currently, Hong Kong spends only 5% of its GDP (gross domestic product) on the health sector—an expenditure that lags far behind the average of 8.8% among the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development countries (Expert Panel for Better Community Care of Psychiatric Patients in Hong Kong, 2010). Pitfalls are still identified in the mental health sector in Hong Kong as there is no separate fund dedicated to mental health; only a negligible 0.24% of GDP is spent on mental health care (Expert Panel for Better Community Care of Psychiatric Patients in Hong Kong, 2010). Due to the shortfall in the mental health funding in Hong Kong, inadequate staffing of professionals is commonly observed with a special reference to a skyrocketing professional to patient ratio (psychiatrists, 1:2,100; psychiatric nurses, 1:330; medical social workers, 1:3,100) (Expert Panel for Better Community Care of Psychiatric Patients in Hong Kong, 2010). As a result of the intertwining forces of the lack of central coordination, and the shortage of both sufficient funding and medical personnel, only nine mental health integrated community centers have been set up, while the remaining fifteen mental health integrated community centers are still in the search for suitable locations. Even though some of the mental health integrated community centers have been successfully launched in districts such as Tin Shui Wai, a close connection and cooperation is absent between the social workers of community centers and the case manager of Hospital Authority (Alliance on Advocating Mental Health Policy, 2012).

Apart from the 2010-2011 Policy Address, an escalating effort is put forward by the Hospital Authority as to finalize the roadmap of mental health services within the next five years in the Mental Health Service Plan 2010-2015, which was drafted on the basis of 40 submissions from individuals and organizations within a 3-month consultation period (Hospital Authority, 2010). The consultation received 12 responses from the non-governmental organizations of mental health services and 2 responses from the patient groups. The remaining 26 responses were collected from the Hospital Authority, other government departments and professional bodies. Although this draft acts analogous to the nascent exemplification of “governance beyond government” (Ng, 2005), there is a constant criticism that the mental health policies of Hong Kong are completely inaccessible to the victimized group of patients with mental illness (Chan & Chiu, 2007). This problem could be further understood in light of the pull-push interweaving forces whereby the institutional channels for the mental health service users or community groups to participate in the formulation of mental health policies are limited (Chan & Chiu, 2007). The pull factor runs in juxtaposition with the push factor pertaining to be lack of the sense of citizenship among patients with mental illness. In a survey by telephone interviews of 507

citizens and 520 mental health service users, Chan & Chiu (2007) discovered that the mental health service users enjoyed relatively high political efficacy and high involvement in protest activities. However, high political efficacy could not turn into the effective citizenship formation in the mental health service users, who would subsequently present a low participation rate in voting, with minimal involvement in the political system and in their engagement in an exchange with political parties, civic groups and elected officials (Chan & Chiu, 2007). As a result of the plight of longstanding stigmatization and social exclusion, these mental health service users view political participation as an unpleasant experience (Chan & Chiu, 2007). In this regard, the lack of a two-way interaction has been exposed between the Government and the public, especially for this minority group. On the one hand, institutional channels to propose a mental health policy are unavailable for access of the public. On the other hand, because the mental health service users lack the initiative to participate in the whole spectrum of political activities, it is of top priority on the agenda to empower this minority group.

Conclusion

To put it briefly, mental health policies in the post-1997 Hong Kong exist as a vacuum. Without neither a detailed plan nor central coordination, the Government always undertakes only to implement mental health measures and to provide mental health services. More importantly, the Government has always dismissed the formulation of a substantial mental health policy. Resorting to a *post hoc* solution instead of *ad hoc* preventive measures, the Government is observed as starting to put forth more effort in proposing a mental health policy only in the aftermath of tragedies involving mentally-ill patients, the occurrence of which in the recent years has increasingly sparked public outcry. Sadly, the difficulty in practising the bottom-up approach in political consultation has seldom brought the victimized groups to the forefront in the formulation of mental health policies. The top-down approach in the governance of Hong Kong predominates as a result of both the inaccessibility of the mental health policy to the users and the lack of the initiative in these users to participate in political consultation. While policy deliberation exercises in general were genuine in the colonial era despite government inertia in the formulation of a mental health policy, it remains questionable whether “governance beyond government” has ever existed in the post-1997 era (Ng, 2005).

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Homelessness Constructions in Johannesburg Inner-City: Questions of Power, Human Dignity and Social Justice

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Abstract

This paper draws from my doctoral research on homelessness in Johannesburg Inner-City, aiming at developing understandings of how homelessness was socially constructed in South Africa - using Social Constructivism as an explanatory conceptual framework. My point of departure is that homelessness in South Africa is a problem for the government and civil society, an issue of enormous dimensions deeply inter-related with questions of power, the economy, human dignity, and social justice. I argue that there are at least two discourses on homelessness in South Africa: the official/ public and the hidden. To underline my claims, the central point about Social Constructionists, the *how* and *what* including the concepts 'Unmasking Constructionism' and 'looping effect of interactive kinds' are engaged using, mainly, Ian Hacking's (2000), *The social construction of what?*

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Introduction

This paper draws from my doctoral research on homelessness constructions in Johannesburg Inner-City, aiming at developing understandings of how homelessness was socially constructed in South Africa. I would like to use Hacking's (2000) perspective as a key to explore *Homelessness Constructions in Johannesburg Inner City* and engage Social Constructivism as an explanatory conceptual framework. In this discussion I give the reader a sense of the history and how homelessness plays itself out in South Africa. This is in preparation for the subsequent discussion in the section on Social Constructivism as explanatory conceptual framework. In that discussion I present and discuss the concepts 'Unmasking Constructionism' and 'looping effect of interactive kinds' in relation to South Africa's homelessness discourse.

Using my introduction as the basis, my presentation and discussion will include the following:

Hacking's concepts of gradations of Constructionists commitment, namely, Historical, Ironic, Reformists, Unmasking, Rebellious and Revolutionary (ibid: 19-20). In this discussion, I argue why I chose the concept 'Unmasking' initially, instead of 'Revolutionary' for example. Also, I explain how Hacking's ideas on '*Unmasking*' are different from other conceptions of unmasking. Additionally, I present and discuss Hacking's ideas of '*looping effect of interactive kinds*', including how I could possibly apply them in my doctoral research and beyond.

My point of departure is that homelessness in South Africa is a problem for the government and civil society: an issue of enormous dimensions which is deeply inter-related with questions of power, the economy, human dignity and social justice (Daya and Wilkins, 2012; Morrow, 2010; Naidoo, 2010; Cosser, 2000; Constitution, 1996). To underline this claim, Morrow (2010: 61), aptly notes that 'Any attempt to confront homelessness in contemporary South Africa must start with a sober recognition of the formidable, many-faceted and historically rooted nature of the problem'. The tone of the above-cited studies goes to show that many researchers agree that there are many different dimensions of South African homelessness, with regard to actual living situations, how homelessness is experienced and grappled with, in my opinion.

In this paper I argue that, essentially, and as a basic human right guaranteed by the South African Constitution, Act 106 of 1996, everyone in South Africa must be enabled to put down roots in safe, affordable homes in viable communities on land with secure tenure (cf. Cosser, 2000; Constitution, 1996). This notion is captured by (Cosser, 2000, p.1), who observes that 'Homelessness is about lack of safety, secure land tenure, affordability, and rootedness'. What is concerning is that where street homelessness is concerned, some government-commissioned studies reveal that the situation is worsening. 'Street homelessness sits at a chokepoint for metropolitan city regions' development planning, and is set to increase as recessionary unemployment rises. The problem cannot be ignored in a developmental South Africa' (Cross and Seager, 2010, p.157).

Additionally, (Phiri and Perron, 2012, p.161) maintain that, 'while change in the socio-political context in South Africa since 1994 has brought positive change in the lives of millions, chronic street-dweller homelessness, particularly in the Inner City

of Johannesburg remains a compelling problem'. And to emphasize the extent and serious nature of homelessness in South Africa, (Cosser, 2000, p.1) asserts that

'Homelessness affects both those who have homes and those who do not. It is an issue at the heart of society and, most certainly at the heart of the Church. People cannot live out their God-gives ability and responsibility of being fully human without homes; nor, without homes, can they be fully useful and productive members of society and the economy. Neither rands nor dollars, politicians nor clerics, slogans nor policies, alone can redress the current situation. This is because homelessness is a complex reality concerning the processes, structures and values in our society'.

Moreover, according to (Cross, Seager, Erasmus, Ward and Donovan, 2010, p.5) 'homelessness on the streets in South Africa is a slow moving tragedy that arouses anxiety in government and civil society'. With the latter notion in mind, I assert that although most researchers agree that homelessness and street homelessness in particular is a social problem in South Africa, some of them make wrong conclusions, claiming that homelessness is attributed to individual or personal deficiencies including poverty (cf. Daya and Wilkins, 2012; Naidoo, 2010; Cross et al., 2010; Cross and Seager, 2010). This perspective situates the causes of homelessness in South Africa at a personal level, calling for micro-level interventions, which in my view run the risk of not being sustainable. This perspective is mistaken, ill-informed and too simplistic - and at best, lacks depth, in my opinion. Instead, I argue, homelessness as a social problem in South Africa is systemic in its very nature; and therefore macro-level policy interventions seem more appropriate. Also, recognizing homelessness as a social justice issue and developing a National Action Plan seems to be a reasonable starting point in my opinion.

Furthermore, I argue that there are at least two discourses on homelessness in South Africa: (1) the official/ public and (2) the hidden one, also known as the 'peoples history'. The latter mirrors an active protest against the official version. To demonstrate this active protest in their everyday life, it is common knowledge in South Africa that the street homeless people have from time immemorial invented an emancipatory language called 'tsotsitaal' or code language. This is meant to keep 'outsiders' forever puzzled at their mannerism.

Given South Africa's legislated violence-rigged past, I argue, homelessness is a compelling problem; and intervention initiatives that consider criminalizing homelessness (micro-level) as an option are mistaken and ill-informed, and in essence undermine the Spirit of *Ubuntu* (humaneness) and the eight *Batho Pele* (People First) *Principles* meant to demonstrate a caring, accessible and accountable public service in South Africa. (Phiri, 2008, p. IV) defines *Ubuntu* as

'A social and locally (South African) constructed concept for an expressed community inspired spirit, coupled with appropriate corporate action, motivated by fundamental human needs of the individual member(s) with an end to sharing what little resources there are'.

The following South African eight *Batho Pele Principles* are a strategy to kick start the transformation of public service delivery, and are applied to demonstrate a caring accessible and accountable service; namely, consultation, service standards, access,

courtesy, information, openness, transparency and redress (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997).

With these insights in mind, I argue that the phenomenon of homelessness in South Africa with its multi-dimensional aspects is a depiction of human nature and as such it needs to be perceived and engaged as a special interest for social work education - given that mainly, social work as an applied social science concerns itself with people and how they interact with their respective varied environments.

Historical overview of homelessness constructions in South Africa

In this paper, I claim that homelessness constructions and the attendant discourse or roots in South African may be traced from three historical contexts (1) The Pre-colonial (1652), (2) Colonial and (3) The Transition to Democracy (1994) and beyond. My argument is that the historical process, as it is interpreted today, whereby cattle, pastor lands and property previously owned by indigenous Africans, stolen through a series of legislated processes, the displacements and evictions of many often resulting in death to both people and their livestock constitutes the overarching character of the South African homelessness constructions. This is how homelessness was socially constructed in South Africa, in my opinion. Furthermore, I argue that the socially constructed ancient concept of *Ubuntu* and the *Batho Pele Principles* are particularly relevant concepts to elucidate these claims.

The history of homelessness in South Africa is multi-faceted. And to emphasize this claim, (Cross et al., 2010, p.13-14) argue that

‘from the date when the Cape’s Vagrancy and Squatting Act of 1878 legislation was passed, all the colonies tried to force the wondering homeless ‘vagrant’ into resident labourer status. By the early twentieth century, the problem of squatting and displacement was enormous. Thus, as numbers increased, the homeless rural population gravitated to the towns in search of work to substitute for the land-based livelihoods to which they no longer had access’.

The outcomes in terms of street-dweller homelessness are not well known and statistics were never kept on ‘vagrants’ or the ‘floating population without shelter’ (Cross et al., 2010; UN Centre for Human Settlements, 2001). Given these insights, in this paper, I maintain that homelessness in South Africa is a compelling problem, and that there is an urgent need to develop a series of collaborative and complementary programs aimed at ‘Unmasking’ the official discourse.

Social Constructionism as explanatory conceptual framework

The central point about Social Constructionists: the how and why

According to (Hacking, 2000, p.50) the central point about Social Constructionists is the *how* and *why*. The preceding sections of this discussion was aimed at explain *how* homelessness was socially constructed in South Africa. In that discussion, my argument is that the overarching character of the South African history is how cattle and pastor lands previously owned by indigenous Africans were stolen through a

series of legislated processes, the displacements and evictions of many often resulting in death to both people and their livestock. For the *why* part, I argue that homelessness in South Africa is a problem for the government and civil society. I cited South African studies (among others) to underline my claims and why, in my opinion, homelessness in South Africa is an issue of enormous dimensions deeply inter-related with questions of power, the economy, social justice and human dignity.

The notion I am seeking to '*Unmask*' in this discussion, in some ways, is that the official/ public discourse of homelessness constructions preferred by the government of the day was 'a made up lie' used as a strategy to displace, evict and forcefully remove indigenous people from the land they legitimately owned before Jan van Riebeck and company ever set their feet on South African soil. This explains the reason why the South African government is currently embarking on a mission to re-write the history of South Africa (www.SAHO.co.za).

Building Constructionists argument: homelessness Constructions in South Africa

Constructionists concern themselves with the Construction of reality and social problems. Their primary focus is examining *how* typifications of social problems and processes proceed and *why* they take the form they do. They examine the warrants upon which typifications are constructed and accumulated over time. In the context of this discussion, Constructionism refers to the claims making process; *how* claims makers in South Africa know what they claim to know about homelessness as a social problem. To explain the criteria for building Constructionists argument, (Hacking, 2000, p.50) holds that 'Anything worth calling a Construction has to have a history. But not just any history. It has to be 'a history of building'. In this discussion I engage this notion to explain my understanding of the 'two discourses' on homelessness in South Africa, and how they each have their respective histories, namely, the official/ public and the hidden one.

Highlights and perceptions of the official discourse of homelessness in South Africa

Mainly, the official/ public discourse was popularized, incorporated into the curriculum of all South African schools and presented to the general public (national and international) as an official government version during the pre-colonial (1652), the colonial and Apartheid dispensations. The overarching theme of the official/ public discourse is that the South African history starts in the year 1652 when Jan van Riebeck and company from Netherlands, Germany and France (calling themselves Afrikaners because they did not have a common nationality) – 'discovered' Cape Town (called Cape Colony at the time), and by implication, owned the entire Colony including all the properties, pasture land, and livestock. In this discourse version, virtually nothing is mentioned of the indigenous people (mainly, the Koi and the San tribes) - and *how* and when they, being foreigners, acquired the untold wealth they claimed as their own.

At the time, mainly, the Koi and the San were the indigenous people of the Cape Colony area the Afrikaners first occupied, and according to this official/ public discourse, all indigenous Africans were illiterate and knew nothing about land ownership, property and livestock issues. They were taught by 'Afrikaners' that White people are born superior than indigenous Africans and as such the latter were to

forever remain servants/ slaves to their ‘racially superior’ masters. They were barbaric and would amount to nothing in life; that is what they were made to believe. Those that were courageous enough to stage a protest against the status quo were literally killed, period. Thankfully, those that survived obliged, under duress though, hence in South Africa today, it is common knowledge that protests of different kinds were recorded and archived. This includes, a collection of poems and ‘tsotsitaal’ (protest/ code language) which is still a huge part of the world of the homeless people today (www.tsotsitaal.wikipedia.com).

The pre-colonial cutting of ties with particular areas through a systematically legislated process of ‘forced removals and land dispossessions by Afrikaners’ has been a traumatic experience for the majority of indigenous South Africans. This assertion has been adequately summarized by (Patel, 2005, p.67) who maintains that

‘The foundation of racial discrimination, denigration of indigenous ways, paternalism in social services and the distorted nature of social welfare policies favoring whites as the welfare elite, were laid during colonial times...Colonialism imposed enormous social changes on traditional societies, but no responsibility was taken for the social costs of such large scale social disruptions’.

On a more positive note though, the current Constitution has clear-cut guidelines on the question of Homelessness Constructions, and it is the implementation part that seems to pose a problem for the government. Section 26 of the Bill of Rights states ‘Everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing’. Given the latter insights and the plethora of information geared at ‘*Unmasking*’ the official discourse on Homelessness Constructions currently available from different sources including South African History Online (www.SAHO.co.za), these multiple empirical evidence depict how homelessness was socially constructed in South Africa.

Perceptions of official and hidden discourses: Reactions from concerned South African social workers and Higher Education Institutions

Regarding the two discourses of our history, social workers have been reminiscing about their implications for the present and future of social work education and the practice of the profession in South Africa. Moreover, making a case for the need for social workers to be politically informed, I would like to cite issues, concerns and debates that social work research-practitioners are grappling with in a Post- 1994 dispensation. Scholars engaged with social work education and research often have debates around what is perceived as a Euro-centric (as opposed to an Afro-centric) bias in social work research, literature and education in South Africa. They highlight denigration of indigenous ways, racism in social services and the distorted nature of social welfare policies favoring whites as the welfare elite – and how all these were laid during colonial times (Freedman and Couchonmal, 2006; Patel, 2005; Sewpaul and Holscher cited in Holscher 2008, 2004). Meaning, these issues, they aptly observe, continue to be inculcated in respective social work curriculums and that social work literature and the attendant research rarely provides examples that adequately mirror the Pre-colonial and colonial past.

Higher Education Institutions are no exception in this regard. Today, debates are commonplace in Education Management and Policy Studies circles. Schoole (2013, p.7), justifiably observes,

‘Universities have the responsibility of creating the capacity for sustainable development and democratization of knowledge which is key to the advancement of democracy. The omission of African perspective by our education system in general, and universities in particular, has contributed to the Afro-pessimism that is prevalent in South Africa [Higher Education Institutions]. It is time for South African Schools and universities to educate the whole child and embrace knowledge systems that include appreciation and advancement of our Africanness in this increasingly globalized world’.

Fixing my gaze on sustainable solutions, and for social work education part, I argue, this echoes a need to ‘*Unmask*’ the official discourse of homelessness in South Africa, among others; ensuring that the latter is integrated in the social work education programs and the attendant research agendas/ programs. Today, the need for contextual social work education in South Africa cannot be overemphasized. To complement the latter, as an example, (Sewpaul, 2003, cited in Holscher, 2008, p.101), argues that ‘Becoming conscious of and identifying external forms of oppression, and how these become internalized, and then ‘re-scripting or re-authoring’ the self will enable planning for praxis’. To underline this argument (McLaren, 2001, p.128), asserts that

‘Regardless of the personal, epistemological, ontological, and moral paths that we choose to take as educators, at some point we have to come face to face with the naked reality of capitalist social relations in local and global contexts. We cannot ignore these relations, and if we are to engage in a revolutionary educational praxis, we need to do more than rail against the suffering and tribulations of the oppressed and instead seek ways of transforming them’.

The latter highlights the overarching need to redress the racially biased past social work education and the attendant research agenda in South Africa.

Hacking’s concepts of six gradations of Constructionist commitment

The following are grades of Constructionists commitment:

1. Historical
2. Ironic
3. Reformist
4. Unmasking
5. Rebellious
6. Revolutionary

According to Hacking (ibid: 19), the gradations of constructionist commitment arise from increasingly strong reactions to the abovementioned (1), (2), and (3): (1) was the claim that X is not inevitable; (2) that X is a bad thing; and (3) that the world would be a better place without X.

1. *Historical*: This is the least demanding grade about X in that someone presents a history of X and argues that X has been constructed in the course of social processes. Far from being inevitable, X is the contingent upshot of historical events. Also, a *historical constructionist* could be quite noncommittal about whether X is good or bad.

Additionally, people begin to argue that X is socially constructed precisely when they find that: In the present state of affairs, X is taken for granted; X appears to be inevitable.

2. *Ironic*: The irony about X is the recognition that X is highly contingent, the product of social history and forces, and yet something we cannot, in our present lives avoid treating as part of the universe in which we interact with other people, the material world, and ourselves

The *ironist* is a powerful intellect, well able to understand the architecture of the world that pertains to X, but ironically forced to leave it much as it is.

3. *Reformists*: The *reformist* constructionism takes (2) seriously and reasons that: X is quite bad as it is. Agreed, we have no idea at present how to live our lives without X, but having seen that X was not inevitable, in the present state of things, we can at least modify some aspects of X, in order to make X less of a bad thing.

Reformist constructionism about X, like every kind of constructionism, starts from (0).

4. *Unmasking*: The *Unmasker* does not seek to refute ideas but to undermine them by exposing the function they serve. The notion is that once one sees the ‘extra-theoretical function’ of an idea, it will lose its ‘practical effectiveness’. *Unmaskers* believe not only (1) that X is not inevitable, but also (2) that X is a bad thing, and probably (3) that we could be better off without X. We ‘Unmask’ an idea not so much to ‘disintegrate’ it as to strip it off its false appeal or authority. With the mask removed, we become rebellious, and a few become revolutionary.

Important to note is that a reformist may be an unmasker, or may not be; an unmasker may or may not be a reformist. Unmasking is nevertheless an intellectual exercise in itself.

5. *Rebellious*: A constructionist who actively maintains (1), (2), and (3) about X will be called *rebellious* about X.

6. *Revolutionary*: An activist who moves beyond the world of ideas and tries to change the world in respect of X is *revolutionary*.

Hacking’s ideas on ‘Unmasking’ is clearly different from conventional conception of unmasking. When we unmask something, he asserts, we remove the false covering from something – so that the true character of that thing is laid bare and exposed. This exercise may or may not be an end in itself. Hacking goes further to emphasize that, first and foremost, unmasking is an intellectual exercise in itself and includes the following aspects as the purpose for unmasking:

1. We unmask an idea not so much to ‘disintegrate’ it as to strip it off its false appeal or authority.
2. The notion is that once one sees the ‘extra-theoretical function’ of an idea, it will lose its ‘practical effectiveness’.
3. With the mask removed, we become rebellious, and a few become revolutionary.
4. Moreover, ‘Unmasking’ has, in addition, an overtone of exposing something that was deliberately covered in order to conceal its true nature (ibid: 53). This adequately summarizes my ambition to ‘Unmask’ the official discourse of homelessness in South Africa (as alluded to earlier in this discussion). The latter sums up my claim that the historical process, as it is interpreted today, whereby cattle and pastor lands previously owned by indigenous Africans, stolen through a series of legislated processes, the displacements and evictions of many often resulting in death to both people and their livestock constitutes the historical roots and the overarching character of the South African homelessness constructions. This is how homelessness was constructed in South Africa, in my opinion. This reality was deliberately covered by Afrikaners in order to conceal the truth about livestock, land and property ownership by indigenous African people; a matter which has over the years, contributed immensely to the state of homelessness in South Africa today, any which way one conceives of this.

Considering the preceding (1), (2), and (4), my own reflections of Hacking’s ‘Unmasking constructionism’ are that it is possible to strip an idea of its false appeal and authority, even though it is an intellectual exercise, initially. In my case, the official discourse of homelessness in South Africa which is my overarching ambition as a doctoral student. Initially, my pre-occupation is to ‘Unmask’ with the natural progression being the revolutionary grade. Overall, Hacking’s conception that ‘with the mask removed, we become rebellious, and a few become revolutionary’ resonates with me.

The ‘looping effects of interactive kinds’

According to Hacking, interactive kinds do not just happen. They happen within matrices, which include many obvious social elements and many obvious material ones. Furthermore, ways of classifying human beings interact with the human beings who are being classified. Meaning, interactive kinds are relational in nature, and classifications do not exist only in the empty space of language but in (1) institutions, (2) practices, (3) material interaction with things and other people. So that only within such a matrix could there be serious interaction between the ‘kind’ of person and peoples who may be of that kind; in the case of my research, the street-dweller homeless people. In this sense, the latter are aware of (1) what is said about them, (2) thought about them and (3) done to them, in relation to them being potential/beneficiaries of social security services provided by various service providers, being they discriminatory or inclusive.

Additionally, the 'street-dweller homeless individual', which is a kind of classification, can be called an interactive kind because they interact with people of that kind; who knowing how they are classified by social workers, for example, can modify their behavior accordingly in order to qualify for certain social security services, as a way to make-do with the harsh realities of sleeping rough. The classifications of the social sciences are interactive because they are conscious interactions between a kind and a person; something which does not hold true of natural sciences. Moreover, according to Hacking, when I talk about the social construction of homelessness for example, I am referring to a matrix that includes (1) the idea [of homelessness], (2) the individuals falling under the idea [the homeless street-dweller], (3) the interaction between the idea and the people [e.g. discriminatory practices by social workers as service providers, whether they are real or perceived], and (4) the manifold social practices and institutions that these interactions involve [e.g. the existence of homelessness policy interventions or lack thereof].

To explain homelessness constructions as depicted in the preceding sections of my discussion, (Hacking, 2000, p.34) uses the concept the 'looping effect of interactive kinds' to also mean that what was known about people of a kind may become false because people of that kind have changed in virtue of what they themselves believe about themselves. This is true of indigenous Africans in a Post-1994 democratic South Africa, and the current transformation process the country is embarking on to restore the stolen (pastor) land to the rightful owners, namely, indigenous South Africans. Hopefully, this will be realized without the shedding of blood as was the case when Jan van Riebeck and company displaced the indigenous people, as I indicated earlier in this discussion. Today, as a result of the democratic dispensation, indigenous South Africans are making concerted efforts to '*Unmask*' the official/public discourse, and as such the notion of them being barbaric and all, does not hold any more because it was never true in the first place.

Criticisms of Social Constructionism

This section covers an explicit appraisal of criticisms leveled against the Constructivism as an explanatory conceptual framework used for this paper. The most common charge being that Constructionism rests on the presumption that 'the real world' is nothing but objects constructed by groups of people, a stance that Non-Constructionists find absurd. Noteworthy is that there are two schools of thought that emerged within the developing Constructionist tradition, namely: Strict Social Constructionists (those who only study the claims-making process) and Contextual Constructionists (those who take into account what is known about the objective conditions of social reality or social problems). And for the Hostile Critics of Social Constructivism: their argument is that it makes no sense to ignore 'objective conditions' which constitute the core of social problems. They claim that Social Constructionists ignore the harm and suffering social problems cause, only focusing on intellectualizing social problems. To this the Sympathetic Critics: answer that years of studying the objective aspects of social problems have yet to alleviate suffering let alone produce a genuine sociological theory of social problems. Still, other Sympathetic Critics argue that constructionists either make assumptions about objective conditions or worse, believe they know when objective conditions have changed or not.

My response to the latter is that there is room to disagree with these critics. To know the harm and suffering social problems cause, one needs to investigate the *how* and *why* of those social problems with a view to conceptualize timely, appropriate and collaborative intervention initiatives, in my opinion. Otherwise, how else can one conceptualize sustainable and collaborative interventions for human nature in the face of such varied social problems including their ever-changing dynamics in this rapidly globalizing world (in this case, homelessness)?

Concluding remarks

My point of departure is that homelessness in South Africa is an issue of enormous dimensions deeply inter-related with questions of power, the economy, human dignity, and social justice. I contend that essentially, and as a basic human right, everyone in South Africa must be enabled to put down roots in safe, affordable homes in viable communities on land with secure tenure. In this paper my argument is that there are at least two discourses on homelessness in South Africa: the official/ public and the hidden. I engage the central point about Social Constructionists, the *how* and *what* in the discussion in an effort to explain the tentative two discourses of South African Homelessness Constructions. To underline my claims, and as an aid, I cite relevant South African studies on homelessness and the concept 'looping effect of interactive kinds'. I present and discuss Hacking's ideas on six Gradations of Constructionist commitment, concluding with a motivation for choosing, at least initially, the concept 'Unmasking' instead of any other. Throughout this discussion I use Hacking's notion of the concept 'Unmasking Constructionism' to present my conceptions and reflections of how I could possibly 'Unmask' the official discourse using my positions as faculty within the employ of the University of Venda Social Work Department, and the homelessness stakeholders as strategic partners within South Africa and internationally. For social policy purposes, I maintain and pursue my belief that homelessness in South Africa is a social justice issue.

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***Exclusion of Dalits in Freedom of Religion in India:
A Critical Look in Existing Practices***

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Abstract

India is one of the most diversified nations as per as religion is concern. Freedom of religion in India is a fundamental right guaranteed by the constitution which ensures every citizen to practice and promote their religion. On the other side of the coin, there have been many incidents of religious intolerance with respect to Dalits. Since ages, dalits are never allowed to practice mainstream Hindu religion. Due to the lack of proper identity in the mainstream Hindu religion, Dalits have started adopting religions like Christianity and Buddhism because of which, now they have been brutally attacked by the so called Hindu fundamentalists. Due to this act of dual stand, dalits who are considered to be around 20 per cent of the total population are now stands on the crossroads who have religious freedom in principle and lack the same in practice. In this crucial game dalit Christians have been victimised in a greater sense. It is in this background, this paper critically examines the Constitutional obligations to offer freedom of religion in practice and status on freedom of religion in practice especially with special reference to Dalits. This paper explores the incidents of religious intolerance with Dalit Christians in India. Finally this paper summarizes with some cases on perceptions of Dalits and Dalit Christians on Freedom of religion in India and their experiences.

Keywords: Exclusion, Identity, Freedom, Rights, Religion, Dalits, Hindu Mainstream society and Christianity

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Introduction

The preamble to the Constitution which contains the ideals and aspirations or the objects which the Constitution makers intended to be realized clearly proclaims that the people of India have solemnly resolved to constitute India into a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular Democratic and Republic. The expression “Socialist Secular” was inserted in the preamble by the Constitution (42nd Amendment) Act, 1976. The object of inserting this expression was to spell out expressly the high ideas of socialism and secularism and the integrity of the Nation. In short, the object of the Government, in making this amendment was to make explicit what was already provided in the Constitution (Jayasingh Peter, 1999).

Even before the word ‘secular’ was inserted in the preamble in 1976, in 1973 the Supreme Court discovered that secularism was a basic feature of the Constitution. So far as secularism is concerned, Articles twenty five to thirty offer for an equivalent. In *Kesavanada V State of Kerala* (AIR 1973 S.C. 1461) and in *Indira V Rajnarain* (AIR 1975 S.C. 2299) the Supreme Court has discovered that by secularism it’s meant that the State shall not discriminate against any national on the ground of religion only which the State shall haven’t any religion of its own and every one persons shall be equally entitled to the freedom of conscience and also the right freely to profess, follow and propagate religion. To spell out the on top of ideas that actually existed before 1976, the preamble to the Constitution was amended in 1976 (Jayasingh Peter, 1999).

The right to freedom of religion or belief is enshrined in several international instruments, like Article eighteen of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article eighteen of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) (John G. Malcolm, 2012). Article eighteen UDHR provides for the correct of everybody to freedom of thought, conscience and religion and clearly states that ‘this right includes freedom to alter his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and publically or personal, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance’ (UDHR). As a universal right, freedom of religion or belief safeguards respect for diversity. Its free exercise directly contributes to democracy, development, rule of law, peace and stability. In recent years there has been a continued increase in violations committed by government and non-government actors against people and groups supported their religion or belief. State violations normally unremarkably results of legislation designed to limit people from their religious rights, and/or from an absence of capability and responsibility to implement the right legislation that is in place. Non-government violations sometimes occur within the form of socio-cultural hostility in the form of exclusion, or aggressive persecution.

1. Understanding Social Exclusion and Position of Dalits in India

Social exclusion is that the term won’t to describe what happens once people or areas are excluded from essential services or every day aspects of life that most people take for granted. Socially excluded people or places will become trapped in an exceedingly cycle of related issues like state, poor skills, low incomes, poverty, poor housing, high crime, unhealthy health and family breakdown. The deprivation of Dalits is closely coupled with the processes of caste based exclusion and discrimination. Social

exclusion is the denial of equal opportunities imposed by certain teams of society upon others that ends up in inability of an individual to participate within the basic political, economic and social functioning of society. Over and above these linguistics and word issues, it's now necessary to understand the Dalits and their scenario in India. To a large extent, the variations in the definitions are due to the variations in the scope or purpose of the study or discussion.

According to DM Ravi Prasad, the word 'Dalit' is derived from the sanskrit root word "Dal" which means "to break" or "to rend asunder" or "to oppress". The term Dalit so refers to those who are broken or oppressed. However if the Dalit means those are oppressed who are either economically or socially or both ways oppressed. The term Dalit is generally used to refer mainly to the people belonging to the Scheduled Caste who are both socially and economically suppressed and oppressed (Ravi Prasad. D.M, 1997). In line with Dalit solidarity Dalit means 'broken people'. Dalits were formerly called 'untouchables'. Dalits live at the lowest of India's rigid social order known as the caste system. The caste system originated around seven A.D. Caste is determined by birth, not race. Caste relies upon the Hindu belief that a person's position in life relies upon the great deeds and sins of their past life. Caste determines Indians spouses, friends, occupations and residence. Dalits are so low in the social hierarchy that they're outside of the caste system and considered 'outcastes'. Dalits are the manual scavengers, the removers of human waste and dead animals, leather workers, street sweepers and cobblers. The mere touch of a Dalit was considered 'polluting' to a caste member. Thus, the concept of 'untouchability' was born (Dalit solidarity, 2008).

According to V.T.Rajshekar the root word of this word dalit is Dal. The adjective of dal is Dalit. They notice this word dal on page 471 of the prestigious Oxford sanskrit English dictionary, new version, 1964, edited by the world - famous sanskrit scholar, Sir Monier Williams. 'Dalit' is found in many Indian languages and even a Dravidian language. The meaning given to 'Dalit' in the dictionary is: burst, split, scattered, dispersed, broken, torn as under, destroyed, crushed. All these English words sum up the exact position of the Indian Untouchables and conjointly tribes. We are crushed and cramped and made mincemeat by the Hindu religion (Rajasekar, 2008). In line with Dalit network the basis word Dalit is found both in Hebrew and sanskrit. It refers to those who are socially, religiously, economically and politically oppressed, deprived and exploited in India. The word "Dalit" is often used to describe a person who comes from any lower caste, even if technically authentic Dalits are kept outside the caste system as unworthy to enter the social and religious life of society. They're usually thought-about to be impure socially, poor economically and powerless politically. They are not allowed to touch caste Hindus and are so treated as "Untouchables". Dalits are found spread throughout the nation of India, South Asia, and among the Indian Diaspora around the world (Dalit Network, 2008).

Article 366(24) of the constitution of India has the term scheduled Castes as follows. Schedule Castes means such castes, races or tribes as are deemed, under article 341, to be scheduled castes, for the purposes of the constitution (Pathak, S.N. and Pandey, 2005). Dr. B.R. Ambedkar saw the Indian class structure as a significant obstacle within the path of democracy, equality and justice. The caste system is an especially Indian expression of institutionalized inequality and indignity, with elevation for some and degradation for others and untouchability is a curse of the caste structure.

The abolition of untouchability was a key constitutional provision for securing human dignity for Dalits and a significant step towards equality and social justice. When it comes to religion all are free to follow of their own region and also state is neutral in matters of religion, it means India is a secular and democratic country.

2. Freedom of Religion in India and Anti Conversion Laws in India

The Indian constitution, as set out in the preamble, which contains its basic philosophy could hardly be more eloquent. The pursuit of social justice is its primary objective. It's a testament to secure to its entire citizen, JUSTICE, social, economic and political; LIBERTY, of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; EQUALITY, of status and opportunity, fraternity, assuring the dignity of the individual (Basu. D.D,2003).

After independence 1950, the Indian state set forth to major objectives to fulfill. Firstly, the creation of egalitarian civil society is based on the democratic value structure. Another task was to introduce the rapid economic growth. For accomplishing both the objectives, the Indian state resorted to a strategy of planned economic development. the main motto is to having economic development with social justice. The social service sector continues to lag behind and the accentuated social economic disparities in the country. The hiatus between made and poor has become more widen. Still the Indian state is striving to provide basic amenities to poor and socially disabled groups. There exists a contradiction in Indian social order. One could surprise that despite of vast natural, cultural and human resources a vast majority of the population, are denied access to development benefits. Dalits placed in the last in enjoyment of benefits of development process. The fruits of development haven't been tricked to them (Shashi Kumar, 2008).

Though the Dalit word isn't reflective in the constitution of India but the reference of Scheduled Caste and scheduled Tribe connotes its synonym. Under the Article 14, in Indian Constitution, all citizens of our country are equal before law and they are treated equal with in the territory of India. Article 15 gives direction to the state not discriminate any on the basis of caste, creed, language, regions, sex, religion, place of birth and any of them. Article 16 talks of equality of opportunity to all citizens. This is possible when there's equal development of the persons (Basu. D.D, 2003).

2.1. Freedom of Religion in India

Right to freedom of religion, covered in Articles 25, 26, 27 and 28, provides religious freedom to all citizens of India. the objective of this right is to sustain the principle of secularism in India. According to the Constitution, all religions are equal before the State and no religion shall be given preference over the other. Citizens religion free to preach, practice and propagate any religion of their choice.

Religious communities can set up charitable institutions of their own. However, activities in such institutions which are not religious are performed according to the laws set down by the government. Article 25 says 'Establishing a charitable institution can also be restricted in the interest of public order, morality and health.' according to article 26 'No person shall be compelled to pay taxes for the promotion of a specific religion.' Article 27 and 28 explains 'A State run institution can't be

imparting education that's pro-religion.' Also, nothing in this article shall affect the operation of any existing law or stop the State from creating any further law regulating or restricting any economic, financial, political or other secular activity which may be associated with religious practice, or providing for social welfare and reform.

2.2. Laws against Conversions in Indian States

The Indian Constitution in Article 25 grants to citizens of India of all religious persuasions freedom to profess, practice and propagate their faith in a way that doesn't disrupt public order and doesn't affect public health and morality adversely (Constitution of India). The Article 25 of the Indian Constitution is a basic human rights guarantee that can't be subverted or misinterpreted in any manner. It's in this context that the anti-conversion laws in India must be viewed. Anti-conversion laws are promulgated on the premise that forced or induced conversions happen and need to be prevented. Such laws are controversial as a result of they run the danger of being abused by communal forces that may have the implicit approval of the dominant political party in the state or country.

A consolidation of various anti-conversion or so-called 'Freedom of Religion' Laws has been done by the All India Christian Council (AICC, 2010). In the past, several Indian states passed Freedom of religion Bills primarily to forestall individuals from converting to Christianity. Arunachal Pradesh passed a bill in 1978. In 2003, Gujarat State passed an anti-conversion bill. In July 2006, the Madhya Pradesh government passed legislation requiring people who desire to convert to a different religion to provide the government with one month's notice, or face fines and penalties (BBC News, 2006). In August 2006, the Chattishgarh State Assembly passed similar legislation requiring anyone who desires to convert to another faith to give 30 days' notice to, and obtain permission from, the district magistrate (Mohammad, Faisal, 2006). In February 2007, Himachal Pradesh became the first Congress Party-ruled state to adopt legislation ban illegal religious conversions (WWRN, 2007).

2.3. Religious Discrimination in Reservation Policy

The Hindu community is divided into four major castes: Brahmins, the priestly caste, is situated at the highest of the hierarchy; the Kshatriya, the mortal/ rulers caste, is second, followed by the Vysya, the business class, and the Sudra at the lowest. Below this caste system are the "outcastes" or "Dalits." The Dalits, or the "Scheduled Castes," are seen as the "untouchables" of the Hindu community. Dalits are not allowed to study or read the religious scriptures, and violating this system is usually met with very cruel punishment.

Additionally, Dalits who embrace Christianity or Islam are presently excluded from the legal category of 'Scheduled Castes' that is employed of other Dalits, as well as those that convert to Buddhism or Sikhism. Members of the Scheduled Castes are eligible for a set of affirmative action benefits, including quotas of reserved places in public sector education and employment, under the system known as 'reservation'. Additionally, Scheduled Castes are covered by specific legislative protections against the actual styles of violence, discrimination and humiliation suffered by Dalits, as

well as the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989.

By excluding Christian and Muslim Dalits from the Scheduled Castes, these religious minorities square measure at a severe disadvantage socially and legally. A recent editorial in zee News puts the issue in proper perspective, Since Dalit Muslims and Christians are not entitled to SC reservation, and they are deprived of the opportunity to contest elections in over a thousand assembly and seventy nine Lok Sabha constituencies. Once Dalit Sikhs are given reservation by amending the Constitution in 1956 and Buddhists in 1990, why is the government delaying the matter once it involves Muslim and Christians? (Yusuf Ansari. 2008). Because of this Dalits are excluded from the fruits of reservation like seats in educational institutional and jobs sector. Still also their identity is not changed in social, political and economic aspects. Dalits and Dalit Christians are on the same lines in socio and economic point of view. The legality of the 1950 Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, that restricted membership of the Scheduled Castes to those avouchment the Hindu faith (although Sikhs and Buddhists have afterwards been admitted to the category), is being contested in an exceedingly Supreme Court challenge, filed by the Centre for Public Interest proceedings, in legal instrument petition no. 180 of 2004. The Supreme Court has repeatedly delayed deciding this case and thus far, the Supreme Court has not issued its ruling.

Effective since 1950, the Indian Constitution is that the oldest constitution within the developing world, and also the interpretation of this document lies with India's Supreme Court. In step with the Court, secularism forms a part of the "basic structure of the Constitution" (Seval Yildirim, 2004). With the vast spiritual diversity in India, "secularism" doesn't mean an absence of religion. Individuals are liberal to believe the tenets of their several religions, to profess their tenets, and engage within the essential practices of their faiths. However, due to the spiritual diversity and potential for conflict, religious exercise is limited when it disrupts the "public order" (Yildirim. 1977).

Reaching a satisfactory level of adjudication in Indian courts presents an amazing delay in most cases. At the present rate of dispensing with cases, the last case in India's backlog won't see final assessment till sometime in the 22nd century (Ashwinie Kumar Bansal). Those seeking judicial redress often wait decades to see one of the few Indian judges; India has 13.5 judges per million citizens, whereas the United States has 107.

As mentioned above, a Supreme Court case involving the rights of Dalit Christians is pending in India (AIC. 2008). In sum, Dalits have historically suffered discrimination. Legislation over the years has awarded members of this caste special treatment to overcome unfair discrimination; but Dalits who have converted to Christianity or Islam are not offered protective treatment despite consistent reports that conversion from Hinduism doesn't relieve one from caste discrimination.

3. Religious intolerance and Dalit Christians in India

Religious intolerance in India refers to religiously-motivated violence against Christians in India. Violence against Christians has been seen by Human Rights

organization as a tactic accustomed meet political ends. According to a human rights Watch report that was published in September 1999, the number of incidents of anti-Christian violence rose in the months following the conclusion of the Hindu nationalist Baratiya Janata Party (BJP) in March 1998. From 1964 to 1996, a minimum of thirty eight incidents of violence against Christians were reportable. In 1997, twenty four such incidents were reportable. Since 1998, Christians in India have faced a wave of violence (Stanley, Alessandra. 1999). In 1998 alone, ninety incidents were reportable (Vinay Lal, 2010). From that to until currently such a large amount of incidents were happened in India. The Sangh Parivar and connected organizations have expressed that the violence is an expression of ‘spontaneous anger’ of ‘vanvasis’ against forcible conversion activities undertaken by missionaries (Hindu, 1999).

Overview

Incidents of violence against Christians have occurred in nearly all components of India, it’s mostly been confined to north, central, and western India, within the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and also the capital space of latest Delhi. In June 2000, four churches around India were bombed. In Andhra Pradesh, church graves were profaned. A church in Maharashtra was plundered. In September 2008, 2 churches were partly damaged in Kerala (Xian, 2008). Christian leaders described the events of September 2008 as deliberate acts by anti-socials and denied any religious motive in the attacks.

3.1. State of Orissa

In a well-publicised case, Graham Staines, an Australian Christian missionary was burnt to death along with his 2 sons Timothy (aged 9) and Philip (aged 7), while they were sleeping in his car at Manoharpur village in Keonjhar district in Orissa in January 1999. He was running the Evangelical Missionary Society of Mayurbhanj, an Australian missionary society (HRW, 1999). His ‘distribution of beef & desecrating Hindu Deities’ was the root cause of this attack. In 2003, Dara Singh was guilty of leading the gang responsible (V. Venkatesan, 2003).

After Staine’s murder, outbreak of violence started on 24 December 2007 at Bamunigam village of Kandamala District. Some Hindu activists forcefully removed a Christmas decoration, put up on a site traditionally used by Hindus during Durga Puja. In August 2008, swami Laksmananda, a Hindu monk and spiritual leader was attacked and killed. The violence that followed resulted within the death of one Christian and two Hindus. The violence later unfolds to three hundred villages in fourteen of the thirty districts within the state, leading to 4,400 burnt homes and 50,000 homeless. Cardinal individuals were killed, while 18,000 were injured.

In 2011, the supreme court upheld a life sentence for Dara Singh, court comments for the murder of Graham Staines and his 2 young kids, stating that ‘the intention was to present a Graham Staines a less for his religious activities, and to not kill them’, several Christian leader concern regarding supreme courts comment and examine it as ambiguous and dangerous as a result of they appear to justify anti-Christian violence.

3.2. State of Gujarat

In 1997 in Gujarat, 22 churches were burnt or destroyed, and another 16 broken. Recently, there has been a pointy increase in violent attacks on Christians. A Hindu group claims to possess born-again 2,000 social group Christians to Hinduism. The attackers had vandalized places of worship and therefore caused strike terror among the tribals. On 18 September, the Central Government issued an informative beneath Article 355 of the constitution to the Orissa government beside Karnataka (Dibin Samuel, 2008).

3.3. State of Karnataka

Destroyed property within Adoration cloister, Mangalore once it absolutely was vandalized by activists belonging to the Bajaranga dal, throughout the September 2008 attacks on Christians in Mangalore. The 2008 wave of attacks against Christians in Karnataka includes attacks directed against Christian churches and prayer halls in Karnataka by the Bajaranga dal, with the ruling BJP government suspect of involvement. The violence started from 14 September 2008 once regarding 20 churches were vandalized in Mangalore, Udipi, Chikkamagaluru, and in different districts of Karnataka. Minor violence was later reportable from the border state of Kerala.

3.4. State of Kerala

A Christian priest, K. K. Alavi in Manjeri, a 1970 convert from Islam (Alavi, K.K, 2010), thereby raised the ire of his former Muslim community and received several death threats. A Muslim terrorist group named ‘The National Development Front’ actively campaigned against him. Muslim clerics are known to hold up Alavi as a prime example of an enemy of Islam even during prayers (Vidyadar Sreepasad, 2007), in that area traditional Christianity is considered blasphemy.

In the southern state of India, Kerala that has an ancient pre-Islamic community of eastern ceremony Christians, Muslim terrorists cut off the hand of Professor T.J. Joseph due to allegation of blasphemy of prophet (The Hindu, 2010). On 4 July 2010, a group of eight individuals in a very Maruti Omni waylaid the professor near his home at Muvattupuzha. Joseph was pulled out of his car along with his sister and 85-year old mother. They were attacked with knives, swords, axes and home-made bombs. Professor Joseph’s right hand was cut off at the wrist joint and thrown away. He also suffered wounds to other parts of his body. His left hand from the wrist joint also has been severely broken. His sister and aged mother of 85 years old also suffered injuries (Indian express, 2010). According to police, the attack was carried out by an eight member team consisting of Savad of Asamannoor, Pareeth of North Vazhakkulam, Shobin of Kothamangalam, Nazar of Aluva, Shajil of Muvattupuzha, Shamsuddin of Perumbavoor, Shanvas and Jamal.

3.5. State of Rajasthan

Rajasthan has witnessed governmental persecution against both Christian institutions and individuals. For example, the Rajasthan government revoked Emmanuel Ministries International’s (EMI) license to operate several of its charities in February

2006(IRFR). Within the following month, EMI's bank accounts were frozen by the government. Both incidents resulted owing to accusations of forced conversions and "defamation of Hinduism". These actions were overturned by the Jaipur high court; however EMI's president still had offense charges unfinished against him at the top of the coverage reporting (June 30, 2007) for use of a map of India that didn't include the disputed territories of Kashmir and Jammu (IRFR). In spring of 2007, a trend of intimidation and violence towards Christians was reported in the Indian state of Rajasthan. In April 2007, Hindu fundamentalists "brutally attacked" 2 Christian workers who were visiting the state (ICC, 2007). On April 29, 2007, assailants attacked independent pastor Walter Masih at his home. The attackers were allegedly attached with the youth wing of the VHP, and "police arrested seven individuals, together with a government worker and VHP officer (IRFR). A national television channel recorded the attack. Only one month later, in May, fifteen individuals attacked a Catholic priest's home and compelled him to depart. The cluster suspect the priest of "engaging in unethical conversions."

3.6. State of Uttar Pradesh

On August 17, 2007, a bunch of Hindu fundamentalists belonging to Rashtriya Swayamsevak Sangh and Bajrang dal in Uttar Pradesh, savagely attacked and beat Dr. Raju Abraham, Chief doctor of Kachhwa Mission Hospital (ACC, 2007). Dr. Abraham was attacked throughout "a programme organised for Dalit youngsters," and the Hindu attackers also broken hospital equipment and ill-treated the hospital employees and participants of the programme.

3.7. State of Chhattisgarh

Chhattisgarh government and enforcement have willfully participated in persecution against Christians. as an example, following an attack on a Christian service in Bothli village, Chhattisgarh, on June 25, 2006, within which associate eight-month pregnant woman was injured, police refused to take action against the perpetrators, claiming they had received orders not to register complaints from Christians (ACC, 2007). Similarly, on October 10, 2006, the Chhattisgarh government closed a government funded and Christian operated child nutrition center and fired seventeen employees upon suspicion of partaking in conversion activities (IRFR). Then, on November 9, 2006, news reports show that a BJP politician and party employees attacked six Christians at a village meeting; the Christians claimed that police refused to file a report on the incident.

In December 2006, the persecution continued when "a pastor and 20 other Christians in Chhattisgarh who were singing Christmas carols" were assaulted by "the Bajrang dal" (which are the "Hindu right"). Consequently, "the pastor and ten others were later on inactive for forcibly changing others". Christian persecution continuing through 2007, a BJP leader and his followers attacked 3 pastors on Feb twenty, 2007, whereas the pastors were holding a service. The party leader suspects the victims of partaking in hot conversion activities; but, native police found the accusation unsustainable. To boot, a dispute over property transfers erupted during this State in Apr 2007. There was an event "of discrimination against members of spiritual teams with relevancy land transfers": the Chhattisgarh chapters of the RSS and BJP control a serious rally in Raipur to protest the transfer or purchase of land by Christian tribal

teams. faith based organizations alleged that the Chhattisgarh Government, at the bidding of native Hindu leader BJP MP Dilipsinh Judeo, deliberately lodged false cases against Christian tribal's who had bought land for Church activities.

In addition to very violent acts of private injury and murder, destruction of Christians' property occurred further. In late November 2007, some one hundred fifty Hindu extremists in Mandwa village within the Bastar district of Chhattisgarh "destroyed the house of worship belonging to the Bastar for Christ Missionary Movement, beat up Pastor Suduru Kashyap and his associates, and seize 21-year-old Aayatu Kashyap, who was later found dead" (ACC, 2007). In this attack, "the extremists were armed with hammers, iron rods and other significant arms."

As with the previous States, violence has already begun in 2008. last, in another Chhattisgarh incident, a minimum of a dozen people were seriously injured in January 2008 when a Hindu organization attacked a health camp conducted by Christian missionaries (ACC, 2008). A member of the National Commission of Minorities explicit that though, 'the government and native officers had been warned of trouble as early as on 22 December 2007 . . . they didn't take any action'.

3.8. State of Andhra Pradesh

Similar persecution occurred in Andhra Pradesh at the hands of government and Hindu extremists. Police mistreated Andhra Pradesh Christians who had been screening a religious film on December 4, 2006, even though organizers obtained permission from the village head (IRFR). State authorities also are reportable to possess inactive 3 pastors who led foreign tourists, as well as many Americans, into a slum on April 5, 2007. As reportable, the cluster allegedly had engaged in conversion activities and created derogative remarks towards Hindu gods, which result in their arrest. In an event reportable in October 2007, a pastor and his church members were "humiliated and crushed up for refusing to partake within the meat offered to a Hindu deity close to Nirmal in Andhra Pradesh". The Christian believers were "manhandled" by residents of Krishnaraopet in state, and received no facilitate from native police upon filing a criticism.

Reports from state maintain not solely attacks on Christians by Hindu extremists, however forceful conversions. As recently as January 2008, the violence continues to step up. On January 15, regarding 100 Hindu activists armed with belts, attacked and plundered a Christian center wherever pastors were having a special meeting (AICC, 2008) the subsequent day, native police inactive the pastor and 3 of the Christian leaders.

3.9. Religion and Politics

Vishva Hindu Parishad(VHP), Bajrang Dal, and Rastriya Swayam sevak Sangh are the foremost suspect Hindu organizations for violence against Christians in India. Sangh Parivar and native media were concerned in promoting anti-Christian information in Gujrat (HRW, 1999). It's evident from the ruling BJP governments in Gujarat, Orissa and Mysore that serious lapses in handling the violence against minorities because the police didn't solve the problem effectively and therefore the BJP was found directly to blame for permitting bloodshed to spread (Qureshi, 2008).

4. Perception of Dalit Christians and Officials across World

4.1. U.S. State Department

In its annual human rights reports for 1999, the United States Department of States criticized India for 'increasing societal violence against Christians'. The report on anti-Christian violence listed over 90 incidents of anti-Christian violence, starting from damage of religious property to violence against Christian's pilgrims. The incidents listed within the report were attributed to native media reports and information gathered by Christian groups in India, and wasn't severally verified (Chidanand Rajghatta, 1999).

4.2. National Commission for Minorities

In lightweight of recent anti-Christian Violence in Mysore by the Bajrang dal activists, the National Commission for Minorities have aforementioned that the Karnataka government of significant lapses in handling things and that they found directly to blame for permitting violence to unfold, and aforementioned the police didn't solve the problem effectively because the violence continues. They also processed that there have been no reportable complaints of forced conversion registered within the state (PTI, 2008).

4.3. National Integration Council of India

On 13 October 2008, the National Integrated Council of India referred to as a special meeting chaired by Manmohan Singh, Prime Minister of India and raised the voice against spreading anti-Christian violence in India. The Prime minister powerfully condemned the violence supported by the hands of Hindu militant Hindu organizations such as Bajrang dal, VHP etc (News Blaze, 2008). The prime minister had earlier publically admitted that the continued violence against the Christian communities was a matter of great 'national shame' (India times, 2008).

4.4. Pope Benedict XVI

On 12 October 2008, Pope Benedict XVI criticized the continued Anti-Christian violence in India. On 28 October, the Vatican called upon the memory of Mahatma Gandhi for associate end to the religious violence in Orissa. In a written address to Hindus, the Vatican office said Christian and Hindu leaders required to foster a belief in non-violence among followers (In Reuters, 2008). Although, Gandhi had been very strong in his opposition to conversion, he had forever denounced violence as associate applicable response (Hindustan Times, 2008).

5. Critical view on Freedom of Religion and Existing Practices

India is a secular and democratic country in the world. It clearly mentioned regarding all the fundamental rights of its citizens in Constitution of India. It guarantees civil liberties such that all Indians can lead their lives in peace and harmony as citizens of India. These include individual rights common to most liberal democracies, such as equality before law, freedom of speech and expression and peaceful assembly, freedom of practice religion, and the right to constitutional remedies for the protection of civil rights by means of writs such as habeas corpus. Violation of those rights lead

to punishments as prescribed within the Indian penal code or different special laws, subject to discretion of the Judiciary. The fundamental Rights are defined as basic human freedoms which every Indian citizen has the right to enjoy for a proper and harmonious development of personality. These rights universally apply to all citizens, regardless of race, place of birth, religion, caste or gender.

Here we can observe that in one hand Indian Constitution is providing right to freedom of religion to every citizen regardless of their caste, color gender etc. In another hand it limiting to Dalits if they convert in to Christianity or Islam they'll lose their reservation. Is it a democratic or secular country? In my opinion absolutely it's not a democratic or secular country with respect to Dalits in India. Such a large amount of religious attacks are happening on Dalits when they converted to Christianity. Dalit Christians were savagely attacked by Hindu fundamentalist; such a large amount of Dalit Christians were killed, physically loosed and a few others were flea to forest areas to safeguard themselves. Dalit mass accurse were happened altogether over the India however government wasn't taken any positive action concerning to freedom of religion. One side Dalit christens are fighting for religious freedom of Dalits and another side state is post-phoning this issue because of this such a large amount of Dalit christens were lose their reservation and also attacking by Hindu fundamentalists. Everybody has right to follow of their own religion and also convert in to any religion.

Conclusion

Finally I will say that require not solely a group of simply laws, which might respect and would treat each individual and communities equally, however conjointly the mechanism and therefore the political will to implement such laws. Creating conducive atmosphere that would enable every man and woman irrespective of their identities especially Dalits, to enjoy such freedom is the most important aspect. Only then the Laws and the Covenants, national or international, would become meaningful in its spirit.

There is a huge gap between theory and practice, need to fill the vacuum in the Parliamentary democracy with just, egalitarian, ethos and ideology of governance and human welfare. It is time the empowerment of the Dalits, the Tribal and the minorities and the protection of their rights are guaranteed and they would feel proud of being born in such an India with her plurality of cultures and religions. Protection of religious rights is a necessity of the democracy. It is time also for national, international solidarity to uphold not just freedom of religions but the right of everyone to have a life with dignity and exercise of his/her conscience freely.

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***The Legacy of Colonialism in the Middle East:
Reshaping Syria's National Boundaries***

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Syrian Apportionment

In almost any field, a process or tool ideal a century ago may not be the best available today. Across much of the world, current state borders were drawn during the early twentieth century. While these borders generally remained fairly stationary, history shows that changing borders were not uncommon as different states sought to expand their respective territories. The Middle East, site of some of the earliest and most successful early civilizations, has been plagued by its own geography. Conquering warlords traveling from Europe to Asia and vice versa traversed this open landscape. The flow of human traffic laid down layers of culture and identities like layers of soil stacked atop one another. At different points, various deposits, thriving cultural centers with their own unique qualities, would remain. Perhaps Kaplan describes the region best (258):

The Greater Middle East is an easily definable zone existing between Greece, China, and India, distinctly separate from all three, even as it has had pivotal influence on each of them, so that the relationships are extremely organic; and that whereas the Greater Middle East is united by Islam and the legacies of horse and camel nomadism – as opposed to the crop agriculture of China and India – it is also deeply divided by rivers, oases, and highlands, with great ramifications for political organization to this day.

A region that had been the jewel of empires since Achaemenid times proved difficult to tame. Only once the Ottoman Empire fell at the end of World War One (WWI) did Europeans look to the Treaty of Versailles as a means to establish a state system in the hopes of creating a more stable, long-term environment.

Policy-makers in Europe sought to establish states, like Syria, based upon natural geographic borders, ethnic and resource considerations, and key regional stakeholders' political whims. "It was the aggregate outcome of intense pushing shoving by a multitude of regional and international bidders for the Ottoman war spoils" (Karsh 195). In practice, many post-colonial states were compilations of various ethnic groups with little historical engagement and cooperation. The result has been the emergence of volatile political systems featuring both intra and interstate conflict. It is therefore reasonable to expect that as new considerations emerge, alterations to the existing framework in the region should be on the table. In the case of Syria, a four state solution must be discussed in light of the growing cultural divides being wrought on the state by a protracted and violent civil war.

Current State of the Civil War

A series of peaceful political demonstrations has devolved into a bloody, multi-faceted civil war. Since the establishment of present-day Syria's borders, the nation has always maintained a tenuous balance among various unique ethnic groups. For the last forty years, a ruthless authoritative regime has controlled the Sunni Arabs, Shi'a Muslims, Alawites, Kurds, various Christian minorities. Further complicating Syria's political situation has been the regime's willingness to partner with the Shi'a minority: a domestic and regional mechanism intended to offset the Sunni Arab majority as well as the Sunni states that surround Syria. King Faisal of Saudi Arabia

unintentionally epitomized the challenge the Assad family has faced when he discussed the upcoming 1973 Yom Kippur War with President Anwar Sadat of Egypt: “‘Mr. President,’ he said, ‘this Hafiz al-Assad is first of all a Ba’thist and second an Alawite. How can you enter with him upon war and feel secure?’” (Karsh 174). The Assad regime has always been forced to look upon Sunni Arab unrest as both an internal and external issue, so one might expect that Syria quickly became polarized as demonstrations increased. Assad’s family, once having been able to manage and suppress various challenges to its right to rule, could no longer do so with the same degree of efficiency. As protests became increasingly violent, bloodletting became inevitable.

Once violence erupted, ethnic and sectarian divisions crystalized. For the most part, a diagonal line from northeast to southwest demarcated key parties. In the country’s northwest half, Alawites and Shi’a Muslims controlled vast tracts of territory. In the southeast half, Sunni Arabs, Kurds, and other minority groups opposed the Al-Assad regime. Making matters worse, enclaves of various groups resided in areas surrounded by potential adversaries. Furthermore, the stratification of Syria allowed opponents of the Bashar al-Assad regime to establish their own governmental organizations and processes so that “The decision by the regime to launch a swift military and security crackdown on the opposition and the marches was based on their own assessment of the strength of the uprising” (Phares 66).

Despite Syria’s territorial divisions, the opposition has been unable to rally around one leader or group. Fracturing amongst the elements fighting Assad’s regime has come to plague the opposition movement thus far. The disjointed coalition divides roughly into three parties: First, exiled Syrians who fled the country previously and now wish to exert influence in the hopes of one day returning; second, domestic anti-government moderates, largely reformers, minority group leaders, and former government employees desiring a revamped Syrian government; and third, Muslim fundamentalists—many from abroad—who are fighting for a Syrian-based Islamic theocracy. Islamist forces have gained momentum with an influx of “cash and weapons . . . from Turkey and Qatar” (Phares 69). These three disparate groups represent, in broad brush, the most significant factions in the opposition today.

The problem with the dissenting parties is that diverse equities and objectives make unification nearly impossible. As a result, when it comes to strategy on the battlefield, policy in government, or objectives in negotiations, the opposition has consistently failed to mobilize in one direction. Rather, Bashar al-Assad has had the luxury of facing a decentralized enemy. “With rebels suffering setbacks as well as continued infighting, government efforts to keep up a cheery narrative have lately appeared less absurd. In recent weeks Mr. Assad’s forces have regained the initiative on the most crucial of the country’s multiple battlefronts, the region around the capital, Damascus” (“Back and Forth” 1). It should therefore come as no surprise that the civil war has stagnated.

Recently, the rebels’ position appears to be changing. While they have shifted territorial control with respect to Assad’s forces, they have done a great deal internally. Fortunately, “the mainstream rebel forces appear to have contained, or at least diminished, what had been a looming threat from the Islamic State of Iraq and Greater Syria (ISIS)” (“The Ebb and Flow” 6). The hope is that intra-rebel conflict

will lead to a more unified position. Once more moderate opposition forces regain control of the situation, they will be able to attract support both domestically and abroad. Removing Islamist forces from the anti-Assad contingent will be critical to long-term success.

Although much has been made of the disputes between opposition groups, all is not necessarily well with the government forces either. “Mr. Assad . . . lacks the manpower to extend any of his gains very far. Syria remains in effect partitioned into zones held by the government and a patchwork of opponents” (“The Ebb and Flow” 2). The regime’s challenge lies in finding new ways to reduce the numerical parity on the ground. To change the numbers game in Assad’s favor, the Syrian regime must move beyond domestic recruiting and conscription to find manpower via increasingly desperate and dangerous actions.

To tip the numerical scales, the Assad regime has attempted to recruit militia forces from certain ethnic groups inside Syria and from external groups. After a Syrian government military victory at Yabroud, the *Economist* described the national forces (“Back and Forth” 1):

Crucial to the final assault . . . [were] hundreds of well-trained and -equipped fighters from Hizbullah, the Iran-backed Lebanese Shia militia. Its forces make up the bulk of an estimated 8,000 foreign Shia soldiers, including volunteers from Iraq, who now bolster Mr. Assad. A growing reliance on these fighters suggests that the government, despite its superior firepower, still lacks the men to retake and then hold the swathes of territory still in opposition hands.

The danger in relying on these militias comes down to a question of authority. Will Bashar al-Assad be able to depend on the loyalty of men armed and paid for by Iran? The Syrian army’s cosmopolitan nature undoubtedly contributed to a spate of defections throughout the conflict and forced the government to use paramilitaries to augment the force. While the rebel forces are not the ideal freedom fighters the international community might want, great danger lies in what might happen in Syria if Assad wins. His reliance on Shi’a militias and the upsurge in credibility and legitimacy this dependency has given these groups threaten the government’s ability to govern these men when the war ends. At the very least, Shi’a militias will have more influence in government if Assad is the victor. At the worst, these Iranian-backed forces will divide the nation once more and cause a second civil war.

Even with the opposition’s divisions, in the summer of 2013 al-Assad was so concerned over their activities that he used chemical weapons against them to compel the opposition to surrender out of fear. “When the Assad regime used chemical weapons in limited attacks against opposition areas, killing up to a thousand civilians” (Phares 196), he risked everything. The attacks on his own people made Bashar al-Assad a temporary international pariah. Sadly though, the international community sought Assad’s accession to the Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC) instead of his deposition. Along an agreement on CWC membership, Russia and the US brokered a temporary cease fire, which actually provided the Assad regime breathing space to reorganize. Unfortunately, the situation has become deadlocked.

Politically, many of the parties involved have become bogged down in bitter negotiations. In recent months the international community has made a concerted effort to encourage dialogue among the major equities. Unfortunately, the bloodletting over the last two years has deepened previously-existing animosities. Neither side trusts the other; presumably both fear reprisals after hostilities cease. The endemic nature of the mistrust in Syria resembles that in the former Yugoslavia in the 1990's. Equally problematic is the negotiating position of the parties, particularly Assad's. "The Geneva gathering cannot drain such an ocean of suffering and wrongdoing. It is built on the premise that Mr. Assad will relinquish power through a transitional government. But why should he? He believes he is winning. He is holding his own against rebel attacks or even gaining territory" ("Desperate Times" 1). Given such hurdles, it should be no surprise that neither side views much benefit in talking at this juncture.

Perhaps comparing Syria to Afghanistan in the 1980's rather than Yugoslavia in the 1990's creates the potential for other international relations issues to drive policy in the region. "Recent diplomatic successes by Mr. Assad's allies, Russia and Iran, had lately also boosted the Syrian leader's confidence. But as Western attitudes to the Kremlin harden in the wake of events in Ukraine, Syria may seem an appealing venue for a show of Western grit" ("Back and Forth" 1). The potential for wealthy Sunni Arabs to begin funding Syrian rebels echoes Afghan history. Beyond parallels, though, the Saudis in particular are clearly quite concerned over the spread of Shi'a Persian influence regionally. "Barack Obama is due to visit Saudi Arabia in the next few weeks. The Saudis hope he may be persuaded, at long last, to give the go-ahead for a large increase of military aid to Syria's rebels, including the anti-aircraft missiles they have long pleaded for" ("Back and Forth" 1). Likely, only with major international political influences will the course of the civil war change.

Redrawing Syria's Borders

Syria has fractured beyond repair. "President Bashar Assad controls only chunks of a ravaged country now entering the fourth year of a civil war that has left 40% of its 23 million people homeless, sent 3 million abroad as refugees, and killed at least 150,000" ("Back and Forth" 1). In this environment can anyone expect reconciliation? "The rebel-held areas, covering swathes of the country, are less densely populated but encompass at least a quarter of the people" ("An Election in Syria" 4). Without international intervention, further bloodletting is liable to occur. The parties with greatest equities in the conflict must cooperate to develop a bold way forward.

Post-WWI Syria is no longer viable. Obviously the Assad family and its patrons, both domestic and foreign, will oppose redefining Syria's territorial jurisdiction. However, continuing the civil war injures the Syrians and the international community. If peace requires fundamentally restructuring modern Syria and finding Assad and his supporters a refuge that is a small price to pay to save the lives of hundreds of thousands – if not millions. The most likely scenario will be to identify a second state capable of offering Assad asylum. Given Assad's international isolation, finding a suitable home will be difficult, but North Korea might be an option, albeit an unusual one, since Assad bought "\$500 million in Scud-C missiles in 1990, and

has continued to collaborate with North Korea in more advanced Scud designs over the years” (Cha 229). Other individuals fleeing the country will require world-wide political asylum to avoid the reprisals that occurred in other countries in a similar situation. The healing process can only begin once Assad and his supporters are removed from the scene and the people left behind start to rebuild.

An en masse evacuation will require cooperation from all parties involved but is possible. Creating general buy-in for granting Assad and his followers asylum elsewhere will save some of the political paralysis that plagued revolutionary Iran where “Khomeini and his retinue were convinced that only the death of the Shah would free Iran from its corrupt past” (Fisk 109). Avoiding this sort of narrow-minded vision in Syria is critical for the follow-on states to survive. Consequently, those states, and the international community, must agree that al-Assad and his supporters will not be charged with war crimes once they depart. Only by assuring the Assad family’s safety can the civil war be brought to an end.

Once Bashar al-Assad is gone, follow-on states can pick up the pieces. Present-day Syria should produce four new states. First, the Alawites and various other minorities in the northwest should form their own state (hereafter referred to as “state A”). Second, the Sunni Arabs should form a new state in the central and eastern portions of what was once Syria (“state B”). Third, the Christians and other minorities in the extreme south should form their own state (“state C”). Fourth, in the northeast corner the Kurds should form a state (“state D”). These four states can be self-sufficient entities, far more capable of addressing the concerns of their people than Syria ever could.

Northwestern State

The Assad regime has in many ways tarnished the reputation of their Alawi kin. “The Alawis, a mountain people whose history and temperament and doctrine are at great variance with Shiism, were the product to the military seizure of power in Syria in the 1960s. Their sons had gone into military because they were poor and without opportunities. In a country of traders and family firms, the gates were shut before the Alawis” (Ajami 40). Historically, these people were not bent on the dominion of others—an important context. The newly founded state A would function as a cosmopolitan entity with valuable access to the Mediterranean. While it would lack the east-west depth of most states, it would hold a critical monopoly over access to the Sea. Equally important, while the Alawi would likely hold a majority, the political dynamics of the region would be far different than what exists today. Groups like the Levantines and the Druze would have greater representation because their populations would comprise a greater percentage of the whole. More importantly for the Alawi, the sort of pressures that once brought the Alawi community together would erode and lead to a more diverse electorate. This, in effect, would create greater trade space for the ethnic minorities. From a political standpoint, state A in today’s northwestern Syria would be far more pluralistic than now.

In regard to foreign policy, state A would resemble Lebanon as it would not be a traditional Arabic Muslim state. Rather, it would look much more like a cosmopolitan enclave with similar access to the Mediterranean. “In Beirut, members of Lebanon’s eighteen recognized sects work and often live cheek to jowl” (Norton

52). The same sort of harmonious relationship is attainable in this proposed state. For security, the Alawi could potentially leverage their historical ties to both Iran and Russia. However the community could reorient itself towards Europe to avoid some of the endemic conflicts between Sunni and Shi'a Muslims. With that shift, state A could actively seek cooperative engagements with Lebanon, Turkey, Egypt, and others in the region to further steer clear of ongoing tensions to its east. Fortunately, without the specter of an authoritarian regime hanging over it, the more pluralistic democracy state A could actively seek improved ties with European partners that share the Mediterranean. Given its geographical position, state A in what once was Syria's northwest would have an opportunity to reshape its foreign policy and engage with partners that Damascus could not.

The newly proposed state would also be an economic boon. In the short term, the decrease in violence would allow the fledgling government breathing space to leverage ports at both Latakia and Tartus. Access to the Mediterranean has the potential to make the new state a regional hub for trade. “[D]ata shows that most of Turkey’s trade has been done with the European Union (EU). Especially, this amount reaches to 48% in 2008, to 46% in 2009, and to 46.3% in 2010” (Ertekin 38); with similar assets, state A has the potential, particularly given political instability in Turkey and Russia, to cut into some of that Eurasian trade. Without having the same concerns over Sunni Arab prosperity and political strength, the Alawis could work with the other domestic ethnic groups to form a more vibrant economy for the betterment of all. Over the long term, the government could invest that trade revenue in both human and physical capital. Focusing on these areas would have a duplicative effect and do wonders to improving the new state’s long-term economic prospects. Without the same authoritarian constraints or the civil war, what was once northwestern Syria would have a far better chance at economic prosperity.

Central and Eastern State

Sunni Arabs in Syria need to attain political representation. For forty years, the Assad family endgame has always been “Alawi hegemony at the expense of the Sunni majority” (Hussein 55) whatever the costs. Now apportioning today’s Syria offers that opportunity for change. In practice, carving state B out of the central and eastern portions of the nation will make it the largest of the follow-on nations. With Damascus potentially assuming the mantle of the capital, the new government will be responsible for conducting a peaceful transition. The most important elements of this new state’s emergence will be ensuring political representation of ethnic minorities such as the Druze and Armenians and, in turn, gaining the legitimacy of not only its Sunni Arab neighbors but also the international community, particularly Europe and the United States. At the end of the day, the new state coalescing in central and eastern Syria will be judged by its treatment of minority groups as it comes out of the Syrian civil war.

The Saudis in particular would greatly benefit from state B formed in central and eastern Syria. “The kingdom has been unable to match the determination, diplomatic skill or even financial investment that Iran has wielded to bolster its proxies in [Syria]” (“No Satisfaction” 8). Yet, Riyadh may back its way into an opportunity. As a predominately Sunni Arab nation, state B would more than likely orientate itself toward the Arabian Peninsula—a strategic shift in the region as a state centered in

Damascus, albeit a watered-down one, would refocus from Tehran to Riyadh. In the broader international context, this new state should work with the Arab and European communities as well as the US to develop its credibility abroad. Demonstrating both capability and responsibility through engagement will be vital in attracting overseas development assistance (ODA) to help rebuild after the civil war and message multinational corporations (MNC) that foreign direct investment (FDI) in the young state is a safe bet. As state B forms in the heart of what was once Syria, it must align itself with both the east and west in an effort to demonstrate its understanding of both the regional and international political climate.

With political legitimacy will come economic opportunities to ensure the survival of the proposed state. As cooperation improves with the Sunni Arab countries, economic partnerships will follow. Countries like Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates have money to spend abroad. For instance, Qatar's "GDP grew sixfold to \$200 billion, making its 2m-odd people the richest per person on Earth" ("Too Rich" 1). What makes the other Arabic countries valuable for the proposed state are potential trade routes. Moving goods out of central and eastern state B, a landlocked country, will require good relations with neighbor states. Also, the proposed state could serve as a major east-west and north-south trade route for the Middle East. While the country would have limited oil supplies, it would also be heavily dependent on service careers emanating from Damascus. As such, this state will need to heavily invest in human and physical capital. Doing so will improve long-term growth prospects and bring the proposed state into the twenty-first century economy. Only by cooperating with its regional partners could the state carved out of central and eastern Syria make itself viable over the long-term.

Southern State

The minority groups in southern Syria are due to achieve independence. The territory in and around Dar'a and Suwelda is unique to the region given its Druze and Chaldean enclaves. These groups and many others have lived under Arabic, and more recently Alawi, control for centuries. For instance, "the Druze are an ancient sect within Islam. The Golan ones are part of a Syrian Druze community that numbers 700,000. Another 250,000 live in Lebanon and about 100,000 in Israel proper, where, unlike other Muslim and Christian Arabs, they serve in the army" ("Golan Heights" 6). Providing them with their own state will give political empowerment to a whole range of peoples long accustomed to compromise and minority status. In many ways, this is the perfect opportunity to introduce democratic institutions into the area. With no one group holding an overwhelming majority, promoting representative government will encourage the various groups in the region to cooperate. Establishing a small territory, state C, the former southern Syria would permit disenfranchised minorities to finally stand up for themselves.

Particularly in this initial phase the fledgling state will have serious foreign policy challenges worth addressing. Given its small size and its lack of previous democratic practices, it might find other regional states meddling in its internal affairs. In particular, ensuring that both Jordan and Israel recognize the small nation's sovereignty is key. However, there is hope given some of the locals' pre-existing practices including "20,000 Druze of the Golan naturally seeking out interests that are common to [Israel and Syria] as a way of improving their own precarious situation"

(“Golan Heights” 1) by sending apples from Israeli controlled territory to Syria. As bilateral relations with between state C and its neighbors improve, the chances this southern state has of success will only increase.

Several parties could impact state C. Riyadh’s access to Red Sea port facilities and access to Europe through the Red and Mediterranean Seas are crucial to ensuring the proposed state’s viability. Beyond regional partners, the US and Europe Union (EU) are valuable entities in promoting the nation’s security and economic growth across the international spectrum. “More than half of all money spent on helping poor countries comes from the EU and its member countries, making it the world's biggest aid donor” (“Development and Cooperation” 1). So, state C just has to try and access available monies. Trade agreements with these parties offer greater legitimacy and decrease the likelihood of domestic or regional violence. For the proposed state in southern Syria, establishing strong relationships with potential partners is significant for ensuring long-time viability and territorial integrity.

Economically state C in southern Syria will need to focus on developing high-technology industries and other niche fields that it can compete in, investing in both human and physical capital to develop the nation’s research and design capacity and attract future business interests. Also, given its size and newly formed government, it would be useful to invite foreign technical experts that could advise on structural designs for both the government and the economy. The same personnel would also be ideally suited to advocate for ODA. This support would serve to jumpstart state C’s prospects for success. Moving forward C would want to create economic ties with a number of its regional neighbors, Europe, and the US. These partnerships, in particular Jordan, Israel, and Saudi Arabia will be critical for moving goods and services in and out of the proposed state. In Jordan specifically “fiscal reforms, which the IMF demanded in exchange for a loan in 2012, are as slow to emerge as the political ones. Despite promises to reduce the public debt by cutting salaries and subsidies, Jordan’s debt has climbed to \$27 billion, some 80% of GDP” (“Wither Change” 7) as of early 2014. An influx of trade from the north would greatly help Amman’s struggling economy. Developing a high technology economy would allow state C nation to avoid tying its success to agriculture, energy, or minerals which are largely dependent on territorial holdings.

Northeastern State

In many ways, state D in today’s northeastern Syria is the best structured for domestic governance. Already the heavily Kurdish region of northeastern Syria is controlled by “the Democratic Unity Party (PYD), the Syrian Kurdish group that runs the de-facto autonomous Kurdish enclave” (“Syrian Kurds” 3). Transitioning that architecture toward a full-fledged national framework will require some learning experiences and improvements in accountability, effectiveness, efficiency, and other areas. However, the positive for state D in Syria’s northeast is that it already has some of the structural and functional requirements. Addressing minority rights and other, smaller issues will still be issues, but a democracy most certainly has the opportunity to emerge.

With such a large Kurdish population, state D will have significant import for others across the region. Iran, Iraq, and Turkey will likely look at this state's establishment as a threat to their domestic stability. In the last thirty years, Kurds and the national governments in each of these three states have been in conflict. For example, "Turkey is clearly rattled by the prospect of a quasi-independent Syrian-Kurdish entity emerging beside the Iraqi-Kurdish statelet in northern Iraq" ("Turkey, Syria" 4). It is important to differentiate between Kurds in Iran, Kurds in Turkey, and Kurds in Syria. For instance, "Mr. Barzani, the leader of the Kurdish regional government in northern Iraq, who makes no secret of his distaste for the PYD says they are hogging power, and has kept his side of the border with Syria partially sealed ("Syrian Kurds" 8). As on the Korean Peninsula, the divisions existing among these states have caused the Kurds living within each nation to disconnect from one another. As a result, to prevent outside forces from attempting to destabilize the proposed state D, it must establish relations with Europe and the US. While other regional state parties may entertain strong political ties, the most important ties may be with the EU and US. These two entities would be most important for guaranteeing state D's security and also providing technical assistance. Sending economic and government experts to the region could help identify special programs in need of ODA. These investments would then improve the credibility of the domestic government and lead to more FDI. Aligning with the US and EU is critical toward ensuring the state's survival.

The economy of the proposed state in northeast Syria will need to rely on a mixture of high technology and oil. Using ODA and FDI for investing in long-term human and physical growth will place the state on track to overcome the limited amount of land and resources in the area and to achieve a modern economy. However, where the proposed state will be in a strong position is in the availability of oil. Drilling will provide an easy mechanism for generating quick profits to help fund other need areas. The PYD has already begun "setting up Kurdish-language schools and Kurdish outfits capable of improving the indigenous talent pool" ("Turkey, Syria" 3). By addressing both short-term imperatives, such as oil exploitation, and long-term needs, particularly human and physical capital growth, the proposed state in Syria's northeast will have the chance to develop into a viable entity.

Conclusion

Fixing the long-term problems that led to Syria's civil war is not simply a matter of changing leadership. The ethnic challenges so obvious in recent years must be addressed through a comprehensive solution. Apportioning Syria into four states is the best possible outcome for a nation that has been torn apart through civil war. The greatest obstacle to apportionment will not be the Syrian people but rather stakeholders across the international system. In this environment Washington policy-makers must work with their global partners to increase support for the opposition and provide the follow-on states with a greater opportunity for success. Only by apportioning Syria can hope return to the people of that war-torn land.

Disclaimer Statement

The views expressed in and pertaining to this document are solely those of the author and may not reflect those of the official policy or position of the United States

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Debt Servicing Burden among Working Adults in Malaysia

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Abstract

Malaysia's alarming level of household debt which stands at 86% of gross domestic product in 2013 and the high debt service ratio of 46% is a cause of concern on the financial fragility of the Malaysian households. Motivated by these concerns, this paper investigates the role of socio-economic, financial and behavioural factors in affecting the level of debt service burden among working adults in Malaysia. In the analysis, as debt service burden is divided into four levels according to the percentage of monthly income used for loan repayments, an ordered probit model is used. The results indicate that socio-economic factors such as age, gender, education, occupational status and number of dependents play a significant role while financial factors such as stability of income receipt, homeownership, being on government pension, job security, and financial savviness are also significant determinants of levels of debt service burden undertaken by individuals. The findings reflect the institutional aspects of the supply of credits, the life cycle hypothesis and the importance of financial knowledge in enabling individuals to optimize the use of financial services while being prudent to keep debt service within the recommended level.

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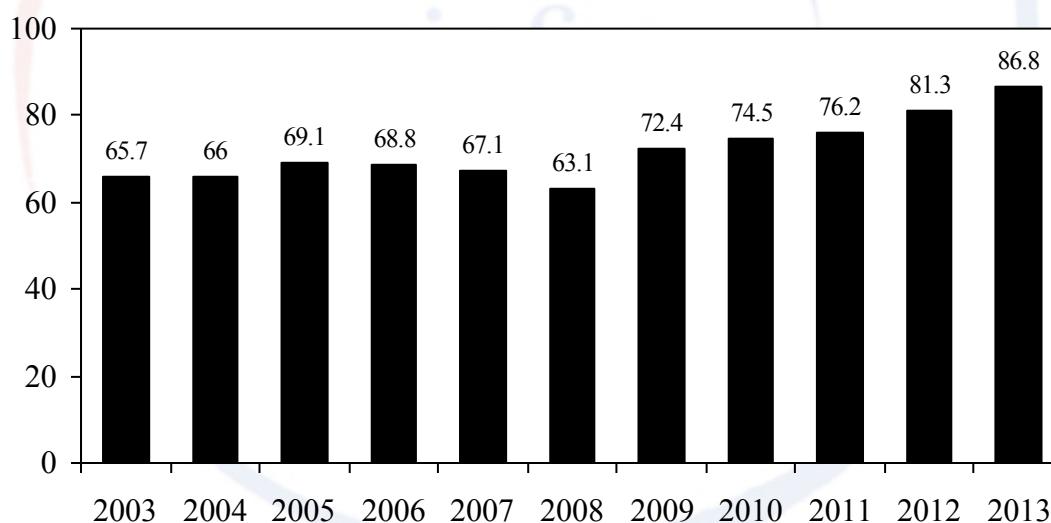
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Introduction

Over the years, as financial industry liberalized and financial innovations evolve rapidly, consumers are presented with new and ever more sophisticated financial products. Apart from having to deal with greater demand of skills in financial judgement, there are strong temptations for consumers to spend on credit as access to credit is easier than before and opportunities to borrow are plentiful.

The appetite for credit among Malaysians is evident in the rising household debt in Malaysia in the recent years. The household debt of Malaysia as a percentage of gross domestic product stands at a high 86.8 percent which amounts to US\$266 billion is the highest among its neighbouring countries in the region such as Singapore, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Japan and Indonesia in 2013 (The Star, 2014; Jamil, 2013). Figure 1 shows the household debt as a percentage of GDP for Malaysia between 2003 to 2013. Overall, it is evident that the household debt as a percentage of GDP has increased over the years from 65.7% in 2003 to 86.8% in 2013. In fact, the household debt as a percentage of GDP in year 2000 was only 47%. In other words, the household debt as a percentage of GDP has almost doubled since the turn of the century or in the last 13 years.

Figure 1: Household debt as a percentage of GDP in Malaysia (2003 to 2013)

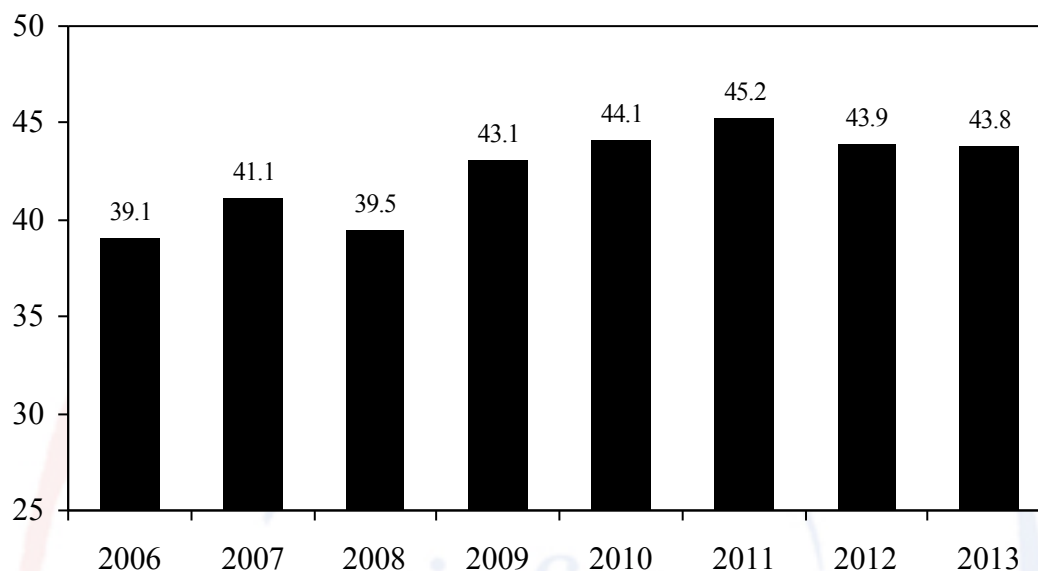


Source: Bank Negara Malaysia (2014, 2010 and 2007), Payment Systems and Stability Report.

In addition, the sustainability of household debt is also in question, as the debt service ratio (ratio of debt payments to disposable income) stood at 43.8% in 2013 (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2014). In other words, almost half of households' disposable income is used for the repayment of debts. Figure 2 shows the debt service ratio in Malaysia between the year 2006 to 2013. Similar to the household debt as a percentage of GDP, the debt service ratio also has shown an increasing trend rising from 39.1% in 2006 to 43.8% in 2013. This is above the recommended 30% debt service ratio. Apart from this, the number of personal bankruptcy cases shows an

increasing trend with 13,238 cases reported in 2007 to 21,987 cases in 2013 (The Star, 2014). All these statistics do not paint an optimistic picture on the financial well-being of Malaysians and raise concerns on the financial fragility of the Malaysian households.

Figure 2: Debt service ratio in Malaysia (2006 - 2013)



Source: Bank Negara Malaysia (2014 and 2010), Payment Systems and Stability Report.

The financial fragility of an individual can be measured in numerous ways. The debt service ratio can serve as one of the early indicators of the financial fragility or debts sustainability of an individual. Despite the growing household debts and personal bankruptcy cases in Malaysia, there is a paucity of empirical research studies on household debt in Malaysia. Related studies on household debt in Malaysia have so far; focus on the credit card debt holdings (Loke et al., 2013; Tan et al., 2011). With this in mind, the paper aims to investigate factors that are significant in determining the debt service ratio or the debt service burden of individuals in Malaysia.

Methodology: Data and Model

Model

The dependent variable in this study is the level of debt service burden where it is defined as zero, low, moderate and high. It is classified based on the percentage of income that is used for debt repayments. The dependent variable of the level of debt service burden in the ordered probit model, is characterized as follows:

- Zero: if the respondent does not have loan at all whereby 0% of income is used for debt repayments.
- Low: if respondent use less than 20% of income for debt repayments
- Moderate: if respondent use between 21%-30% of income for debt repayments
- High: if respondent use more than 30% of income for debt repayments

As the dependent variable is categorical and ordinal with a clear ordering, ordered probit model is an appropriate statistical model to explain the ordinal variations of the debt service burden levels (McCullaph 1980; McKelvey and Zavoina 1975). Debt service burden is given a value of 1, 2, 3 and 4 which indicates zero, low, moderate and high levels debt service burden.

The ordered probit (OP) model is usually justified on the basis of a latent variable, i.e. a variable that is not directly observed but rather inferred from other variables that are observed (directly measured). In general, the ordered probit model is written as:

$$y^* = \beta' x + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where y^* is the latent and continuous measure of debt service burden levels coded as 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4; β' is the vector of estimated parameters and x is the vector of explanatory variables; ε is the error term $\varepsilon \sim N(0,1)$ with cumulative distribution denoted by $\Phi(\bullet)$ and density function denoted by $\phi(\bullet)$.

The observed and coded discrete debt service burden level, y , is derived from the model as follows:

$$y^* = 1 \text{ (zero) if } y^* < \mu_1 \quad (2)$$

$$y^* = 2 \text{ (low) if } \mu_1 < y^* < \mu_2 \quad (3)$$

$$y^* = 3 \text{ (moderate) if } \mu_2 < y^* < \mu_3 \quad (4)$$

$$y^* = 4 \text{ (high) if } y^* > \mu_3 \quad (5)$$

μ_1 , μ_2 and μ_3 are threshold variables in the probit model. The threshold variables are unknown and determine the maximum likelihood estimation procedure for the ordered probit.

Data

This study utilizes primary data which was obtained from a survey conducted between January to March 2013 in two locations (Penang and Klang Valley). The two locations represent the Northern and Central commercial hubs of Peninsular Malaysia. The total sample size used for the analysis is 850. The target respondents were Malaysian working adults between the age of 18 to 60 years old. A working adult is defined as an individual who works for at least 30 hours a week. The sample was stratified according to age, ethnic groups and gender based on the Census Labour Statistics 2010 (Department of Statistics, 2010). A prepared questionnaire is used for the survey and the a face to face interview was administered to each participant based on a prepared questionnaire. The data collected included information on respondent's financial status, financial knowledge, financial behaviour and attitudes and other socio-economic characteristics.

Variables

The explanatory variables can be broadly categorized into three groups namely; i) socio-economic variables, ii) financial variables, and iii) behavioural factors.

Gender, age, education level, ethnicity, marital status, income, occupational status, number of dependents constitute the socio-economic variables that are included in the model in order to analyse the significance of these factors on the levels of debt service burden among working adults in Malaysia.

Financial variables include homeownership, job security, reliability of income receipt, being in government pension scheme, the financial savviness in terms of the use of financial services and the financial knowledge score. In job security, respondents are asked if they feel that their job is secured or otherwise. In terms of reliability of income receipt, a distinction is made between those who have regular and predictable income and those with seasonal or irregular income.

The variable of government pension is unique to this study as this factor has so far not been considered in existing studies as the plausible factors that could explain the differences in individuals' financial capability. There are broadly two types of pension scheme available in Malaysia whereby one is private and another is government which is only offered to workers in the civil sector. Unlike the private pension scheme where all privately employed workers have to make compulsory monthly contribution to the Employees Provident Fund (EPF) based on the percentage stipulated by the government, the civil sector workers who agree to enrol in the government pension scheme need not make any monthly contribution. Furthermore, the civil sector workers who are under the government pension scheme will receive monthly pension until they pass away, the privately employed workers under EPF, will receive a lump sum of money upon retirement and it is up to these workers to plan their funds to ensure that it is sufficient to sustain them throughout their retirement until death. As a result, workers in the civil sectors who have opted for government pension scheme will have the security of retirement income and this may result in differences in the way they handle their finances compared to those in the EPF scheme. Hence, the variable government pension is added into the model.

The financial savviness in terms of the use of financial services is divided into four categories. The lowest being those with no bank accounts, followed by those with holdings of wealth in bank deposits only, and then those who holds wealth in bank deposits and have insurance and finally, those who diversify their wealth holdings to include holdings of financial instruments such as stocks and bonds. The latter group are considered the sophisticated financial service user.

The financial knowledge score is derived from the financial knowledge questions posed to the respondents. The financial knowledge questions are modified and conceptualized from various financial surveys. The concepts assessed relates to individuals' knowledge and understanding on inflation (Kempson and Collard, 2006), interest compounding (Lusardi and Tufano, 2009; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2009; Chen and Volpe, 1998), cash flow management (Credit Counseling and Debt Management Agency of Malaysia, 2011), risk diversification (Lusardi, 2008), mutual funds (Lusardi, 2008) and the recommended debt repayments in relation to income ratio

(Credit Counseling and Debt Management Agency of Malaysia, 2011). A total of six questions were given and the score of the number of correct answer constitute the value of the financial knowledge variable.

Table 1: Definition of the explanatory variables

Variables	Definition
<i>Socio-economic factors</i>	
Male	The respondent is a male
Dependents	Number of dependents
Age	
Age1824*	The respondent is aged between 18 to 24 years old
Age2529	The respondent is aged between 25 to 29 years old
Age3039	The respondent is aged between 30 to 39 years old
Age4049	The respondent is aged between 40 to 49 years old
Age5060	The respondent is aged between 50 to 60 years old
Education	
Tertiary*	The respondent achieved tertiary education
Secondary	The respondent achieved secondary education
Primary	The respondent achieved primary education
Occupational status	
White Collar*	The respondent is a white collar worker
Blue Collar	The respondent is a blue collar worker
Self Employed	The respondent is self employed
Marital Status	
Married	The respondent is married
Widow	The respondent is a widow/divorced
Single*	The respondent is single
Ethnic groups	
Chinese	The respondent is a Chinese
Malay*	The respondent is a Malay
Indian	The respondent is an Indian or others
Household income	
H2500	Household income less than RM2,500
H4000	Household income is between RM2,501 to RM4,000
H5500	Household income is between RM4,001 to RM5,500
H7000	Household income is between RM5,501 to RM7,000
H8000	Household income is above RM7,000
<i>Financial related factors</i>	
Own House	If the respondent owns a home
Pension	If the respondent is enrolled in government pension scheme
Regular	If the respondent receives a predictable and regular income
Job security	If the respondent feels that his/her job is secured
Financial savviness	
No Bank	Respondent does not have a bank account
Bank Deposits	Respondent holds only bank deposits
Insurance	Respondent holds bank deposits and insurance
Finst*	Respondent holds bank deposits, insurance and financial instruments
Fknowledge	The financial knowledge score
<i>Behavioural factors</i>	

Self-control	Respondent shows lack of self-control
Risk tolerance	
No Risk	Respondent does not tolerate any risk
Low Risk	Respondent rejects new job offer if income cut is 10%
Moderate Risk	Respondent rejects new job offer if income cut is 20%
High Risk*	Respondent rejects new job offer if income cut is 33%

Note: * refers to reference variable. All variables are dummy variables except for dependents and fknowledge which are continuous variables.

Finally, the last group of explanatory variables is to elicit the influence of behavioural biases on the levels of debt service burden among working adults. Self-control and risk tolerance were the two behavioural biases that were considered in the model. To elicit self-control, the respondents were asked the following question: "When purchasing goods of value RM2500 and above, if instalment payment option is available, generally would you prefer to pay: by instalment if interest free, will not use the instalment option and pay the full product price, do not purchase at all unless you have sufficient money or will pay by instalment even when interest is chargeable". Those who choose the last option are considered those who display lack of self-control. On the other hand, to assess individual's risk tolerance level, Hanna et al.(2001) question was used whereby the individual were asked if they are willing to take a new and equally good job with 50% probability that it will double their income but another 50% probability that it will reduce their income by a $x\%$. The $x\%$ will vary and based on that the risk tolerance level of an individual is captured.

Characteristics of the survey respondents

Of the 850 respondents, 210(24.7%) had 0% of their income that is used for debt repayments, 206 (24.2%) had low levels of debt service burden, 231 (27.2%) had moderate levels of debt service burden and (24.4%) had high levels of debt service burden. A cursory analysis of Table 2, which gives the summary of the respondent profiles and sample statistics, reveals that the young adult workers (18 to 24 years old) and those approaching retirement workers (50 to 60 years old) are more likely to have lower debt service burden compared to those aged between 24 to 29 years old. This is likely to be the case at those aged between 24 to 29 years old have probably just taken up car or home loan and their income levels are far lower than those in mid career such as those aged between 30 to 49 years old. Hence, it can be seen that among those with high levels of debt service burden, 46.8% are those aged between 24 to 29 years old.

Apart from age, male respondents also tend to have higher levels of debt service burden. While males constitute 60% of the total sample, they account for 69.1% of those who have high levels of debt service burden. This is not surprising as generally the men are the ones who are the primary loan holder and are responsible for debt repayments especially in home loans. Those who are married tend to have higher debt service burden than those single. For example, married respondents make up 64.9% and 71.4% of those with moderate and high levels of debt service burden respectively while those who are single, make up 46.7% and 42.7% of those without loans and with low levels of debt service burden respectively. Further, those who own home also have higher levels of debt service burden whereby they make up

62.3% and 73.4% of those with moderate and high levels of debt service burden respectively.

Table 2: Summary of sample characteristics

Variables	Levels of debt service burden				Total Sample
	None	Low	Moderate	High	
Male	0.538 (0.500)	0.587 (0.494)	0.597 (0.491)	0.691 (0.463)	0.603 (0.490)
Dependents	1.652 (1.886)	1.956 (1.892)	2.234 (1.711)	2.541 (1.837)	2.098 (1.856)
Age1824	0.214 (0.411)	0.150 (0.358)	0.074 (0.262)	0.072 (0.260)	0.126 (0.333)
Age2529	0.133 (0.341)	0.223 (0.417)	0.156 (0.363)	0.145 (0.353)	0.164 (0.370)
Age3039	0.195 (0.397)	0.286 (0.453)	0.381 (0.487)	0.469 (0.500)	0.334 (0.472)
Age4049	0.233 (0.424)	0.199 (0.400)	0.268 (0.444)	0.237 (0.426)	0.235 (0.424)
Age5060	0.224 (0.418)	0.141 (0.349)	0.121 (0.327)	0.077 (0.268)	0.141 (0.348)
Tertiary	0.181 (0.386)	0.437 (0.497)	0.420 (0.495)	0.329 (0.471)	0.343 (0.475)
Secondary	0.471 (0.500)	0.243 (0.430)	0.312 (0.464)	0.357 (0.480)	0.345 (0.476)
Primary	0.152 (0.360)	0.049 (0.215)	0.022 (0.146)	0.034 (0.181)	0.063 (0.244)
White Collar	0.400 (0.491)	0.684 (0.466)	0.675 (0.469)	0.671 (0.471)	0.609 (0.488)
Blue Collar	0.390 (0.489)	0.199 (0.400)	0.190 (0.394)	0.193 (0.396)	0.242 (0.429)
Self Employed	0.210 (0.408)	0.117 (0.322)	0.134 (0.342)	0.135 (0.343)	0.149 (0.356)
Married	0.457 (0.499)	0.558 (0.498)	0.649 (0.478)	0.715 (0.453)	0.596 (0.491)
Widow	0.076 (0.266)	0.015 (0.120)	0.022 (0.146)	0.029 (0.168)	0.035 (0.184)
Single	0.467 (0.500)	0.427 (0.496)	0.329 (0.471)	0.256 (0.438)	0.369 (0.483)
Chinese	0.300 (0.459)	0.374 (0.485)	0.346 (0.477)	0.266 (0.443)	0.322 (0.468)
Malay	0.562 (0.497)	0.505 (0.501)	0.567 (0.497)	0.647 (0.479)	0.570 (0.495)
Indian	0.138 (0.346)	0.121 (0.327)	0.087 (0.281)	0.087 (0.282)	0.108 (0.310)
H2500	0.498 (0.415)	0.224 (0.306)	0.220 (0.283)	0.198 (0.287)	0.285 (0.331)
H4000	0.244 (0.431)	0.293 (0.456)	0.208 (0.407)	0.295 (0.457)	0.258 (0.438)
H5500	0.105	0.151	0.169	0.174	0.150

	(0.308)	(0.359)	(0.375)	(0.380)	(0.358)
H7000	0.053	0.107	0.156	0.159	0.120
	(0.224)	(0.310)	(0.363)	(0.367)	(0.325)
Own House	0.329	0.461	0.623	0.734	0.539
	(0.471)	(0.500)	(0.486)	(0.443)	(0.499)
Pension	0.057	0.204	0.286	0.329	0.220
	(0.233)	(0.404)	(0.453)	(0.471)	(0.415)
No Bank	0.057	0.019	0.004	0.010	0.022
	(0.233)	(0.138)	(0.066)	(0.098)	(0.148)
Bank Deposits	0.329	0.160	0.117	0.101	0.176
	(0.471)	(0.368)	(0.322)	(0.303)	(0.381)
Insurance	0.324	0.301	0.342	0.386	0.338
	(0.469)	(0.460)	(0.475)	(0.488)	(0.473)
Finst	0.290	0.520	0.537	0.502	0.464
	(0.455)	(0.501)	(0.500)	(0.501)	(0.499)
Job Security	0.752	0.908	0.931	0.908	0.876
	(0.433)	(0.290)	(0.254)	(0.289)	(0.330)
Regular	0.529	0.684	0.784	0.725	0.683
	(0.500)	(0.466)	(0.413)	(0.448)	(0.466)
Fknowledge	2.024	2.607	2.667	2.560	2.468
	(1.307)	(1.483)	(1.334)	(1.290)	(1.377)
Self-contorl	0.057	0.053	0.048	0.116	0.068
	(0.233)	(0.225)	(0.213)	(0.321)	(0.252)
No Risk	0.248	0.262	0.287	0.295	0.273
	(0.433)	(0.441)	(0.453)	(0.457)	(0.446)
Low Risk	0.386	0.403	0.359	0.338	0.371
	(0.488)	(0.492)	(0.481)	(0.474)	(0.483)
Moderate Risk	0.257	0.228	0.217	0.232	0.233
	(0.438)	(0.421)	(0.413)	(0.423)	(0.423)
High Risk	0.110	0.107	0.134	0.135	0.122
	(0.313)	(0.310)	(0.342)	(0.343)	(0.327)

Note: Standard deviation in parenthesis

22% of the respondents in the sample are enrolled in the government pension scheme but they make up 32.6% of those with high levels of debt service burden. This indicates that those with government pension have higher tendency to have higher levels of debt service burden than those without government pension. In terms of financial savviness, it is found that those who hold financial instruments such as stocks and bonds tend to have higher levels of debt service burden compared to those who save in bank deposits only. Lastly, it is found that those with lack of self- control have higher levels of debt service burden.

Empirical Results

Table 3 presents the estimates of the ordered probit (column 2) and the marginal effects of the explanatory variables on levels of debt service burden (columns 3-5). The ordered probit enables the identification of significant variables that are associated with different levels of debt service burden. A higher coefficient in the estimate for the ordered probit indicates a higher probability of membership in the highest category (high level of debt service burden) and a lower probability of

membership in the lower category (zero debt service burden). However, from the ordered probit estimates alone, the effects of the changes in the explanatory variables on the probability of membership in the intermediate group (low and moderate levels of debt service burden) is ambiguous. For this reason, the discussion of the empirical results focus on the marginal effects of each explanatory variable on the respective levels of debt service burden (columns 3-5). A positive value indicates the explanatory variable increases the probability that a respondent will be at a specific level of debt service burden compared to the reference variable.

In the socio-economic factors, it is found that gender, number of dependents, age, education and occupational status are significant in explaining the levels of debt service burden. Interestingly, the findings show that income groups have no significant influence on the levels of debt service burden. The econometric result is consistent with the mean statistics that were discussed in the earlier section. For example, males are more likely to have higher debt service burden than females. The marginal effects estimates show that a male will increase the probability of having high debt service burden by 3.6% but lowers the probability of zero debt service burden by 12.7% compared to a female respondent. Number of dependents will increase the levels of debt service burden. In other words, for every additional number of dependent that a respondent has, the probability that a respondent will have moderate and high level of debt service burden will increase by 1.2% and 0.7% respectively. Age is also found to be another significant factor. Those aged between 25 to 29 years old, 30 to 39 years old are more likely to have higher levels of debt service burden than those aged between 18 to 24 years old while those between 50 to 60 years old have lower levels of debt service burden than those who are between 18 to 24 years old. For example, those aged between 25 to 29 years old and those aged between 30 to 39 years old are 3.1% and 3.3% more likely to have high level of debt service burden while those aged between 50 to 60 years old are 6.6% less likely to have high level of debt service burden than those aged between 18 to 24 years old.

While income groups have no significant effect on the levels of debt service burden, regularity of income receipt is found to have significant effect on levels of debt service burden. Those who have regular and predictable income receipt will increase the probability of having moderate and high levels of debt service burden by 3.5% and 2% than those with irregular income receipt. Job security is also another significant factor that could lead to higher levels of debt service burden. The results show that those who think that their current job is secured increases the likelihood of having moderate and high levels of debt service burden by 4.3% and 2.5% respectively.

As home loan may make up the main bulk of a respondents loan portfolio, it is not surprising to find that those with homeownership will increase the likelihood of having moderate and high levels of debt service burden by 12.8% and 7.5% respectively. Civil sector workers with government pension who has better retirement income security is found to have greater appetite for loan whereby, such respondents will increase the likelihood of having moderate and high levels of debt service burden by 8.2% and 4.8% respectively.

Table 3: Ordered probit estimates and marginal effects on the probabilities of the levels of debt service burden

Variables	Coefficient estimates	Marginal effects on the probabilities		
		None	Moderate	High
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	0.323*** (0.082)	-0.128*** (0.033)	0.062*** (0.016)	0.036*** (0.013)
Dependents	0.064** (0.025)	-0.025*** (0.010)	0.012** (0.005)	0.007* (0.004)
Age 2529	0.274* (0.146)	-0.108* (0.058)	0.053* (0.027)	0.031* (0.017)
Age 3039	0.294** (0.148)	-0.116** (0.059)	0.056** (0.028)	0.033* (0.018)
Age 4049	-0.124 (0.172)	0.049 (0.068)	-0.24 (0.033)	-0.014 (0.021)
Age 5060	-0.585*** (0.194)	0.231*** (0.077)	-0.113*** (0.040)	-0.066** (0.034)
Secondary	-0.046 (0.098)	0.018 (0.039)	-0.009 (0.019)	-0.005 (0.011)
Primary	-0.444** (0.200)	0.175** (0.079)	-0.085** (0.039)	-0.050* (0.029)
Blue collar	-0.243** (0.106)	0.096** (0.042)	-0.047** (0.021)	-0.027* (0.016)
Self employed	-0.158 (0.124)	0.062 (0.049)	-0.030 (0.024)	-0.018 (0.016)
Married	0.018 (0.117)	-0.007 (0.046)	0.003 (0.023)	0.002 (0.013)
Widow	0.021 (0.253)	-0.008 (0.100)	0.004 (0.049)	0.002 (0.029)
H4000	0.094 (0.114)	-0.037 (0.045)	0.018 (0.022)	0.011 (0.013)
H5500	0.088 (0.136)	-0.035 (0.054)	0.017 (0.026)	0.010 (0.015)
H7000	0.180 (0.151)	-0.071 (0.060)	0.035 (0.029)	0.020 (0.017)
H8000	-0.106 (0.142)	0.042 (0.056)	-0.020 (0.028)	-0.012 (0.017)
Chinese	-0.087 (0.097)	0.034 (0.038)	-0.017 (0.019)	-0.010 (0.012)
Indian	-0.244* (0.132)	0.096* (0.052)	-0.047* (0.026)	-0.028 (0.019)
Regular	0.181** (0.091)	-0.072** (0.037)	0.035** (0.017)	0.020* (0.011)
Own House	0.667*** (0.100)	-0.264*** (0.039)	0.128*** (0.022)	0.075*** (0.029)
Pension	0.427*** (0.107)	-0.169*** (0.043)	0.082*** (0.021)	0.048** (0.020)

No bank	-0.558*	0.221*	-0.107*	-0.063
	(0.302)	(0.119)	(0.059)	(0.042)
Bank deposits	-0.280**	0.111**	-0.054**	-0.032
	(0.121)	(0.047)	(0.025)	(0.020)
Insurance	0.014	-0.006	0.003	0.002
	(0.090)	(0.036)	(0.017)	(0.010)
Job security	0.224*	-0.088*	0.043*	0.025*
	(0.127)	(0.051)	(0.024)	(0.013)
Fknowledge	0.059*	-0.023*	0.011*	0.007
	(0.031)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.004)
Self-control	0.372**	-0.147**	0.072**	0.042*
	(0.157)	(0.062)	(0.031)	(0.023)
No Risk	-0.089	0.035	-0.017	-0.010
	(0.136)	(0.053)	(0.027)	(0.017)
Low Risk	-0.138	0.055	-0.027	-0.016
	(0.128)	(0.050)	(0.025)	(0.018)
Moderate Risk	-0.066	0.026	-0.013	-0.008
	(0.137)	(0.054)	(0.027)	(0.017)

*Note: ***, **, * denotes 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance. Standard error in parenthesis*

Respondents who have higher financial score will tend to have higher levels of debt service burden. An increase of a unit score in financial knowledge will increase the likelihood of having moderate levels of debt service burden by 1.1%. However, it is found that there are no significant marginal effects of financial knowledge on the probability of having high level of debt service burden. Respondents who have shown lack of self control are likely to have higher levels of debt service burden whereby lack of self control will increase the probability of having moderate and high levels of debt service burden by 7.2% and 4.2% respectively.

In summary, socio-economic factors, financial factors such as homeownership, job security, being on government pension, financial savviness, financial knowledge and lack of self control can significantly explain the differences in the levels of debt service burden undertaken by an individual.

Conclusion and Discussion

The paper has set out to explore the levels of debt service burden among working adults in Malaysia by identifying the socio-economic characteristics, financial and behavioural factors that might explain the different levels of debt service burden. There is a paucity of studies on household debt and indebtedness among Malaysians. The findings here show that there are differences in socio-economic factors, financial and behavioural factors that explain an individual's levels of debt service burden.

In terms of socio-economic factors, age, gender, number of dependents, education, marital status and occupational status can significantly explain the differences in the levels of debt service burden undertaken by each individual. On the other hand, in terms of the financial related factors, regularity of income, job security, homeownership, being on government pension scheme and financial savviness in the use of financial services have significant effect on the levels of debt service burden.

Furthermore, better financial knowledge is found to increase the levels of debt service burden but within the moderate levels while lack of self-control clearly increases the levels of debt service burden undertaken.

The findings highlight and confirm several observations that are observed with regards to the household debt situation in the country. Firstly, the findings reflect the institutional aspects of the supply of credits in the economy whereby credits are more accessible to those who are eligible and those with some forms of security or collateral. For example, those in tertiary education, white collar workers, regular receipt of income, homeownership are more likely to have higher levels of debt service burden. These individuals are more likely to qualify for loans and also for higher amount of loans given their economic status.

Secondly, the findings is consistent with life cycle income hypothesis whereby the young (those in mid-career phase) such as those aged 40 and below are more likely to have higher levels of debt service while those older ones aged between 50 to 60 years old have lower levels of debt service. The older generation would have fully paid most of their loan or their income has risen over the years resulting in lower debt repayment ratio to their income. On the other hand, the majority of those between 25 to 39 years old would be in the early phase of their loan tenure and with a lower level of income, the debt service burden would be higher for these individuals.

Thirdly, it is observed that those with higher financial knowledge tend to have higher levels of debt service burden. This suggest that financial knowledge may enable individuals to optimize the use of financial services but these individuals are prudent in their loan taking behaviour to keep their debt service burden within the recommended level.

Finally, while risk tolerance is found to have no significant effects on the levels of debt service burden, it is evident that lack of self-control has positive significant effects on the levels of debt service burden. In many studies, behavioural biases such as self-control are not explicitly modelled into the model of indebtedness. This finding shows the need to do so and the importance to incorporate behavioural biases in financial education.

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Introspection in Service Experience: The Impact of Ambient Scent on Consumer Behavior, Emotion, and Satisfaction in Hotels

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Abstract

In the modern marketing, retail services and hospitality industry has shown great interests in the use of scents; the sense of smell may be emerging as surprisingly tools in service settings. Several researchers have stated that ambient scent can affect consumers' affective and cognitive reaction, then affecting their memory, evaluation, attention and these can in turn lead to approach behavior of consumers. Though some studies have focused on the impact of ambient scent on emotion, cognition, and consumer behavior in the retail industry; but there is comparatively little attention has been dedicated to the impact of ambient scent in the hotel industry. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to explore the effect of ambient scent on consumers' behavior, emotion, and satisfaction of their hotel service experience. Experimental design will apply to this study to examine the presence and intensity of the scent of selecting hotels. Based on the findings derived from experimental design and factor analysis in this study, the results could provide a better interpretation and insights on the relationship between consumer behavior and emotion in hotel environmental settings as well as in marketing development.

Keywords: Ambient scent, Consumer behavior, Satisfaction, Hotel, Service experience

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Introduction

The sense of smell long regarded as the most mystical of our senses. It is known that a human body has between 6 and 10 million receptor cells located in the olfactory epithelium. Humans can breathe about 15,000 to 20,000 times a day and differentiate some 2,000 to 4,000 aromas by using these cells (Strugnell & Jones, 1999). Likewise, on the contrary, to other sensory cues that are sworn out in higher level brain centers, scents have first directly dealt with the limbic system of the mind, which is the centre of emotions and memory (Bosmans, 2006; Ehrlichman & Halpern, 1988). As a matter of fact, smell is influencing approximately 75% of our emotions (Lindstrom, 2005). Hence, the nose is recognized as an organ that receives communication constantly.

Smell is the sense that is most intently connected to the brain's emotional centre, and it could stimulate the emotional reaction (Spence, 2002); lead to automatic approach or avoidance responses of a consumer consisting of general attitudes, emotion and behavior. These reactions can be either negative or positive and hence raise the consumer experience. Despite all this, most retailers centralize their marketing efforts on what we see and hear (Lindstrom, 2005). Nevertheless, among the five senses of sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch, the sense of smell is the least studied by the researchers. Although the consumer research of the effects of scents has been considered within retailing context, it is obviously that smell has seldom been discussed in the hotel and hospitality industry.

Scent marketing was proclaimed as one of the top ten trends that have to look out in 2007 (Thomaselli, 2006). Odors are deemed as it will help increase consumer spending, attract customers and establish unforgettable brands, thus many of the retailers, restaurants and hotels have contracted with the scent companies. Some of them even consider scents as an integral part of the business image, in company with music, logos and décor (Dowdey, 2007).

In practice, marketing managers in different context have shown interest in using scents. The Sony Style store has differentiated their store from others by scenting the shop with notes of vanilla and mandarin orange (Tischler, 2005). A special aroma called Stefan Floridian Waters is used by Singapore Airlines in the form of stewardesses' perfume, in the hot towels served and usually the whole fleet of airplanes in order to increase the memory of their guests (Lindstrom, 2005). Victoria's Secret, the lingerie retailer also permanently takes advantage of fragrance as part of their sensory marketing (Tischler, 2005). Even department stores such as Harrods in London, England (Rosenthal, 2008), and Bloomingdale's Inc., in New York City (Smith 2009), have tested with scent marketing, diffusing different odors into their various departments. Within this context, ambient scents merely constitute an additional aspect of the physical environment that may potentially influence behavior.

However, previous research has indicated mixed findings regarding the effect of ambient scent on consumer responses (Morrin & Ratneshwar, 2000; Spangenberg, Crowley & Henderson, 1996). The setting in which the study took place may account for this. In light of the fragmented nature of the current literature, the impact of ambient scent on consumer behavior requires further investigation (Bitner, 1992; Bone & Ellen, 1999; Gulas & Bloch, 1995; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001), especially in the

hotel industry. Ambient scents may affect on consumer emotion and behavior, and then their satisfaction. This study will be conducted in a high affective involvement setting. Besides, the S-O-R model proposed by Mehrabian & Russell (1974) indicated that environmental stimuli (S) lead to an emotional response (O), and in turn, affects consumers' behavioral reaction (R) based on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm, this model will be adopted in this research to examine the relationship between ambient scent, consumer emotion, behavior and satisfaction.

Based on the background and motivation of the research, the objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To explore the effect of ambient scent on consumers' behavior, emotion, and satisfaction of their hotel service experience.
2. To provide a better interpretation and insights on the relationship between consumer behavior and emotion in hotel environmental settings as well as in marketing development.

Literature Review

In the study of environment psychology, Mehrabian & Russell (1974) have indicated that environmental stimuli (S) lead to an emotional response (O), and in turn, affect consumers' behavioral reaction (R) based on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm. In the model, the stimuli are external to the person and consist of various elements of physical atmosphere, for instance color and temperature. The model infers that environmental stimulus have influences on consumers emotional states (pleasure, arousal and dominance). Pleasure is similar to the feeling state of liking while arousal is a feeling state that disparate along a single dimension ranging from sleep to frantic excitement. Dominance is a feeling state that is based on the degree to which he has control over his act or not in different ways in a servicescape. These emotional responses cause two different behaviors: either approach or avoidance. Approach behavior refers to the desire for staying, exploring, affiliating with others in the environment, while avoidance behavior involves escaping from the environment and ignoring communication attempts from others.

Many studies have been conducted on the role of environmental stimuli as a predictor of emotional responses, such as pleasure or arousal and as a predictor of consumer behaviors, such as extra time spent in a store by applying Mehrabian & Russell Model (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Jang & Namkung, 2009).

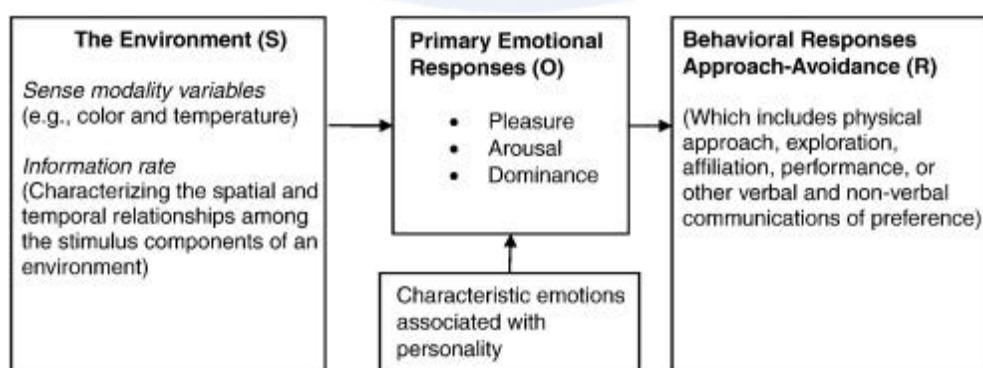


Figure 1: S-O-R Framework Mehrabian & Russell

Source: Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. the MIT Press.

Methodology

Based on the literature review, the conceptual framework of the study is shown in Figure 2. The model displays the relationships among perceived scent, emotions and behavioural intentions. To empirically test the hypothesis, a questionnaire that contained three constructs relating to customer's hotel experience: perceived scent, emotions and behavioural intentions was created. Each constructs was measured using a 5-point scale.

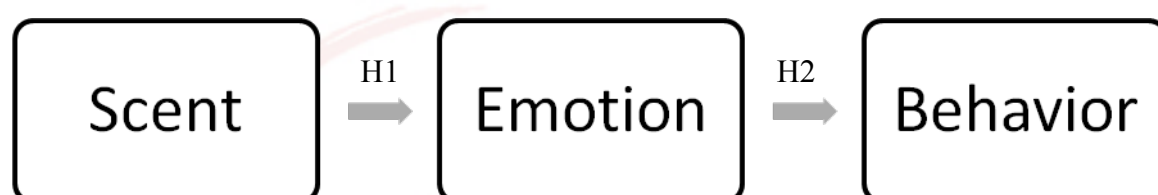


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

Hypothesis 1: Perceived scent has influence on emotion.

Hypothesis 2: Emotion has influence on behavioural intention.

A pilot test was conducted around an international hotel chain in Taipei. In all, 125 customers were asked to comment a survey on voluntary basis, and a total of 100 questionnaires were collected and used in the study. Descriptive statistical analysis was used to examine respondents' personal information.

The demographic characteristics of the respondents included more female (58%) and they are mainly between ages 25 to 34 (64%). The majority of the respondents are single (67%) and over half of the respondents are graduate from the university or collage (79%). Leisure (54%) is the top purpose of the respondents visiting the hotel and most of them went to the hotel with their friends (33%). Most of the respondents know the hotel through the internet (54%).

Table 1: Demographic and visiting profiles

Variables	Frequency (n=100)	Percentage
Gender		
Male	42	42
Female	58	58
Age		
18~24	6	6
25~34	64	64
35~44	27	27
45~54	3	3
Marital Status		
Single	67	67
Married	33	33

Education Level		
High School	2	2
University/College	79	79
Master degree or higher	19	19
The purpose of visiting to the hotel		
Leisure	54	54
Business	31	31
Having Meal	13	13
Visiting Relatives	2	2
Who are you coming with to this hotel?		
Family	21	21
Friends	33	33
College	13	13
Couple	24	24
Alone	9	9
The reason of choosing this hotel		
Recommendation from others	29	29
News/ Magazine	10	10
Internet	54	54
Others	7	7

Results

Reliability analysis and correlation analysis were applied in this study. The Cronbach's alpha and mean values for reliability analysis were shown in Table 2. The results of Cronbach's alpha are higher than 0.7, showed that the relationship between the variables are creditable. In Table 3, the correlation analysis of this study showed the results are not significant. One of the reasons is the small number of the valid questionnaire (33%).

Table 2: Reliability analysis

	Cronbach's Alpha	Subject of a standardized project Cronbach's Alpha
Scent	.962	.965
Emotion	.945	.946
Behavior	.967	.969

Table 3: Correlation Analysis

Correlation Analysis				
		Scent	Emotion	Behavior
Scent	Pearson Correlation	1	.307	-.140
	Significant (two-tailed)		.082	.438
Emotion	Pearson Correlation	.33	33	33
	Significant (two-tailed)	.307	1	.155

Behavior	Pearson Correlation	.082		.125
	Significant (two-tailed)	33	100	100
**. Significance level of 0.01 (two-tailed), a significant correlation.				
a. The number of valid questionnaire =33%				

Conclusion

The Mehrabian & Russell Model is adopted for this study to examine the relation between scent, emotion and behavior based on the results. Since this is an ongoing research, the dimensions of emotion and behavior will be revised.

The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by several overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs in shades of red and blue, creating a dynamic, swirling effect.

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Understanding Customers' Well-being and Repurchase Intention for Different Restaurants' Atmosphere in Afternoon Tea Services

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Abstract

In recent years, having afternoon tea has gradually become one popular leisure activity and lifestyle. Many hotels and even restaurants start to provide afternoon tea services; and consumers pay high attention to dining atmosphere more and more. Several studies indicated that restaurants' atmosphere can influence the degree of consumer satisfaction, thereby affecting their well-being and repurchase intention. Additionally, previous researches regarding restaurants atmosphere have largely focused on single environmental factors, such as lighting, music styles, colors of decor, and others in the case of upscale restaurants. However, the relationship between restaurants overall atmosphere, degree of consumer satisfaction and well-being were little explored. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the relationship among restaurants atmosphere, customer satisfaction, well-being and repurchase intention on afternoon tea services. Hope this study can provide insights and references for hoteliers and restaurant operators on planning and restaurant's environmental atmosphere design as well as afternoon tea service performance enhancement.

Keywords: Restaurant Atmosphere, Well-being, Repurchase Intention, Afternoon Tea Restaurant, Service Performance

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Introduction

In an increasingly competitive market, customers are the king, the business need to sell what the consumers want, consumers make their purchase decisions not only depend on tangible product or services provided, shop atmosphere are one of the elements that allow consumers to make decisions (Kotler ,1973).In recent years, consumers' attention is not just the food itself, they are more care about the dining environment, atmosphere, service and design in the restaurant. The characteristic of a restaurant can attract more consumers to visit.

Literature Review

Restaurant Atmosphere

Kotler (1973) said that designed space would produce a specific emotion for consumers, in order to improve the levels of consumer purchase intention; the atmosphere through the experience of the senses is an important elements. Atmosphere can stimulate the human senses which are visual, hearing, smell, touch and taste. Based on the environmental psychology, Kotler (1973) focused on consumer behavior and the physical environment perspective, he think that customers through a combination of sensory perception to the atmosphere of shopping malls, Visual (color, lighting, distance, and a variety of visual elements) ; Hearing (type of music, volume);Touch (Cleanliness) ; Smell (fragrance) are present in the service environment. Sometimes, product itself is not only the main purpose of purchasing; atmosphere becomes the main reason why the customers want to purchase for certain products.

The three main dimensions of the servicescape's atmosphere are identified as: ambient conditions, spatial layout and functionality, and signs, symbols and artifacts (Bitner, 1992). Environmental conditions means that the environmental background characteristics (such as: temperature, lighting, noise, music and a fragrance) .Space layout means the machine, facilities and furniture layout, marked with a function items, signs, symbols and artifacts contain signs, artifacts, decorative, and as with customers explicitly or implicitly communicate physical elements. In this study, the restaurant atmosphere is defined as the key factor of the physical environment and atmosphere that would impact on the consumers' perception of the environment, stimulate emotion, and influence their repurchase intention and subsequent behavior.

Well-being

There are two major fields of social and philosophical for the study of well-being from the previous scholars, with different research backgrounds and cultural factors, different definitions are also provided. The components of well-being include the following happiness, subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and life satisfaction. Well-being, is an abstract noun, every definition of well-being is differ. Luo Lu (1997) indicates, western philosophers proposed explanation for well-being, respectively gone through four stages : (1) Think happiness is external evaluation standards, especially on morality, when individuals reach the standard, happiness will be generated, however, personal cognitive are different in happiness, extrinsic happiness also different, no consistent standard, attention to subjective feelings of happiness, through a subjective point of view of the nature of happiness. (2) The focus is on measuring emotions; think that happiness comes from living in the sum of more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions. (3) Focuses on cognitive activities, for a period of time living in the past conducted assess obtained by feeling, close to life satisfaction. (4) Into the integration phase.

Well-being contains three main elements: overall satisfaction of life; intensity and frequency of the experience well-being; and without depression, anxiety or other negative status (Argyle, 1992). Overall, well-being is the personal positive evaluation of the entire life, the higher satisfaction of life, positive feeling and lower negative feeling (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Diener, 1984; Veenhoven, 1984; 1991; 1994). This study defined well-being as the feeling of life is affected by incidents, to meet their needs, which includes cognitive and affective, while the feeling of pleasure is generated when positive emotion are greater than negative feeling, then obtain the feeling of well-being.

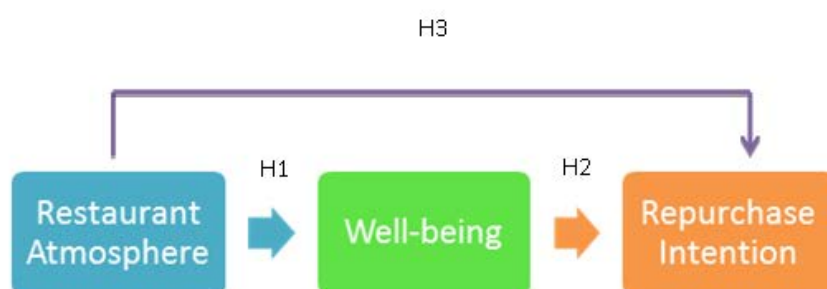
Repurchase Intention

Engel, Blackwell & Miniard (2001) pointed out consumer behavior is directly involve, obtaining consumption and disposal products and services for all of activities. Abbott (1955) stated that the product is to provide consumer experience for service performance, consumers really want are not the product itself, but a satisfying shopping experience. After consumers using the service or product, experience feelings will become the basis for the judgment, influence on consumer subsequent behavior, satisfaction is considered to be one of the important variables, which in the future purchase intentions and actual purchase behavior (Oliver, 1999 and Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Satisfaction and loyalty (eg; repurchase intention and introduction) in a number of hotels in the literature confirmed the relevance,

with restaurant and dining environment (Chow et al., 2007 , Hyun, 2010 , Oh, 2000 and Ryu et al., 2008). Dodds et al. (1991) regarded the repurchase intention as the possibility of the consumer attempts to purchase a certain product again. This study defined the repurchase intention as the consumer is stimulated by the restaurant's atmosphere, and feel satisfactory from the purchase experience, then generate the repurchase intention.

Methodology

Research Framework& Hypotheses



Research objectives

1. Restaurant atmosphere have positive effects on well-being.
2. Well-being has a positive effect on repurchase intention.
3. Restaurant atmosphere has a positive effect on repurchase intention.

Research Design & Data Analysis

This study used questionnaire survey to collect data. The questionnaire can be divided into four parts which are restaurant atmosphere, well-being, consumer repurchase intention and consumers' personal background information. This study investigated the relationship between restaurant atmosphere, well-being and repurchase intention. The main analysis methods are: a descriptive analysis, reliability analysis and regression analysis.

Findings

A total of 119 valid and completed questionnaires were received from 120 questionnaires distributed. This shows a response rate of 99%. Profile of respondents was shown in Table 1. Research indicates that consumer's gender and age distributions were slightly inclined to more female respondents and younger who are aged 16 to 25 years old. Respondents are mostly unmarried students, graduate from

university. Most of them are having average monthly income of less than NT \$ 20,000. Average number of monthly consumption in afternoon tea restaurant is one time and average cost is between NT\$301-400. Most of the respondents often enjoy afternoon tea together with their friend and the main reason of choosing the afternoon tea restaurant is because of the environment and atmosphere. Besides, the main source for the respondents to visiting an afternoon tea restaurant is the recommendation from friends and relatives. And the Cronbach's alpha and mean values for reliability analysis were shown in Table 2. All Cronbach's alpha is higher than 0.7 to be credible

Table 1 – Profile of Respondents (N=119)

Question		Number of samples (N=119)	Percentage(%)
Gender	Male	38	31.9
	Female	81	68.1
Age	16-25 years	64	53.8
	26-35 years	22	18.5
	36-45 years	17	14.3
	46-55 years	12	10.1
	56-65 years	4	3.4
	Over 66 years	0	0
Education	Junior	2	1.7
	High school	17	14.3
	College	16	13.4
	University	52	43.7
	Master	32	26.9
Marital status	Unmarried	87	73.1
	Married	32	26.9
Profession	Student	57	47.9
	Military and government	5	4.2
	Industry	4	3.4
	Business	14	11.8
	Services	26	21.8
	Electronics Technology	5	4.2
	Housekeeper	5	4.2
	Unemployed	1	.8
	Retired	1	.8

	Other	1	.8
Average monthly income	NT \$ 20,000 or less	57	47.9
	NT \$ 20,001-40,000	37	31.1
	NT \$ 40,001-60,000	17	14.3
	NT \$ 60,001-80,000	5	4.2
	NT \$80,001-100,000	1	.8
	More than NT \$ 100,001	2	1.7



Table 1 – Profile of Respondents (N=119)(cont'd)

Question		Number of samples (N=119)	Percentage(%)
The average number of monthly consumption in tea restaurant	1 times	50	42.0
	2 times	36	30.3
	3 times	24	20.2
	4 times	5	4.2
	More than 5 times	4	3.4
The average monthly amount of consumption in tea restaurant	NT \$ 201-300	25	21.0
	NT \$ 301-400	46	38.7
	NT \$ 401-500	33	27.7
	NT \$ 501 or more	15	12.6
Who do you most often and enjoy afternoon tea together	Colleague	4	3.4
	Friend	71	59.7
	Family	12	10.1
	Boyfriend and girlfriend	20	16.8
	Couples	11	9.2
	Oneself	1	.8
You choose this afternoon restaurant reasons	Environment and atmosphere	63	52.9
	Service	19	16.0
	Afternoon tea types	26	21.8
	Reasonable price	10	8.4
	Other	1	.8
The purpose of the tea restaurant you choose	Gatherings	46	38.7
	Enjoy	61	51.3
	Shopping break	12	10.1
What promotion attracted you to enjoy afternoon tea	Close friends and relatives	49	41.2
	News media briefing	12	10.1

	Internet bloggers and publicity	43	36.1
	Passing	15	12.6

Table 2 –Reliability Analysis (N=119)

	Cronbach's Alpha	Subject of a standardized project Cronbach's Alpha
Restaurant Atmosphere	.896	.905
Well-being	.797	.819
Repurchase Intention	.924	.927

Conclusion

Currently, the research is an ongoing study. From the results of the study, it is found that most of the consumers pay attention to afternoon tea restaurant's atmosphere and the purpose of having afternoon tea is to enjoy their life. The dimension of the restaurant's atmosphere will be modified for further study.

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Secure in Insecurity: The Case of Threat Perception/Acceptance in the Philippines

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0282**Abstract**

This paper concerns the issue of security threat-perception, and uses national security practice in the Philippines as the primary case. The research problem is the loose use of the term 'security' by the politically influential to bestow a sense of urgency upon certain issues regardless of whether or not these constitute an existential threat to crucial aspects of the state. Current theoretical and policy-based explanations of security in the Philippines have portrayed 'politics' and 'security' as distinct and separate fields. However, the recent '2011-2016 National Security Policy: Securing the Gains of Democracy', has conflated 'security' and 'politics', as may be observed in its two national security goals 'to promote internal socio-political stability' and 'to exercise full sovereignty over its territory'. Although likely derived from administrative expediency, the composite policy definition is also likely to result in the conceptualisation of political goals that are only partially attainable and of a security environment that will remain 'unsecured'. As this appears to be a norm of governance in the Philippines, this paper examines the possibility that national security policy-making is likely more concerned with the survival of the regime during which the policy was created rather than with the long-term stabilisation of the entire state. Several theories may be useful in accounting for this behaviour; namely, small states conflict theory, securitisation theory, and threat normalisation theory. This paper is intended to show that the definition of threat corresponds to threat-acceptance and may likely lead to threat-toleration than to threat-resolution.

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Introduction

This paper concerns the issue of security threat-perception in the Philippines, particularly the loose use of 'security' by the politically influential to bestow a sense of urgency on issues that may not be existential threats to crucial aspects of the state. Current theoretical and policy-based explanations of security in the Philippines have portrayed 'politics' and 'security' as distinct and separate fields. The theoretical convention is to regard the 'political' as concerning the democratisation, professionalisation, maturation, or otherwise the development of a managerial 'governing' class as well as the optimisation or rationalisation of bureaucratic processes. 'Security' is conventionally about the preservation of a condition of 'well-being', ostensibly from dangers within and beyond the borders of the Philippine state. However, the recent '2011-2016 National Security Policy: Securing the Gains of Democracy', has conflated 'security' and 'politics', particularly with its two national security goals 'to promote internal socio-political stability' and 'to exercise full sovereignty over its territory'. The composite policy definition is likely to result in the conceptualisation of political goals that are only partially attainable and of a security environment that will remain defined as 'unsecured'. This paper examines national security policy-making as a means for the survival of the regime during which the policy was created rather than for the long-term stabilisation of the state. Several theories help to directly frame this condition. The 'small states conflict' theory of Kal Holsti attributes the tendency of some states towards violent conflict to structural aspects that have persisted from the original conceptualisation of statehood in those societies. In the Philippine case, this principle may translate into the opportunism of a small but disjointed group of wealthy and influential political 'elites', the composition of which has remained relatively unchanged since the independence of the country after the Second World War. The 'securitisation theory' of Barry Buzan and the Copenhagen School defines true security issues as those which have undergone a process of securitisation; that is, a recognition that certain issues, on account of their severity, may be resolved only by a recourse to drastic, but not unlimited, emergency measures. Because most of the problems covered the broad range of security issues raised by the Philippine government may not correspond to conditions of 'existential threat' for the population, doubts may be raised concerning the validity of engaging in the 'security' polemic, or even the motives of the policy-makers themselves. Finally, the 'threat normalisation theory' of Greg Bankoff identifies the term 'disaster' not with the severe environmental or natural conditions of a society's existence but rather with the inability or refusal of a state to either recognise these severe conditions or, in some cases, alter the natural and social environment, to avert the danger. The theory is immediately applicable to crises of coping with damage caused by typhoons, earthquakes and other severe phenomena that occur naturally in the Philippines. But it may also help account for cases where fraud, depredation and armed violence become somehow accepted as 'normal security problems' despite, or perhaps even because of, a recurring failure of officials to enforce or abide by official regulations, if any are present at all.

The Non-issue of Philippine Insecurity

The claim that the Philippine state persists under conditions of unresolved security-related problems has been made previously and in various forms. Problems such as bureaucratic weakness, political patronage, internecine conflict and economic

inequality have been attributed by David Wurfel (1990) to the continuing influence of the United States on Philippine politics or, more specifically, to the loyalty of Philippine officials to governance arrangements introduced by US officials from the early- to mid-twentieth century. James C. Scott (1972) has defined the patron-client dyadic relation as a singularly defining feature of the Philippine state, where bureaucratic and other formal processes operate parallel to the occasionally highly-visible purchases of loyalty by government officials and their financial backers (pp. 6-8). Eva-Lotta Hedman and John Sidel (2000) have described the conversion of the patron-client relation inherent to agricultural communities to the practice of bossism in urban environments, and of warlordism in places where gun-related crime has become prevalent (pp. 88-89). The Philippine military, as described by Carolina Hernandez (1990), has been co-opted by government officials to be a reinforcement of the national police against criminal activities that have distinct political or ideological characteristics, and has, as a result, become inconsequential as a territorial defence force (pp. 1-7). Reynaldo Iletto (2003) has argued that Catholic religious instruction has reinforced values conducive to rebellion within Philippine society (p. 9).

These and the numerous other contributions to the varied body of work on Philippine political and security culture have helped what may be defined as the pragmatic project of 'expanding the scope and quality of communication among all concerned with a given problem' (Katzenstein & Sil, 2008, p. 124). But because the communicated message of indeterminacy has remained essentially unchanged, the problem may no longer be a lack of information or even a shortage of operable policy recommendations. Rather, the problem may now be a lack of an account of how 'insecurity' or at least aspects of an unsecured condition in the Philippines had ceased to be regarded as 'intolerable' and instead became 'normal' or even 'definitive' of a unique security environment.

The Philippine case occurs within a broader environment characterised generally as having a historical tendency towards inconclusiveness in security-related decision-making. This tendency has recurred specifically within organisations of Southeast Asian states to which the Philippines has belonged. The dissolution in 1977 of the US-led Southeast Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) – described as an alliance 'whose incompatible views and interests resulted in paralysis' – was recommended in 1975 by officials from the Philippines and Thailand. They also, paradoxically, argued for the retention of the 1954 South-east Asia Collective Defence Treaty, which was the legal basis for the creation of SEATO (Buszynski, 1981, pp. 288, 295). The 1976 non-interference Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia, which is regarded as the core diplomatic principle of the 1967 Association of South-east Asian Nations (ASEAN) and its meetings (Goh, 2003, p. 114), was formed when the ASEAN membership was constituted mainly by 'weak states' (Collins, 2000, p. 31). However, current conditions are very likely to change when great political, economic and military pressure becomes concentrated in Southeast Asia. The United States and China (Buszynski, 2012, p. 148) are the most likely sources, but the increasing prosperity and assertiveness of ASEAN member states may also contribute (Acharya, 2001, p. 141). Hence, the commitment to expand the peaceful 'ASEAN Way', particularly in the form of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) of 2015, may not necessarily bring the intended equitable prosperity and harmony (Chia, 2013, pp. 4-5).

The adoption by the Philippine state of programmes associated with the Security Sector Reform (SSR) agenda of the United Nations shows that a primary value in this context is the retention of operational control over agencies that respond to security related problems. SSR is defined broadly as an official examination of security-related agencies and processes for the improvement, particularly in regard to their compatibility with values associated with democratisation such as transparency and the rule of law (U.N. Secretary-General, 2013, pp. 3-4). The SSR was conceptually unified by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 2004, and by the United Nations in 2007, and was based on examples from Central and West Africa, the Balkans, South America and Post-Soviet European states, where the involvement in criminal activities and other organisational regularities by members of the police and military made good governance problematic (Wulf, 2004, pp. 6-7). In the Philippines, however, the SSR agenda was initially evaluated from 2005 as a measure to prevent members of the police and the military from turning renegade against the government that they perceived was undemocratic, corrupt and unsupportive of their fight against armed insurgents and other criminal groups (Hernandez, 2011, pp. 15, 27-28). Moreover, the portrayal of the Philippine security sector as part of a wider 'retarded' Philippine democracy that has only recently started to reform (Hernandez, 2008, p. 1) was essential to the attempt to placate the Moro secessionist insurgents with the message that the military and police have developmental functions other than war-fighting (Dolorfino, 2010, p. 120; Ferrer, 2010, p. 129; Salvador, 2014). Nonetheless, the persistence of the armed secessionist groups and of doubts about whether SSR contributed to organisational effectiveness other than a boost in morale indicate that the SSR programme has not so much failed as has become irrelevant. This is because the project to democratise the organisational structure of the Philippine security sector cannot be summarily regarded as an unqualified improvement in the ability of these security-related agencies to meet the policy goals to which the newly-democratic nature of the security sector is a non-issue.

Security by Any Means: Agitation, Confrontation, Resignation

Conventionally, the combination of securitisation inconclusiveness and security sector self-censure would allow the Philippine state to be described as either a 'weak state' or a 'small country'. Weakness in this case refers to the persistence of internal security threats attributable to an inadequate infrastructural capacity and to poor social cohesion. Despite being readily associated with the governments of Third World states, the tendency for state officials to equate security with the improvement of economic or military – that is, coercive – capacities when confronted with weakening societal solidarity (that cannot be remedied by the imposition of more centralised coercion) continues to recur globally (Collins, 2000, pp. 32-33). Conversely, smallness in international security relations is most readily defined by the 'penetrated political system' concept of James Rosenau; that is, 'one in which nonmembers of a national society participate directly and authoritatively, through actions taken jointly with the society's members, in either the allocation of its values or the mobilization of support on behalf of its goals' (Rosenau, 2006, p. 183). Assurances of security by the United States, made in conjunction with the US-Philippine Mutual Defence Treaty, and a belief in the stability of the East Asian diplomatic environment have primacy over the development of local security-related capabilities for the assertion of Philippine sovereignty (2011-2016 National Security Policy, pp. 29-30). The Revised

Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) Modernisation Act of 11 December 2012, to which 75 billion Philippine Pesos (US\$ 1.7 bil., approx.) was initially allocated (R.A. No. 10349, 2012), has been promoted as essential to the Philippine government's fight against 'hunger and poverty' (Aquino, 2012). It has, however, divided Philippine public opinion. On the one hand, there is an expectation that the project will be mismanaged in ways similar to other government projects not immediately related to national security (Fonbuena, 2013). On the other hand, there is the belief that the Philippine government should be given credit for any benefit derived from the project, regardless of the managerial complexities (Mangosing, Jan. 2014; Mangosing, Mar. 2014; Depasupil, 2014), if only because these results compel China and Japan in particular to include Philippine issues in their security-related calculi (Esmaquel, 2014, Sabillo & Dizon, 2014).

Alternatively, and in conjunction with the categorisation of weak- and small-state security, the case of the Philippines may be assessed in terms of cases, and their corresponding theoretical frameworks, that indicate an acceptance, and even justification, of 'smallness' as a viable condition under which international relations are conducted. This is because of a fundamental dilemma that a state with avowed limits to its security-related capabilities confronts when responding to, or even defining, security-related problems. On the one hand, the resolution of security-related problems may not necessarily improve the capability of the state to respond to, or survive, future crises. This would appear to make a case for the expansion of security-related capabilities, which co-occurs with a re-definition of the state's priorities, particularly concerning those that alter the condition of the state relative to prevailing opportunities and threats. On the other hand, a state that has prevailed against security-related threats with only incremental and non-systemic changes to its security-related capabilities may not necessarily seek an expansion of these capabilities, particularly if the problems and responses are recurrent, containable, or otherwise manageable. This would appear to make a case for the maintenance, or at least acceptance, of the status quo environment where, notwithstanding relational asymmetries with more powerful states, security-related problems are presumed unlikely to become more severe. The inclination of the Philippine state towards the latter rather than the former in the recent past likely indicates that Philippine government officials will find their security environment unmanageable unless the Philippine security sector is limited to fulfil only a reactive and particularistic damage-control function.

Securitisation and the Limits of Damage Control

The choice to either resolve or contain problems identified as 'security' is a key feature of the securitisation concept of the Copenhagen School. Securitisation refers to the processes associated with the presentation of issues as existential threats by government officials and other influential and authoritative persons and groups to societies for which they are accountable (Buzan & Hansen, 2009, p. 214). The essential rationale of the securitisation concept has two distinct but closely linked aspects. On the one hand, the operational capability of a state to withstand crises determines the stability needed for a state to relate to other states, and for a government to relate to its constituency. On the other hand, the ability or inability to maintain this operational capability can also be a focal point for the inter-relations among states and among influential persons and groups within states. The underlying

reasoning for the distinction of 'security and the process of securitisation from that which is merely political' (Buzan, et al., 1998, p. 4) is that the emergency measures taken to resolve crises and disasters should not disrupt the attempts to manage other issues through negotiation and compromise. In practice, however, conflation rather than disruption occurs; that is, 'at the risk of societal disruption, officials may still resort to emergency powers to fulfil self-serving political ends, and make these largely unilateral actions appear as instances of legitimate securitisation' (Buzan, et al., 1998, pp. 25-26).

Although not directly formulated to account for security-related problems in Asia (Acharya and Buzan, 2010, pp. 13-14), this theory nonetheless finds immediate application in cases in the Philippines where the security agenda had been subverted by political manoeuvring. At the Peace and Security Forum held at the Mandarin Oriental Manila hotel on 22 April 2010, the Senator Benigno S. Aquino III read a speech that condemned the government of Gloria Macapagal Arroyo for having failed to 'implement a comprehensive National Security Policy that focuses on the root causes of war and conflict' (Aquino, 22 Apr. 2010). As Aquino was a candidate for the 10 May 2010 presidential election under the Liberal Party against the Lakas-Christian Muslim Democrats of which Macapagal Arroyo was a member (Sisante, 2009), attempts at gaining political mileage by criticising the incumbent was to be expected. Crucially, Aquino chose to focus on what came to be known as the 'Maguindanao Massacre' as a key failure of national security under the Arroyo government. On 23 November 2009, a convoy of family members and supporters of Esmael Mangudadatu, the vice-mayor of Buluan, Maguindanao, and a group of journalists were ambushed by a force presumably authorised by Andal Ampatuan, Jr., who was Mangudadatu's rival and Macapagal Arroyo's key political ally in Mindanao, resulting in 57 deaths (Perez & Dimacali, 2009).

After his victory at the polls, President Aquino appeared to retain security in Mindanao, and security sector reform in general, as key objectives, specifically through the attempt to draw public attention to the national security related 'item 14' of his campaign platform 'Social Contract with the Filipino People' that he re-defined as the policy framework of his government (Aquino, 25 Jul. 2010). But the Aquino government became increasingly criticised for what seemed to be a bureaucratisation of the Maguindanao Massacre, particularly since a quick and conclusive resolution of the case did not appear to be forthcoming. The judicial processes of the case against eight members of the Ampatuan family is expected to take from eight to twenty years to complete from the time the case was filed in December 2009 (Burgonio, 23 Nov. 2013; Inquirer Archives, 2013); that is, longer than the presidential term of Aquino which ends on June 2016. Furthermore, the Maguindanao Massacre has since been described as the single worst case of election-related violence in the Philippines, perhaps in the world, to date (Lingao, et al., 2013). Much of the public's focus has been on aspects of the Philippine government's inefficiency that the massacre has exposed (Lingao, 2013), on accusations that Aquino may never fulfil his election campaign promises (Tacadena, Moya, and Ranad, 23 Nov. 2013; Bacani, 22 Nov. 2013; Avendaño, 25 Jun. 2013), and even on the culpability of Macapagal-Arroyo, her party and her regime (Salaverria, 3 Feb. 2013; Tiglao, 24 Nov. 2013; Security Matters On-line, 23 Nov. 2011; Romero, 4 Feb. 2013). Public opinion on the issue has likewise been formed around claims that even unprecedented and unpredicted security problems may be resolved if only familiar 'rule of law' processes are perfectly

observed (Philippine Daily Inquirer, 23 Nov. 2013; Cruz, 7 Apr 2011; Bacani, 22 Nov. 2013; Merueñas, 23 Nov. 2013), or that an outstanding security problem becomes moot when the terms for the compensation of survivors and victims are defined and implemented (Burgonio, 22 Nov. 2013; Calonzo and Merueñas, 25 Jun. 2013; Lopez, 22 Nov. 2013).

Insecurity and Smallness: Cope or Compensate?

A problem related to the demarcation of politics and security in politically volatile environments is the emergence of a distinct 'political security' agenda; that is, the imperative to maintain processes and institutions necessary for a state's self-governance (Buzan et. al., 1998, pp. 141-142). As with other 'penetrated' states, the Philippines has sought to portray its 'domestic' political security issues as relevant to the interests of other states, particularly in reference to the operations of armed insurgent groups. Conversely, international endorsement for the 'status quo', even if not explicitly for the improvement of governmental operations, is often portrayed by the recipient government as an endorsement of its legitimacy and, in some cases, permission to intensify attacks against political opponents. Kal Holsti in his examination of 'role theory' as a framework for analysis of foreign policy and international relations argued that governments would give precedence to internally-defined role-conceptions over externally-derived role prescriptions (Holsti, 1970, pp. 243, 245-246). By implication, governments would seek out external relations that would buttress their 'national role conceptions' and would assess the compatibility of various sources of international role prescriptions with their own interests (Holsti, 1970, p. 246). An indication of the inhospitableness of the 'global international system' is the perceived need of 'lesser' countries to organise external relations to be consistent with the expectations of 'larger' partners, specifically, 'powerful' states in rivalry for control of the system, and non-state actors that have attempted to subvert the system altogether (Holsti, 1975, p. 838). And because these adjustments factor into the conflicts between the recipient regime and its opponents (Holsti, 1975, p. 838), the net result is the creation of 'persistent' (Jones, 2002, p. 628) states that are only capable of waging, but not winning, conflicts.

As with securitisation theory, small-state conflict theory finds immediate applicability in Philippine cases that involve military intervention by the United States. After having been suspended in 1995, the 'Balikatan' joint military exercises between the American and Philippine armed forces were resumed in 1999 (GlobalSecurity.org Website, Exercise Balikatan "Shouldering the Load Together"). This was made possible by the Visiting Forces Agreement (VFA) between the Philippines and the United States on 10 February 1998, which exempted vehicles, equipment and other goods for the use of the American military from taxes and other official fees. This unrestricted access by American military forces to the Philippines made the VFA, and its accessorial Mutual Logistics and Support Agreement, resemble a 'virtual basing' system that obviated the need to rehabilitate the actual military bases abandoned by the Americans in 1991 (USA Department of State Website). Crucially, the Balikatan and VFA served as means by which the government of the United States accumulated military resources and influence on behalf of the Philippine government, which, although presumably in aid of the anti-Al Qaeda 'War on Terror' of 2001, were actually used to suppress Philippine communist and Moro-nationalist insurgent movements (Lum, 3 Jan. 2007, pp. 22-23; Sheppard and Neumann, Jun. 2007). US

Secretary of State Colin Powell announced the designation of the Communist Party of the Philippines – New People's Army (CPP-NPA) as a Foreign Terrorist Organisation under US laws on 11 August 2002 (USA State Department Website, Apr. 2003, p. v). On 28 October 2002, a Council Resolution of the EU listed the CPP-NPA as an 'overseas terrorist organisation' (Jacinto, 6. Dec. 2005). The secessionist Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) appeared to have been affected by the prospect of its inclusion in American and European lists of terrorist organisations, and attempted to disassociate itself from the Al Qaeda-linked persons and groups that the Philippine and American governments intended to eradicate (Pablo, 5 Nov. 2002). However, the US Ambassador to the Philippines Francis Ricciardone countered that the MILF could not be conclusively disassociated from Islamic terrorist groups (Bordadora and Pablo, 6 May 2003). And in February 2003, the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) attacked and overran the MILF stronghold in Buliok, South Cotabato, notwithstanding a previous claim made by the Philippine government that it was 'committed to achieving a peace settlement with the MILF' (Marfil, 15 Feb. 2003; Pazzibugan, 13 Feb. 2003).

With the refusal of the governments of the Philippines and China to alter their respective proposals for the negotiated settlement of territorial disputes in the South China Sea (Xinhuanet News, 1 Apr. 2014; BBC News, 31 Mar. 2014, Burgonio, 29 Mar. 2014), US-Philippines security relations shifted away from the previous anti-insurgency to archipelagic territorial defence. The manoeuvres that received the most media coverage during the Balikatan held from 5-16 May 2014 were simulations of amphibious attacks on military targets entrenched in a beach environment (Dizon, 16 May 2014; Lozada, 9 May 2014) despite denials from Philippine and American officials that the exercises were preparations for a confrontation with China (Galang, 10 May 2014; Lozada, 9 May 2014). On 26 June 2014, the US government has announced the phase-out of the Joint Special Operations Task Force Philippines (JSOTF-P), a group of American counter-terrorism specialists deployed in the southern Philippines that had as many as 600 troops, in order to allow for potential increases in its military presence elsewhere in the Philippines, particularly in regard to the territorial dispute between the Philippines and China (Associated Press, 26 Jun. 2014; Whaley and Schmitt, 26 Jun. 2014).

The Burden Only We Can Bear

The threat normalisation theory of Greg Bankoff was formulated in reference to insecurity in the Philippines, and the adequacy of the social and technological mechanisms intended to help cope with these perceived threats. The occurrence or recurrence of particular natural phenomena under specific conditions, and the effects these have had on communities, 'are agents of cultural formation as much as they are physical events' (Bankoff, 2003, p. 3). Insecurity, like natural phenomena defined as disasters, is a social convention. 'What makes a hazard into a disaster depends primarily on the way a society is ordered. Human systems place some people more at risk than others... (and) vulnerable people are at risk not simply because they are exposed to hazards but also because they have been made marginal in some way' (Bankoff, 23 Aug. 2010). The expectation in the Philippines that community-generated self-help networks will emerge in areas most exposed to 'personal misfortune' and 'community danger' co-occurs with the acceptance that the entire Philippine population exists on one of the world's most hazardous landmasses, and

that the need to cope with complex natural and human processes occurs on a daily basis (Bankoff, 2007, pp. 328-330). From historical records made during the Spanish colonial period from the 15th to the late 19th century on the behaviour associated with dangerous natural phenomena, Bankoff identifies three categories of threat-related behaviour that are still observable in the present day. These are (1) the creation and use of infrastructure in ways that emphasise practicality and durability under extreme conditions as primary values, (2) the creation and maintenance of production systems that were designed to minimise loss rather than to maximise output, and (3) the recourse to mass evacuations as a response to crises of different types (Bankoff, Fall 2007, pp. 26-28). The identification, therefore, of the threat-responses and the social constructions concerning hazards upon which these responses are based (Bankoff, Feb. 2004, p. 106) implies that politics and security in the Philippines may be assessed as consolidative behaviour that derives from particular notions of survival and endurance.

Cases of disaster-related evacuation of Philippine nationals, particularly those incidents that entailed the repatriations of Filipinos or entailed international funding or other assistance, provide interesting references for analysis with threat normalisation theory because these appear to be attempts by the Philippine state to provide simple solutions to complex security-related problems. The attempts to evacuate Philippine migrant workers from Libya and Syria in 2011 and 2012 revealed severe problems that Philippine officials likely assumed would be manageable because of the 'non-combatant' status of virtually all Philippine migrant workers. On 22 April 2011, six months after the start of the Libyan civil war in February 2011, despite an order for the mandatory evacuation of Philippine nationals (Beltran, 23 Aug. 2011), officials of the Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA) in the Philippines claimed to have evacuated only half of the estimated 26,000 Filipino workers employed in Libya, excluding 1700 Filipino medical staff evacuated by the Geneva-based International Organisation for Migration (IOM) (Esplanada, 22 Aug. 2011). The remnant were assumed to have opted to stay in Libya or made their own travel arrangements (Sevilla Jr., 9 Feb. 2013). A final attempt by the Philippine government to contribute to their safety was the diplomatic recognition on 25 August 2011 of the insurgent-supported National Transitional Council (NTC) that replaced the government of Muammar Gaddafi, because the NTC assured safe passage for Filipinos who wanted to be repatriated (Carvajal, 25 Aug. 2011). The evacuation of Filipinos from Syria was far more difficult: on 23 August 2011, former Philippine Labour Undersecretary Susan Ople reported that '90 percent of the estimated 17,000 Filipino workers in Syria were domestic workers and only around 800 of them are documented or members of the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration' (Tubeza, 23 Aug. 2011). By 2 June 2014, only 5,361 Filipinos had been repatriated from Syria, notwithstanding travel assistance grants by the IOM in Damascus and the Mandatory Repatriation Programme (MRP) of the DFA (Commission on Filipinos Overseas, 2 June 2014).

Similarities may be observed in cases of evacuations closer to Manila. On 5 March 2013, the Malaysian military began its Ops Daulat (Operation Sovereignty) in areas surrounding Kampung Tanduo in the Lahad Datu district of Sabah in Borneo against an armed group that came from Simunol Island of the Sulu archipelago in the southern Philippines (The Borneo Insider, 5 March 2013). The 'Sabah Standoff', the term by which the conflict had become popularly known, between Malaysian security

forces and the Royal Security Forces of the Sultanate of Sulu and North Borneo has been referred to by military analysts as 'bizarre', 'strange' and 'unusual'. This was not only because the Sulu fighters who claimed to represent the true ruler of North Borneo and Sulu, the Philippine-based Jamalul Kiram III, had no chance of winning, but also because neither the Malaysian nor the Philippine government attempted to use the incident to gain political advantage in their unresolved territorial dispute over North Borneo (Gosh, 8 Mar. 2013; Cheney-Peters, 1 Mar. 2013; Cheney-Peters, 20 Feb. 2013; Mullen, 15 Feb. 2013). A further complication was the discovery by the Rapid Response Teams (RRTs) sent by the Philippine DFA to assist Philippine nationals affected by the conflict that, other than the Philippine refugees in Lahad Datu, there were about 30,000 undocumented workers in the adjacent Tawau who also needed diplomatic assistance (Republic of the Philippines Department of Social Welfare and Development Website, 14 March 2013). By May 2013, the number of Filipinos who fled Sabah exceeded 100,000 (Dugenia, 12 Apr. 2013). Significantly, among the refugees were Suluk and Tausug ethnics who fled the fighting between the Philippine military and Moro secessionists in Southern Philippines in the 1970s only to be resettled in the UNHCR-designated offshore refugee community of Kampung Simunul in Sabah, North Borneo (Chen, 5 Mar. 2013).

Conclusion

The problems in the management of security-related issues described here need not be taken to mean either that the Philippine state is approaching an inevitable collapse or that these or any other security-related problems become immediately resolvable with the application of novel theoretical approaches. Rather, the examination of security-related issues as these developed, the policy responses created relative to these issues, and the conceptual bases of these responses reveals that the notion of security itself, although fundamentally about existential survival, is most clearly understood in terms of the particular persons and systems kept safe through these concepts and practices. This allows for the recognition that security-related systems and the problems these systems are intended to resolve occur within specific conditions. More specifically, it allows for the admission that that security-related problems are just as likely to be directly resolved as redefined to allow other approaches to be considered, made the responsibility of other states or collectives, minimised in terms of its negative effects, or even tolerated with the hope that solutions may yet be devised. The security culture of a society, therefore, appears not only as a result of particular values, habits and histories that are rigid and deterministic but also as a contribution to a much broader international system that is itself a construct influenced by, among other things, the desire of persons to attain forms of existence motivated not only by insecurity and mere survival.

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The Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai and the Transnational Okinawan network

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0293**Abstract**

The Uchinaanchu organizes in Okinawa since 1990, a large meeting called Uchinaanchu Taikai, that takes place every five years and bring together migrants and descendants of various parts of the world, beyond the residents of Okinawa, with the goal of promoting the exchange of experience. A vast program of the event includes a parade reception of delegations representing different countries, properly uniformed and with symbols, songs and dances of their countries of provenance (samba, dancer, hula, necklaces, tango, mariachi, kangaroo, koala, traditional clothing and hats). During the days of V Uchinaanchu Taikai (12 to 16 October 2011) there were Eisa festival (folk dance) and Taiko groups in a sports complex and also many presentations of Odori (classical dance) in Shuri Castle, musicals and theatre presentation. Each administrative unit of Okinawa - classified into Cho (cities) Shi (towns) Son (villages) - organized parallel events to receive their direct descendants. In parallel also met business groups (WUB), scholars engaged to the uchinaaguchi language and representatives of Okinawans Associations. According to a survey conducted by Noiri (2009) the edition of the festival in 2006, 4932 attendees coming from 21 countries, about 20% were from Latin America. Around eight thousand people attended the 2011 edition. Among Uchinaanchu, social ties, relationships, network or tissue have been shown fluids, living intensely dynamic, spanning several countries around the globe with structures designed to articulate the Uchinaanchu community in several areas. I intended analyse ethnographically this important event and their role in the building of a transnational network.

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Introduction

In this paper I will present a report about my participation in the V Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai. The large ethnic event happens each five years since 1990 and was planned to congregate in a big celebration the Okinawan identity. In my field research I could see that the Uchinaanchu groups instrumentalize culture, tradition, history, politics, language as elements to build a shared identity in a transnational imagined community whose history is built on through the supralocal relationships with China, Japan, United States and a global diaspora. The Uchinaanchu network instrumentalize the different mixtures of elements such as history, culture, language, politics, tradition for building themselves in glocal connections. In events like the Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai and mainly in their representations and discussions that the event generates provides a good fountain of ethnographic resources to analyze the Okinawan transnational network being building.

Who are the Uchinaanchu

The Uchinaanchu are a cultural and ethnically distinct group, whose past history of political independence and intense diplomatic relations and trade with China, Korea, Philippines, Thailand, Taiwan and even Japan have made the Ryukyu Kingdom was known as the land of the courtesy. Internally called Uchinaa or a rope in the sea, the archipelago has privileged and strategic geographical position, being considered the door of the Pacific.

Ryukyu became Okinawa

The term Uchinaanchu is the self-designation of people who share membership identity as the people directly descendant of the inhabitants of Uchinaa. Uchinaa or Ryukyu was an independent kingdom until the eighteenth century. It was known as "the land of the courtesy", "the bridge between nations" and "the door of the Pacific" by the position of a trading post between China, Formosa island (now Taiwan), Korea, Indonesia, Japan, Philippines. Of course because the warm receptions and open manners of the Uchinaanchu.

The term "Uchinaa" means rope at sea in Uchinaaguchi (language of Uchinaa) was used to refer to the kingdom among the people Uchinaanchu. The term "Ryukyu" is the name to refer to the kingdom in conversations with no Uchinaanchu. The Uchinaanchu considered themselves men of the sea, or Minchu in Uchinaaguchi. They were skilled navigators and dominated the round-trip routes using ocean currents and practiced trade with so many people in the Far East Asia. Uchinaa is an archipelago south of Japan had been an independent kingdom, whose earliest notices appears in Chinese documents from VI century, even before the unification of three former domains (previously know as Sanzan Jedai, formed by Hokuzan in the north, Nanzan in the south and Chuuzan in the central area, unified in 1429) until 1872, when it was annexed to the Japanese state. The ancient kingdom was renamed in 1879 as Okinawaken (province or ken Okinawa). Although independent, Ryukyu keeps a long and friendship ties with Ming dynasty from China, in a tributary state system, even before the unifications of three domains. The crowning ceremony named Sapo were carried out every time change the Ryukyu king in Shuri castle. Was so special occasions when the classical dance Odori performed together the classical music

formation Kooten (composed by the following music instruments: tree sanshin players, fue, koto and taiko) and classical theater Kumi Udui where performed for the Chinese entourage.

Since 1609 the feudal Satsuma clan, from Kagoshima, south Kyushu Island, part to feudal system of Edo (actual Tokyo), invaded Ryukyu. Even so the Satsuma clan hide from Chinese Ming Dynasty their invasion and domain above Ryukyu, keeping outside the Ryukyu Island while the Sapo periods occurs, when Chinese entourage stay in Ryukyu capital, Shuri castle. Satsuma explore economically the Ryukyu kingdom beyond use the good relationship between Ryukyu and a lot of other countries to make trade throughout the Uchinaanchu ships and traders. In each ship Satsuma keep one of your men. Also charged taxes from farmers and traders. This way Ryukyu was put in a so difficult economy situation long years. That time Japan was a closed country, and Satsuma reported Ryukyu kingdom as your vassals.

The archipelago that formed the kingdom Uchinaa or Ryukyu was administratively dominated by Japan in 1872 at the rise of the Meiji

Restoration, which unified and formed the actual Japanese state and initiated in 1868. In 1879 was renamed Okinawa Ken after the Shuri monarchy (Sho Dynasty) be abolished by the government Meiji and withdrew into exile in Tokyo. On March 27, 1879, came the fall of King Sho Tai and its withdrawal from the palace of Shuri. Kojima (2007) mentions a term coined to the historical episode of annexation when the kingdom was attached to the Japanese State in 1879 the then Ryukyu archipelago or Uchina - name of the kingdom among Uchinanchu - watched his court be withdrawn into exile being forced to live in Tokyo.

Ryukyu Shobun is the term used to point to the historical event of the Ryukyu Kingdom being forcefully annexed into the Meiji Government of Japan as one of its prefectures. [...] An undeniable case of victimization, starting from the year 1872; this was the point at which political actions were initiated by the Meiji Government to include Ryukyu as part of the new Imperial Japan.” (Kojima, 2007: 161)

Since then the population was dominated cultural, linguistic and administrative for Japan's responsibility. Even the true history of ancient way of life of the Ryukyu kingdom is now banished from the school curriculum. The language suffered a strong and effective attack by school system defined from Japan government. The children who spoke Uchinaaguchi in schools were punished with the “Hogen Fuda” (a wood plaque to show who speak in uchinaaguchi, and the children was obliged to denounce another children who spoke uchinaaguchi to give to the next children the Hogen Fuda) or even physics punishment. In Okinawa nowadays have some movement to rescue the Uchinaaguchi language, which is more frequent in countries like Brazil and Bolivia than in Okinawa.

Kingdom Uchina had an independent and prosperous life, in intense diplomatic and trade activities with a lot of countries, playing a role of commercial warehouse sailing across the Pacific Ocean. Bears historical records of its existence since the sixth century, in Chinese documents, with which keeps a court and educational relationship. Even so actually this rich and interesting past history is almost unknown for the majority of Okinawa born persons. Uchinaa was also known as "the land of courtesy" and occupies a privileged geographical position, fact that makes it known as "the door

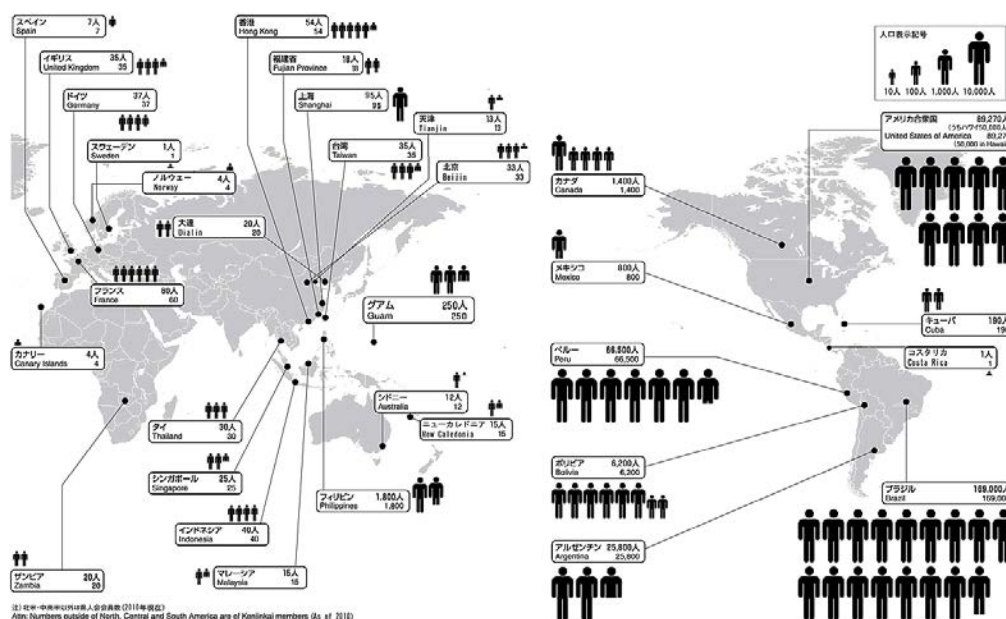
of the Pacific Ocean." The inscription Bankoku Shinryou write in a bell, cast and hang in the Shuri castle, means bridge between nations. It is reflect of the spirit of an age when the kingdom of Ryukyu flourished as the crossroad of Asian trade. Currently more than a third of the population lives outside the archipelago. Somewhat of these meanings and feelings still permeating the strong ties between Uchinaanchu now living in so many countries around the world.

Diaspora process

The process of diaspora began in 1899, initially to Hawaii twenty years after the annexation to Japan under the name of Okinawa ken (province) occurred in 1879. In Kasato Maru ship that docked in Santos (São Paulo, Brazil) in June 1908 about 40% were Okinawans. Now Brazil has the biggest Uchinaanchu and even Nikkey community overseas. That time the Uchinaanchu spoke a distinct language called Uchinaaguchi that the Japanese did not understand. Today is more usual hear the language outside Okinawa, in places to which they emigrated like Bolivia, Peru, Argentina, Brazil, Hawaii. This occurs due to an intense and violent process that forbidden the Uchinaaguchi been used by the Okinawans in schools, by means the use of "Hogen Fuda", a wood plaque that indicated who speak Uchinaaguchi in humiliation.

The 26 men Uchinaanchu from 21 to 35 years old emigrants who left Okinawa in December 1899 has established its early community in Hawaii in January 1900. Until this first emigrant movement of the Uchinaanchu to Hawaii were not know nobody who go out from Ryukyu. Scott Matsumoto explains in your article "Okinawa migrants to Hawaii" (1982) that Kyuzo Toyama (1868-1910) is called father of Okinawan overseas Emigration. He was a schoolteacher in Kin city, Okinawa, learned about the migration from Japan to Hawaii while studying in Tokyo 1896-1898. In 1885, the government of Japan and Hawaii had agreed to the export of Japanese labourers to sugar plantations on the basis of a three-year contract. However the Uchinaanchu took part of this migrant movement only fifteen years later, in 1900. Differently the very first immigration from Brazil brings together in the same ship Kasato Maru about 42% percent of Okinawans among Japanese from other island in 1908. Actually the largest Okinawan community outside Okinawa lives in Brazil, and the in second position by number is the Hawaiian Okinawan community. "The second labour group from Okinawa was composed of 40 young farmers accompanied by Toyama; they arrived in Honolulu on April 6, 1903. The records indicate that in 1904, 206 Okinawa men migrated to Hawaii; in 1905, 1,200 men; 1906, 4,500; and in 1907, 2,500. Thus, during this period the Okinawa immigrants totalled approximately 8,500, constituting about one-fifth of the total Japanese immigrants of 44,000." (Matsumoto, 1982) Otherwise the author asserts that is not easy find precisely the separate population of Okinawans as they are put together the Japanese populations in Hawaii official data. Even so the Okinawans in Hawaii identify themselves as Uchinaanchu in contrast with Naichi, or Japanese from the other four main Japan islands. "The Japanese community in Hawaii, however, distinguished between the Okinawans and the Naichi (Mainland) Japanese from the four main islands of Japan proper. The Okinawans themselves used the term Uchinaanchu to identify themselves as a distinct ethnic group apart from the Naichi Japanese. Sociologist George Yamamoto (1957) writes: 'It can be suggested that the two subgroups among the Japanese in Hawaii

may be regarded as two distinct ethnic groups rather than mere economic or prestige subdivisions of the same ethnic group’. “ (Matsumoto, 1982)



The world's Okinawan distribution

Transnational network building

Having dedicated myself to researching other topics of Japanese diaspora previously (Nitahara Souza, 2004 and 2009), I could see the existence of a fluid and dynamic transnational Uchinaichu network to distinguish this community from other Nikkei (Japanese descent outside of Japan). For the master's dissertation I researched ethnographically the Nikkei community of Brazil (the Japanese Isei and yours descent outside of Japan) focusing on the identity contrasts existing between "Nihonjin" and "Uchinaichu". I conducted fieldwork in São Paulo and Brasília. In Brasília the Okinawakenjinkai is located in a village called Vargem Bonita. Brasília is a new and planned city (1960), while the building of the city the government intended to implant an agricultural production to feed the workers in such city constructions. Italians and Germans were invited and the government give them land. But they abandoned the land due to be a poor soil that is enough corrections. Brasília is located in the Cerrado area, a similar biome to African Savannah. (In Brazil there are five different Biome – Amazon forest, Atlantic forest, Caatinga, Pampas and Cerrado). Then the Brazilian famous president JK (Juscelino Kubitschek) invited 10 families directly from Okinawa saying “only Japanese will be capable to produce here!” I followed the activities of the Brasília Okinawakenjinkai like Okinawa Festival, mother’s day party, Shinenkai (new year party), Brazilian traditional parties like Feijoada and Festa Junina (realized in June), Taiko training and presentation (they are affiliated to RKMD – Ryukyu Koku Matsuri Daiko), a lot of kinds of classes like Odori, Nihongo, Karate from 2007 to 2012

I realized that besides the characteristic of differentiated ethos and identity, the Uchinaichu claims to be more warm and welcoming than the Japanese regarded as cold by the Uchinaichu, the sociality and also the trajectories of boths groups Nihonjin and Uchinaichu proved glaringly contrasting. On the one hand the Nikkei,

even if they were born in Japan, when they return as a Dekassegui, they are discriminated against by the Japanese, then making an identity negotiation occurs. In this sense the migratory experience makes the Dekassegui be considered as Japanese in Brazil and Brazilians in Japan. Among the Uchinaanchu, on the other hand, I realized that the bonds of sociality formed a tissue linking several countries.

This Uchinaanchu is a community that is building a diasporic ethnic identity transnational around Uchinanchu spirit through intense flows and joints such as Uchinaanchu Taikai. I realized that the structures around which articulates and mobilizes this network, as the WUB (Worldwide Business Uchinaanchu), the Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai (World Meeting of Uchinaanchu), which also has a younger version (Wakamono Uchinaanchu Taikai - Global Meeting of Young Okinawans, Niseta tour, Junior Studies and WYUA - World Youth Uchinaanchu Association) groups of cultural presentations Odori (dance) and taiko (drums) were consciously planned and executed.

The Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai

The Uchinaanchu organizes in Okinawa since 1990, a large meeting called Uchinaanchu Taikai, that takes place every five years and bring together migrants and descendants of various parts of the world, beyond the residents of Okinawa, with the goal of promoting the exchange of experience. Was first time idealized and effectuated by the former Governor Nishimine Junjie. A vast program of the event includes a parade reception of delegations representing different countries, properly uniformed and with symbols, songs and dances of their countries of provenance (carnival and samba dancers from Brazil, hula and flower necklaces from Hawaii, statue of liberty hat from New York, T-shirt with Golden Gate from San Francisco, tango from Argentina, mariachi hat from Mexico, kangaroo, koala, traditional clothing and hats from Australia, and so on). During the days of V Uchinaanchu Taikai (October 12 to 16, 2011) there were Eisa festival (folk dance), Taiko groups and sport competitions (Yakyu or baseball, soccer) in a sports complex and also many presentations of Odori and Kotoen (classical dance and music formation – 3 persons playing Sanshin, Koto, Fue, Kokyu an arc instrument like violin, and taiko) in Shuri Castle, musicals and theatre presentation. Each administrative unit of Okinawa - classified into Cho (cities) Shi (towns) Son (villages) - organized parallel events to receive their direct descendants.



Hawaiian Hula in kokusai Dori, Naha



Samba dancers “passistas” in the parade of Brazilian delegation



Opening Ceremony of V Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai, 2011



Opening Ceremony of V Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai, Naha, 2011

In parallel also met business groups (WUB), scholars engaged to the uchinaaguchi language and representatives of Okinawans Associations, presidents many times spoken in Uchinaaguchi. At that time I could follow presidents of associations and youth who participate in local associations promoting to think proposing ways to strengthen Uchinanchu network. I followed the discussions and presentation, often emotional, of the representatives of Seinenkai (youth wing among the subdivisions of the Nipponese associations) belonging of Uchinaanchu Associations coming from several countries such as England, Japan, Bolivia, Peru, Canada, Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, Thailand, Hawaii, Guam. In this meeting, they decided to form the young Association called WYUA – Worldwide Young Uchinaanchu Association. Since then they have meet in São Paulo, Brazil (2012), Los Angeles United (2013) and the next will be in Dusseldorf, Germany (2014).

According to a survey conducted by Noiri (2009) the edition of the festival in 2006, 4932 attendees coming from 21 countries, about 20% were from Latin America. Around eight thousand people attended the 2011 edition.

Among Uchinaanchu, social ties, relationships, network or tissue have been shown fluids, living intensely dynamic, spanning several countries around the globe with structures designed to articulate the Uchinaanchu community in several areas. I intended analyse ethnographically this important event and their role in the building of a transnational network.

The Uchinaanchu Taikai is a bit controversial event. Some people consider too touristic and economically motivated event. When I went to the Kencho (administrative organ for Ken, province) asking about Uchinaanchu Taikai the first thing the staff talked was: “The Uchinaanchu Taikai makes 2.1 billion of Yen incoming for Okinawa”. They criticized the fact that the person who lives in Okinawa properly doesn’t have free access to the event. Is enough porting badge to take part in the event. This badge give the right to take any bus, then is not too easy do get. This way the Okinawans residents think that is an event exclusive for the foreigners. Some persons from Argentina also criticized the fact the organizers ask them to translate from Japanese to Spanish without an equal payment that the persons who translate from Japanese to English received, due to that persons be Okinawan descendants while the English speakers are not. Even the language used in all presentations receive criticises because is only Japanese, English and Spanish, never Uchinaaguchi, the language of Ryukyu is almost disappearing in Okinawa.

On the other hand some people prised the Uchinaanchu Taikai due to saw the pride to be Okinawan raised when the persons who lives in Okinawa saw and feel the Okinawans descendants who lives around the world shows the true passion for the Okinawan culture, language and roots heritage. In Uchinanchu Taikai there are a clear identification as Uchinanchu first, and only after the reference to the nation-state in which they reside, even parading in delegations and bringing references to the traditions of the place of residence. The Uchinaanchu Taikai shows a so vivid and intense flux of people, information and friendship that crosses oceans and continents through so many countries. Such network are being building due to an intense, planned, oriented, intentional and directional effort in connect an fluid fabric of relationships and friendships by means what they called “The Uchinaanchu Spirit”. They loosely define it as the friendship that crosses generations, solidarity, the feeling of unity

between Shimanchu (countrymen) showing fellowship as in expression like as Ichariba Choode (when we meet we are brothers). The spirit Uchinanchu is experienced intensely by Uchinanchu and is considered a strength, a plus that acts to aggregate the feeling and mutual recognition of ethnic belonging and identity. Sometimes is conceived as mutual help, taking care and true love among human beings.

Conclusions

We could see clearly that by maintaining web pages with the goals of communication, the Uchinaanchu community offers smart tools to keeping preserving the culture and arts. When disseminate and share the researches and books that aim to deepen discussions about its history, memory, identity, artistic practices and language use, the network of Uchinanchu builds their transnational articulation by means glocal connections. Transnationality here understood as a condition, as is highlighted by Ribeiro (1997)

...your own particularity lies in the fact transnationality point to a central issue: the relationship between regions and different socio- cultural and political arrangements that guide the ways people represent belonging to socio-cultural, political and economic units. This is what I call modes of representing belonging to socio-cultural and politico-economic units. These modes are central to the definition of alliances in multiple contexts of cooperation and conflict. Are precisely the ways in which we integrate these symbolic umbrellas that are rapidly changing with globalization. Transnationalism endangers the logic and effectiveness of pre-existing modes of representing socio- cultural and political belonging "(Ribeiro, 1997: 2-3).

The Uchinaanchu is dispersed in countries like United States, Peru, Brazil, Argentina, China, Philippines, Colombia and Cuba. The Uchinaanchu community is structured similarly to what Sahlins (1997) envisioned for the communities of Samoa, Tuvaluan, Cook Islands and Tonga. The Uchinaanchu community framework is currently scattered across the globe in what Sahlins called multisite community. These communities just expanded their horizons of sociability and cultural possibilities by means connections between so many communities in different countries. The representation of the belonging to Uchinanchu community showed in the field research seems be like as a pillar to form the cultural identity and intense sociability of the Uchinanchu community.

The recognition and overvalue of the origin of Uchinaanchu identity and heritage is the greatest incentive to stimulate the transnational structures operating to establish connections between groups Uchinaanchu scattered across several countries. The construction of this network is shown worried about preserving and transmitting the values dear to Okinawan culture, its way of living and being in the world, reflecting and acting consciously upon the continuation, spread to new generations and strengthening the Uchinaanchu spirit. As the Maori concept of hau (Mauss, 1925) the Uchinaanchu spirit is the ties in the community, the land of the island of Okinawa. It is the force that gives fluidity to the dynamics of ties, to the movement of objects, information and people, is the force that enables the construction of networks forming a social fabric that dynamically aggregates and articulates the Uchinaanchu community.

The dynamics of exchange, production and flow of knowledge, the movement of people are key players in building this Uchinanchu spirit. Mobilizations and reactions of the population demonstrate a way of thinking and being in the world permeated by the joints and values of the Uchinanchu spirit. This symbolism is experienced intensely by Uchinanchu and is considered a strength, a plus that acts to add the feeling of belonging and mutual recognition of identity. It can be said that the so-called Uchinaanchu spirit established a multilocalized and dispersed community. The Uchinaanchu have a lively network of relationships and intense communication, as Sahllins (1997) claims to Samoa and Tonga. These worldwide Uchinaanchu network are acting consciously in order to rescue the historical memory and identity. So invest in reproduction of cultural identity as well as the rescue linguistic and artistic global community Uchinaanchu. The ethnic fervour around the vaunted spirit Uchinaanchu led them to build a solid and interconnected network of contacts between the Uchinaanchu global communities. They keep the website and blog of the Ukuanshin Kabudan Ryukyu perform arts group, as well as pages on social networking websites to facilitate communication among the transnational community Uchinaanchu, one third of which is living overseas.

The Okinawan network constitutes around so-called Uchinaanchu spirit. Which they loosely define as the friendship that crosses generations, solidarity, the feeling of unity among Shimanchu (countrymen) by demonstrating fellowship as the expression Ichariba Choode (as we find we are brothers). The Uchinaanchu spirit is experienced intensely by Uchinaanchu and is considered the strength, a plus that acts to aggregate the feeling and recognition of ethnic belonging and identity. It is about a diasporic community that is building the transnational ethnic identity around Uchinaanchu spirit through intense flows and joints. This beauty community strives to keep the deep roots and ancient history, language and own identity in a whole complex spread in transnational manners even so struggling against so strong nations and powerful colonization and ideological domination. In an interview with Hiroyuki Kinjo, Teacher at Ryukyu University, I hear the Uchinaanchu from outside are now teaching the Okinawans living in Okinawa the true passion and how to be proud for being Uchinaanchu. This way, the realization of the big event Sekai no Uchinaanchu Taikai show us the materialization of the efforts to building a transnational network.

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Construction of Pioneering Patent Drafting Quality Criteria

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Abstract

The patent, an important intangible asset, demonstrates the innovative ideas and abilities to obtain legal protections. At the same time, it is also an important indicator to measure the abilities of technological innovation. However, the quality and value of patents need to be approved for market certification. For patent holders, it is a kind of gambling to guarantee that the quality of patents could bring values, which affects indirectly the performance of research and development of companies.

This research is focus on constructing a set of pioneering patent drafting quality indicators and setting criteria, by selecting quantitative samples from USPTO and using statistical analysis (linear regression, etc.) to find out the indicators which could effectively reflect patent drafting quality, then using famous enterprises' and well known research departments' patent information to empirical analyzing them, afterward, deducing the suggested criteria for the applicant to check at the early stage of the patent application to forecast patent quality.

Research finding shows that we could use three indicators and one aid, and also set the criteria, they are: 23 claims, 15 citing prior patents, 4 applying country, and 4 independent claims for aid. By means of T-test, the results show these criteria may be applied in the actual situation. Expecting the result could help institutions and enterprises promote their patent quality and applicant more efficiency.

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Introduction

Traditionally definition of market in the capitalism is based on trading and conveying tangible resources and goods, but due to the progress of science and technology drives the era of knowledge economy, the main flow of the market value turn into maintaining intangible assets such as technology, knowledge and patent. Enterprises focus on research and development and innovate, the purpose is to obtain valuable intangible assets in order to pursue long-term competitive advantage, further more to obtain the biggest economic returns. Intangible assets particularly dependent on innovative ideas and concepts, this directly affect whether enterprises can compete in the rapidly changing environment and strain, adjust or seize new opportunities, patent is an important intangible assets to legally protect company's innovative ideas and technology ability. Intellectual property rights not only be concerned by industrial and academic institute but also governmental administration. In the high-tech industry, patent has be regarded as the key of enterprise competitiveness (Grindley & Teece, 1997). According to the global patent applications report which made by WIPO in 2008 found that the patent applications worldwide shows a growth trend in recent 20 years, in 1985, the number of patent application worldwide only has 884,400 but it has grown to about 1,760,000 in 2006, especially after 1995, the average year growth rate is as high as 5.3%. (WIPO, 2008)

Though Taiwan has an extraordinary performance on patent application and granted, but doesn't on patent litigation lawsuit to get royalty. Therefore, all walks of life are gradually attach great importance to the quality of patent, also begin to consider that patent activities should be qualitative rather than quantitative in order to carry out the business value comes from the intellectual property rights and innovation achievements and promote industrial competitiveness. Under the trend of the protection of international trade, the competition of enterprises in the market has been transformed into a legitimate weapon in excluding competitors with the assistance of intellectual property as a lawsuit - making international competition as a normal behaviour. In 2011, Central Bank in Taiwan has spent approximately 5.8 billion USD (about NT \$ 171 billion) on overseas intellectual property, up 18% than that of 2010. However, the income from overseas intellectual property is approximately USD\$ 750 million (NT \$ 22.1 billion NT). This fact reflects that the level of royalties on intellectual property out of business revenues has been promoted gradually (refer to Fig 1).

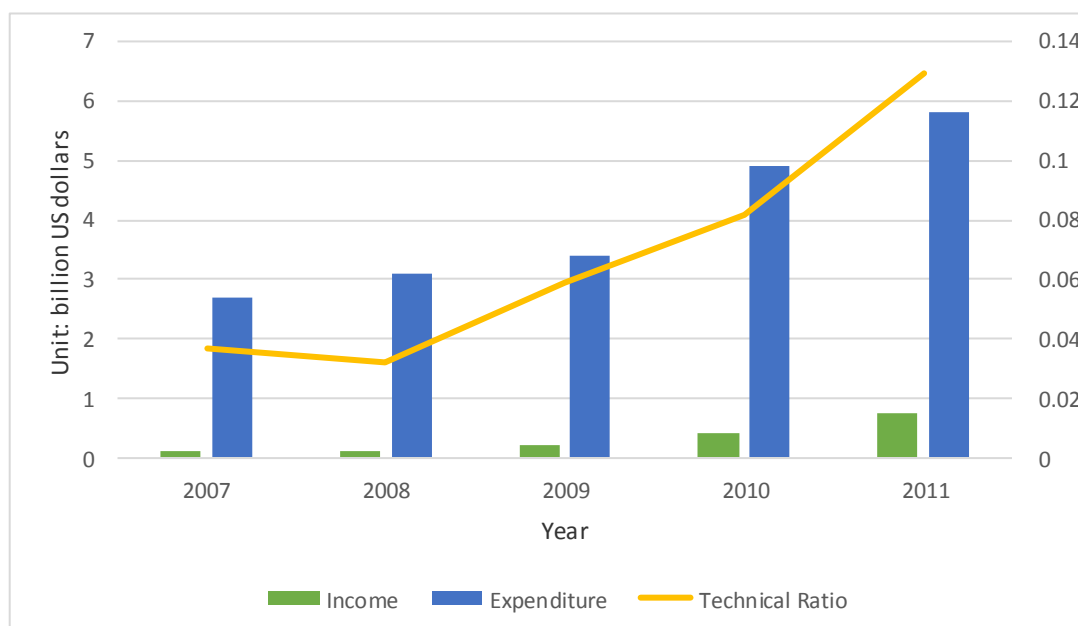


Fig 1: Income and expenditure of Taiwan enterprises' royalties
 Source: Science & Technology Policy Research and Information Center, STPI

Common ways nowadays to evaluate patent quality are using patent citation information as the main basis, combining some other bibliographic data, depending on the research or organization using manner to set different weight and do mathematical calculation. By reason of patent citation information must take a period of time after getting granted in order to generate, so how to having a set of mechanism or standard before patent getting granted or in the process of the drafting to judge its quality in order to let assignees efficiently making effective plan or setting resources will becomes an important issue. Namely, getting information to evaluate the patent quality before application or within the review session is a key to promote patent quality. This research intent to discuss this issue, by sorting the existing patent indicators, using statistic method to construct and verify the pioneering patent drafting quality criteria.

Above all, this study discussed two issues as described below:

1. By reference to sum up various existing indicators, this study constructs drafting indicators for applications of patent in early days, and extracts information of patents issued by famous domestic and international research institutions for validation.
2. Furthermore, criterion value will be set by means of various analysis and test, in order to let patent applicant refer.

Literature Review

This study lays emphasis on the factors of investment in implementations of innovative activities and the performance of the patent outputs. From the perspectives of definitions and the R&D process, this study found that research and innovative activities are good ways in promoting enterprise values. Therefore, using patents as the output variable of R&D and innovation activities, it is necessary to conduct better management and comprehensive strategic planning. The quality of patents is the

hottest topic for discussion in recent years. Yen-Pong Jou (2010) pointed out that patent quality is a prerequisite of patent values, and that patent value is the practice of the patent quality. How to track or even guarantee that these patents are equipped with a certain degree of quality before being certified and bring values for enterprises? Thus, this study adopts the analysis of patent indicators and expected to construct a set of methods in order to manage patent quality.

Input of R&D and Output of Patents

R&D can be divided into "input" and "output." Input refers to the invested funds, manpower, equipment and other resources for R&D and output refers to outcomes of R&D, such as products, technologies, patents, and the like. With the advances in information technology and the improvement in the level of industrialization, the investment of enterprises in R&D activities has been gradually increased. The ultimate goal of increasing R&D investment is to develop new products, improve products, improve processes and reduce production costs in order to enhance enterprise competitiveness in the market.

Compared with other indicators, the saying that economists believe that patents can better measure innovation output is well upraised. However, not all innovations can apply for patents or pass verification and certifications. Different quality of patent will also result in its distinctive and dramatic economic returns. However, because patent is equipped with the feature that its descriptive documents should be put into public, it becomes very easy the public to acquire information of patents with the rapid development and construction of electronic database; all of these developments are closely related to R&D and innovative activities. Furthermore, its standardization, objectiveness and frequent updates of regulations have made patenting system a reliable indicator for measuring innovative activities, as well as an alternative way in measuring the contribution of the innovative activities to productivity of enterprises (Griliches, 1990; Acs, Anselin and Varga).

Kondo (1999) studied the relationship between R&D expenditure and patent output and pointed out that R&D investment plays a significant role in patent output. However, Kondo's study missed the explicit explanation about the fact that: whether the content of the patent output is an exact quantity or the factors of patent quality included. Gayle (2001) considered that the patent includes many unimportant innovations that cannot reveal the authentic level of innovation. Therefore, instead of observing the quantity of the patents, observation of patent quality is an improvement in the aspect of measurement of innovation output. Later, Bloom and Reenen (2002) have conducted research on 200 major industrial manufacturers in UK and found the owing of the patents which are cited widely can effectively improve the enterprise value.

In other words, only the patents with relatively higher quality could generate values for enterprises. In any case and any stage, the investment on R&D and patent rights of enterprises will affect the values of enterprises; it is the "indirect effects" of the investment on R&D and patent rights of enterprises towards the profits of enterprises. In addition, there are "direct effects" of the investment on R&D and patent rights of enterprises on the value of enterprises, which equals to the benefits of R&D and patent rights and has not been reflected on the profitability. However, it is obvious

that these benefits will hereafter have direct impact on the expectation of the market towards the value of enterprises (Sougiannis, 1994).

As the valuable achievements of the R&D and innovation activities, the patents' output has significantly reduced the uncertainty percentage of R&D and innovative activities. Patents mark that the innovation activities are put into practice from the stage of R&D. In other words, patent is a variable generated by the R&D and innovation activities. The increase of the value of enterprises and the improvement of performance are the real output of innovation in terms of economy. Xin Xu and Qing-Guan Tang (2010) pointed out that investment in research and innovation can enhance enterprise value and operating performance and also bring profits and benefits for enterprises. The patenting system, as a motive mechanism, not only guarantees that the contribution of the pioneer R&D and innovation can be awarded, but also receives sufficient investment for its subsequent R&D and innovation (Scotchmer, Suzanne, 1991).

Cuddington and Moss (2001) pointed out that while measuring of the input of R&D and innovation and output of performance, enterprises normally adopt R&D expenses (investment funds) as well as the number of scientists and engineers engaged in research (manpower involved) as input indicators; patent as the similar indicator for the output of innovation. However, as the output indicator of innovation, patent has its natural limitations; that is because the tendency towards different industries, different area and different stages are all different (Griliches, 1990). For different industries and enterprises, whether to adopt the strategies of patents or business secrets in order to protect innovation achievements, the enterprises will need to take into account which one could effectively prevent competitors from imitation and which one could generate higher level of benefits. In next section, this study will sort them out from the outline of regulations to the valuable topics for discussion based on the features of patents.

Ernst (2003) also considered that the patent is one of the most important tools for modern business management and that is also the physical interface between technologies and the laws. Therefore, the quantity of patents possessed by one company is an important indicator for the technological strengths of the enterprise. At the same time, in some ways, patents are always connected with a certain degree of monopoly marketing powers. At present, many high-tech enterprises, both at home and abroad, possess a large quantity of patents. However, is the large quantity enough? For successful enterprises, they have good patent management systems, appropriate R&D and Planning to maximize their profits and returns. Rivette and Kline (2000) pointed out that with the assistance of licensing, cooperation, strategic alliance, litigation and cross-licensing, even using patents as defense, enterprises are able to generate considerable returns. By then, another problem arises, what types of patent could make the above-mentioned statement possible? In next section, we will discuss on the issue of the quality and values of the patents.

Values and Quality of Patents

Patent Analysis is a systematic method to arrange patent information. Through searching and researching patent information, people can make statistics, analysis and comparison among the items involved in patent documentations and the content of technique of different cases. Under the assistance of the expertise' knowledge, subject

analytic is conducted and is expected to be used widely in the fields of nations, technology, industrial departments and companies (Xie Minghua, 1996, Pavitt, 1988). Hall and Hausman noted that patent analysis is not only an effective tool for planning of technologies and R&D and the management for intellectual properties, but also can be used as the judgmental basis for analysis of the technological competition, the analysis of technological tendency and scope (1986) . At the same time, patents are capable of protecting the achievements of R&D. Whether to adopt patents or business secretes to protect innovation achievements, enterprises will have to consider which one could effectively prevent competitors from imitation and which one could generate higher level of benefits (Anthony and Isabelle, 1998). Neverthelss, most of the research institutes and enterprises tend to publish their research achievements in the form of patents.

Patents provide abundant information of technological innovations. With the help of the information disclosed by patents, we can get access to the technical information of competitors. Therefore, the appropriate utilization of patent information could effectively shorten the expenses and time of R&D and help enterprises effectively manage the allocation of the resources for R&D (Narin, 1995; Ernst, 1998). Therefore, patent analysis aims at the source of competitive technological information. Patent analysis is one of the analytic methods frequently adopted by enterprises for their strategies manipulation and competition analysis; patenting is also an intelligence analysis method for enterprises to acquire the competitive advantages over competitors.

Research design and implementation

This study will consider plenty of literatures and current empirical patent indicators, and then use patents which filed by worldwide well-known research institutions and enterprises that have outstanding performance on patent granted to do the verification. Selected research institutions refer to table 1, enterprises refer to table 2.

Table 1: Selected research institutions

Foreign research institutions		
Nation	Initials	Full name
Japan	AIST	Advanced Industrial Science Technology
Australia	CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific Industrial Research Organisation
German	Fraunhofer	Fraunhofer
Canada	NRC	National Research Council
United State	SRI	Stanford Research Institute
Netherland	TNO	Nederlandse Organisatie voor Toegepast Natuurwetenschappelijk Onderzoek
South Korea	ETRI	Electronics Telecommunications Research Institute
Domestic research institutions		
Nation	Initials	Full name
Taiwan	ITRI	Industrial Technology Research Institute

Taiwan	III	Institute Information Industry
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Table 2: Selected enterprises

Rank	Granted	Assignee Name	Nation
1	6478	International Business Machines	United State
2	5081	Samsung Electronics Co Ltd KR	South Korea
3	3174	Canon K K JP	Japan
4	3032	Sony Corp JP	Japan
5	2769	Panasonic Corp JP	Japan
6	2613	Microsoft Corp	United State
7	2447	Toshiba Corp JP	Japan
8	2013	Hon Hai Precision Industry Co Ltd TW	Taiwan
9	1652	General Electric Co	United State
10	1624	LG Electronics Inc KR	South Korea
48	650	Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Co TW	Taiwan

Source: IFI CLAIMS® 2012 Top US Patent Assignee

This research will collect and arrange literatures to conclude the patent indicators which can be used to apply for early evaluation of patent quality, then using multiple regression analysis to verify whether these indicators are representative or not. Also by means of analysing actual patent information objectively to discuss whether these indicators can accurately reflect patent drafting quality. Based on above mentioned process, this research will conclude which indicators could actually represent patent drafting quality. Furthermore, patents, as an important output of enterprises' R&D activities, in order to measure the performance in reality that enterprises' R&D output patent, this research is going to use data envelopment analysis method (DEA) to measure domestic enterprises' R&D performance, in order to understand domestic enterprises not only generally attaches great importance to R&D but also patent quality at the same time.

Sample data

A patent takes about five years from publishing to be cited, of which about 70% of the patent document is not cited or referenced only once or twice. Furthermore, be cited six times, or a higher number of patent only accounts for about 10% (Narin & Olivastro, 1998). Hence, this research is going to search all the granted patents in 2001 to 2004 and sort by the number of cited in different UPC (United States Patent Classification) code, then pick out top 10% as high quality patents. Therefore, according to the reason that for the most part of Taiwan's industries are located in IPC code (International Patent Classification) G and H category, so this research will narrow into these two classes in order to adjoin real industrial situation in Taiwan.

Research Contents

This research will collect and arrange literatures to conclude the patent indicators which can be used to apply for early evaluation of patent quality, then using multiple regression analysis to verify whether these indicators are representative or not. Also by means of analyzing actual patent information objectively to discuss whether these indicators can accurately reflect patent drafting quality. Based on above mentioned

process, this research will conclude which indicators could actually represent patent drafting quality and set criteria.

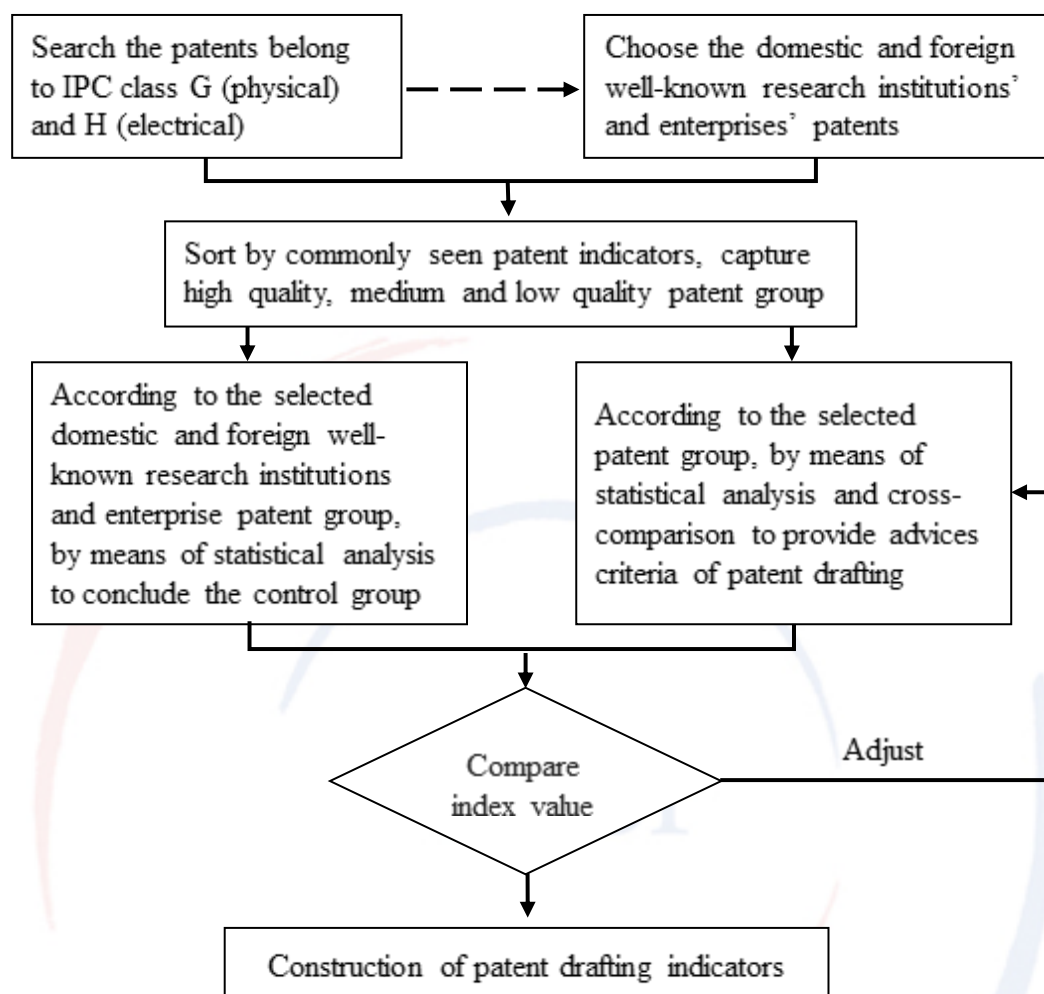


Fig 2: Research structure

A patent takes about five years from publishing to be cited, of which about 70% of the patent document is not cited or referenced only once or twice. Furthermore, be cited six times, or a higher number of patent only accounts for about 10% (Narin and Olivastro, 1998). Hence, this research is going to search all the granted patents in 2001 to 2004 and sort by the number of cited in different UPC (United States Patent Classification) code, then pick out top 10% as high quality patents, 45% to 55% as normal quality patents and the lowest 10% as low quality patents. Therefore, according to the reason that for the most part of Taiwan's industries are located in IPC code (International Patent Classification) class G and class H, so this research will narrow into these two classes in order to adjoin real industrial situation in Taiwan.

To construct and verify the patent drafting indicators in the early stage of patent applying, we arrange plenty of literatures and figure out current empirical patent indicators then conclude the patent drafting indicators which include the number of claim, the number of independent, the number of citing patent and the number of filing country, as well as the dependent will be TileRate which represent patent quality. The following table shows detailed definition of the indicators above.

Table 3: The operational definition of variables

Patent drafting indicators	
Variable	Definition
Claim Count	The number of claim when applying patent
Independent Claim Count	The number of independent when applying patent
Citing Prior Patent Count	The number of citing patent when applying patent
Filing Country Count	The number of filing country when applying patent
Patent quality indicator	
Variable	Definition
TileRate	The percentile sort by the number of cited in different UPC

Following patent quality indicator TileRate set by this research, former 10% samples have been screened and selected as good quality samples. There are 18,469 patents in group G and 16,307 in group H. From literature review, it can be summarized at the first stage that patent quality has been closely affected by claim count, independent claim count, citing prior patent count and filing country count. However, the correction and their related linkage still need further rectified by regression test. The hypothesis of this study has considered that the above four patent quality indicator can affect each other. In order to test this hypothesis, multiple regression test will be used to analyse these samples.

Table 4: Multivariate regression test results with the G category patent

Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count	Linear Model	Goodness -of-fit
V	V	V	V	Non-Significant	
V	V	V		Non-Significant	
V	V		V	Non-Significant	
V		V	V	Significant	0.023
	V	V	V	Significant	0.020
V	V			Non-Significant	
V		V		Significant	0.019
V			V	Significant	0.014
	V	V		Significant	0.016
	V		V	Significant	0.011
		V	V	Significant	0.019
V				Significant	0.006
	V			Significant	0.001
		V		Significant	0.015
			V	Significant	0.009

P.S: Checked item is selected as variable, all dependent variable is patent quality (TileRate)

Table 5: Multivariate regression test results with the H category patent

Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count	Linear Model	Goodness-of-fit
V	V	V	V	Non-Significant	
V	V	V		Non-Significant	
V	V		V	Non-Significant	
V		V	V	Significant	0.018
	V	V	V	Significant	0.014
V	V			Non-Significant	
V		V		Significant	0.014
V			V	Significant	0.013
	V	V		Significant	0.009
	V		V	Significant	0.009
		V	V	Significant	0.014
V				Significant	0.007
	V			Significant	0.001
		V		Significant	0.009
			V	Significant	0.008
P.S: Checked item is selected as variable, all dependent variable is patent quality (TileRate)					

From sample analysis of original sample groups, it can be found that there are big standard deviation among them for several extreme statistic figures in there. Thus, it is needed to conduct secondary adjustment. In this regard, this research adopts expert judgment. Ruling out some extreme data, good sample patent quality has been integrated into statement statistic, and based on the result, we assume the criterion value which shown on table X below.

Table 6: Assumed criterion value based on the average of each indicators

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents				
Assumed criterion value	24.16	3.74	13.66	3.81
H Category Patents				
Assumed criterion value	21.27	3.50	15.75	4.04

There are two stages in this testifying stage. At the first stage, it is examined through national and outside national organization. At the secondary stage, it is examined through famous international entrepreneur. In this research, former 10% good patent

quality that was chosen between 2001 and 2004. The patent performance of these patent groups is as followings.

Table 7: The patent performance of well-known research institutes

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents					
Average of selected research institutes	23.1	4.92	6.52	61	3.28
H Category Patents					
Average of selected research institutes	20.8	3.94	4.88	83	3.17

At this stage, good patent quality samples selected by this study and good patent quality samples selected by famous institutes have been conducted for T-test. The outcome of T-test has shown that writing indicator of good patent quality selected by this research could provide with characteristic which could be applied to general industries.

Table 8: T-test result with selected famous research institutes

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents				
With selected research institutes	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant
H Category Patents				
With selected research institutes	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant

The test of patent performance has chosen 10 of top 50 global enterprises of the well-known enterprises in domestic and abroad selected by the list of IFI CLAIMS® 2012 Top US Patent Assignees. Taiwan's selected enterprises has been put into this test of patent performance as this study targets for the later analysis. This study focus on the top 10% good patent quality performance between 2001 to 2004 and its performance will be test samples in this study. The test of patent performance is as below:

Table 9: The patent performance of well-known enterprises in domestic and abroad

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents					
Average of selected foreign enterprise	26.43	3.07	8.84	5284	4.77
Average of selected foreign enterprise	21.82	1.45	2.91	104	2.97
H Category Patents					
Average of selected foreign enterprise	20.45	3.29	7.99	3607	3.78
Average of selected foreign enterprise	13.21	1.92	2.05	576	2.13

Table 10: T-test result with selected well-known enterprises

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents				
With selected domestic enterprise	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant
With selected foreign enterprise	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant
H Category Patents				
With selected domestic enterprise	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant
With selected foreign enterprise	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant	Non-Significant

After verified with selected well-known global enterprises, it seems these criterion value could be applied o general industries as well.

Research Findings and Conclusions

After the above analysis and test, we could use three indicators and one aid for inspecting patent drafting quality, and also set the criterion value as follows:

Table 11: Recommended patent drafting indicators and criterion value

	Claim Count	Filing Country Count	Citing Prior Patent Count	Independent Claim Count
G Category Patents				
Average	24.16	3.74	13.66	3.81
Recommended Criterion Value	24	4	14	4
H Category Patents				
Average	21.27	3.50	15.75	4.04
Recommended Criterion Value	21	4	16	4

Since current academic and practical assessment of patent quality often use patent citation analysis, this assessment information would take a long period after the patent been cited so that it is a bit lag behind practical need. This project lies in the construction and validation of the drafting quality indicators of pilot patents. Using the samples of certified U.S. patent information during 2001-2004 as samples, this study adopted statistical methods to select the experimental indicators out of certified patents and is expected to deduce the content of the quality indicators of patents for drafting. This series of indicators are expected to become ways for the applicants to certify the quality of patents in early days of the application.

The main contribution of this project is to establish a set of assessment of patent quality that can be employed to judge patent quality directly from patent claims and its disclosure content. In this way, it will avoid the waste of R&D resource and will be useful for future patent portfolio strategy and patent management.

However, the quality and value of patents need to be approved for market certification, does not means that patents will get high quality if achieve the recommended criteria which this research proposed. This research propose this set of high quality patent drafting indicators and criteria is a reference for patent drafting and making portfolio, still depends on the practical application. Besides, research scope is limited by only using the G and H category US patents from 2001 to 2004, the following several suggestions for subsequent research:

1. Using different annual patent samples, in order to track indicators arising due to the time change.
2. Using different IPC category of patent samples, in order to compare different technology characteristics of indicators.

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**Social Cohesion in Community at Rukun Tetangga
(Neighbourhood Watch) in Malaysia**

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Introduction

Social cohesion is an essential element in ensuring a community lives in peace and harmony. It is a prerequisite to a stable state and non-conflict societies. Therefore, developed countries like the United States, Canada, United Kingdom, France and Australia have placed social cohesion as a significant policy for their country. That is why discussions related to social cohesion was not a novelty. In fact sociologist's father such as Emile Durkheim has been talking about social cohesion in his work through the concept of mechanical cohesion and organic solidarity. Then, it continues by subsequent scholars such as Ferdinand Tonnies, Robert Redfield and others. Recently, in Malaysia, Shamsul Amri Baharuddin has been highlighted the concept of social cohesion which is positioned as significant formula for managing multi-ethnic society.

The neighborhood area is an important location in determining the existence of social cohesion where the community is located. In the context of Malaysia, the neighborhood communities often consist of multi-ethnic areas, particularly in urban and inner city area and also suburbs area. These neighborhood areas are marked by separation and social differences composite of culture, religion, language and background. Hence, these types of communities have to face challenges in the form of integration and cohesion between them. This situation is a direct result from the impact and effects of inhibition modernization and industrialization. However, Malaysia government aware this situation and various attempts have been made.

In order to integrate these separated communities, the government has established the National Unity and Integration Department (JPNIN) placed directly under the Prime Minister's Office (JPM) to implement various policies in neighborhood communities. The largest program implemented under the JPNIN program is Rukun Tetangga. Today, there were more than 5,000 Rukun Tetangga which was formed in Malaysia. Thereby, Rukun Tetangga is vital organizations whose are geared community activities and provide an opportunity for community togetherness. Processes that exist in the efforts to organize community activities and programs under the Rukun Tetangga program are actually the process towards social cohesion. Thus, social cohesion applied indirectly in community programs through Rukun Tetangga neighborhood areas.

Concept Definition

Social Cohesion

Emile Durkheim, the father of sociology sees social cohesion in context to evaluate the ability of the community to remain their relationship in various stages of development. Social cohesion is a form of mechanical cohesion in pre-industrial society towards organic solidarity form in the context of the modern world. He sees social cohesion can be maintained through the government and the establishment of the laws. Some concepts related to social cohesion which is contrary to conflict, including the notion of solidarisme (unity), anemia (chaos/dispersion) and alienation (isolation) for a stable society and cooperate rather than conflict. Hence, social cohesion was associated with a country's development process.

Max Weber sees social cohesion as a collective idea and the values that are important in social development. Talcott Parsons further sees the social cohesion from the aspects of functional structure which is based on coherent society with a shared value system. Among the recent scholars discuss about social cohesion is Judith Maxwell (1996), he sees social cohesion in the dimensions of economic development. Therefore, in his views, social cohesion is a process that builds and maintains a community sense of belonging and feeling that bind a person in a community. If we observed, the concept and definition of social cohesion cannot be separated from community and social cohesion will emerge through the feeling of belonging in the community. In other words, the sense and feeling of belonging is fundamental to the creation of social cohesion.

Jane Jenson (1998) states that social cohesion is used to describe a process that not only involves the states or countries, but a sense of commitment or responsibility and the desire or ability to live together in harmony. Among others scholar who discuss about social cohesion are Berger (1998), Gough and Olofsson (1999). According to them, social cohesion comprises of social integration, stability and failure of integration (disintegration). Thus, social cohesion is related to the integration circumstances and failure of integration. These issues will look at the level of integration that will determine the level of social cohesion.

In 1996, a large economic organization, namely the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) states that social cohesion is an important tool in the era of globalization (OECD 1996). This is because in order to maintain stability and prosperity in the society, the world needs values that can be shared and maintain social cohesion consistently. In addition, according to Lockwood (1999), social cohesion refers to the unity of strong social networks such as ties of kinship and local voluntary organizations at the local level. In this context, Lockwood has put a clear framework in discussing social cohesion indicators which include altruism characteristics such as trust and willingness to provide assistance to others (Lockwood 1999: 69).

Bollen and Hoyle (2001) have proposed two perspectives of social cohesion in terms of its objectives and impact. It refers to the objective contribution to the group as a whole. It is based on the impact of social cohesion on the relationship and the intimacy of each member in the group. Thus, in this context, it involves a perception among members of the group. According to them, there are two obvious things in social cohesion, namely:

1. Feelings "individual" which is the sense of belonging to a group; and
2. Feelings in the form of "spirit" (ie, emotional reactions) associated with membership and groups.

The "sense of belonging" feeling is being fundamental to the group's existence, while "spirit" has a direct impact on motivation to the members in the group. Hence, according to them, "sense of belonging" and "spirit" is two key points to social cohesion in the community.

Beauvais and Jenson (2002) have given five possible different social cohesion notions:

1. Social cohesion as a value and civic culture;
2. Social cohesion as a social order and social control;
3. Social cohesion as social unity and reducing the wealth gap;
4. Social cohesion as social networks and social capital; and,
5. Social cohesion as place and identity determination.

Therefore, the five possible concepts highlighted by Beauvais and Jenson will determine which way social cohesion will be applied in a discussion or study. If we noted, the ultimate goal of social cohesion is social well-being that can be created in the community. In other words, to what extent social cohesion will be able to overcome problems that occur in society. The problems referred including poverty, unemployment, discrimination, exclusion and dissatisfaction with a particular political party and so on. For policy makers, it is important as a guide in creating appropriate policies.

In the United Kingdom, the concept of social cohesion has been debated in order to create unity and integration in the context of ethnic and cultural diversity. The concepts used right there is 'community cohesion'. That concept of cohesion based on community is seeing more effective than social class or economic status. The concept of 'community cohesion' has been accepted in the diverse communities because of ethnic riots in the North of England year 2001. Consequently, a team is known as The Community Cohesion Review Team was formed in the United Kingdom to assess the events occurring during that year. The team uses the concept of 'community cohesion' to insert the values and attitudes of the community in restoring good ethnic relations. The concept of 'community cohesion' meaning "... there is a common vision and sense of belonging for all communities; the diversity of people's different backgrounds and circumstances is appreciated and positively valued..." (Local Government Association 2002: 6). According to Ted Cattle (2001) 'community cohesion' is referred to "... those from different backgrounds have similar life opportunities; and strong and positive relationships are being developed between people from different backgrounds in the workplace, in schools and within neighborhoods..." (Cattle 2001: 14). So, this 'community cohesion' concept supports the social cohesion concept which has been highlighted previously.

Thereby, in countries like Canada, France, the European Union (EU) and the United Kingdom, social cohesion is a wonderful solution to the problem by creating new policies based on problems in one or two decades ago.

According to Jenson (1998), there are five dimensions of social cohesion. However, Paul Bernard (2000) has added another dimension which is equality - inequality as outlined below:

1. Belonging-Isolation: it refers to the existence or absence of shared values and a common sense of identity.
2. Inclusion-Exclusion: This dimension refers to the level of equality and opportunity among citizens in the economy particularly in the market.
3. Participation, Non-Involvement: it focuses on political participation among people, whether in central or local levels of government.
4. Recognition-rejection: This dimension refers to a concern of the differences in diversity and tolerance in society.
5. Legitimacy, Illegitimacy: it refers to the maintenance of legitimacy in political and social institutions - from the state to individuals in the community who have different interests.
6. Equality-Inequality: it refers to the equality and equal opportunities in society, regardless of ethnicity, religion, culture and language.

Each domain is a significant measurement of social cohesion that was combined with the fifth dimension of Jenson's idea and the sixth dimension Paul Bernard. These dimensions are an important tool in assessing the social cohesion in the community.

Community

The concept of community is referring to small groups of people who lived in a particular area. If we refer to the etymology, the meaning of the word 'community' was derived from the ancient French language, namely 'communité' which comes from the Latin language called 'communitas' (cum, "with / together" + menus, "gift"). For countries such as the European community, the community gives meaning to the concept of friendship and community associations that lead to services in the society. In general, communities have two different circumstances which refer to the shared equal values from the smallest village to the biggest unit like the country. Thus, in the concept of community also includes the national community and international community. In terms of the community characteristics, in general we can divide as follows:

1. Comprised of a group of people;
2. Community members interact with the same group;
3. Execute specific and interrelated activities;
4. Activities are arranged based on cultural and social systems;
5. All members of the community consider themselves as a part of the community; and
6. United members and their action follow the social system which developed and agreed.

In addition, the community also refers to the biological aspects in which social units interact, coexist and flourish. Therefore, communities are groups of people who are willing to help each other. For ease in making sense of a community organization in a society like Malaysia, a community normally refers to the administrative aspect that can be seen in terms of administrative structure which is placed under the local government called District Council or Town Council.

The concept of community has changed and discussed by numerous scholars such as Emile Durkheim, Ibn Khaldun, Robert Redfield, Ferdinand Tonnies and others. The

discussion about community embraces the existence of a virtual community which is attributed from the expansion in technology and the internet. Ibn Khaldun has put forward the concept of 'asabiah' (sense of belonging) as a community foundation which related to unity or cohesion until to the process of civilization (Ibn Khaldun, 2002). Emile Durkheim refers the changes in community by referring to the concept of mechanical solidarity and organic solidarity. Then, Tonnies highlighted the concept of Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft which also refers to the transformation of society. After that, Robert Redfield introduced the concept of suburb, inner city and outer city. If we observed, all the concepts discussed are not deviating from view the changes in society and the community from rural to urban. Hence, the basis adopted by earlier scholars is based on the locality in which geographical factors play an important role in the formation of a community and neighbors as an axis of the community building.

Neighborhoods

In general, we can see that, the neighbors can be defined as who live near to our own home or person next door. In short, the neighbors in its broadest sense refer to the person or individuals who live adjacent to each other may be in a small area like a village, district or county. Neighbor's concepts that trigger communities also exist in the cities and large towns. Department of National Unity (JPNIN) Act 1987 defines neighbors as those who live in a residential area or village is considered to neighboring villages such as Kerinci, the whole village is in a neighborhood area (Department of National Unity in 1987).

The more flexible concept was used by JPNIN in 1989 in which the definition of their neighbors is covering their own families, those who live close to our homes and those who live in our neighborhoods and contacts (Department of National Unity, 1989). If seen from the traditional definition of neighborhood concept is much closer to see the community in a society at one time ago. Basic construction for community is a community meeting. This meeting will lead to things like greater interaction, cooperation, enculturation, accommodation, assimilation, amalgamation and others.

Referring to the Literary Reference for Malay Center (PRPM), Dewan Bahasa and Pustaka (DBP) (2013), fundamental to the concept of neighborhood is mutual cooperation, closely acquaintances, tolerance, courtesy, greeting, respect, honesty, not spiteful and scalp, helping, visiting each other, always have feelings and not misunderstood attitudes, understand and respect the religious customs or way of life each other. Thus, the features and elements of this set is an essential element to the building community concept and build social cohesion.

Wan Abdul Halim (1982) has made a conceptual neighborhood as the nature or spirit of cooperation between neighbors and it is a relationship between each other. For the Malay community, neighboring community or living together has become the norm in the society. For example, in all social activities, they help each other and aid people who need assistance. These dimensions as helping and supporting are the basis of community building in the society.

A comprehensive study has been done by Yahaya Ibrahim (1992) to see neighborhood practices in the community. He has found that there are eight key features that form the spirit of the neighborhood. Eight of this feature is also a cornerstone of the community building that has survived until the present day. Among its features are:

1. Every neighbor must have and cultivate a positive mindset framework that does not think badly or prejudice to others. Neighbors need to foster a positive feeling and to be tolerant of each other constantly. This will engender a spirit of good neighborliness and effective neighborhoods;

2. Every community should have a sense of neighborliness that is equally responsible for keeping the neighbors' rights, to keep the harmony and well-being of the residential area, to live in more peaceful and comfortable life;

3. Neighboring communities should also work together in fostering the helping spirit and cooperate in all respects. Willingness and sincerity will produce a satisfaction to the community itself;

4. In the Neighborhood Attitude Model emphasizes the aspect of neighborhood communities that need to cultivate and have a feeling of respect, appreciation of others and not be envious as malicious, treacherous to each other between the neighbors;

5. Neighbors in one community should also take care, knowing and be sensitive to the things that are relevant and happens to other neighbors. Always protective and caring for the community around the residence;

6. Additionally, communities and neighborhoods also need to be willing to participate in any activities which organized together in their communities. Each community must be prepared to join neighboring communities surrounding residential although a formal or informal program and activities;

7. Communities neighbors should also have a mood of advanced, willing to learn and accept criticism from other neighbors where it is involved in the community; and

8. Honest attitude, sincere, being open and without bad faith in all things to be cultivated and nurtured within the neighboring communities. This indirectly will create a fair community and equal in implementing a variety of things.

Therefore, these features are fundamental in building community either in the village or in the city and still remain until now. However, with the society formation has changed through modernization and industrialization, the scenario of Malaysian society has undergone drastic changes. The concept of community has also evolved from the concept of locality and across geographical boundaries and it exists in the mind of individuals in any community of which he is located. Thus, through the aspects of the same passion or interest which we call as a hobby has also been identified as a binder to the formation of communities. With the development of technology and sophistication of internet, community formations become more complex and complicated. The existence of modern communities in urban and rural areas has influenced the design and construction features of the community. In nature, rural communities live together in which this basic cohesion occurs in the family foundation. This contrasts with the urban communities which always busy with their own work. Possibly, in urban area communities, work places become a basis of

integration between them. Thus, this community building process is a spacious and great for discussion.

Rukun Tetangga (Neighbourhood Watch) In Malaysia

Rukun Tetangga is a volunteer organization established in the community level and the local community which was originally designed with the intention for the safety of local residents. In Malaysia, the organization of Rukun Tetangga is under the auspices of the National Unity and Integration Department (JPNIN). In the period of January 2000 to October 2012, the number of Rukun Tetangga area has increased from 1,971 to 6,061, an increase of 4,090 areas of Rukun Tetangga in 12 years, which represents a more than twofold (Website JPNIN). For more detailed information, refer to Table 1 below. This situation shows that the Rukun Tetangga plays an important role in the Malaysia local community. Rukun Tetangga in Malaysia over 30 years old. In this age, Rukun Tetangga has undergone several transformations and changes in the age and modernization of the country. Mahani Abu Bakar (2008: 26) states Rukun Tetangga today is more to the concept of community development compared to the past Rukun Tetangga concept which is focused to the neighborhood and local security. Nevertheless, the neighborhood concept is applied in line with the Rukun Tetangga favoring solidarity and good neighborliness. Whereas, in the context of multi-ethnic relationship, main priority in neighboring population and the implementation of activities.

In terms of historical background, Rukun Tetangga began to call Neighborhood Watch Scheme was launched by the Prime Minister at that time, Tun Abdul Razak on August 29, 1975. During that time, the scheme was placed under "Essential Regulations", (Rukun Tetangga) that have been enacted under the Emergency Ordinance (Essential Powers) 1969 (Ordinance 1) (Rashid Saad 2004). At the same time it was enforced in Peninsular Malaysia. Among the areas that were the pioneers of this scheme is a Kasipillay Village in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. Then, the scheme was further expanded in Sabah and launched on August 31, 1985 and then launched again in Sarawak on February 1, 1988. At that moment, the situation has not exactly stable from the communist threat. Thus, apart to the role played by the security forces, local communities have also been given the responsibility of maintaining security and fostering ethnic unity through that scheme.

Table 1: The Establishment Data Of Neighbourhood Watch From 2000 To 2012

BIL	STATES	YEAR												
		2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
1	PERLIS	39	43	53	53	55	588	68	78	79	85	87	92	99
2	KEDAH	124	127	163	168	175	183	190	208	221	270	304	341	370
3	PULAU PINANG	126	126	169	202	216	233	250	269	288	306	329	352	406
4	PERAK	269	272	299	308	316	333	347	376	389	405	431	454	477
5	SELANGOR	249	253	298	345	372	408	441	500	547	598	670	721	764
6	W.P. KUALA LUMPUR	169	171	184	203	212	213	227	239	245	223	227	243	258
7	W.P. PUTRAJAYA	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	8	9	11	14	24	27

8	N. SEMBILAN	117	120	141	148	153	166	181	206	232	250	278	298	325
9	MELAKA	66	67	82	100	104	104	111	115	120	152	163	181	198
10	JOHOR	307	307	323	355	373	405	435	483	500	536	591	630	670
11	PAHANG	127	129	169	189	190	200	220	272	317	371	405	443	459
12	TERENGGANU	64	64	90	120	130	154	181	207	215	243	295	341	373
13	KELANTAN	105	106	135	155	167	199	217	261	290	347	396	424	436
14	SARAWAK	134	143	189	194	197	204	224	224	228	255	358	516	611
15	SABAH	75	78	101	116	150	191	230	269	282	373	427	512	555
16	W.P LABUAN	0	0	0	30	31	31	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
TOTAL		1,971	2,006	2,396	2,686	2,841	3,085	3,360	3,748	3,995	4,458	5,008	5,605	6,061

Source: Website JPNIN

When the situation gets better by the 1980s, the concept of the Neighborhood Watch Scheme was reviewed and changes were made to the Essential Regulations (Rukun Tetangga) 1975. The Rukun Tetangga Scheme has been removed in terms of focus, the concept of security to the neighborhood concept began in 1983. This is because in the last two decades, from 1970 to 1990, the process of urbanization experienced rapid change effects of modernization. Consequently, population in urban area increases sharply, which comprises of various ethnics, activities and lifestyles. This scenario brought a new phenomenon in the context of neighborhood and community development (Mohd. Taib Dora, 2009: 34). The changes are appropriate to the situation in the country where the communist threat had ceased following the surrender of communist members.

Began in 2001, the focus of Neighborhood Watch is for the building of community as a whole. Thus, the activities developed are multifaceted concept, including "lifelong learning" and empowering communities to enhance community capacity for social change and lifestyle (Ruslan Ngah 2007: 50). The programs are coordinated by JPNIN. If viewed the objectives of Neighborhood Watch are to preserve, promote and strengthen national unity and national integration consistent with national development policies based on the Federal Constitution and the Rukun Negara (National Ideologies) (Shamsul Amri 2008: 183). Based on that, it can be seen in detail the concepts emphasized in the latest Neighborhood Watch concepts:

1. Builds community by encouraging participation and responsibility of each Neighborhood Watch in community development;
2. Become a bridge between the leaders and the public in which Neighborhood Watch a platform for the two sides through social activities;
3. Improve the ability of communities to cope with the challenges of social, lifestyles and the family system;
4. Improve quality of life through social services, especially lower income groups, disabilities people and facilitate special groups;
5. Encourage active participation among members in order to eradicate poverty - 'One KRT Sector One Product';
6. Encourage participation among professionals, the educated, corporate groups, pensioners and civil servants which have interested to lead Neighborhood Watch; and

7. Encourage ethnic and national integration.
(Alias Mohamad 2005: 116)

According to JPNIN, this activity aims to enable local people acquainted, help and support in facing any problem together, interact and foster closer relationships between grassroots leaders and the people and also between people of different ethnicity, customs and culture (Website JPNIN). The establishment of Neighborhood Watch is strongly encouraged, especially in the city residential areas, suburbs and high risk areas. The main role of Neighborhood Watch is to organize patrol duty groups during the night to reduce criminal activities in surrounding neighborhoods. Usually, members of the patrol group staffed by the community members in the neighborhood areas. In addition, each KRT are encouraged to organize as much as community activities, charity and education as well as programs to enhance national unity and ethnic integration in Malaysia. Thus, Neighborhood Watch is a voluntary program designed to assist in community development. An Act was enacted in Parliament and entered into force on June 22, 2012 called the Neighborhood Watch in 2012, it includes the act relating to Neighborhood Watch and the Voluntary Patrolling Scheme.

Actually, according to the Management of Neighborhood Watch book in 2013, starting from 2010 the Neighborhood Watch has undergone a transformation clause in line with the government's transformation program based on five cores Neighborhood Watch Transformation Model that was implemented. Five cores of the model include the aspect of unity, economy, security, education and quality of life. If the community can implement the five core transformation model, the community not only safe, but also they can build a stronger community economy. Thus, implementation of any programs and activities in Malaysia is based on five cores, which planned on the Neighborhood Watch Transformation Model. According to the book Management of Neighborhood Watch in 2013, five cores is a framework that has been identified which is able to achieve the national goal of a multi-ethnic society living in harmony and peaceful (Management Neighborhood Watch Book, 2013: 19). For detailed information Neighborhood Watch Model Transformation is as per Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Neighborhood Watch Transformation Model



Source: Neighborhood Watch Management Book of 2013.

In terms of total membership, according to Mohd. Taib Dora (2009), an ideal area of Neighborhood Watch is around 2,000 or 80 houses. However, the size of a Neighborhood Watch area shall not exceed 6,000 residents to allow close relationships and get to know each other's (Mohd. Taib Dora, 2009: 34).

Rashid Saad (2004) explains that the concept of Neighborhood Watch can be categorized as Neighborhood Watch New Millennium Concepts (RT 21), which meet the needs of the community and prepare Neighborhood Watch to face the new millennium in which it changed from the concept of 'security controls' (1975), 'spirit of neighborliness' (1983) and now the concept of 'community development'. Some of the emphasis in community development is mentoring approach (social outreach) giving the importance to help marginalized groups. Thus, the changes experienced by Neighborhood Watch are compatible with the requirements and current needs. These changes are essential in order to face social and economic transformation. This will enable the role and functions of Neighborhood Watch relevant from time to time and makes Neighborhood Watch as a respected body and has a high image among the local community as a reference point and to patronize each area.

Based on the current development under Prime Minister Datuk Seri Najib Tun Razak, he introduces One Malaysia concept as new genuine objective with the slogan of "People First, Performance Priority". According to Dato' Seri Najib's, One Malaysia concept meaning as follows:

"We stand, we think and act as Malaysians. One People and we take actions based on the needs of all ethnic groups in our country;

This does not mean we put aside affirmative action, policies to help the natives as long as the policy is implemented in

a fair manner and give due consideration to the Bumiputera are entitled to a consideration of the government.

We came out of the mode of action in the wall ethnic practiced for a long time".

Therefore the idea of One Malaysia together with the Government Transformation Program (GTP) has placed Neighborhood Watch as entities that are relevant and important in the community and society. This is because, according to the book JPNIN Management Guide Neighborhood Watch, what have been done in the Neighborhood Watch Areas (KRT) are in line with the One Malaysia notion in the context of unity which imposes on inclusiveness and simplicity. In addition, there are programs in KRT which not only focuses on the unity, however; the local security aspect based on the openness attitude of the membership in KRT and Voluntary Patrol Scheme (SRS). This opportunity is given based on the progress in which the abolishment of the Internal Security Act and the Emergency Ordinance, so Neighborhood Watch Act 2012 has been enacted and enforced since June 22, 2012. Through the role of JPNIN and KRT, SRS has played a vital role where the opportunity and the power given to the realization of the Neighborhood Watch Coordinator and Advisor establishment for several Neighborhood Watch in the area and allocate work hours relief by an employer (Neighborhood Watch Management Handbook 2013). Hence, the role KRT enlarged and at the same time assists the police.

Since January 2009 to October 2012, the number of registered KRT has increased from 3995 to 6031, an increase of 51 percent. The registration for the SRS has increased from 1284 to 3384 for the same period, which increase around 2100 or 164 percent, that is a vast improvement. In terms of the activities, until October 2012 more than 190,000 various forms of activities were conducted with the presence of nearly 6 million people from varied ethnic groups, age and cultures. Thereby, this result is a direct consequence of the SRS strengthening through recognition and promotion. That approve is conducted as one of the key implementation initiatives of the National Key Result Areas (NKRA) which aimed to improve safety and prevent crime in the GTP where SRS cooperate with the police and RELA. Thus, the effects we can see a dramatic increase in the level of KRT and SRS.

Functions and Duties the Neighborhood Watch Committee

The Neighborhood Watch Committee has components as a club or association. However, the component in the Neighborhood Watch organization is adapted to the local community and the needs of the government. Under Section 8 Neighborhood Watch Act 2012 has outlined the functions and duties of Neighborhood Watch Committees as follows:

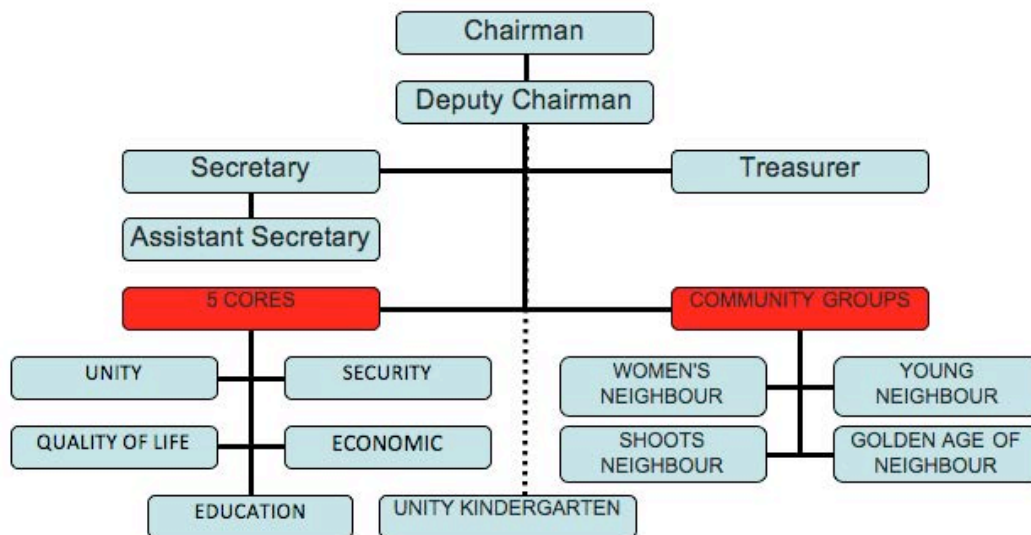
- a. Performs any activities to improve and strengthen neighborhood spirit, unity, goodwill, harmony, comfort, peace, cooperation, safety, welfare, health, economic well-being and quality of life among community members;
- b. Gather information, monitor and investigate all issues pertaining to conflict in the community and after that deliver that information, observation and investigation to the director;

- c. To take such actions which necessary or desirable to enable the residents protect themselves against any criminal activity or disaster;
- d. To provide mediator in the community for the purpose of conciliation or otherwise resolve any dispute or disagreement among community members; and
- e. To exercise any other functions or duties as instructed by the Director General from time to time.

(RT Management Handbook 2013: 25)

Thus, the Neighborhood Watch functions and duties are strongly connected with keeping community peaceful and harmonious. But, not only in this aspect, it also associated with the development of society and nation.

In terms of organization, the Neighborhood Watch can be outlined as follows:



Sumber: Buku Pengurusan Rukun Tetangga 2013

Source: Neighborhood Watch Management Book of 2013.

Hence, the formation of the Neighborhood Watch Committee is comprised of the chairman, deputy chairman, secretary, treasurer and has two essential components in Neighborhood Watch which is 5 cores in the community and community groups. Five cores of Neighborhood Watch include unity, security, quality of life, economy and education. Community groups, including the local Neighborhood Watch communities across the multi-ethnic Young Neighbors, Women’s Neighbors, Shoot Neighbors and Golden Age Neighbors.

JPNIN had implemented five core concepts through various programs and activities in order to foster unity among the multi-ethnic groups. Although, genuine unity is still far to achieve, however; it is good enough when multi-ethnic groups amongst the neighborhood community members can joint such activity together that will inculcate social cohesion. One of the most popular events that held regularly is a security program which implemented through the Voluntary Patrolling Scheme (SRS). Until

October 2012, the total number registered of SRS reach 3,384 units. Each of SRS units contributes to peacefulness and safety for the residential population in neighborhood areas. In addition, economic aspect, the Neighborhood Watch has organized various economic activities such as hydroponic crops, freshwater fish and sauces manufacturing programs. However, in improving the residential economy, the community needs such of innovation to enhance economic activities especially in increasing residential income. According Azahan Awang et al. (2008), good progress in economic will contribute to the quality of life which can be viewed from two main aspects, namely the structure and the perception of the society towards the environment. Thus, quality of life in the Neighborhood Watch can be seen as a whole which touches the elements of comfortable life, residential safety and current situation in the aspect economy. In terms to increase education amongst community members, the Neighborhood Watch has conducted numerous program such as workshops and courses as well as dedicated to organizing special programs for the pre-school children at the age of 4-6 years which is called Unity Kindergarten.

Unity Kindergarten was implemented under the Community Relations Plan in 1976 starting with 25 pilot classes. The noble purpose of this program is to conduct a study on the attitudes of the people to cultivate the spirit of goodwill and restore the people's relationship with the government. The Unity Kindergarten objective was specifically detailed after 1976 based on the following points:

- i. Nourishing the potential of children in all aspects of personal growth that balanced master basic skills and develop positive attitudes based on the Federal Constitution and the principles of Rukun Negara.
- ii. Nurture and cultivate the spirit of goodwill, solidarity, spirit of community and citizenship among children of all ethnics.
- iii. Encourage children to practice spiritual values and positive moral in everyday life to create good personality and perfect character to become a good family member and individual excellence.
- iv. Respect and use Malay as the national language.
- v. Strengthen relationships and foster unity amongst parents and the whole community.
- vi. Practice moral and religious values in everyday life.
- vii. Use English in everyday interaction in line with its position as a second language.
- viii. Expand the physical capacity, health practices and proper safety.
- ix. Expand self-concept towards personal development and positive character.
- x. Expand feeling of curiosity through various self-senses towards the development of cognitive reasoning and problem solving while exploring knowledge.
- xi. Expand creativity and aesthetics.

(Neighborhood Watch Management Books 2013: 28-29)

Therefore, through the implementation of Unity Kindergarten that should not only develop knowledge to the children, but in fact can sprout ethnic relations in the very early stages of children which will bend the ethnic boundary between them.

The concept of community groups that have been outlined by JPNIN is including those from women neighbors, young neighbors, school neighbors and golden age neighbors. Women neighbors were established to encourage activity among women in the KRT. It was established in 1983 as a right wing for the Neighborhood Watch Committee. Young neighbors were established with the purpose to attract and engage young people in neighborhood activities and community development towards achieving the objectives of Neighborhood Watch as well as preventing them from negative social symptoms. Golden age neighbors are an entity in the Neighborhood Watch that intentionally created to engage citizens in that stage age group to join such events or neighborhood activities as well as providing opportunities for them to interact with each other's. It also brings the perception that they are capable groups which still can contribute to society and the nation, and also they will not feel marginalized. Finally, school neighbors are involved young children from kindergarten to primary school age. The purpose of its establishment is to provide an opportunity for children to know each other via neighborhood community activities.

Forms of activity in promoting Social Cohesion

According to Sanusi Osman (1985), neighborly spirit actually exists, but in hidden condition. This can be seen from various aspects such as the existence of good relations among neighbors, no prejudice to each other and the availability to assist neighbors during an emergency. The low level of social interaction among neighbors is due to prioritize their personal freedom and self-love to disturb the neighbors. There are some important aspects that apply in measuring neighborly relations, patterns among members in the neighborhood, especially in promoting social cohesion.

a. Visiting Neighbors

Neighbors visiting each other are a good trait to foster ethnic unity. However, in Malaysia, that exercise is less practiced in residential areas, especially in the different ethnic group's residential areas. According to Mohamad Sulong (1985), the frequency of visiting the next door neighbor is very low and limited to when gatherings held, during an emergency or important matter only. According to him, the situation in Malaysia is very obvious when the next door neighbor consists of other ethnic groups. Social relationships may not very close or cohesive in the same residential area, however; some of the residential area members may have better social relationships and strong connections with inmates in other residential areas. This is because they may have long-standing ties such as friends, relatives and so on.

Spend some time visiting the neighbors' homes will strengthen and revive the spirit of neighborliness. Perform this exercise, we will better recognize and get closer to our neighbors. This exercise will create chances of a longer talk with a more peaceful home environment that is suitable for someone to more closely recognize, understand and appreciate the good and bad time's neighbor's experienced. Nevertheless, we need to know how to choose the right time to visit neighbors in order to not interfere their rest time which can cause negative side effects. At least the practice of visiting the neighboring houses performed on the weekends or during certain festival days.

b. Mutual Assistance

The high point of good neighborliness is when a neighbor willing to put aside their self-interest simply to help other neighbors at the times needed. Those help and sacrifice will always be remembered by someone particularly their nearest neighbors.

The more often we are assisting neighbors will result more powerful neighborhood ties. For these reasons, the practice of assisting neighbors is the most effective practices in maintaining good neighborliness even when we move into a new house. This practice should performed by everybody in community neighborhoods.

Mohd Razali Agus (1992) in his study of the Melaka Public Housing state that there are three forms of aid which can be identified among residents of the neighborhood. According to him, the high frequency category was recorded is help observing the house when the neighbors away from home with rate of 75%. The second category is sharing neighborhood matters by rate 41%, while third category has helped neighbors look after their children temporarily by rate 47%. In short, cooperation among neighbors to provide home security will enhance good relationship in community neighborhoods.

According to Ibrahim Yahaya (1995), the spirit of cooperation and mutual assistance occurred among residents of terraced houses and apartments are relatively high. He found that most of the residents willing to help neighbors during special occasions such as gatherings, collaborative held and when they are invited to help. This means that, assistance is given after neighbors ask for help openly and they rarely volunteered to do so without a specific request from neighbors.

c. Knowing the Neighbors

The neighbors, it is assumed that someone should know who live next door. A study conducted by Ibrahim Yahaya (1995) found that 78% of respondents know their neighbors households. For respondents who live in detached houses, he found that only 48% of those respondents who know the households of their neighbor's. However, the terraced houses and apartment area, he found that respondents recognize all of their households' neighbors reach to 88% and 98% respectively.

Practice to greet neighbors is the starting point in establishing close and friendly relationships. In neighborhoods area, everybody should familiarize themselves in greeting others with asked about neighbor's health and children that could be the way to exchange of views and sharing of experiences in neighborliness particularly when we know the neighbors afflicted with any problems or difficulties. This way will finally provide a solution to the well-being community and happiness life. Thus, the practice of greeting should be exercised by everybody in the community neighborhoods which is becoming a main condition in developing close relationship among the resident members. However, in everyday life, the practice of communicating and greeting others is very low in the community neighborhoods.

According to Ibrahim Yahaya (1995), his study found averages of just 21% of the respondents communicate and knowing of what was happening to their neighbors. If compared between respondents in the three types of houses which is terraced houses,

apartments and detached houses, he found that communication rate and knowing of neighbors matters is highest among respondents at the terraced house around 35%, followed by apartment respondents is about 20% while only 8% of the types of detached house.

d. Collaborative Activities

Collaborative activity is a good exercise in fostering social cohesion among residents in the neighborhood community. Among the activities can be organized especially in rural areas is to maintain public cleanliness such as mosques, community centers, drain, home repairing or bridge due to natural disasters likes floods, storms and fires. Collaborative activities can unite local residents to a noble purpose like to maintain cleanliness, protecting the environment, helping neighbors and others. All those practices can preserve a cohesive society that lives in harmony.

Conclusion

Malaysia is a country consists of various ethnic layers where the Malays, Chinese and Indian are the main ethnic groups besides other ethnic groups such as indigenous people, the Sabah and Sarawak aborigines. Through the process of urbanization in Malaysia which caused high rates people mobilization from rural areas to the city. This mobility may happen in the form temporary and permanent due to the need of career development, better education, insistence to live and so on. This scenario has created a wide range of community development in urban areas. Therefore, Malaysian society is not only diverse in terms of ethnic differences, in fact, is more prominent in the aspect the leaf background. The existence of various communities in an area requires a good mechanism to unite them. Thus, the Neighborhood Watch (RT) became an essential mechanism to unite a variety of different ethnicities. In addition, the role of RT is crucial in the community and across the country. This role can be seen in the communities and neighborhoods where the activities will be carried out to foster such qualities, likes pilgrimage and visiting, offer to help each other, get to know the neighbors, work together and so on. Attributes of this even sound easy, but is a significant element to foster social cohesion in the community.

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Internet Marketing Strategy: A Study on the Influences Of Youtube as a Substitute Review Channel and Frontliners in Media Sharing Ecosystem

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Abstract

YouTube has served as a successful outlet for citizens of various regions to tell their stories of marketing revolution, which later played an inspirational role for purchasing behaviour. Thus, the objectives of this study are to investigate the relationships between assertiveness, effectiveness and dependency towards YouTube reviews and purchase intention. Uses and gratifications theory (UGT) was used as a guide in this study as it is the best approach to understanding why and how people actively seek out specific media to satisfy specific needs. Data were collected from 400 citizens of Malaysia using Purposive Sampling and was analysed with statistical analysis (SPSS) using Descriptive, Correlation and Regression analysis. The findings of this paper advocated that respondents were positively assertive towards YouTube video reviews and have admitted to its effectiveness towards purchase intentions. Respondents also agreed that they were highly dependent on YouTube reviews before making a purchase. As a result, this paper has managed to introduce the contribution of YouTube as a positive substitute review channel to civil society groups, corporate organizations, individuals, movements, and civil society organizations in Malaysia.

Keywords:

New Media Advertising, YouTube Marketing, Social Media Advertising, Pop Culture Advertising, Internet Marketing Strategy

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Introduction

Recently, the use of Social Network Services (SNS) media such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and others, became a new trend. The worldwide Facebook handlers are 686 million in Jun, 2011 basis, Twitter users, which classified as a micro blogging service, are over 200 million in same period. Fundamentally, SNS changed the basis of communication according to the attention, which it has got as ubiquitous network, and led to change in media ecosystem itself with appearance as a new player in the media ecosystem (Cheung & Lee, 2009). Likewise, media researches have focused on stimuli of use patterns in the traditional media according to appearance of new media in the media ecosystem. It means that the extra empirical research needs to be followed up in terms of the introduction of new channels in the market (Lin, Wu, & Tsai, 2005).

Relationships Between Social and Traditional Media and Ugc

Consequently, in the same context, the analysis of relationships between social and traditional media seems to be a current research topic in the situation where social media functions as one media and viewers are universally occupied, as in the case of introduction of other media into new media. YouTube is a site better labelled as a visual user generated content (UGC) vehicle where users can upload, share and watch videos. It is the global frontrunner in the video streaming souk, with over a billion videos viewed every day. YouTube went communal in December 2005 (YouTube, 2009), but in this very short period of time, it has experienced an overwhelming level of progression. Given the large audiences that they've attracted (98.1 million users in July 2009, YouTube, 2009), it is no surprise that marketers are now receiving the use of YouTube as a marketing instrument. Yet not every scholar agreed. For example Reinhard (2009) argued that their success has been inadequate, and that, "while individuals have used YouTube as a platform to step into the attention, most brands have been left behind or in the sleuths", meaning, the potential of YouTube has not been fully apprehended.

However, scholars such as Nabi et al. (2003); Civitillo (2001), Shugart (2006); Newcomb (2007); Lundy, Ruth, & Park (2008); Hall (2003) have found a natural link to a more specific subset of uses and gratifications theory, parasocial communication, which says that people often establish personal relationships with the strangers they encounter on the screens; and have been gratified and influenced with by the viewings on the medium. Nielsenwire (2012) reported that "at the end of 2011, roughly one-third of consumers streamed long-form content from the Internet. Jenks (2010) also reported that 33% of U.S. adult Internet users viewed full-length shows online in 2010. YouTube has also leveraged their native sharing properties and making all content digitally available to everyone under the Creative Commons license (ford.digitalsnippets.com, 2010). According to Ericsson ConsumerLab TV and Media study 2013, because of this phenomena, viewing of recorded broadcast TV and downloaded movies and shows dropping significantly. Streaming of on-demand and time shifted content, including YouTube, is growing at a steady, gradual pace. Thus, it can be concluded that so far, YouTube has gratified its multi-purposes viewers.

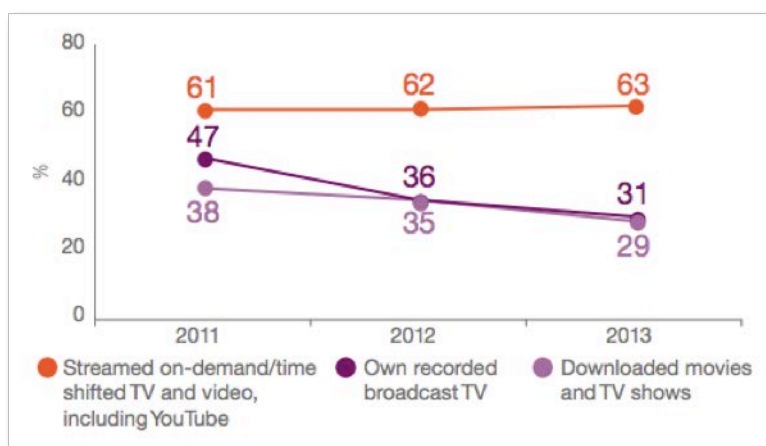


Figure 1: People who watch on-demand media on daily basis.

Source: (<http://www.ericsson.com/res/docs/2013/consumerlab/tv-and-media-consumerlab2013.pdf>)

According to Yahoo!-Synovate Net Index 2010, it was found that YouTube still remains as the top video sharing website in Malaysia of 83%. Facebook and Metacafe follow this. In a more specific cloud, Malaysians not only enjoy observing YouTube; several videos produced by Malaysians have even gone viral over the Internet as seen on Klue. This is remarkable for a country, which had a broadband penetration rate of only 10.9%, a mere 5 years ago. With the escalating level of Internet penetration in Malaysia, digital marketing is now a chief consideration in the marketing determinations of many. According to Asia Digital Marketing Yearbook 2011, the numbers of Internet users in Malaysia have reached more than 17.50 million in 2011, and that user growth rate from 2001-2009 stood at 356.8%. It is also assessed that the total number of Internet users would reach 25 millions and social networking penetration would hit 80% by 2015. The social networking diffusion rate in Malaysia is currently at 64.6%. The rapid progress of the Internet and digital media on the global level and in Malaysia means that digital marketing had come to the vanguard as the favourite method of marketing for companies due to both high penetration rates and low costs.

Internet Marketing Strategy

Rapid proliferations of Internet marketing strategy around the world were caused by loads of factors; global connectivity, user-friendliness and interoperability of the Internet towards the human race. In particular, Internet users in Malaysia spent an average of 789.37 hours per month. The use of Search Engines and Directories had a wide coverage of 88.2% of Internet users. The average searches per search stood at 92.4 with Google taking 70% of total searches. Compared to other regional countries, Malaysia's reliability towards search engines for news and information is at a low 1.6%, which garnered less than 50% of outreach. Instead, the appetite for video sharing is substantially high with 8.1 Million viewers who view an average of 74 videos/viewer and spent an average of 7 hours/viewer in 2010 (Digital Media, 2012). Abdullah (2004) found that Malaysian youths claimed that possessing a mobile phone is a fundamental part of their life even in the early stage of Internet development. These sets of youth will naturally be dependent on technology as they've regarded the mobile phone as a way to express themselves besides normal means for interaction,

for example real-life one to one conversation or group conversations (Ito and Okabe, 2004). Studies from other scholars also suggested that the usages of online marketing are current. This situation is contrary to older generations who usually see the importance of technology in the perspective of social or business purposes (Bianchi & Phillips, 2005). Diane Rayfield (May, 2010) elaborates that online marketing as a new lifestyle that offers superfluity of technology, which enables and enhances mobility and convenience to its users. Mobile marketing also offers better prospects to marketers in their quest to reach their customers wherever they may be.

Uses and Gratifications Theory (Ugt) Confirming Internet Marketing Strategy

Positive findings on assertiveness, effectiveness, dependency and intention to purchase products and services reviewed on YouTube and/or online sites as a medium of UGC was found in many studies (O'Connor, 2008; Yoo and Gretzel, 2009; Hofstaetter and Egger, 2009). Uses and gratifications theory (UGT) were used as a guideline in these papers and has managed to answer the main questions of UGT: *Why* do people use media and *what* do they use them for? UGT is a methodology to understanding why and how people aggressively seek out definite channels to gratify certain needs. All of these papers have also discussed and recorded gratifications by referring to online reviews (assertiveness antecedents, effectiveness antecedents, dependency antecedents); and how users intentionally choose media that will fulfill given needs and allow them to enhance realization, moderation, social exchanges/companionship, amusement, or emission.

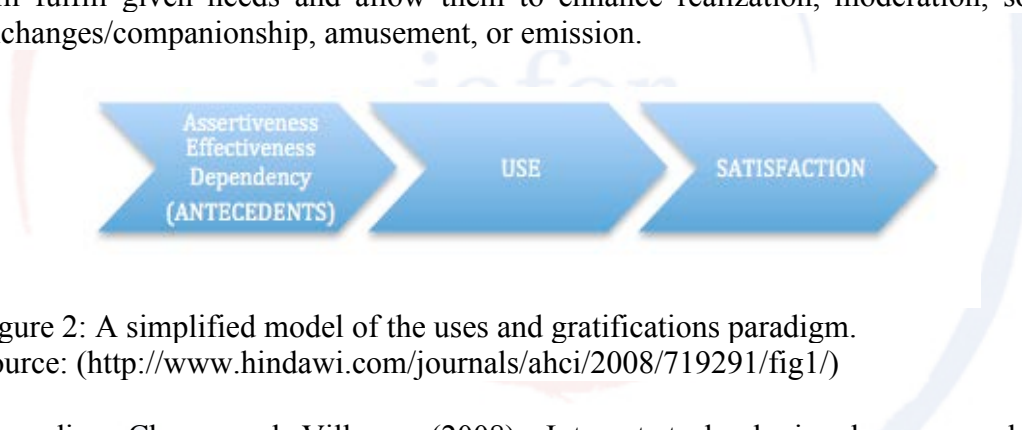


Figure 2: A simplified model of the uses and gratifications paradigm.

Source: (<http://www.hindawi.com/journals/ahci/2008/719291/fig1/>)

According Chang and Villegas (2008), Internet technologies have remarkable potential in terms of delivering its messages because of its ability to instill and cater those high penetration rates. They also claimed that nowadays, it is the only medium that consumers bring with them (via mobile phones or tablets) almost everywhere they go. YouTube has also managed to dominate the video sharing market in Malaysia at 62.6%. This is also the reason why YouTube Malaysia was launched in March 2012, which specifically flagged contents and videos pertinent to Malaysia. With such commitment from Goggle itself, and since we've had studies analysing assertiveness, effectiveness and dependency towards YouTube reviews and intention to purchase; this raises questions such as, how assertive are Malaysians towards reviews on YouTube? How effective are these videos in influencing their purchase intentions, and how dependent are they to the SNS? With literatures given, it is also only logical that the next step is to study the variables above within the context of Malaysia as it has not been done before.

This study intends to investigate the relationships between assertiveness, effectiveness and dependency towards YouTube reviews and intention to purchase among

Malaysian YouTube users that have purchased products/services influenced by reviews on YouTube. From this paper, it is hoped that, what ever forms of outcomes, there will be a greater understanding of need to use all possible tools and methods to reach potential online consumers via YouTube and introduces the contribution of the SNS as a positive and reliable substitute review channel to civil society groups, corporate organizations, individuals, movements, and civil society organizations in Malaysia. As for the operational definition of the variables, purchase intention refers to a plan of acquisition towards a particular good and the process of how consumers make consumption-related selections). Assertiveness in this study is defined as an overall assessment of a product or service shaped over period. An attitude satisfies individual motive and at the same time touches the shopping and buying behaviour of consumers. Effectiveness in this study is defined as the capability of producing a desired result; meanwhile, dependency is defined as a situation where one depends on another as a primary source (Solomon, M., 2009).

Methodology

An online survey of 50 questions using Google Docs was done to 400 Malaysian YouTube users using Purposive Sampling. Google Docs is a freeware web-based office suite offered by Google within its Google Drive service, which saves documents on the Internet. Many scholars have recently adopted Google Docs as a means of completing online surveys as it keeps data safe in the most basic format of spreadsheets. Scholars can later transfer the data and do all of the calculations in the SPSS program. This free software becomes the mediator for professional level statistics program. It also runs on both Mac and Windows and is extremely reliable. According to Global (2012), YouTube accounts for 67% of all online videos viewed in Malaysia, out of an audience of 9.3 Million. The sample chosen for this study is 400 ($p=.5, >100,000$) by referring to the table by Israel, Glenn. D. Only those who have purchased items resulted as a result of watching reviews on YouTube were chosen as respondents.

The research instrument in this study comprises of a 5-section questionnaire. All sections except for Section 1 used the 5 point Likert Scale ranging from 1 = “Strongly Disagree” to 5 = “Strongly Agree”. Data from the 400 respondents were analysed with SPSS using Descriptive statistics and Correlation analysis. Results were categorized in descriptive statistics (percentages) for section 1 and correlation analysis (no correlation, weak, strong or perfect correlation) for the rest of the sections. Crosschecking with the subject matter Professors in order to get the standardization of the questionnaire and wording of the questions was done to get the instrument’s validity. The Cronbach Alpha reliability test on 30 respondents for pre-test gained high score (0.86) and the Cronbach Alpha score for 400 samples was 0.88.

Findings And Discussions

Respondents’ Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of respondents indicated that 58.3% of the respondents were male. The majority of them were Malay (89.5%) with 42% spending 6-7 hours per day in online activities such as watching videos on YouTube. 50.7% were aged between 21 – 25. In terms of education level, 54.0% of the

respondents were Diploma holders, and 31.0% were Degree holders.

Assertiveness Towards YouTube Reviews

The first objective of this study was to investigate the assertiveness towards YouTube reviews among Malaysians. Results showed that the respondents have a positive attitude towards YouTube reviews ($x=5.00$). They agreed that product and services reviews they watched on YouTube were amusing ($x=5.00$), shareable ($x=5.00$), purposeful ($x=5.00$), interactive ($x=5.00$), practical ($x=5.00$), instructive ($x=5.00$), stimulating ($x=4.52$) and trustworthy ($x=4.52$). These findings are consistent with the findings of O'Connor (2008) which found positive assertiveness towards reviews on YouTube in terms of decision-making process whereby more pre-decision information about a services or product were provided. With the advent of mobile technology and the increasing trends of Internet in Malaysia, it is expected that such assertiveness to be recorded from the respondents.

Effectiveness of YouTube reviews

The second objective of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of YouTube reviews among Malaysians. It was found that the respondents positively agreed on the effectiveness of YouTube as the UCG medium of reviewing products and services. The respondents agreed that the product and services reviews they watched on YouTube were efficient ($x=5.00$), influence able ($x=4.47$), ethical ($x=5.00$), fruitful ($x=4.47$), comparable ($x=5.00$), suggestible ($x=5.00$), immediate ($x=4.52$) and futuristic ($x=4.52$). These findings are consistent with the findings of Yoo and Gretzel (2009) that has proven the capability of YouTube as an UCG, with an ability to organize its content, and so developed additional marketing opportunities.

Dependency On YouTube Reviews

The third objective of this study was to investigate the respondents' dependency on YouTube reviews. The respondents agreed that the product and services reviews they constantly watched on YouTube has made them to repeatedly seek sources of information that will as far as possible heighten their experiences, and reduce their chances of a disappointment or dissatisfaction. It was found that respondents depended on such reviews, which were repetitive ($x=4.47$), mainstream ($x=5.00$), current ($x=5.00$), time-saving ($x=4.47$), constantly updated ($x=4.47$), variety ($x=5.00$), usable ($x=4.52$) and explorable ($x=4.52$). These findings are consistent with the findings of Hofstaetter and Egger (2009) that claimed the traditional mass marketing techniques, such as brochures, TV adverts, consumer exhibitions and shows, are becoming less relevant to consumers embracing YouTube as the frontliners in the new media-sharing ecosystem.

Intention To Purchase After Viewing YouTube Reviews

The fourth objective of this study was to investigate the respondents' intention to purchase products or services after viewing YouTube reviews. The respondents agree that they have positive intention towards purchasing after receiving movie mobile advertising ($x=4.47$). They give positive remarks to continuously going back to YouTube reviews before making their decisions ($x = 4.47$); would probably purchase

the product or service mentioned in the text message or take part in the event ($x = 4.00$); and interested in getting more information on the product, service, or event in question ($x=4.00$). Therefore content providers and advertisers should revise their marketing mix and add the use of mobile advertising with social media marketing and location-based services. These findings are consistent with the findings of Hofstaetter and Egger (2009) that claimed, the way people view their choices is increasingly moving away from one that is based around TV schedules and a single domestic device, to one where the source is chosen based on what is available and best suited to a given situation.

Relationships Between Assertiveness, Effectiveness and Dependency Towards YouTube Reviews And Intention To Purchase

The last objective of this paper was to investigate the relationships between assertiveness, effectiveness and dependency towards YouTube reviews and the intention to purchase. There was a positive, high correlation between respondent's assertiveness, effectiveness and dependency towards YouTube reviews and intention to purchase ($r = .91$). Therefore, it is confirmed that viewing YouTube relates to a sense of authenticity of materials as uploaded by consumers and that these materials were highly appreciated by Malaysians. There is a correlation an increasing awareness amongst online buyers and the need for online marketers to better integrate all the various forms of marketing communications into this autonomous channel. Strong and consistent message needs to be projected if they are planning to be successful in their Internet marketing strategy.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The wide coverage of connected mobile devices in the home has opened up a world of possibilities when it comes to viewing video content. Consumer viewing habits now involve more than just the living room TV and traditional broadcast services. Today people take their entertainment with them around the house – and beyond. Viewing TV and video is now something that happens throughout the day, and as our exposure to content increases, so our assertiveness and behaviour towards it. The modern consumer has a wealth of choices over their devices and content sources, enabling them to adapt their viewing experience to suit their need, which also puts them to be in charge of their TV and video consumption. However, this abundance of choices creates greater complexity for users. There are now opportunities for service providers to forge new aggregate services, which would help consumers, simplify the management and selection of their content, enabling them to enjoy the TV and video experiences of tomorrow. These finding should be able to inspire online marketers to comply with current technologies, setup mobile sites, build mobile apps and fully extend their ads using these mobile platforms. Advertisers and content providers should also create ads geared towards a collective approach. Besides enabling various businesses to obtain the whereabouts information of its customers, mobile technology would also enable organizations to extend their reach and objectives to different levels of consumers.

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Demand for Exotic Ingredients: Wither the Endangered?

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Abstract

The trafficking of wildlife is a multi-billion dollar criminal activity that has seen the span of many decades. If previously such activities are confined to neighbouring countries as point of origin, now such borders seem to have disappeared. Exotic animal or animal parts travel thousands of kilometres around the globe to meet the insatiable demand of the human kind. Exotic fauna has found its way to become an ingredient of numerous products. Some are consumed as delicacies, aphrodisiacs or medicines. Some are used as objects of beauty or trophies. Whatever the reason, such excessive usage has brought about the decline in numbers of exotic endangered fauna, and this will eventually lead to the destruction of mankind. Akin to the non-traditional security threat of human trafficking, the trafficking of exotic fauna is a problem that has plagued Malaysia, either as a port of transit or as a source of origin. This paper explores the current mechanisms in place to strike the delicate balance of economic growth and sustainability of endangered species. Besides legal framework, there are also efforts by local NGOs and international bodies to assist the proper authorities to combat this menace. TRAFFIC, WWF and UNEP are those involved and constantly assisting Malaysia in curbing the illegal smuggling. The discussion will highlight setbacks and offer some views as to how possible improvements in terms of better security for these exotic endangered species can be achieved for the benefit of Malaysia, specifically and mankind as a whole.

Keywords: trafficking, wildlife, legal framework, NGO, Malaysia

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Introduction

Wilson¹ once said, “Biological diversity is the key to the maintenance of the world as we know it. Life in a local site struck down by a passing storm springs back quickly: opportunistic species rush in to fill the spaces. They entrain the succession that circles back to something resembling the original state of the environment.” This quotation indicates the importance of biological diversity or “biodiversity” as it now popularly known. It represents the diversity of life as all levels including genetic, species and ecosystems diversity.² Biodiversity has also been defined in Article 2 of the United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity 1992 viz., “the variability among living organisms from all sources including, *inter alia*, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems.” Hence, this would mean that humans are totally dependent upon plants, animals, fungi and micro-organisms. Humanity depends on them for many things, especially for food and as a source of numerous drugs. More importantly, they seem to offer the promise of sustainable productivity, viz., the earth can support on a continuing basis so that the future generations can in turn live peaceful lives of relative serenity and prosperity.³ There are actually many millions of species on earth, of which humans utilise only a small fraction to a great extent. For example, most food is provided by just 20 species and the total diversity of plants eaten worldwide is probably less than 5000 species.⁴ If humans manipulate a small fraction of earth’s diversity, why should there be a cause for alarm? The answer is simple --- humans destroy much more than they utilise. The present age is one driven by the insatiable desire to industrialise, viz., the desire of accumulating wealth. In pursuit of this, man has sadly neglected biodiversity.⁵

Situated near the equator, Malaysia is blessed with luscious rainforests; the oldest rainforest and the longest canopy walk in the world. It is not a wonder that Malaysia is also one of the twelve biological hotspots in the world. Malaysia, too, has had her fair share of development which has in turn caused Malaysia to incur ‘irretrievable losses’ in terms of biodiversity, a common trait that all countries in this world share. Additionally, it is this same geographical characteristic that makes Malaysia one of the hubs for several forms of trafficking including wildlife trafficking. The strategic placement of Malaysia has long been discovered. Situated on route between the east and west, the Malay Peninsula has drawn traders from the Portugal, Holland, England, Spain, Middle East, India and China during the heydays of Malacca. This attraction still persists to date.

Crimes Against Wildlife

Numerous faunal species are on the brink of extinction in Southeast Asia. The critically endangered two-horned Sumatran rhinoceros survives in small forest pockets of Sumatra and Borneo where their entire population is thought to be only in the range of 300 to 500 individuals. Unfortunately the Javan rhinoceros is now

¹ Edward O. Wilson. 1992. *The Diversity of Life*. The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Massachusetts, p.15.

² Nigel E. Stork, ‘How many species are there?’, *Biodiversity and Conservation* (2) 1993: 215.

³ Peter Raven, ‘Biodiversity: The Richness of Life’, *Save the Earth*, 1991: 71.

⁴ Nigel E. Stork, 1993: 216.

⁵ Peter Raven, 1991: 71.

extinct. The Sumatran tiger, akin to its cousin the Javan tiger will soon be extinct as well. Another species in danger is the Asian elephant, another large forest herbivore which needs large amounts of forest to survive. Unfortunately their habitat is shrinking by the day due to human encroachment and logging to the extent that such habitat can no longer support the elephants. The Malayan tapir, the largest of the 4 subsisting species of tapir and no more than 50 animals still live in the wild. Another endemic species to Sumatra and Borneo is the orangutan, or "man of the forest". They were once found on mainland Asia from Thailand to southern China. They feed mostly on fruit and move through the forest following the fruiting trees. There are thirteen separate species of primates in Borneo's lowland forests alone. Most have overlapping home ranges but have different diets and foraging methods.⁶

In addition to such intrusion by man, these faunal species have also to cope with humans' voracious greed for money which is ultimately fed by these species' own lives. At an estimated profit of USD18 billion, it is indeed a lucrative business.⁷ In July 2012, WWF released a list of 23 countries in Africa and Asia that are facing high levels of poaching and trafficking of ivory, rhino horn and tiger parts. Vietnam was in the top list and China was also highlighted in the report as well as Thailand and Central African countries.⁸ Turtles also suffer a similar fate. In the ASEAN WEN 2009 report, an estimated 13,000 metric tons of turtle is shipped to China from South East Asia every year. However, tigers are one of the most vulnerable species to poaching. According to WWF records, there were 9 subspecies of tigers in Asia, unfortunately there are only 6 subspecies left in the world. Sumatran Tiger is the only one left in Indonesia, while Javan Tiger and Bali Tiger have been extinct since 50 years ago. There are only as few as 3,200 tigers in wild life and it is the lowest number at all-time. Since 1900, the endangered tiger's habitat and numbers have been reduced by up to 95 per cent. Poachers continue to poison waterholes or set steel wire snares to kill tigers and tiger prey, selling their skins and body parts for use in traditional Chinese medicine.⁹ Nearly every part of a Tiger has a prescribed benefit according to the tenets of Chinese medicine and folklore. The eyeballs are used to treat epilepsy; the tail for various skin diseases; the bile for convulsions in children; whiskers for toothaches; and the brain for laziness and pimples. Of all tiger parts, the bones are the most valued. Tiger bone is most commonly used to treat rheumatism, but other indications are weakness and stiffness or paralysis, especially in the lower back and legs.¹⁰

Elephants, too, suffer the same fate as tigers as the illegal trade in ivory is very lucrative. In June 2011, Uganda Revenue Authority personnel seized 35 pieces of ivory worth \$5,000 at Entebbe International Airport. The ivory was packed in five metallic boxes destined for Malaysia to a yet-to-be identified trader and had been labelled as personal effects.¹¹ Then in September 2013, officials at Kenya's Mombasa port impounded more than three tons of illegal ivory disguised as peanuts for export to Malaysia, the second such seizure there in less than a week. The ivory was seized

⁶ http://www.blueplanetbiomes.org/se_asian_rnfrst.htm

⁷ <http://fightforrhinos.com/tag/wildlife-trade/>

⁸ <http://www.theasian.asia/archives/29202>

⁹ <http://www.tigersincrisis.com/>

¹⁰ Judy A. Mills and Peter Jackson, *Killed For A Cure: A Review of the Worldwide Trade in Tiger Bone*, Cambridge: TRAFFIC International, 1994.

¹¹ Martin Ssebuyira, *Ivory haul impounded at Uganda airport*, *Africa Review*, 15th November 2012.

on Monday and had been declared as 240 bags of peanuts. According to Kenyan revenue officials the ivory was worth more than \$700,000, one of the biggest seizures at that time. The previous week officials at Mombasa's port seized a substantial consignment of illegal ivory disguised as sundried fish marked for export to Malaysia. Such large seizures by officials indicate the increasing problem of poaching and illegal trade in ivory faced by East African nations. As indicated by CITES, the illegal ivory trade has more than doubled since 2007. Kenya's elephant population fell from 160,000 in 1960s to 16,000 in 1989 due to poaching. At present there are only an estimated 38,500 elephants in Kenya. Between 2009-2012, Kenyan officials have intercepted six major ivory consignments being smuggled through the port in the last three years. They were destined for Hong Kong, Cambodia, United Arab Emirates, China, Thailand and Malaysia.¹² The following two figures give an indication as to the usual trade routes of illegal wildlife trade.

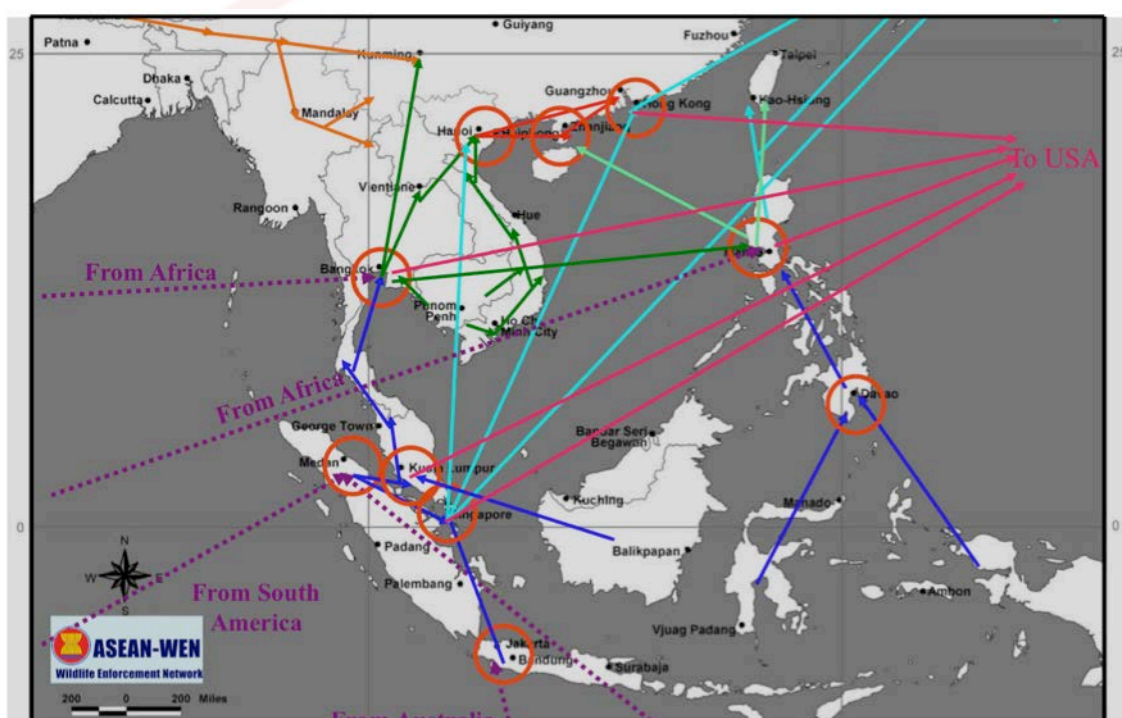


Figure 1: Common Illegal Wildlife Trade Routes in SE Asia Based on Case Studies
Source: ASEAN WEN¹³

¹² The Huffington Post, Green, Ivory Seized In Kenya Was Disguised As Peanuts, 7th September 2013.

¹³ <http://www.theasian.asia/archives/29202>



Figure 2: Illegal Wildlife Global Trade Routes
Source: Fight for Rhinos¹⁴

The Malaysian Legal Framework

In terms of faunal protection, the Malaysian legal framework appears to have had an early start. Way back in 1894, through the Straits Settlements Ordinance No. 3, protection was afforded to wild birds. This was followed in the states of Perak and Selangor in 1902¹⁵, then the state of Negeri Sembilan the year after.¹⁶ The subsequent years saw more faunal protection legislative instruments, for example in 1935 the Federated Malay States of Perak, Selangor, Negeri Sembilan and Pahang had an enactment prohibiting the taking, killing or attempting to take or kill, whales by persons belonging to ships registered or licensed in the Federated Malay States, whether inside or outside territorial waters of the Federated Malay States. Perhaps a more widespread provision on the matter came in the form of the Wild Life Protection Act 1972. The Act which repealed the Wild Animals & Bird Protection Ordinance 1955 contained 7 parts of 106 sections. It was amended 3 times, in 1976, 1988 and 1991. The protection for wild life was in the form of licensing mechanism whereby hunting is permitted only via licence. The Act also created wild life reserves and

¹⁴ <http://fightforrhinos.com/tag/wildlife-trade/>

¹⁵ Wild Animals & Birds Protection Enactment: Perak & Selangor 1902.

¹⁶ Wild Animals & Birds Protection Enactment: Negeri Sembilan 1903.

sanctuaries. Although there were provisions citing punishment for shooting, killing or taking of fully protected animals the punishment is shamefully dismal.¹⁷

The Wildlife Conservation Act 2010

Finally in 2010, an improved Wildlife Conservation Act 2010 (Act 716) was introduced, replacing its predecessor, the Wild Life Protection Act 1972. Under the purview of the Malaysian Wildlife and National Parks Department, this act came into force on 28th December 2010 and contains 136 sections divided into 9 parts with 7 schedules. Its contents are summarised in the following table:

PART	CONTENT	PROVISION
I	Preliminary	Sections 1-3
II	Appointment of Officers etc.	Sections 4-8
III	Licensing Provisions	Chap 1: Requirement for license etc. ~ Sections 9-11 Chap 2: License application etc. ~ Sections 12-25 Chap 3: Miscellaneous ~ Sections 26-35
IV	Duties and Obligations of Licensed Hunter etc.	Sections 36-46
V	Wildlife Reserve & Wildlife Sanctuaries	Sections 47-49
VI	General Exceptions & Presumptions	Sections 50-59
VII	Offences & Penalties	Chap 1: Offences Relating to Licence ~ Sections 60-65 Chap 2: Offences Relating to Permit ~ Sections 66-67 Chap 3: Offences Relating to Special permit ~ Sections 68-73 Chap 4: Miscellaneous ~ Sections 74-88
VIII	Powers Relating to Enforcement	Sections 89-116
IX	General	Sections 117-136

Table 1: Summary of Malaysian Wildlife Conservation Act 2010

It is contentedly observed that the penalties for statutory violations have been extensively increased. There are also stipulations with regard to the prerequisite of setting up of a zoo, commercial captive breeding, circus or wildlife exhibition. Some of the provisions and penalties are summarised as follows:

OFFENCES RELATING TO LICENCES		
SECTION	OFFENCE	PENALTY
60(1)	Hunting, etc., wildlife without	Fine of not more than RM50,000 or

¹⁷ For example section 65A stipulated that shooting, killing or taking of a Sumatran Rhino, tiger or clouded leopard is a crime punishable by a penalty of not more than RM15,000 or 5 years imprisonment or both.

	licence	imprisonment for a term not exceeding 1 year or both
60(2)	Hunting, etc., of more than 20 heads of Common Sharma, Oriental White Eye or Hill Myna	Fine of not less than RM20,000 and not more than RM50,000 or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 years or both
61	Hunting, etc. immature wildlife without licence	Fine of not more than RM100,000 or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 5 years or both
62	Hunting, etc. female wildlife without licence	Fine of not more than RM100,000 or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 5 years or both
63	Carrying out business of dealing, etc., without licence	Fine of not exceeding RM50,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 2 years or both
64	Collecting birds' nest without licence	Fine of not exceeding RM50,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 2 years or both
65	Importing, etc., protected wildlife without licence	Fine of not less than RM20,000 and not more than RM50,000 and imprisonment for a term not exceeding 1 year
OFFENCES RELATING TO PERMITS		
SECTION	OFFENCE	PENALTY
66	Operating zoo etc without permit	Fine of not exceeding RM70,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 3 years or both
67	Carrying out research or study without permit	Fine of not exceeding RM50,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 2 years or both
OFFENCES RELATING TO SPECIAL PERMITS		
SECTION	OFFENCE	PENALTY
68(1)	Hunting, etc., totally protected wildlife without special permit	Fine of not exceeding RM100,000 or imprisonment not exceeding 3 years or both
68(2)(a)	Hunting Pangolin, Python, Harlequin Monitor, Dumeril's Monitor or Clouded Monitor without special permit	Fine of not less than RM50,000 and not exceeding RM100,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 3 years or both
68(2)(b)	Hunting Crested Argus, Mountain Peacock Pheasant, Green Peafowl, Straw-Headed Bulbul, Rhinoceros Hornbill, Great Hornbill, Plain-pouched Hornbill or Helmeted Hornbill without special permit	Fine of not less than RM30,000 and not exceeding RM100,000 AND imprisonment of not exceeding 2 years
68(2)(c)	Hunting Serow, Gaur, Javan Rhinoceros, Sumatran Rhinoceros, Tiger, Leopard, Clouded Leopard or False Gharial without special permit	Fine of not less than RM100,000 and not exceeding RM500,000 AND imprisonment of not exceeding 5 years
69(1)	Hunting, etc., fully protected	Fine of not exceeding RM200,000 or

	wildlife without special permit	imprisonment of not exceeding 10 years or both
69(2)	Hunting, etc., of Serow, Gaur, Javan Rhinoceros, Sumatran Rhinoceros, Tiger, Leopard, Clouded Leopard or False Gharial	Fine of not less than RM150,000 and not exceeding RM500,000 DAN imprisonment of not exceeding 5 years
70(1)	Hunting, etc., of a fully protected female wildlife without special permit	Fine of not exceeding RM300,000 or imprisonment of not exceeding 10 years or both
70(2)	Hunting, etc., of a female Serow, Gaur, Javan Rhinoceros, Sumatran Rhinoceros, Tiger, Leopard, Clouded Leopard or False Gharial without special permit	Fine of not less than RM200,000 and not exceeding RM500,000 AND imprisonment 5 years
71	Importing, etc., fully protected wildlife without a special permit	Fine of not less than RM30,000 and not exceeding RM1000,000 AND imprisonment of not exceeding 3 years

Table 2: Summary of Some Provision and Penalties Malaysian Wildlife Conservation Act 2010

Besides national legislations that provide direct or indirect protection for wildlife, Malaysia also subscribes to international instruments and in terms of wildlife trade, it is the Convention on International Trade of Wild Flora and Fauna (CITES) 1973.

Convention on International Trade of Wild Flora and Fauna (Cites) 1973: Its Goals and Aspirations

Although man, in general, seem to disregarded nature, there have been (and still are) some effort by those who care to help maintain biodiversity. One of such effort is through the creation of multilateral treaties and conventions. Some examples of these conventions are the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats 1979, the Conservation on Wetlands of International Importance¹⁸ and the Convention on Biological Diversity.¹⁹ Another of such convention, which will be focused here, is the Convention on International Trade of Wild Flora and Fauna (CITES) 1973. It must be made clear that CITES was not constructed to protect and conserve migratory or other species in their habitat, nor does it serve to protect them from threats to their existence, such as pollution. The sole aim of CITES is to control international commercial trade in endangered species or their products. This method of control addresses the economics of wildlife itself.

This convention covers both animal and plant species. Thus, it does play an indirect role in preserving component parts of the habitat of some species. As aforementioned, trade of such species is very lucrative --- live animals and birds are transported to meet demands of pet trade; ornamental plants also fetch very high prices and products such as fur skins, shells, leather, timber, ivory and artefacts are also traded on a large scale. The provisions stipulated in CITES creates a technique in controlling import

¹⁸ For more, go to <http://www.ramsar.org/>

¹⁹ For more, go to <http://www.cbd.int/>

and export of such species and its products.²⁰ Although the control of trade may not provide for all of the necessary protection for a species' survival, the process of listing an animal or plant under CITES is hoped to arouse the necessary public attention and government action in prospecting the habitat of the species listed.²¹

CITES was initiated by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) in its General Assembly in 1963. At that assembly IUCN called for "an international convention of regulations of export, transit and import of rare or threatened wildlife species or their skins and trophies". However, it was ten years after that assembly that CITES was finally concluded in Washington D.C. on the 6th. March 1973.²² At that time 21 countries signed it, however this number has increased to 180.²³ CITES, in fact, only came into force on the 1st. July 1975 i.e. 90 days after the tenth instrument of ratification was deposited with the Depository Government,²⁴ more than two years after it was signed.²⁵

The process of making a declaration to be bound by the provisions of CITES is called 'ratification', 'acceptance', 'approval' or 'accession'. Ratification, acceptance and approval are legally equivalent actions but are only applicable in relation to the States that signed the Convention when it was open for signature, between 3 March 1973 (when it was concluded) and 31 December 1974. Whereas 'acceptance' and 'approval' are the actions taken by certain States when, at national level, the respective countries' constitutional law does not require a treaty to be 'ratified'. All States that had signed the Convention have now ratified, accepted or approved it. The term 'accession' is used in relation to the States that did not sign the Convention (see Articles XIX, XX and XXI).²⁶ It should be noted that the number of Parties to CITES may fluctuate because of geopolitical changes such as the unification of two Parties (for instance the unification of the Federal Republic of Germany and of the German Democratic Republic on 3 October 1990) or the division of a State into two or more separate States (for instance the division of Czechoslovakia on 1 January 1993 into the Czech Republic and Slovakia).

Malaysia acceded²⁷ to this convention on 20th July 1977 and the convention came into force in Malaysia on 18th January 1978. To carry out the said convention in 2008, Malaysia passed a specific legal legislation on CITES; the International Trade in Endangered Species Act 2008 (Act 686). This 55 sectioned act provides the mechanics for the control of wildlife trade in Malaysia. There are also specific provisions on trade of scheduled species on the following matters: import and export, re-export and introduction from the sea, possession, species in transit, breeding or propagation, and marking of the species. These activities are allowed upon obtaining of permit, certificate and registration.²⁸ Some provisions and penalties are summarised as follows:

²⁰ Birne & Boyle, *International Law and the Environment*, 1992: 475.

²¹ David S. Favre, *International Trade in Endangered Species: A Guide to CITES*, 1989: 30.

²² Simon Lyster, 1985: 239-240.

²³ <http://www.cites.org/eng/disc/what.php>

²⁴ In accordance with Article XXII(1) of CITES.

²⁵ Simon Lyster, *International Wildlife Law*, 1985: 7.

²⁶ <http://www.cites.org/eng/disc/parties/index.php>

²⁷ The act of depositing an instrument of "accession" at a later date than the specified time limit within which a country may become a party to a convention.

²⁸ Part IV of Act 686.

SECTION	OFFENCE	PENALTY
10(a)	Import and export of scheduled species by an individual	Fine of not more than RM100,000 for each animal or readily recognizable part or derivative of the but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of RM1 million or imprisonment of not more than 7 years or both
10(b)	Import and export of scheduled species by a corporate body	Fine not exceeding two hundred thousand ringgit for each animal, or readily recognizable part or derivative of the animal but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of two million
11(a)	Re-export and introduction from the sea any species without any certificate by an individual	Fine of not more than RM100,000 for each animal or readily recognizable part or derivative of the but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of RM1 million or imprisonment of not more than 7 years or both
11(b)	Re-export and introduction from the sea any species without any certificate by a corporate	Fine not exceeding two hundred thousand ringgit for each animal, or readily recognizable part or derivative of the animal but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of two million
12(aa)	Possession of scheduled species by an individual	Fine of not more than RM100,000 for each animal or readily recognizable part or derivative of the but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of RM1 million or imprisonment of not more than 7 years or both
12(bb)	Possession of scheduled species by a corporate	Fine not exceeding two hundred thousand ringgit for each animal, or readily recognizable part or derivative of the animal but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of two million
13(2)(a)	Scheduled species in transit exported or re-exported without licence, certificate or written permission committed by an individual	Fine of not more than RM100,000 for each animal or readily recognizable part or derivative of the but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of RM1 million or imprisonment of not more than 7 years or both
13(2)(b)	Scheduled species in transit exported or re-exported without licence, certificate or written	Fine not exceeding two hundred thousand ringgit for each animal, or readily recognizable part or

	permission committed by a corporate	derivative of the animal but such fine shall not exceed in the aggregate of two million
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Table 3: Summary of Some Provision and Penalties Malaysian International Trade in Endangered Species Act 2008

As can be seen, the provisions cover various areas of wildlife trade and there is even a distinction between offences and penalties committed by an individual and a corporate body. The governing institutions for this act are the Department of Wildlife and National Parks and the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment for Peninsular Malaysia; Sabah Department of Wildlife for the state of Sabah; and Sarawak Department of Forestry and Sarawak Forestry Corporation for the state of Sarawak.²⁹ Nevertheless, in terms of the success of the aforementioned legal instruments, the role of NGOs cannot be downplayed and deserve its own discussion.

NGOs at Work

Spiro³⁰ notes that the era of globalisation has propelled the role of NGOs as a major actor. They have “moved from being an actor not widely recognised among academics, policymakers, or the public, to one understood as being consequential among both elite and popular audiences.” Some of these NGOs are national based while there are also those who are transnational. In terms of wildlife trade, WWF, TRAFFIC and IUCN play key roles in assisting the local authorities, for example in Malaysia, to complement existing enforcement and monitoring mechanisms.

Established in 1972, WWF-Malaysia is a Malaysian organisation affiliated with WWF (World Wide Fund for Nature), the international conservation organisation. It began as a national conservation trust, a humble organisation of two persons; it now has almost 200 people. During the earlier days, they focused on scientific research of wildlife and important natural habitats. This work later expanded to the management of protected areas. Today, WWF-Malaysia’s work covers the broader issues of the natural environment, incorporating such aspects as policy work, environmental education, public awareness and campaigns.³¹ Its conservation work is on large-scale priority areas that encompass a broad range of wildlife and ecological systems. Their ultimate goal is to achieve long-term and sustainable conservation impact in the country by conserving, restoring, and protecting a diversity of species, forests, marine, coastal, and freshwater environments for the earth, the present and future generations.³²

Another NGO is TRAFFIC, a wildlife trade monitoring network, which works globally on trade in wild animals and plants in the context of both biodiversity conservation and sustainable development. TRAFFIC specializes in investigating and analysing wildlife trade trends, patterns, impacts and drivers to provide the leading

²⁹ Schedule One of Act 686.

³⁰ Peter J. Spiro, Non-Governmental Organisations and Civil Society, in Daniel Bodansky, Jutta Brunnee and Ellen Hey (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of International Environmental Law*, 2007, Oxford: Oxford University Press, p.771.

³¹ http://www.wwf.org.my/about_wwf/who_we_are/

³² http://www.wwf.org.my/about_wwf/what_we_do/

knowledge base on trade in wild animals and plants; informing, supporting and encouraging action by governments, individually and through inter-governmental cooperation to adopt, implement and enforce effective policies and laws; providing information, encouragement and advice to the private sector on effective approaches to ensure that sourcing of wildlife uses sustainability standards and best practice; and developing insight into consumer attitudes and purchasing motivation and guiding the design of effective communication interventions aimed to dissuade purchasing of illicit wildlife goods.³³ Established in 1976, TRAFFIC has bases in 30 countries that are organised in seven regional teams. In order to encourage sustainability, TRAFFIC provides decision-makers, traders and others involved in wildlife trade reliable information about the environmental harm irresponsible trade can cause, and present guidance on how to counteract it. In addition they work closely with law makers, law enforcers and the judiciary.³⁴

These two NGOs work together with IUCN, International Union for Conservation of Nature. Founded in 1948, it boasts as the largest global environmental organisation. Conserving biodiversity is central to the mission of IUCN. IUCN has about 11,000 experts in various fields and among the remarkable work done is the setting up of the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species™, a definitive international standard for species extinction risk. They are involved in hundreds of conservation projects all over the world from the local level to those involving several countries, all aimed at the sustainable management of biodiversity and natural resources. Perhaps their collective strength of more than 1,200 government and non-governmental member organizations, is their greatest asset for IUCN has the capability to show influences international environmental conventions, policies and laws.³⁵

Suggestions & Conclusion

There is no denying that all living creatures and organisms are dependent on one another, directly or indirectly. This equilibrium is a delicate one and must be adhered to if man and its fellow neighbours wish to ensure perpetuation of its species on this great big blue marble we all call home. Legal measures are indeed a requirement to facilitate the combat against wildlife crimes. Laws at the national level must be in tandem with efforts at the international level. Although such instruments are in place, there are other matters to be considered for sometimes having such legal framework alone is not enough. In Malaysia, recent amendments to wildlife laws has seen a new drive against wildlife trafficking. With its more stringent measures and harsher penalties, it provides enforcers with better tools in the fight against wildlife crimes. Although it has been reported that some 306 smuggling attempts have been foiled and the wildlife materials confiscated,³⁶ there is more to be done. The lure of making profit in multiple folds as compared to other traditional methods is definitely a Herculean challenge for wildlife conservationist and protectors. It is this single reason that perpetuates wildlife trade and trafficking that spans the globe. Perhaps the

³³ <http://www.traffic.org/overview/>

³⁴ <http://www.traffic.org/trade/>

³⁵ <http://www.iucn.org/about/>

³⁶ Speech by Loh Seck Tiong, Representative of Permanent Mission of Malaysia to the United Nations at the High Level Discussion, Poaching and Illicit Wildlife Trafficking – A Multidimensional Crime and the Growing Challenge to the International Community, 26 September 2013, CR 1 (CB), United Nations, New York, http://www.cites.org/sites/default/files/eng/news/sg/2013/intervention_my.pdf

traditional sanctions of fines and imprisonment should be coupled with other alternative measures like seizures of all wealth obtained/made from trafficking wildlife or community service related to wildlife conservation and protection. Additional provision for whistle-blowers should be encased in the legal framework for it is the information from the general public that assists the enforcers in the quest to stop these 'public robbers' from reaping wealth that they did not sow.

As can be seen, it takes a concerted effort from all quarters to continue the fight against wildlife trafficking. Although legislations and conventions are important tools, their effectiveness hinges on many factors. Coupled with tougher laws is the need for committed, knowledgeable and unwavering law enforcers. Capacity building in this area is of utmost importance. Knowledge empowerment would bring about better skilled enforcers. The transfer of knowledge and exchange of ideas among fellow enforcers from neighbouring countries and region is critical. ASEAN WEN, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations Wildlife Enforcement Network (ASEAN-WEN)³⁷ is very timely. Indeed, such coordination of regional response to illegal trade in protected species, which threatens biodiversity, endangers public health, and undermines economic well-being is definitely the way forward. This is also the next factor which affects the fight against wildlife trafficking -- continuous political will from every country. Leaders of countries change in due time, so do the focus of the government in power. To ensure a continuous and relentless fight against wildlife trafficking, unwavering commitment from all those at the helm is important. In addition, countries with such wildlife trafficking concern can work with enforcement body such as Interpol to strengthen and 'lengthen their arms'.

Loud and strong 'voices' of NGOs is also imperative. The focus on the fight against wildlife trafficking from different angles brings a more holistic approach to the matter. WWF, TRAFFIC and IUCN tackle the matter through various scientific efforts. Additionally, WildAid³⁸ attacks the matter by gathering support from one of the important players of the market – the consumers. With the tagline, when the buying stops, the killing can, too, it manages to engage numerous famous faces to endorse and advertise the importance of saying 'no' to all types of products and derivatives relating to wildlife. This effort can perhaps be copied by other home grown figures in each country as their command of the public can be a useful tool to draw more followers to the cause. In line with this is the need for educating everyone especially the younger generation who could then persuade the older generation who are still placing 'therapeutic' myths to wildlife to cease their old beliefs. Such drive for educating should come from the government, corporate bodies and NGOs alike. In this same aspect of educating the public, the role of the media is essential. The multiplicity of medium that encases media may actually be a great untapped asset in this fight. Traditional and modern media have to also rise to this challenge. In conclusion, the united effort from all is crucial in the effort to cease wildlife trafficking. Time may ultimately be required, unfortunately perhaps that is something we may not have.

³⁷ <http://www.asean-wen.org/>

³⁸ <http://www.wildaid.org/>



A Typology of Chinese Young People and Information Privacy Concerns

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Privacy is a basic human need (Doyal, 1997). While individuals want to communicate and present themselves to others, many could become increasingly vigilant with regard to the information they disclose. This is well captured by the concept of “information privacy”, which was about one’s decision regarding when, how, and to what extent information about them is communicated to others (Westin, 1967). The concern of information privacy is thus about being in control of information, security of information exchange, and whether the collector of this information will behave appropriately (Lenier Jr. & Saini, 2008). The notion of information privacy has recently come to be viewed as a critical ethical issue that deserves attention from both scholars and practitioners (Smith, Milburg, & Burke, 1996). In this paper, we examined Chinese young people’s understanding of information privacy and how their concerns with information privacy varied across contexts. Many studies have investigated privacy concern in virtual worlds, wherein individuals could easily present themselves with a totally different identity. We shifted our attention to the offline world, with the aim to achieve a better understanding of how young people nowadays think and behave when it comes to privacy issues.

Definition of information privacy

There has been no uniform definition for information privacy; the approaches to defining the term can be found in various disciplines, such as law, marketing, communication, psychology and so forth. Smith, Dinev, and Xu (2011) summarized different definitions of privacy in four dimensions: a) privacy as a state; b) privacy as control; c) privacy as a right; and d) privacy as a commodity. We elaborated on each dimension below.

Based on Westin’s (1967) introduction of the *privacy-as-state* concept, Schoeman (1984) defined privacy as “a state of limited access to a person (p. 3),” and Weinstein (1971) construed it as a state of “being apart from others (p. 626).” However, Westin’s (1967) conceptualization of privacy also interpreted it as *control*, as reflected in its definition as the amount of control that individuals can exert over the type of information, and the extent of that information, revealed to others. This control-based definition has since become the mainstream of privacy research, most likely because it captures more of the attributes of information privacy (Smith et al., 2011). Debate exists regarding whether privacy is a human right when we consider its roots in legal and political theories. Given different legal and societal frameworks of various cultures, there is no absolute answer to this debate. For instance, Warren and Brandeis (1890) viewed privacy as a developing *right* in U.S. law, as “the right to be left alone”, which diverged from the traditional British perspective (Richards & Solove, 2007). However, some political scientists argued that privacy is not an absolute right but subject to the economic principles, e.g., cost–benefit analysis and trade-off principles (Smith et al., 2011). Under this guideline, personal information is released in exchange for other benefits. This recognition of the economic component encouraged the view of privacy as *commodity* (Campbell & Carlson 2002; Davies, 1997). Having said that, many researchers did not specify the origins or theoretical bases of their definitions of privacy, thus the picture in this area remains a blur.

In this study, we did not particularly adopt any definition from above; instead, we asked the participants to define the term based on their own understanding. This concerns our first research question: How did Chinese young people define

information privacy and did their understanding align with or differ from existing theoretical frameworks?

Typology of information privacy concerns: Online and offline

Efforts have been made to classify information privacy among different sample groups. Traditional typologies of information privacy concerns can be traced back to offline consumers. Westin's typology of consumers identified three distinct groups, based on their concerns with privacy in the (offline) marketplace: those not concerned about privacy at all (e.g., individuals who tended to abandon most privacy claims in exchange for service benefits), those highly concerned (e.g., individuals who tended to always choose privacy controls over consumer benefits), and those concerned about privacy depending on the situation (individuals who weighed the benefits of opportunities and services against the degree of personal information to be disclosed) (Federal Trade Commission, 1996).

Westin's typology was replicated both in online (Cranor, Reagle, & Ackerman, 2000) and offline environments (Smith, 1994). Sheehan's (2002) study with online consumers, however, showed significant differences in profiling the respondents from Westin's typology. She segmented consumers into four distinct categories based on their responses in 15 hypothetical situations: unconcerned (no concerns with privacy in all situations), circumspect (with a low level of concern with most situations), wary (a moderate level of concern with most situations), and alarmed Internet users (highly concerned with privacy in all situations). This four-part typology was based on the level of privacy concerns, which presented an alternative way of classifying individuals in respect to their privacy concerns. In summary, the above studies showed consistent findings that the majority of the sample was categorized into the pragmatist group, reflecting the contextual nature of privacy concerns, although the percentage of the sample in this category varied from study to study. This pointed to our second research question: Can Chinese young people be segmented into distinct groups based on existing typologies of privacy concerns?

Contextual nature of privacy concerns

Privacy does not exist in a vacuum; rather, it both influences and can be influenced by societal forces (Sheehan, 2002). This was particularly evident in individuals with pragmatic privacy concerns. They have privacy to the extent that others have limited access to information about them, to the intimacies of their lives, to their thoughts or their bodies (Schoeman, 1992). The decision to disclose him or herself depends on a range of personal and environmental factors, such as gender, race, personality and culture. The most powerful determiner thus far discovered, however, is the identity of the person to whom an individual might disclose him or herself and the nature and purpose of the relationship between the two people. More specifically, disclosure of one's experience is most likely when the other person is perceived as a trustworthy person of good will and/or as one who is willing to disclose his or her experience in the same depth and breadth (Jourard, 1966).

In the current study, we situated the respondents in three different conditions, faced with people who play different roles in their relationships – strangers, family members and close friends. We expected that most of the participants would be

pragmatists in the way that their levels of concern would escalate if they perceived the other person less close, intimate or trustworthy. Only a small percentage of the respondents would maintain their privacy concern profiles across situations.

Present study

This study focused on information privacy concerns in Chinese youth's ordinary life. The purpose of this study was to explore Chinese young people's definitions of information privacy and to categorize them using both Westin's (FTC, 1996) and Sheehan's (2002) typology as general guidelines to determine whether types of privacy concern in consumers mirror the university students in China. We believed the combination of the two typologies more appropriate for the current study as this approach did not only consider the contextual nature of privacy concern but also the levels of concern within each context. Further, we attended to one of the influencing factors on individuals' decisions to share or restrict information – familiarity with the person the participants interacted with. As an exploratory study, two specific research questions were investigated: 1) How did Chinese young people define information privacy? and 2) Can Chinese young people be segmented into distinct groups based on Westin's and Sheehan's typology of privacy concerns?

Method

Hardcopies of surveys were administered to 196 university students in three universities in South China on a voluntary basis. 57.7% were males and 91.3 % were undergraduates. Mean age was 20.76 years old ($SD = 1.48$), ranging from 17 to 25 years old. Participants also provided their demographic details (e.g., age, sex, highest educational qualification). A checklist with 16 categories of perceived privacy concerns, including an additional category of "others", was provided. Students were asked to indicate their choices when faced with close friends, family members and strangers, respectively. The surveys were responded outside class under the supervision of the research assistant.

Results

Definition of privacy

Among 167 valid answers to define information privacy, roughly half of the respondents (47.9%) provided a state-based definition, whereas 9.6% provided a control-based definition, 2.4% defined privacy as a personal right and only 1.2% took a commodity perspective, following the classifications by Smith et al. (2011). Interestingly, the other half of the students' answers captured other concepts from privacy, such as confidentiality (3.0%), secrecy (13.8%), and security (0.6%). These concepts have been identified as overlapping but different concepts from privacy (Smith et al., 2011). 21.6% of the respondents provided descriptive accounts of privacy, suggesting that privacy can be simply understood as a repository of personal information.

Development of typology

Chinese young people in this study could be segmented into distinct groups, representing differing levels/types of privacy concern. Results indicated that the respondents overall were pragmatic when it comes to privacy. They reported on average 9.14 categories of information they would be unwilling to disclose to a stranger, compared with 2.97 categories to family members and 3.14 categories to close friends. The differences achieved a significance level of .000 ($F = 202.09$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .68$). We then calculated the average mean difference between the number of categories of information selected for privacy concerns across three conditions and assessed the profile of each student according to the median ($Md = 4.00$). It is noteworthy that the operationalization of pragmatist in this study was based on the variation from one condition to the other. Those whose choices of types of information varied above 4 categories across the three conditions were classified as pragmatists. Those whose choices of types of information below 4 were either unconcerned or highly concerned throughout situations, depends on the average number of categories of information in each condition. Results showed that 71.4% of the participants were pragmatists, while 20.4% were classified as unconcerned and 8.2% were consistently concerned.

Sheehan's (2002) typology differentiated the pragmatists by the varying level of concerns. Under this guideline, we further distinguished the respondents labeled as pragmatic by the total number of categories of information selected by its median of 15.9: those whose total concern ranged from 4 to 15 were concerned with privacy at a slightly higher level than the unconcerned group, and those whose total concern ranged from 16 to 39 displayed a moderately high level of privacy concern.

Given the different instruments used in the current study, we also sought alternative ways to make better sense of the data. We decided to differentiate respondents who were highly pragmatic and slightly pragmatic. Those with mean differences among three conditions above the overall mean (5.8) were identified highly pragmatic (30.6%) and those whose score below the overall mean (5.8) were slightly pragmatic (40.8%). The purpose was to delineate individuals who had a strong awareness of the change of conditions, as compared to those with weak awareness of the different conditions. This had implications for their behavioral responses when confronted with different parties. Our follow up question of how they would react if they perceived privacy threats showed that the respondents in general directly refuse to answer the question regardless their grouping (around half of the responses). Respondents who were unconcerned or pragmatic also chose to change the topic of the conversation (20% and 25%, respectively). 17.3% of the slightly pragmatic group also tended to provide vague answers in this situation. In both highly and slightly pragmatic groups, 12% of the respondents reported they would react differently depending on the situation. This was not observed in unconcerned or consistently concerned groups.

In terms of the content of information, when faced with family members, students were particularly concerned with their sexual experience (25.04%) and relationship history (20.75%). Similarly, with close friends, students' top three choices for privacy concerns were sexual experience (20.98%), crime record (13.5%) and relationship history (10.24%). With strangers, students became also concerned with contact information (8.82%), following sexual experience (9.66%) and relationship history

(8.88%). Because the variety of selected information was much wider for strangers than the other two conditions, the percentage of each category dropped dramatically.

Discussion

Privacy has been described as a multidimensional construct (Altman 1977). Other concepts such as confidentiality, secrecy, and security have been claimed to be overlapping with privacy and added to the confusion (Margulis 2003a, 2003b; Tavani, 2007). The current findings of students' understanding of privacy reflected this confusion to a large extent. Roughly half of the respondents construed privacy in a way that was relevant but different from its theoretical meaning. It demonstrated that the common understanding of privacy deviated from its theoretical explanation. This left us a question whether existing theories of privacy need to be expanded to cover a wider variety of definitions or the individuals need to be educated such that they can better understand privacy-relevant situations and react accordingly.

On top of existing typologies of privacy concerns (e.g., Westin, Sheehan), our new four-part typology added further evidence of the contextual nature of privacy (Schoeman, 1984). Smith (1994) found that people can easily change their orientation to privacy, depends on how they assess the specific situation. By controlling the level of privacy, individuals are striving toward some sort of balance (McLean, 1995). Our differentiation of highly and slightly pragmatic draws a finer line between those who really care about the situation and those who are aware of the different situations but might not transfer the awareness to subsequent actions.

Beliefs determine behavior (Patient & Orr, 2003). Whereas several studies supported for a dichotomy between stated privacy concerns and actual revelation behavior (Acquisti & Gross, 2006; Stutzman, 2006; Tufekci, 2008), Krasnova and colleagues (2009) found that individuals do reduce the amount of information they disclose in response to their privacy concerns. Boyd and Ellison (2007) also argued that perceived privacy threats are changing the way people disclose information about themselves by undermining their ability to control and manage impressions and social contexts. As such, respondents profiled as "pragmatic" were expected to make flexible decisions in different situations. But only one tenth of the respondents' answers confirmed this characterization. The discrepancy between the choices of types of information under different circumstances and the reaction to privacy threats adds to the controversial insights into how privacy concerns shape individual behavior in reality.

Conclusion

Current findings need to be interpreted with caution. First, the sample only represented university students in China. The results may not be able to be generalized to other populations. Second, only self-reported data were collected, although this was a very popular way of collecting information on privacy concerns. Intentional distortion in self-report responses could lead to response bias (Fendrich & Kim, 2001). Logical and estimation errors are also possible when respondents collect past information to construct an answer (Bailey, Flewelling, & Rachal, 1992). Hence, it is advisable to use multiple data sources to cross-verify the reliability and validity of

respondents' answers. Alternative ways include asking respondents to think and act in authentic situations wherein privacy is concerned.

With the upsurge of Internet use, a large body of research has been conducted on online information privacy, as seen in the recent reviews by Bélanger and Robert (2011), and Li (2011, 2012). As such, future research can be directed to the comparison between online and offline privacy concerns within the same individual. As Zarsky (2004) argued, individuals tend to maintain two separate yet related selves between online and offline, so it would be quite difficult to draw inferences from the virtual space to the physical realm. Hence, any deduction of the identity of the offline entity from the one stands behind the online avatar would be of a lesser value. Researchers must examine the primary characteristics of online and offline privacy concerns in order to better recognize individual needs in different contexts, and highlight improvements that may be made in meeting the needs.

The logo for the International Association for Business and Economics (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping circular arcs. The outer arc is a light blue color, and the inner arc is a light red color. The arcs are positioned such that they appear to frame the text, with the red arc on the left and the blue arc on the right, creating a sense of depth and movement.

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Factors affecting restructuring of Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs) change to Social Entrepreneurs: A Case study of Non-Profit Organizations in Thailand

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Abstract

Objectives of this study are to (1) find the changing causes of Thai NPOs to social entrepreneurship, (2) find the key success factors that affect to Thai NPOs for restructuring and changing to social entrepreneurs, and (3) analyze the influent factors leading to success or failure, develop restructure change to social entrepreneurs, and compile and disseminate information for Thai NPOs.

The results found that NPOs in Thailand are facing stiff competition, rising community needs, and decreasing government and business funds. NPOs in Thailand are attempting to restructure through increasing revenues (by selling goods and services); Key success factors that affect to Thai NPOs for restructuring to become social entrepreneurs were (1) internal factor: recognizing the threat of competition, degree of commitment to mission-driven service, NPOs committees perspective, ability of NPOs employees in business knowledge (Marketing, Accounting, Financial, Research and Development), adequate resources (Human Resource, Finance, Information); (2) external factor: legal issues and advocacy, good network between NPOs and stakeholders.

Keywords: Non-Profit Organizations, social entrepreneurs, restructuring

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In both industrialized and developing countries, there is a growing body of experience, which attests to the positive roles that non-profit organizations (NPOs) play in development. These roles include, in particular: (1) Providing goods and services - especially meeting needs which have not hitherto been met by either the State or by the private sector; (2) Assisting the government achieve its development objectives - in particular through contributing skills for which NPOs have comparative advantage, such as public information, education and communications campaigns, or providing information about the situations and needs of particularly vulnerable groups; (3) Helping citizens to voice their aspirations, concerns and alternatives for consideration by policy makers, thereby giving substance to governments' policies regarding freedoms of association and speech. And (4) Helping to enhance the accountability and transparency of government and local government programs and of officials. (Clark, 1991)

Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account of Thailand (NIPS) 2006-2008 Supported by the Johns Hopkins University under the guideline of the Handbook on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts developed by the Johns Hopkins University Center for Civil Society Studies in cooperation with the United Nations Statistics Division founded in 2006 the study results show that there were 70,792 non-Profit organizations in Thailand which can be classified by the International Standard Classification (ISIC) into 4 sectors: Education 1.2 percent , Human health activities 0.03percent , Social work activities without accommodation 28.7percent and Activities of Membership Organization 70.1percent (Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account of Thailand, 2010)

It should be noted that the sources of revenue of the NPIs in Thailand came mostly from private donations with 52.6 percent share of total revenue. Government support accounted for only 7.0 percent of total revenue and the remaining balance came from the sale of good and service, property income and foreign grants and transfers (Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account of Thailand, 2010)

As for NPIs expenditures, the majority is operating expenses. A significant part of the expense is on final consumption expenditure which accounted for an average of 38.2 percent to total expense per year. The final consumption expenditure of NPIs is considered to be the benefit of households through NPIs activities in both normal and disaster situation (Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account of Thailand, 2010) .

Revenue and expenditure Comparing of non-profit organizations in Thailand found that in 2006 NPO have revenue 263,119 million bahts ,284,011 million bahts in 2007 and 306,363 million bahts in 2008 and have expenditure 205,671 million bahts(78.16 present of revenue) in 2006 , 213,421 million bahts (75.14 present of revenue) in 2007 and 234,790 million bahts (76.63 present of revenue) in 2008 (Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account of Thailand, 2010).

Table 1 Revenue and expenditure Comparing of non-profit organizations in Thailand 2006-2008

	2006	2007	2008
Revenue (million bahts)	263,119	284,011	306,363
sale of good and service	94,488	103,727	114,426
private donations	125,664	134,068	141,748
Government support	21,931	23,430	25,328
foreign grants	7,575	8,077	8,629
property income	13,462	14,709	16,233
Expenditure (million bahts)	205,671	213,421	234,790
	(78.16 % of revenue)	(75.14%of revenue)	(76.63 % of revenue)

Source: Johns Hopkins University Center for Civil Society Studies and the United Nations Statistics Division(Thailand), 2010

To support the non-profit organizations can achieve significant role should be ways to increase revenues (sold of good and service by themselves). One of the ways is develop good and service of non-profit organizations and restructure organization and develop strategic plan to the non-profit organizations operation. Social business plan is an important tool to make the activities of non-profit organizations succeeds. Objectives of this study are to (1) find the changing causes of Thai NPOs to social entrepreneurship, (2) find the key success factors that affect to Thai NPOs for restructuring and changing to social entrepreneurs, and (3) analyze the influent factors leading to success or failure, develop restructure change to social entrepreneurs, and compile and disseminate information for Thai NPOs.

Major research questions

The major research questions of this study include:

- 1) Why Thai NPOs change to social entrepreneurship?
- 2) What are the key success factors that affect to Thai NPOs for restructuring and changing to social entrepreneurs?

Research Methodology

In the methodology, sources of data used in this research include:

Documentary Research: I used the Secondary materials from dissertation of doctoral degree academic papers ,journal articles, governmental reports, NPOs report, newspaper articles , newsletters , magazines in Thai and in English version from 1990s to 2013 that related to Social Entrepreneurship, Non-Profit Organizations and case study of Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs) change to social entrepreneurs.

Field Research: In-depth interviews Key informants such as employees of 14 Non-Profit Organizations that change to social entrepreneurship (including: Cubic Creative, Energy Ashram: Appropriate Technology Association, Green Net Corporative, Kaengkrachan riverside resort, Butterfly book house, Thammasapa

Publishing, Cabbages & Condoms restaurant, Mae Fah Luang Foundation Under Royal Patronage, Doctor Publishing,

Makhampom Theater Group, Khao-Kwan Foundation, Grass root Innovation Network Co., Ltd.: GIN, Foundation for children Publishing, Komol Kimthong Publishing), Agency officials to support the business community for non-profit organization; Corporate Social Responsibility Institute (CSRI), Thai Social Enterprise Officer (TSEO), Change Fusion Organization etc.

Observations Research: Participant Observation in Social Business activities and Non-Participant Observation when interview the key informants.

Expected outcome

The overall objective of this study is to suggest of non-profit organizations in Thailand. The results of my analysis suggest the following propositions.

The study result can be synthesized to present a model of Social Business Plan that operated by a nonprofit organization. Social enterprise. Focus on the financial, environmental and social goals simultaneously balances the Triple Bottom Line.

Non-Profit Organization can develop the ability to rely on their own without waiting for donations or assistance from funding alone. But progress to earn equitable to continue the mission of the nonprofit organization and sustainability.

Literature Review

Non-profit organizations

Conditions for successful Non-profit organizations management is presented in various academic papers and research papers. Dimitrios, Sakasa and Vlachosa (2013) for example “strategic leadership” supplies a widely shared sense of long term direction and a fascinating project that drives the company through all the important and difficult situations of constant concern. Strategic Leadership is even more difficult to implement in a non-profit entity where there is no gain and all are based on volunteerism. While Polonsky et al. (2011) suggest that If managers involved in coordinating alliance activities are expected to manage both strategic and tactical alliances, it is important that any differences in regard to the management of these types of relationships be understood, if only to ensure that the outcomes are maximized. Glaser and Shleifer (2001) believe that not-for-profit firms are often controlled by entrepreneurs, and not by their employees or customers. The decision of entrepreneurs to establish such firms can be understood as an attempt to commit themselves to softer incentives. Soft incentives protect customers, volunteers, donors, and employees of the firm against expose expropriation. Furthermore Goering (2008) found a “mixed” oligopoly setting is explored, which includes a for-profit, a public, and a commercial non-profit firm in a simple linear demand constant returns setting. A commercial NPO has “social concern” in that it takes into account the market surplus of its members or stakeholders in its objective function. In case The role of the non-profit sector in immigration in Italy and Spain has been compared and contrasted on the basis of their similar migratory experience in the Mediterranean sub-system.

There also appears to be a similarity in non-profit sector relations with immigration. In both states the continuous and rapid growth of immigrants has been paralleled by a similar growth in the non-profit sector, which is reflected in the numbers of non-profit sector assisted immigrants (Carella, Gurrieri, & Lorizio, 2007).

Social entrepreneurship

Various academic and popular literature define about term of social entrepreneurship (SE), example Johnson (2000 as cited in Peredo & McLean, 2006) argues that “social entrepreneurship is emerging as an innovative approach for dealing with complex social needs” while Seelos & Mair (2005) speak of social entrepreneurship creates new models for the provision of products and services that cater directly to basic human needs that remain unsatisfied by current economic or social institutions. And Fowler (2000 as cited in Johnson, 2002) has produced the most complex social entrepreneurship typology to date, highlighting three types of social entrepreneurship are integrated social entrepreneurship, re-interpretation, complementary social entrepreneurship.

Role and Benefit of social enterprises are studied by many researchers such as Sakarya et al. (2012) found that Social alliances are voluntary collaborations between business and social enterprises addressing social problems too complex to be solved by unilateral organizational action. The present study adopts a systems approach to the study of social alliances and concurrently analyzes the objectives instrumental in the formation of the cross-sector collaboration, the inputs provided by the partners and the outcomes and social transformation impact of the social alliances in a subsistence market place context. Sodhi and Tang (2011) shown how a social enterprise helps its associated micro-entrepreneurs by improving the latter’s supply chain operations via: (1) easier access to financial credits; (2) easier access to market information; (3) easier market access; and (4) better access to supplies and raw materials and higher productivity through better health and equipment. While Defourny and Nyssens (2010) stated that the trends in development of social enterprises can be understood in a context of changing forms of government’s support to third sector organizations and new emerging social needs resulting of the deep evolution of European societies. Social enterprises were pioneers in tackling social exclusion of various groups, especially in promoting their work integration through various models of work integration social enterprises (WISEs).

Social marketing relate social enterprises because Social marketing has 3 interpretations. One common focuses on the ‘socially desirable’ aims which society seeks to achieve through (typically not-for-profit) marketing effort. A second interpretation appears to confuse “social marketing” with “societal” marketing – basically socially responsible’ commercial marketing, which cares for the physical and social environment. A third less common understanding of ‘social marketing’ combines ‘socially desirable’ aims with a strong focus on the relationship, network and community elements, that is, the ‘social’ dimensions of marketing methodology (Binney & Brennan, 2011).

Results

The results found that NPOs in Thailand are facing stiff competition, rising community needs, and decreasing government and business funds. NPOs in Thailand are attempting to restructure through increasing revenues (by selling goods and services); Key success factors that affect to Thai NPOs for restructuring to become social entrepreneurs were (1) internal factor: recognizing the threat of competition, degree of commitment to mission-driven service, NPOs committees perspective, ability of NPOs employees in business knowledge (Marketing, Accounting, Financial, Research and Development), adequate resources (Human Resource, Finance, Information); (2) external factor: legal issues and advocacy, good network between NPOs and stakeholders.



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An Empowering Approach to Managing Social Service Organizations

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Abstract

The last financial crisis has had a major impact on social services and presents an additional challenge for management. Managers in nonprofit and social service organizations are increasingly tasked with the design of performance measurement systems in an attempt to monitor aspects of their day-to-day operations. Modeling and monitoring key performance areas is said to improve the chances of sustainability and to provide early warnings of managerial and operational problems in tough fundraising environments.

The purpose of this paper is to apply The New St. Gallen Management Model to the social work field. The model was developed in the University of St. Gallen in Switzerland and its main objective was to describe organizational systems along six dimensions: environmental spheres, structuring forces, stakeholders, processes, interaction issues and modes of development.

Our main aim is a critical examination of this model from the perspective of the suitability of its application to the description of the processes taking place in the facilities of the social service providers, together with an analysis of the possibilities of its use as a managerial tool for this type of providers.

The paper grounds questions in a comprehensive and accessible overview of the managerial context of social work practice. It demonstrates how effective service delivery is dependent on organizational and managerial activities and procedures, and emphasizes the importance of critiquing existing organizational structures.

Keywords: social services, St. Gallen Management Model, stakeholders, diaconia, Slovakia

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Introduction

The social services are mainly characterized in two lines as a (1) form of social help provides by government through states', municipalities' or non-governmental organizations to favor of another person or (2) social work to favor to people in social need. Historically the oldest forms of social services were houses for illness and elderly people, homes for orphans and for people in poverty. In these days, especially in this crisis time, we should ask *what is the main role of providers of social services in the society?* The main role of social service providers in the process of transformation is lowering the social tensions and stabilizing the social conditions through the development of social services.

In this case we should identify 6 key types of social service providers by subjects:

- (1) enterprising with return / profit;
- (2) enterprising without profit;
- (3) providing services on the base of own (self) financing;
- (4) providing services on the base of state's sources;
- (5) providing services directly by the government, state or municipalities;
- (6) providing services on behalf of the government, state or municipalities.

Together with reducing rate of providing the social services by municipalities and governmental organizations, the important role of providing social services is increasing by the non-profit (NPO) and non-governmental (NGO) organizations. In this group of NPOs and NGOs specialized facilities, houses of providing care, daily care centres, social stationeries, centres for people with disabilities, professional families, houses for orphans or professionals providing social care in home of recipient of care are included.

The register of providers by the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic has indicated the number of social care providers in Slovakia as follows: 1269 social services providers by facilities, 535 facilities by government or municipalities' providers and 734 NGOs and NPOs providers which are established by churches, foundations, free lancers and another legal person. These providers are able to provide social services for more than 480 000 person by their capacity of facilities. From this number, more than 154 500 places are in care of NGOs and NPOs. The total receipts for social services providers in this year were more than 370 million EUR and little more than 85 million EUR were granted for non-profit and non-governmental providers of social care services.

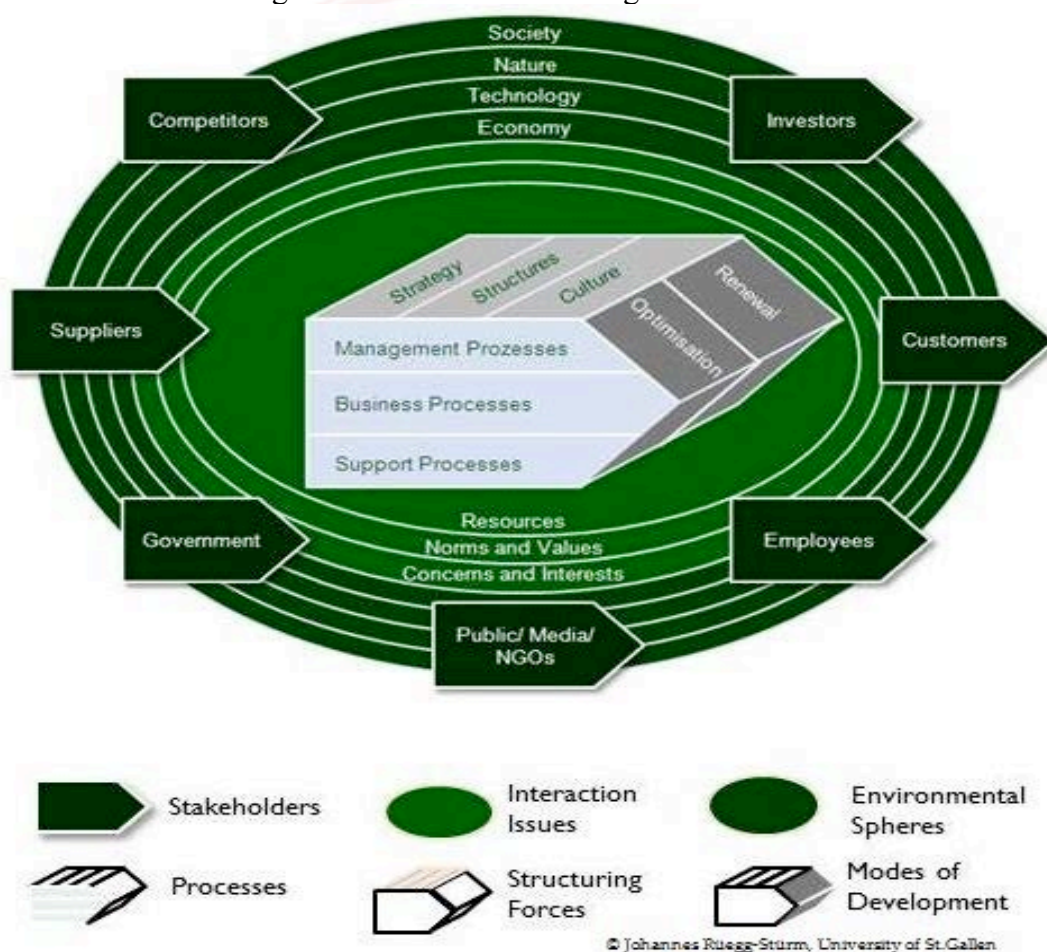
These numbers are declaring the growing necessity of managerial skills and knowledge for managers of social service providers in Slovakia. The New St. Gallen Management Model is one of the managerial models which could be applied for increasing knowledge and managerial skills of leaders and employees of NPOs and NGOs and used for the identification of circumstances, advantages and mistakes in their leadership and financial knowledge in front of insiders and especially stakeholders.

New St. Gallen Management Model

There are six key areas or central categories within the New St. Gallen Management Model (NSGMM):

- Environmental spheres
- Stakeholders
- Issues of interaction
- Structuring forces
- Processes
- Modes of development

Figure: New St. Gallen Management model



The environmental sphere first of all covers society; secondly, it includes the perception of nature specific to society, technology application, and forms of value creation.

Stakeholders are individuals, organized or not-organized groups of people, organisations, and institutions, which are affected by or do affect the value-creating activities and sometimes also value-destroying activities.

Between the project and its stakeholders, there are numerous exchanges and interactions on various, sometimes controversial issues. They can be of either a

general or a material nature. Interaction issues represent the content of the relationship of an organization with its environment, its stakeholders.

The structuring forces of an organization exist to supply orientation, coherence and sense. They consist of its orientating strategy, its coordinating structure, and its sense-making culture.

The fifth key area of the NSGMM refers to processes that are classified in three categories, as management processes, business processes, and support processes.

The development version of the NSGMM comprises three modes of development:

- start-up,
- optimization, and
- close-out.

Recognizing multi-stakeholder complexity, it becomes clear that the legitimacy of the organization depends on the judgment of various stakeholder groups. These groups can pursue different and even conflicting stakes. To set up interaction with stakeholders a social service provider should identify their stakeholders. There is no default list of stakeholders where an organization should reckon with.

The NSGMM describes the complexity of stakeholder interaction through formulating questions on who to interact with, at what moment, how and when. According to the NSGMM stakeholders should be interacted with at three moments, when an organization formulates its mission statement, when strategic decisions are made and when operational plans are drawn up. These three moments coincide with the management cycle of an organization.

Empowerment

Empowerment can be defined as enabling social service users to take action to improve their lives. From the point of view of social service users, practitioners are often in positions of considerable power, particularly where decisions are being made about the delivery of services and around intervention in people's lives. To practice empowerment, social providers will need to focus also on working with their stakeholders to engage them in the problem-solving process.

The focus on strengths and empowerment has gained considerable prominence over the last couple of decades and represents a major paradigm shift away from the problem-based approach that has been with social work for such a long time. Both approaches will have and keep its supporters for years to come, but the focus on strengths and empowerment has become too strong to be ignored for stakeholders of social service providers. It constitutes a fascinating and refreshing way to look at stakeholders and their circumstances and is characterized by its positive and optimistic view of people confronted by life's challenges.

Empowerment and stakeholders

As we said before, stakeholders are all those groups who have an interest in the outcomes of a policy practice initiative. For example, for some initiatives, such as

health care for those without insurance, it could be argued that many people in a community will have interest and are, therefore, members of a stakeholding group. But some groups have particular vested interests in the development of any such new initiatives. Local physicians, nurses, social workers, and others working in health care will have particular perspectives and views that will be important to include.

Others who work with people without insurance such as emergency-room personnel, staff at the shelter for people who are homeless, and even owners of small businesses to offer employees insurance may also have perspectives to share. Perhaps the most important stakeholding group is the target client population (in this example, people without insurance). This group is sometimes left out of assessment and planning processes that come from the top down. Certainly, social workers understand that the views of this stakeholding groups would be essential to the successful implementation of any important policy change affecting their lives. While these stakeholders may favor changes in the current health care system, other stakeholders such as insurance companies may launch powerful opposition to any change efforts.

Short description of social service providers in Slovakia

The history and the development of this type of organizations is not the same in every country. It is important to give some background about the Slovak social service providers in order to fully understand our research.

Until the 1990's many organizations that nowadays are called social service providers were part of national, regional or local government. Central government was convinced that liberalizing these social enterprises would enhance efficiency and effectiveness.

After the liberalization, different types of social providers very quickly emerged in Slovakia. Some organizations became private organizations with public goals, other organizations stayed governmental. Sometimes this division changed over time. At this moment some organizations are still governmental, while others are more or less privatized.

Like in other countries one can identify in Slovakia a number of very similar characteristics:

- The main objective is not power or profit but the delivery of goods and services to thereby fulfill a social value which is perceived and legitimized by its stakeholders.
- The financing of operations and financial position are a precondition to achieve the objectives.
- The revenues come from various sources of funding.
- Social service providers must be accountable to their stakeholders. Accountability guidelines are defined per sector (e.g. healthcare, education, charity).
- It is striking that these guidelines often include the interaction with stakeholders.

Diaconia in Slovakia

The second biggest non-governmental and non-profit provider of social services in Slovakia is the legal facilities of Evangelical Church of the Augsburg Confession in Slovakia called Evanjelicka Diakonia (ED ECAV). This legal entity is a network which including the 21 residential facilities in 20 cities in Slovakia, 1 “drop-in” center for children and youth in capital city; and Headquarter situated in the capital city.

In 2013 ED ECAV has 285 employees and 94 volunteers. Services were provided to 514 clients and 120 children and youth in “drop-in” center. In the network of 21 centers are provided services:

- in term of social services for children in kinder-garden, daily care center, school and dormitory for children and youth with combine of disadvantages, professional families;
- social services for elderly in social care facilities providing in daily care centers, permanent centers, social stationeries;
- social services for people with disadvantages and special services for people in need and services reducing the poverty.

Headquarter is also involved in cooperation with international networks as Eurodiaconia, European federation for street children and few more which are focusing, for example, on the children in poverty, children and woman violence, quality of social care, innovations and technical support in social care conditions.

Headquarter is also provide a food bank, bank of compensatory aid, disaster aid, counseling and PR and Fundraising activities for helping people personally and also helping their facilities to provide better, effective and qualitative services.

The incomes of Headquarter of ED ECAV during 2013 were 377.520 EUR and outcomes were 465.922 EUR. More than 50% of incomes represents the donation of government which is receiving by the contract depends on law of social care services. Another bigger part of incomes are donations from international partner, legal entities, and individuals, from grants and projects sponsored by European Commission, national and international foundations and international partnerships. From outcomes were 250.000 EUR using for projects and activities of humanitarian aid, international cooperation on projects, PR, editing and distribution of Journal Diakonia.sk and help to centers around Slovakia.

Methodology and data collection

For our research we have used a deductive research strategy. It was clear for us that also multi-stakeholder complexity is a widespread phenomenon in Slovakia. We found that every stakeholder has its own perception of social service providers. Besides these perceptions, the stakeholders all have different values and these change over time relatively quickly. So, all stakeholders are different and for a social service provider it is impossible to please them all. Still, for the existence of a social service provider interaction with stakeholders is of central importance also in Slovakia.

With our research we wanted to assess if stakeholder interaction is a combination of the following open questions:

1. Which stakeholders are considered to be important for social service providers in Slovakia?
2. Which stakeholders want interaction and at what moments?
3. Which stakeholders want interaction and in what way?
4. Which norms and values are considered to be important?

We started our data collection in 2011; the main research domains were the social service providers within the structures of the ED ECAV. We have chosen these organizations because they have a wide range of very important tasks in society and have a wide variety of different stakeholders. We also knew that they are engaged in active stakeholder interaction. For our case studies, we have used questionnaires with different questions focused at first on the selection of stakeholders, then on the reputation of the organization and on the forms of interaction with the stakeholders.

The 20 respondents filled in a standardized questionnaire with closed questions completely. One of the important results from these questionnaires was that stakeholder selection cannot be limited to only one from so many different organizations, because their services are delivered in different forms and different structures.

The stakeholders on the lists of the involved organizations were in the next step also invited in the research and they also received a questionnaire which was submitted to 87 stakeholders and answered by 56 of them. This response was really satisfied for us and representative. The invited stakeholders were all known by the organizations. In this analysis we were able to ask the social service providers and their stakeholders the same questions about reputation and stakeholder interaction. Especially, we asked the stakeholders what they expect and what they experience.

Results

For organizations of ED ECAV the most important stakeholder groups are partners and donors. Our analysis shows that each stakeholder group requires a different amount of interaction at different moments. More than 75% of the stakeholders think it is important to interact with the organization.

Involvement at decisive moments of the ED ECAV organizations takes places when strategic plans or operational problems are solved. Especially at these moments a stakeholder should want their opinion to be taken into account. Mainly employees, governmental organizations and partners want their opinions considered by the organization. Remarkably donors and social organizations do not want much interaction nor want they taken their opinions into account.

The ED ECAV organizations are convinced they use all forms frequently; expect the exertion of control (empowerment). The perspective of the stakeholder is quite different. They experience a lot of exchanging information and consulting. Stakeholders experience hardly any dialogue or empowerment. The actual situation does not need to be a problem if the stakeholder experiences the form of interaction he actual wants.

Conclusions

Based on the theory of public value, legitimacy and stakeholder interaction we conclude that it is important to interact with the right stakeholder at the right moment in the proper way. For our research we have used a deductive research strategy. On the basis of a literature research we have established that public value, legitimacy and reputation are formed by the stakeholders and not by the organization on its own.

Also multi-stakeholder complexity is a widespread phenomenon. We know that every stakeholder has its own perception of social service providers. Besides these perceptions, the stakeholders all have different values and these can change over time. So, all stakeholders are different and for a social service provider it is impossible to please them all. Still, for the existence of a social service provider interaction with stakeholders is of central importance.

We have found that stakeholder interaction at least consists of the choice of stakeholder groups, the assessment of their expectations and stakes, the way the organization should interact and the moments the organization should interact. We state that expectations and stakes towards public value are similar with aspects of reputation, due to the fact that it is hard to judge the choices, products and services and values and norms of social service providers.

The logo for the International Association for Business and Society (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially overlaid by a large, faint watermark of a stylized globe or circular graphic in shades of red and blue.

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Imageability and the Identification of the City: A Study from Bursa - Turkey

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Abstract

The concept of imageability and the identification of the city elements (paths, edges, nodes, landmarks, and districts) could enhance legibility by establishing city's mental representation. In this study we used the sketch maps drawn by city's dwellers to determine the visual quality of the built environment. We analyzed the effects of physical and perceptible objects, and from this we was able to isolate distinct features of the city, and see what specifically is making it so vibrant and attractive to people.

Keywords: Imageability and the Identification, Sketch Maps, Turkey

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Introduction

It is clearly believed that building the image of an environment is a two way process, it is the result of an interaction between the observer and the environment in which he lives. Sense of the city represents the relationship between physical environment and cognition.

Legibility is one of the six elements of sense of the city is defined as the ease with which its parts can be recognized and organized into a coherent pattern. Lynch considers legibility as a physical and spatial characteristic of the environment, so visual sensations of color, motion, smell, touch and sound...etc. are all cues of orientation that reinforce legibility.

Legibility can enhance the identity, structure and the meaning of environmental surroundings. The concept of imageability and the identification of the city elements (paths, edges, nodes, landmarks, and districts) could enhance legibility by establishing city's mental representation.

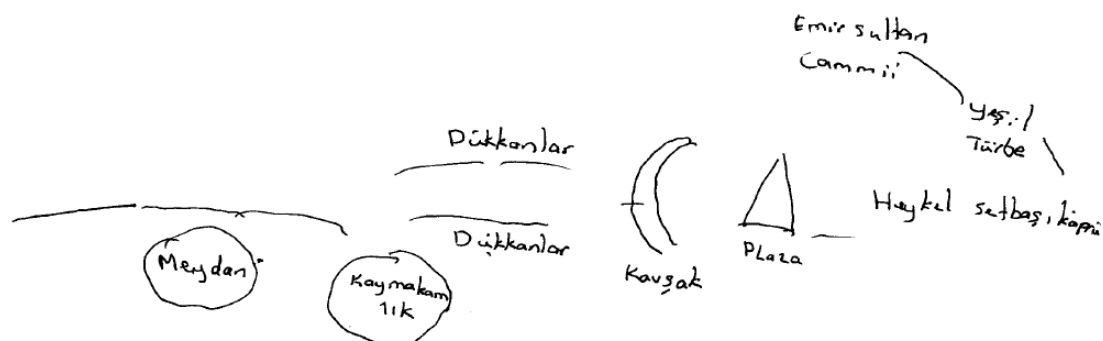
The aim of the study, we analyzed the effects of physical and perceptible objects, and from this we was able to isolate distinct features of the city, and see what specifically is making it so vibrant and attractive to people.

Material/Methods

In this study we used the sketch maps drawn by city's dwellers to determine the visual quality of the built environment. Hundred participants were selected by simple random selection method among 2500 citizens who were selected for another study concerning environmental quality by using stratified sampling from all neighborhoods of the city.

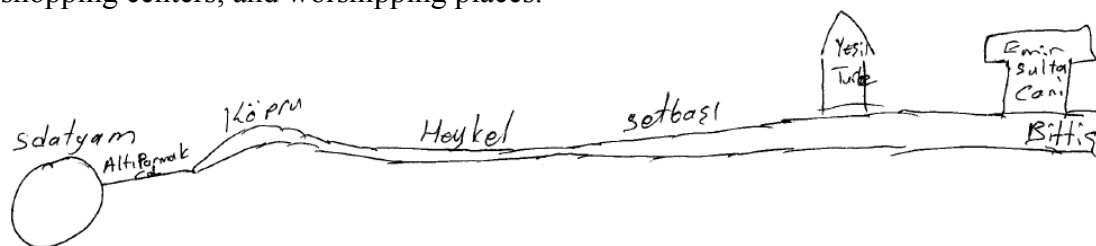
Findings/ Results

The participants were asked to draw a simple sketch map of the area starting from the Stadium and ending in Emirsultan, both of which are in Bursa, by showing the places important to them.

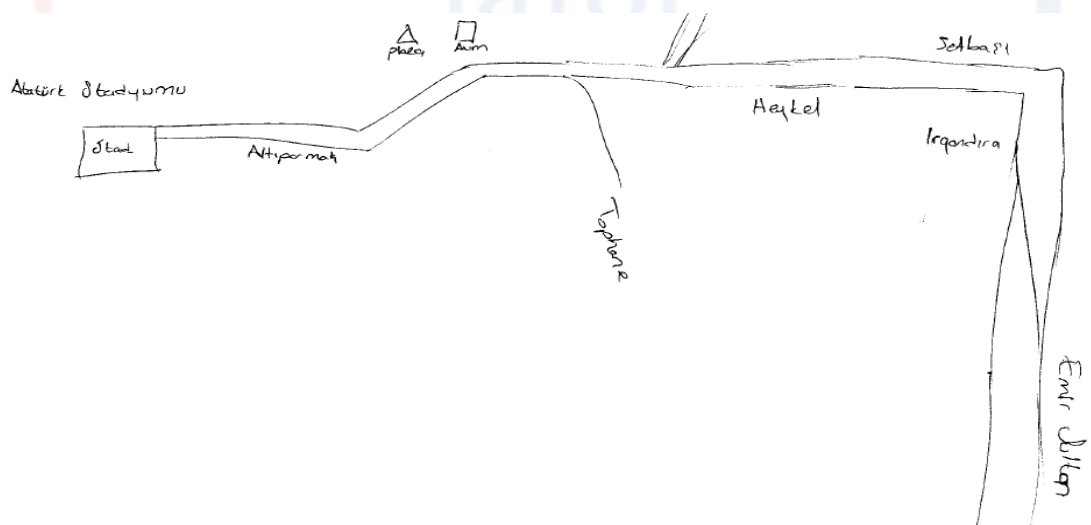


The person is a 48 year-old woman and a primary school graduate. She drew a sketch map starting from the square where Altıparmak Street and Çekirge Street converge. The office of district governor, which is a public institution, is very clearly spotted on

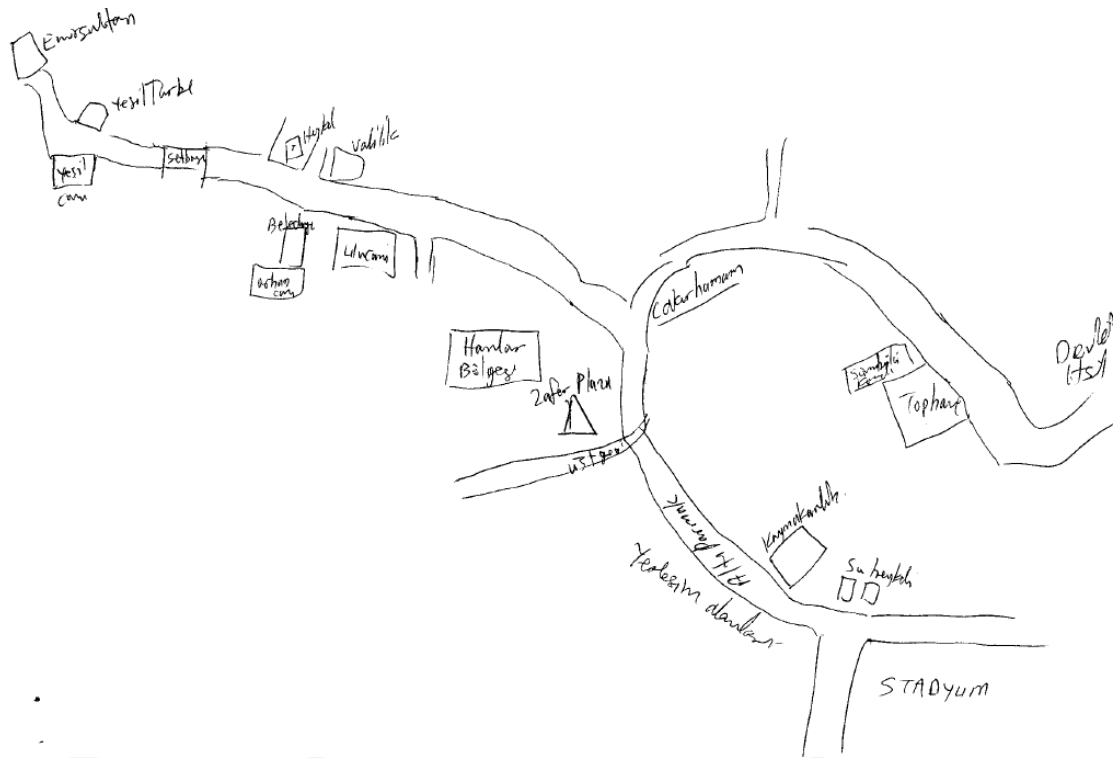
the sketch. The stores on both sides of Altıparmak Street are also clearly seen. Overpass intersection of Altıparmak Street and the pyramid of Zafer Plaza are apparent. On the sketch, she marked Heykel and Setbaşı bridge, and specified Yeşil Türbe (Green Mausoleum) and Emir Sultan Mosque. Based on her drawing, we can come to the conclusion that shopping activities in the city where this person lives are of great importance. This person also went to the office of district governor, and is in communication with public institutions of the city. She also visited Green Mausoleum, which is the symbol of Bursa, and she made a wish by worshipping in Emir Sultan Mosque. It can be said that the city life of this person is within an area including public institutions, which most probably results from an obligation, shopping centers, and worshipping places.



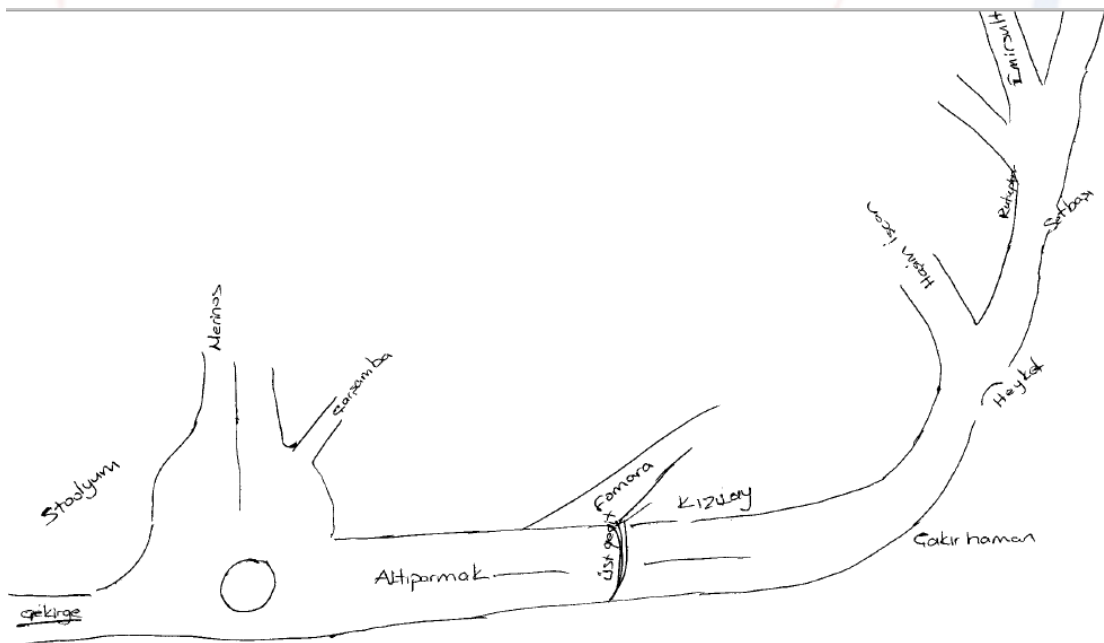
The person who drew the sketch no 47 is a 35 year-old woman and a secondary school graduate. She made her drawing on a straight line starting from the Stadium and ending in Emir Sultan Mosque. It can be stated that she visited and knows Green Mausoleum and Emir Sultan Mosque. She did not show shopping centers on her sketch at all.



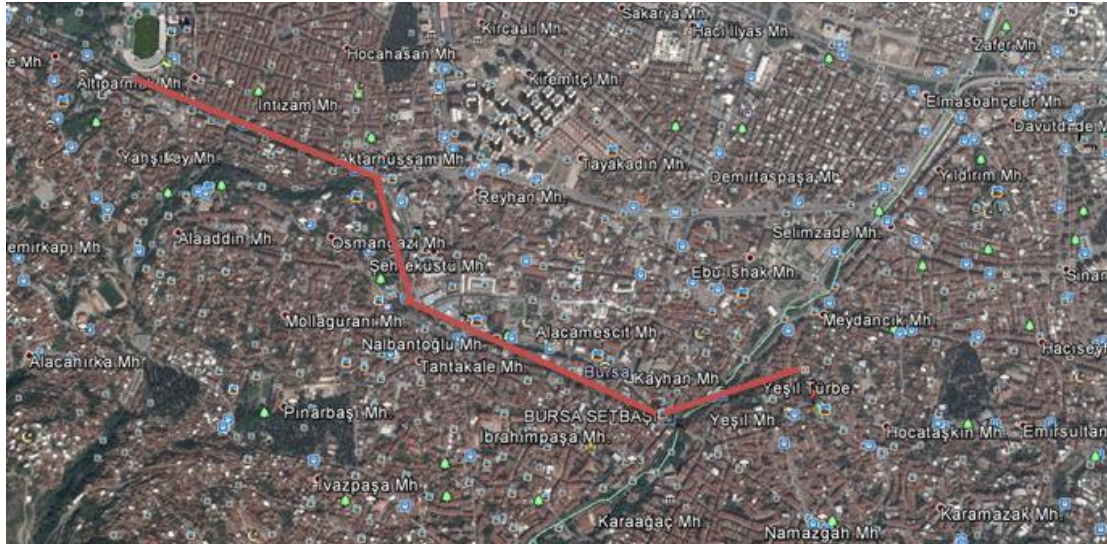
The person is a 22 year-old woman and a high school graduate. The fact that her sketch starting from the Stadium and ending in Emir Sultan is quite real-like shows that she knows this region. On her sketch, Irgandı Bridge is also visible. The only place shown on this line is Zafer Plaza pyramid and Shopping Mall. The most important thing in this person's city life may be shopping opportunities.



The person is a 57 year-old man and a vocational high school graduate. The fact that he drew a real and accurate sketch shows that he knows the region very well and that he visited this area. He showed some important places on his drawing such as the area of public houses, Orhan Mosque, the building of Municipality, Tophane, and Sümbüllü Bahçe Konağı, which were not marked on other sketches.



This sketch was drawn by a 60 year-old man with a high school diploma. The Stadium, overpass bridge, Kızılay Building, Çakır Hamam, Emir Sultan were marked with writing on the sketch map.



Conclusion

The participants of the study were asked to draw a sketch maps covering the area from the Stadium to Emirsultan. When the sketch maps are examined, it is seen that the Stadium, Altıparmak, Heykel, and Emirsultan are marked on 69, 65, 61, and 73 of 100 sketches respectively. When the starting and ending points (the Stadium and Emirsultan) are ignored since they were stated by the researcher, it can be said that Altıparmak is the place marked most by the participants.

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The Relationship between Attitudes toward Living Environment Amenities, Social Capital, and Satisfaction with the Living Environment: A Comparison of Newly Developed Residential Areas and Existing Villages in a Local City Suburb

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0381

Abstract

Since the 1960s, numerous detached residential areas have been developed in the suburbs of local cities in Japan. Because the population is decreasing and aging, the sustainability of such areas is a concern. In this paper, we examine attitudes toward living environment amenities and the two factors that influence living environment amenities—social capital and satisfaction with the living environment. Residents of newly developed residential areas and existing villages in a local city suburb were surveyed and their attitudes toward living environment amenities, social capital, and satisfaction with the living environment were ascertained; the relationships among these attitudes were clarified.

For data collection, a questionnaire survey was administered to residents. Relationships among the residents' attitudes were investigated using correlation analysis, t-tests, and covariance structure analysis. In the conclusion, how suburban housing areas can be sustained is discussed.

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Instructions

Since the 1960s, numerous detached residential areas have been developed in the suburbs of local cities in Japan; some of these areas were situated adjacent to existing villages. Because of the decreasing national population, new residents are unlikely to move to detached residential areas that lack advantages in terms of living amenities. Furthermore, the decreasing number of residents in suburban housing areas is likely to facilitate an increase in vacant houses, a deterioration in security, the withdrawal of public transportation, the closing of grocery stores, and so on. For these areas to be sustainable, living environment amenities are necessary to attract new residents and ensure cooperation between residents for maintaining community functions.

In this paper, we examine living environment amenities and the two factors that influence living environment amenities—social capital and satisfaction with the living environment. Residents of newly developed residential areas (subsequently referred to as “developed areas”) and existing villages in a local city suburb were surveyed and their attitudes toward living environment amenities, social capital, and satisfaction with the living environment were ascertained; the relationships among these attitudes were clarified. The results may serve as a foundation for discussing how suburbs can be made sustainable.

Methodology and Definition

For data collection, a questionnaire survey was administered to residents of developed areas and existing villages. An outline of the survey is shown in Table 1. In total, surveys from 814 respondents—611 of whom lived in developed areas and 203 of whom lived in existing villages—were analyzed, and all respondents were aged older than 20 years.

The location of the surveyed area is shown in Figure 1. The questionnaire was distributed in developed areas that had more than 50 houses; most of these areas were developed between the late 1960s and the 1980s. The questionnaire was also distributed in existing villages adjacent to developed areas that were surveyed.

The corresponding attributes are shown in Figure 2. The results of the test of independence indicated that there were significant differences among the survey respondents in the number of years they had lived in the area and family type. Respondents who were residents of existing villages were likely to have lived in the area longer than were respondents who lived in developed areas. There were more three-generation families in existing villages than in developed areas.

Table 1. Outline of the Questionnaire Survey

Time of survey	: Novvenver,2009
Surveyed area	: A ares, Kagawa-cyo, Takamtsu-city, Kagawa-pref. Japan
Number of houses surveyed	: 2000 houses in total; 1500 houses in developed residential areas, 500 houses in existing villages
Survey distribution method	: Three copies of the survey were posted to each house
Survey collection method:	: Mail
Survey response rate	: 497 houses and 830 people; 24.9%
Survey responses by residential area	: Developed residential area: 380 houses and 621 people, 25.3%; Existing villages: 117 houses and 209 people, 23.4%

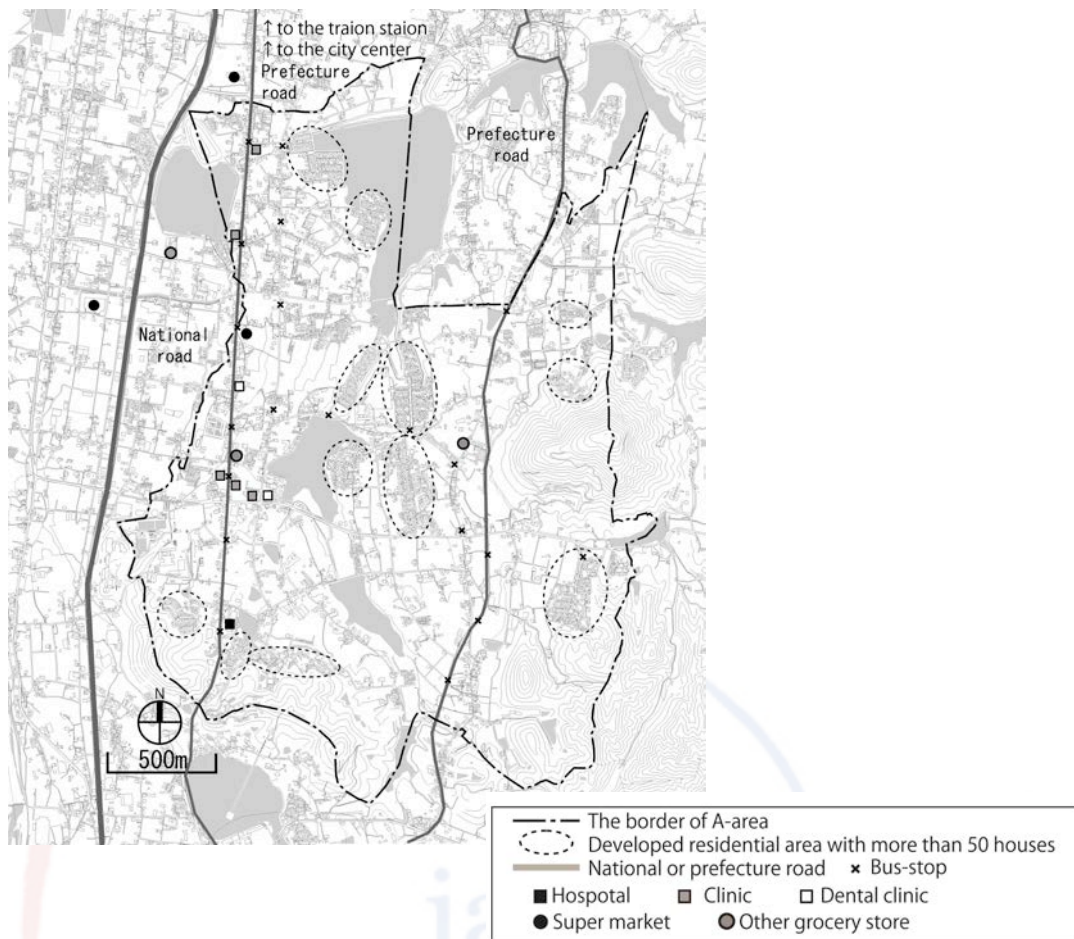


Figure 1. Location of the Surveyed Area

We assumed that living environment amenities are essential to making the suburbs sustainable, and the evaluation of living environment amenities are influenced by one's social capital and satisfaction with the living environment. For analysis, we indexed attitudes toward living environment amenities, social capital, and satisfaction with the living environment as follows.

(1) Evaluation of living environment amenities

Four items focused on the evaluation of living environment amenities: future residential intentions, anxiety regarding future life in the area, whether the respondent would recommend the area to young families, and whether the respondent would recommend the area to elderly families. For numeric conversion, anxiety regarding future life in the area was scored on a scale of 1–4 and the other items were scored on a scale of 1–5. For all items, a high score indicated a positive evaluation. For analysis, each score was standardized based on a mean of zero points and a standard deviation

Table 2. Index of Social Capital

SC-Index	Components of Index	Question Items
Trust Index	General trust	Trust in the general public*1
	Mutual trust	Trust in people met in unknown places*1
Interaction index	Neighborhoodly interaction	Degree of interaction with neighbors*2
		Number of neighbors you interact with*3
	Social interaction	Frequency of interaction with friends not at school or in the office*2
		Frequency of interaction with relatives*2
Public Participation Index	Public Participation	Participation in residents' association and local activities*4
		Participation in volunteer and non-profit organizations*4

*1 :Scale of 1-5; do not trust (1 point), somewhat distrust (2 points), neutral (3 points), somewhat trust (4 points), trust (5 points)

*2 :Scale of 1-4; no one (1 point), greeting level (2 points), stand chatting level (3 points), mutual aiding level (4 points)

*3 :Scale of 1-4; no one (1 points), less than 4 people (2 points), from 5 to 19 people (3 points), more than 20 people (4 points)

*4:Scale of 1-3; never participated (1 points), used to participate (2 points), participating (3 points)

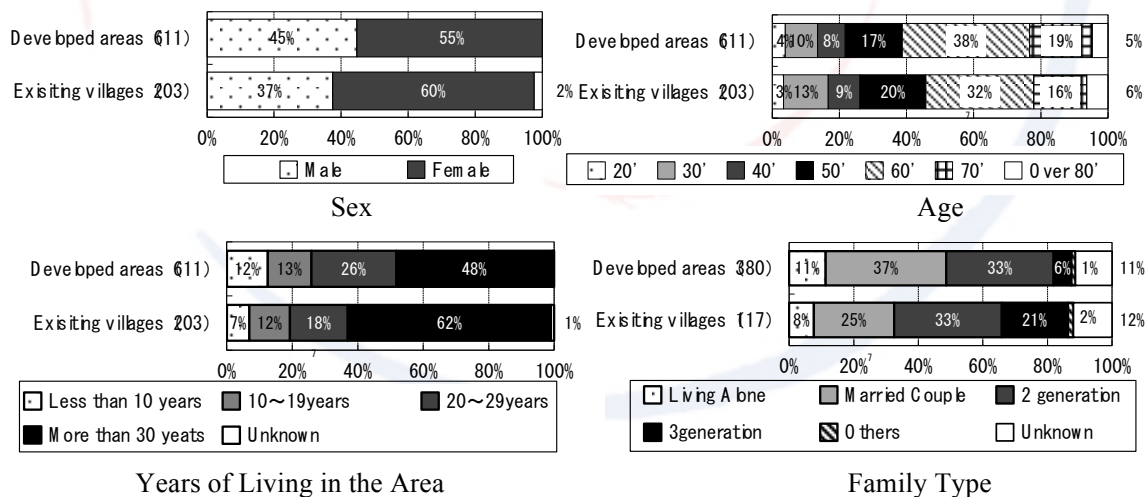


Figure 2. Corresponding Attributes

of one point.

(2) Social capital

According to Robert Putnam, social capital comprises three components: a network, social trust, and mutual standards. In this paper, these three components were interpreted to create three indices: interaction, trust, and public participation, as shown

in Table 2. For numeric conversion, each answer was standardized based on a mean of zero points and a standard deviation of one point.

(3) Satisfaction with the living environment

The eight items shown in Table 3 were used to measure residents’ satisfaction with their living environment. Answers to every item were given on a scale of 1–5, where 1 point indicated dissatisfaction and 5 points indicated satisfaction. Through factor analysis, two factors were created: “convenience” and “surrounding.”

Outline of This Paper

In the next chapter, we compare the two types of housing area in terms of conditions and residents’ evaluation of living amenities. Subsequently, we address the conditions of social capital and satisfaction with the living environment and explore how these two factors influenced residents’ evaluation of living amenities, respectively. We explored the relations between residents’ attitudes toward living amenities, social capital, and satisfaction with the living environment by using covariance structure analysis. In the conclusion, we discuss how suburban housing areas can be made sustainable.

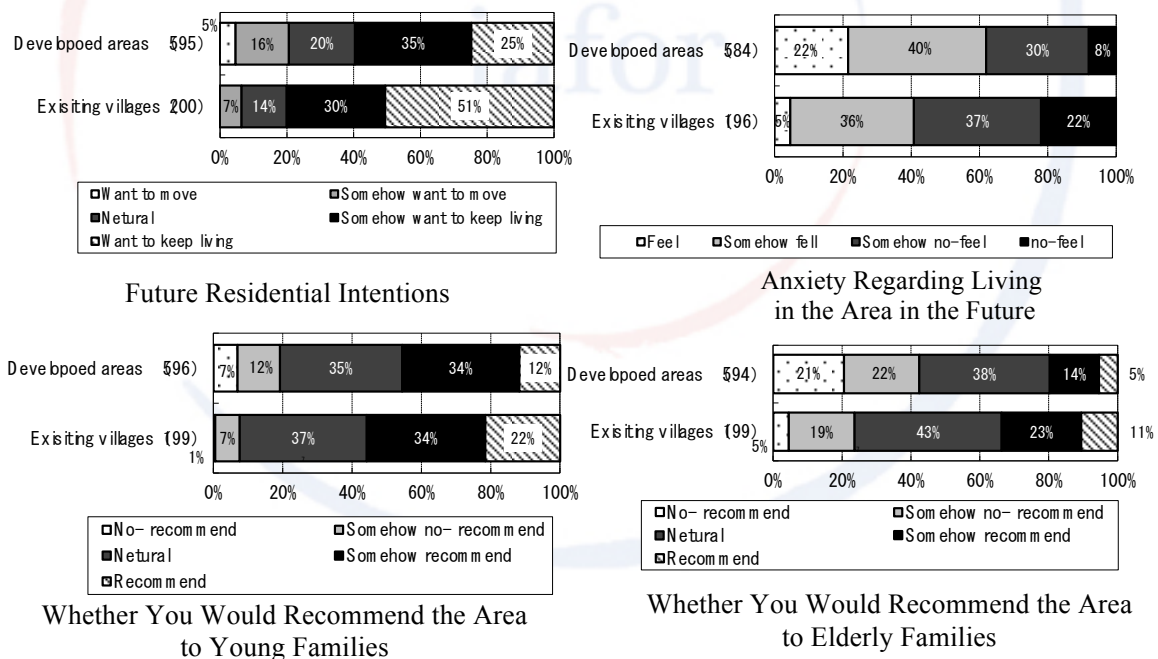


Figure 3. Evaluation of Living Environment Amenities

Table 3. Items Pertaining to Satisfaction with the Living Environment and Factor Loadings in Factor Analysis

	Factor Name	
	Convenience	Surrounding
Convenience of shopping	.759	.139
Convenience of hospitals	.749	.175
Convenience of commuting	.711	.181
Access by car	.631	.198
Convenience of public transportation	.592	.359
Safety from crime	.184	.813
Natural environment	.136	.751
Safety from disaster	.282	.630

The Evaluation for the Amenity of the Living Environment

As shown in Figure 3, the percentage of respondents who wanted to continue living in developed areas was lower than that in the existing villages. The results of a t-test indicated that the average values of these scores reached the 1% standard of statistical significance (developed areas: -3.59 points; existing villages: 4.24 points; t-value=-8.09).

The rate of respondents who want to keep living in the developed-areas is lower than that in the existing-villages like shown in figure-3. The average values of the score are statistically significant with 1% standard with t-test (the developed-areas: -3.59points, the existing –villages: 4.24pontos, t-value= -8.09).

The percentage of people who felt anxiety regarding life in developed areas in the future was higher than that in existing villages, as shown in Figure 3. The results of a t-test indicated that the average values of the scores reached the 1% standard of statistical significance (developed areas: 2.24 points; existing villages: 2.77 points; t-value=-7.26).

The percentages of people who would recommend living in developed areas to young families and elderly families were lower than the percentage of people who would recommend living in existing villages, as shown in Figure 3. The results of a t-test indicated that the average values of those who would recommend to young families reached the 1% standard of statistical significance (developed areas: 3.31 points; existing villages: 3.69 points; t-value=-4.55). The average values of those who would recommend to elderly families reached the 1% standard of statistical significance (developed areas: 2.26 points; existing villages: 3.16 points; t-value=-6.33).

As these results indicate, residents of developed areas had less favorable evaluations of living environment amenities in developed areas than did residents of existing villages regarding living environment amenities.

Social Capital and the Evaluation of Living Environment Amenities

As shown in Figure 4, regarding the scores of the two trust items, differences between the two types of housing area were not confirmed. However, for all other items, residents of the developed areas indicated average scores that were lower than those indicated by residents of existing villages. Apart from the trust index, the t-test results indicated that the interaction index (developed areas: -0.08 points, existing villages: 0.21 points; t-value=-5.04) and the public participation index (developed areas: -0.08 points; existing villages: 0.16 points; t-value=-3.57) satisfied the 1% standard of statistical significance.

To determine the potential for mutual aid in the area, we asked residents whether they helped elderly neighbors with everyday life. As shown in Figure 5, about 35% of the respondents in existing villages and 23% of respondents in developed areas helped elderly neighbors with daily life. An independent chi-squared test indicated that these differences reached the 5% standard of statistical significance (χ^2 value=5.97).

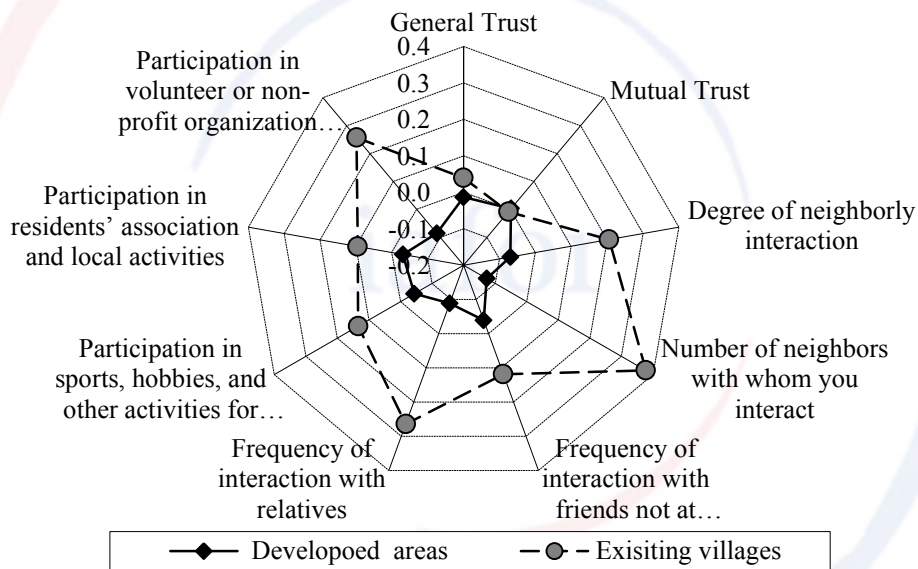


Figure 4. Average Scores of the Social Capital Items

Thus, residents of developed areas have less interaction and social participation than do residents of existing villages. Social capital in the developed areas is less advanced than that in existing villages. Furthermore, developed areas have less potential for mutual aid than do existing villages. Since social capital is developed over an extended period of time with a historical and cultural background, these differences may be ascribed to the differences in the amount of time that people have lived in the

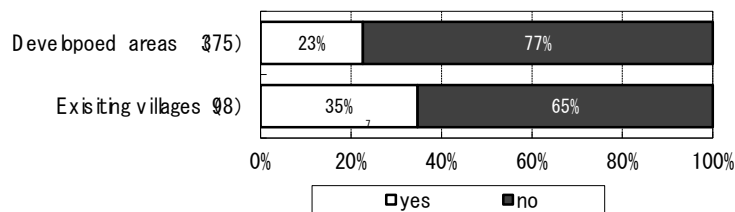


Figure 5. Do You Help Your Elderly Neighbors with Everyday Life?

area. However, some residents of developed areas who were surveyed had lived in such areas for as long as 20 to 40 years. Whether this is an insufficient amount of time in which to develop social capital warrants further investigation. We aim to conduct future research to determine other factors in the development of social capital, such as lifestyle and ethical behavior.

To reveal the relation between the evaluation of living environment amenities and the social capital, we performed a correlation analysis, as shown in Table 4. In the developed areas, low correlations between the trust index and four items pertaining to the evaluation of living environment amenities were confirmed ($r=0.083-0.234$). In future research, we will determine the factors involved in these low correlations. By the contrast, in exiting village, three combinations (interaction index - future residential intentions, interaction index - recommendation for young families, and public participation index - future residential intentions) were correlated with correlation coefficients greater than 0.2. These correlation coefficients are higher than those in developed areas. As these results indicate, certain items pertaining to the evaluation of living amenities had low correlations with social capital, and the degrees of correlation differed by area and item combination.

Table 4. Correlation between the Evaluation of Living Amenities and Social Capital

Developed areas	Future residential intentions	Anxiety regarding future life in the area	Recommendation for young families	Recommendation for elderly families
Trust Index	.199**	.083*	.234**	.205**
Interaction index	.117**	-.049	.102**	.041
Public Participation Index	.105*	.024	.137**	.089

Existing villages	Future residential intentions	Anxiety regarding future life in the area	Recommendation for young families	Recommendation for elderly families
Trust Index	.090	.030	.169*	-.061
Interaction index	.221**	.137	.220**	.114
Public Participation Index	.220**	.083	.113	.174*

Note :All numbers are Pearson's correlation coefficients

** statistical significance at the 1% level

* statistical significance at the 5% level

Satisfaction with the Living Environment and the Evaluation of Living Environment Amenities

We considered the influence that satisfaction with the living environment exerts on the evaluation of living environment amenities. In this chapter, we show the conditions of satisfaction with the living environment and how satisfaction with the living environment relates to the evaluation of the living environment.

As shown in Figure 6, the average scores of satisfaction with the convenience of shopping were high in both areas (developed areas: 3.55 points; existing villages: 3.89 points). Many residents in this area cannot walk to supermarkets or grocery stores. Thus, despite the location, one of the factors in this high satisfaction was assumed to be that many residents drive. By contrast, satisfaction with the convenience of public transportation was low (developed areas: 2.27 points; existing villages: 2.62 points). Cars were used for daily shopping by 72.2% of respondents. However, the percentage of car users grew smaller with increasing respondent age: 93.8%, 85.2%, 70.1%, 53.6%, and 29.4% of respondents in their 40s, 50s, 60s, 70s, and over 80 drove. The

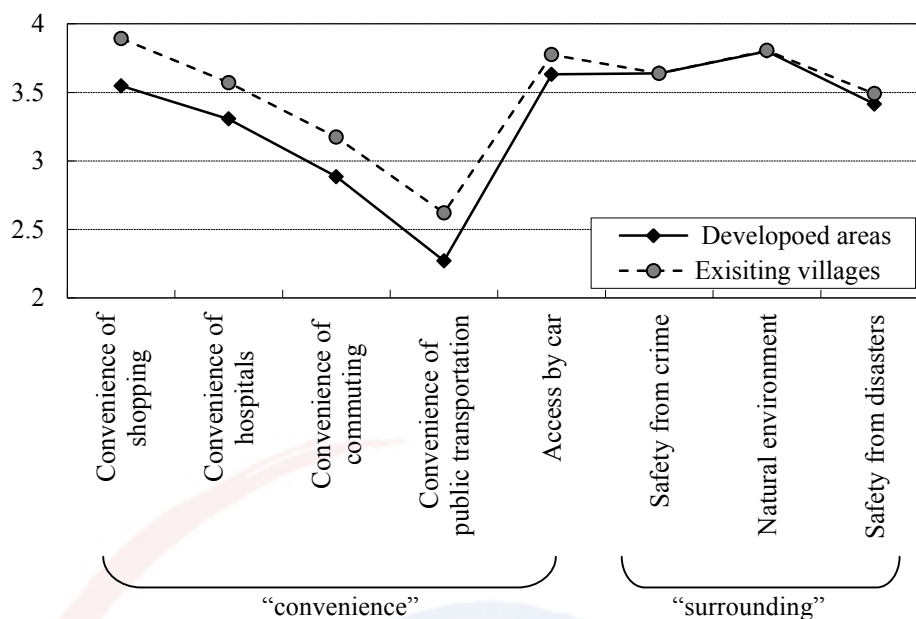


Figure-6. The Average Score of the Satisfaction with the Living Environment

location and the difficulties faced by elderly drivers were assumed to be causes of anxiety regarding future life in the area.

Residents of the existing villages indicated greater satisfaction with all “convenience” items than did residents of developed areas. The results of a t-test indicated that differences in all items between the two areas, apart from access by car, reached the 1% standard of statistical significance. Residents of both areas indicated high levels of satisfaction with all “surrounding” items.

In the developed areas, all “convenience” items and items pertaining to the evaluation of living environment amenities were correlated ($r=0.198-0.451$, r mean= 0.375), as shown in Table 5. The mean of r was 0.268 points higher than that of social capital, as shown in Table 4 (r mean= 0.107). The mean of r for “convenience” (0.375) was 0.098 points higher than that of “surrounding” (0.291). Therefore, satisfaction with the living environment—particularly in regard to convenience—has a strong positive influence on the evaluation of living environment amenities developed areas.

By contrast, in the existing villages, the correlation coefficients ($r=0.147-0.350$, r mean= 0.231) were relatively low. Compared with the developed areas, differences in the correlation coefficients between satisfaction with the living environment and social capital were insubstantial. Therefore, compared with developed areas, satisfaction with the living environment in existing villages does not have a strong influence on the evaluation of living environment amenities.

Table 5. Correlation between Satisfaction with Living Environment Amenities and Social Capital

Developed areas		Future residential intentions	Anxiety regarding future life in the area	Recommendation for young families	Recommendation for elderly families
Convenience	Convenience of shopping	.386**	.438**	.426**	.445**
	Convenience of hospitals	.356**	.368**	.385**	.451**
	Convenience of commuting	.333**	.420**	.380**	.435**
	Convenience of public transportation	.322**	.405**	.346**	.442**
	Access by car	.368**	.354**	.373**	.355**
Surrounding	Safety from crime	.352**	.245**	.344**	.294**
	Natural environment	.331**	.198**	.317**	.218**
	Safety from disaster	.334**	.235**	.291**	.330**

Existing villages		Future residential intentions	Anxiety regarding future life in the area	Recommendation for young families	Recommendation for elderly families
Convenience	Convenience of shopping	.248**	.235**	.189**	.258**
	Convenience of hospitals	.147*	.178*	.246**	.210**
	Convenience of commuting	.269**	.212**	.158*	.225**
	Convenience of public transportation	.289**	.243**	.190**	.324**
	Access by car	.340**	.173*	.313**	.198**
Surrounding	Safety from crime	.217**	.148*	.302**	.179*
	Natural environment	.279**	.167*	.350**	.172*
	Safety from disaster	.287**	.204**	.295**	.144*

Note :All numbers are Pearson's correlation coefficients

** statistical significance at the 1% level

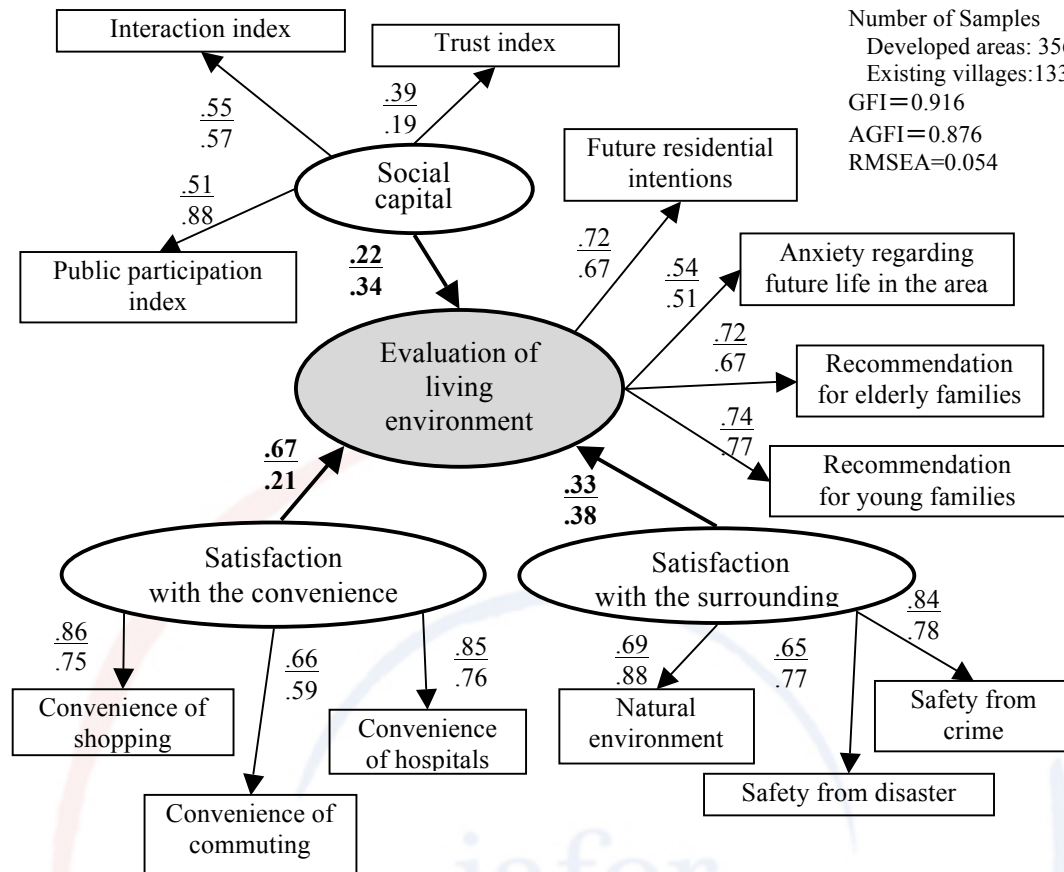
* statistical significance at the 5% level

The Influence of Social Capital and Satisfaction with the Living Environment on the Evaluation of Living Environment Amenities

In this chapter, attitudes toward social capital, satisfaction with the living environment, the evaluation of living environment amenities were analyzed using covariance structure analysis under the assumption that the social capital and satisfaction with the living environment influence the evaluation of living environment amenities.

For the analysis, social capital was considered a latent variable under the three indices shown in Table 2. Satisfaction with the living environment was considered a latent variable under the two factors composed of three items exhibiting high factor loadings shown in Table 3. The evaluation of living environment amenities was considered a latent variable under the four items shown in Figure 3. Only samples without missing values were analyzed. Figure 7 shows the results of the covariance structure analysis. The number next to the each pass indicates the standardized coefficient of that pass. The standardized coefficients of all passes were statistically confirmed with the 1% standard.

Regarding the pass from "social capital" to "living environment amenities," the standardized coefficient of the existing villages was 0.12 higher than that in the developed areas. By contrast, regarding the pass from "satisfaction with convenience" to "living environment amenities," the standardized coefficient in developed areas was 0.46 higher than that in the existing villages. Regarding the pass from "satisfaction with the surroundings" to "living environment amenities," standardized



Note: The numbers adjacent to each pass indicate the standardized coefficient of the pass.

Upper: Developed areas
 Lower: Existing villages

Figure 7. Structure of the Evaluation of Living Environment Amenities Based on Covariance Structure Analysis

coefficients in the two areas did not significantly differ. Therefore, it can be said that the factors that influence the evaluation of living environment amenities differ by area. Social capital exerts a relatively strong influence in existing villages and satisfaction with convenience exerts a relatively strong influence in developed areas.

In existing villages, the standardized coefficient of the pass from “public participation index” to “social capital” (0.88) was relatively high. We assumed that residents who were more active participants in regional activities or were volunteers, etc., more favorably evaluated living environment amenities. By contrast, in developed areas, the passes from the “convenience of shopping” (0.86) and “convenience of hospitals” (0.85) to “satisfaction with convenience” yielded relatively high standardized coefficients. We assumed that residents who were satisfied with the convenience of shopping and hospitals more favorably evaluated living environment amenities in developed areas.

As the results indicated, covariance structure analysis revealed differences among factors pertaining to the evaluation of living environment amenities.

Conclusion

The main results in this paper are as follows.

- 1) Residents of developed areas engage in less social interaction with others and participate less in social activities. Compared with residents of existing villages, they less favorably evaluated living environment amenities.
- 2) Covariance structure analysis clarified the factors involved in attitudes toward living environment amenities. In the developed areas, convenience is the major factor involved in attitudes toward living environment amenities. By contrast, in the existing villages, social capital is the major factor involved in attitudes toward living environment amenities.

Based on the results, ways for maintaining the sustainability of both areas are suggested as follows.

- a) In developed areas, maintaining the convenience of such areas is essential for sustainability. However, maintaining convenience may be difficult because of factors such as the decreasing and aging of the population and economic conditions. Building social capital is another way that area sustainability can be maintained. The creation of communities that are integrated with existing villages has the potential for building social capital. For example, establishing meetings in common facilities such as vacant public school classrooms and encouraging people to collectively cope with common problems, such as food refuges, may effectively encourage community interaction.
- b) In existing villages, maintaining interaction and public participation are key to area sustainability. However, maintaining interaction and public participation may be difficult due to factors such as changes in the family structure and work and the modernization of lifestyles. It is recommended that the residents make conscious efforts to maintain interaction and public participation.

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Understanding Japanese cities

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Abstract

Before the formal establishment of the field of Urban Studies a wide range of academic analysis of cities were made within different disciplines. Since the late 19th century geographers, sociologist, and even epidemiologists, experienced with different ways of managing and interpreting the data of cities. In this study, publications dealing with the analysis of Japanese cities from the early decades of the 20th century were examine in order to discuss how the various readings of the city resulted in different approaches to the understanding of the same subject. The studies considered include both Japanese and Western works dealing with the materiality of the city in the form of either spatial, formal, or distributional analysis.

The particular objectives determined by each discipline naturally led to focus in rather different aspects of the city. In addition, whether the intention was to determine the layout history, distribution of activities, or urbanization process, in most cases there were no previous references on how to address the subject, thereby encouraging the variety of approaches to the study of cities. These issues will be consider through the examination of works of authors of various academic fields in order to have a better understanding of the academic grounds from which contemporary Japanese Urban Studies has developed.

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1-Introduction:

Although the academic field of Urban Studies was not officially established until after World War II, there is a considerable amount of analysis of cities made in several disciplines from the pre-war period that still remains largely unanalysed. The objective of this article is to analyse and discuss the most relevant published material on Japanese cities in order to understand the academic context from which the modern Urban Studies of Japan were developed.

For this purpose, an account of the historical context of the urban growth in Japan will be first given, to then discuss the different type of studies made on those cities. Both Japanese and Western authors were considered in this study, focusing in their main objectives and approach to the study of urban centres.

2-Japanese urban growth:

Until the Meiji Restoration of 1868 Japan have had a very restricted communication with foreign countries. The self-imposed seclusion period -Sakoku- of over two hundred years finished after the American ship commanded by Commodore Mathieu Perry forced the country to regain contact with the outside world in 1853. In order to be able to stand against Western powers, Japan started a rapid modernization. The economic restructuring plans brought an intensive industrial growth, especially during World War I when Japanese manufacturing sectors developed enormously and Japan transformed itself into an industrial power (Cullen, 2003).

The modernization changes rapidly modified the face of the country. At the end of 19th century the population of Japan was predominantly rural, with only a 10% of the population living in urban areas. But after the changes brought by the restoration the population had a tremendous growth, also increasing very rapidly the percentage of urban population. Only a few decades after the Meiji Restoration, the rate of the population living in cities had already grown to more than one quarter of the total country's population, reaching in 1935 a 33% (Ishida, 2006:34).

Soon, the rapid growth and industrial development created strong contrasts in Japanese the city landscape between the traditional basis and the new building systems, infrastructure, and transportation works. To manage the hasted development a great amount of urban plans were carried out by the Japanese central and municipal authorities, as the Tokyo Urban area Improvement Plans, or the 1919 City Planning Law that was applicable to the every city in the country. In addition to the growth of population other factors, as the Great Kanto Earthquake of 1923 and the economic recession of the late 1920s, stimulated the application of planning systems for recuperation and reorganization of the urban structure that attempted at the rationalization of the modern Japanese city. These great industrial urban centres were new for Japan, and a relatively recent phenomenon worldwide, therefore needed to be studied and understood.

3-Japanese studies of Japanese cities:

The large scale renovation plans implemented at the turn of the century boosted the collection of data from the urban fabric. The pressuring socioeconomic situation

created by the modernization plans demanded immediate action, therefore the survey data was used primarily to inform the future changes and only in fewer occasions was used for the critical analysis of the situation. The main concern for the government officials was how to improve the city.

Nevertheless, the preoccupation for the living standards of the growing urban population promoted a number of analysis of residential areas. Studies of this type had been already made for European cities that had to cope before Japan with the crowded conditions caused by the large amount of industrial workers that moved into the cities. One of the earlier examples of this type of study is the work of the German Social Scientist Frederick Engels (1820-1895) published 1845. Engels analysed the morphology of working class residential sectors of Manchester, relating the physical conditions of the city with health and social issues (Engels, 1887). The prominent Japanese physician Mori Ougai (森 鷗外 1862-1922) was trained in Germany in the study of hygiene, zoning, and other related urban issues. Back in Japan, he made valuable studies on the housing conditions of the lower classes of Tokyo that became very influential in the creation of Tokyo urban regulations (Hein, 2010).

Besides the studies and plans made by governmental officials, the increasing social and economic importance of the industrial urban centres encourage their study in several academic fields. In this case, the focus was not exclusively placed in the improvement of the city. The aim for most scholars was to understand the city's materiality, and the processes involved in their development.

Geography was the academic discipline where the studies of the morphology of cities first developed, particularly during the decades of the 1920s and 1930s when Urban Geography became an independent branch of geography. The integration of the study of cities into the geographical studies began with the change in the conception of *landscape*. By the end of 19th century the extent of man's modifications on the natural environment was already so vast that it was difficult to make a clear distinction to study separately the natural elements from the cultural ones. The subject of study of geographers was redefine then as the *cultural landscape*, which integrated the natural features as well as the man-made modifications as land division, water works, agriculture, communication routs, and all kinds of settlements including cities.

Sasaki Hikoichiro (佐々木彦一, 1901-1936) was among the first Japanese geographers to study urban centres. He performed locational analysis considering the distribution of the main activity centres -education, religion, military, government, and industrial facilities (Fig. 1). Comparing the location of these centres in several Japanese cities he determined the importance of the means of production in the creation of city space (Sasaki, 1934). In addition to these large scale studies, Sasaki studied the distribution of different functions in smaller areas of the cities mapping the different activities and tried to determine statistical correlations (Sasaki, 1933).

The geographer Nishida Yoshiro (西田與四郎, 1884-1952) also made important contributions to the understanding of Japanese cities (Fig. 2). Nishida's analysis started with the general shape and extent of the city to then study their inner morphology, analysing small area samples in plan as well as in elevation (Nishida, 1931). The consideration of the vertical aspect of the city was not common in the first

studies that tended to have the same approach as geographic studies of the natural landscape, that is, making an emphasis in the areal distribution of facts and their relationships.



Fig. 1. Sasaki, locational studies, 1934

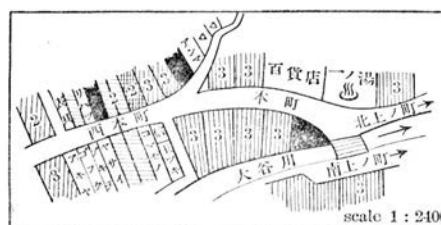


Fig. 2. Nishida, functional study, 1931

These studies were mainly locational and functional, but many geographers opted for the historical approach to explain the city. An important example in this regard is the work of the historical geographer Ogawa Takuji (小川琢治, 1870-1941). He was interested in finding out the origin of Japanese cities and therefore analysed the relationship between the Chinese and Japanese layouts. The origin of Japanese cities was also addressed by many historians, among them the renowned Economic historian Yosaburo Takekoshi (竹越与三郎, 1865-1950). His categorization of cities by original function was a reference for most Japanese and Western authors. He recognized four different types of cities: power centres, market town, harbour cities and religious towns (Takekoshi, 1930). Although the main interest of these historical studies was the determination of the economic and political origins of the city, they occasionally included graphics of the morphology of the city that became valuable for the understanding of the layout development.

4-Western studies of Japanese cities:

After the reopening of Japan in late 19th century there was an intense Western interest in the country and countless books were published on all subjects related to Japan. Unfortunately, renowned Western architects that visited Japan showed little interest for the serious study of the city, praising only as picturesque the traditional areas. Tokyo was described by Frank Lloyd Wright (1867-1959) as *a great city that is a gigantic village* (Wright, 1912). For even an experienced Western urban scholar as Bruno Taut (1880-1938) Japanese cities did not have a recognizable scheme, not a *really constructive principle of town planning in the European sense*, adding that *of city planning as a science and an art, scarcely any studies can be made in Japan* (Taut, 1936). Western architects admired Japanese architecture but disregarded the study of Japanese cities because they failed to see beyond the missing western patterns.

Because of the popularity of these authors and their claims it has been mistakenly assumed that Westerners had no interest in Japanese cities before World War II. Nevertheless, important studies on the subject were made by Westerner geographers. Early publications from 19th century considered mainly the location of cities

providing general descriptions of population and city landscape (Rein, 1884), but the most relevant works were made, as in Japan, during the 1920s and 1930s.

The most significant studies were made by the German geographer Ludwig Mecking (1879-1952), and the American geographers Glenn T. Trewartha (1896-1984) and Robert B. Hall (1896-1975). They all performed field research on Japan and made analysis of different areas of the country integrating into the study of the landscape the analysis of towns and cities. Since there was no standardized methodology for the study of cities yet developed, each geographer had a different approach. For example, the American geographers, Hall and Trewartha, had a similar educational background and access to the same data, but their different interests led them to perform very dissimilar analysis. Trewartha's analysis make emphasis in the modern aspects of the Japanese cities (Fig. 3). This tendency determined some analytical decisions as the categorization of cities by size and economic importance, and the graphs chosen for his studies showing the distribution of the working force and the location of the industries (Trewartha, 1934). On the other hand Hall's approach is strongly historical. This approach takes the study to the search for the cultural origins, making careful analysis of the social, cultural and political history associated with the morphological development as the layout processes (Fig.4) (Hall, 1934).

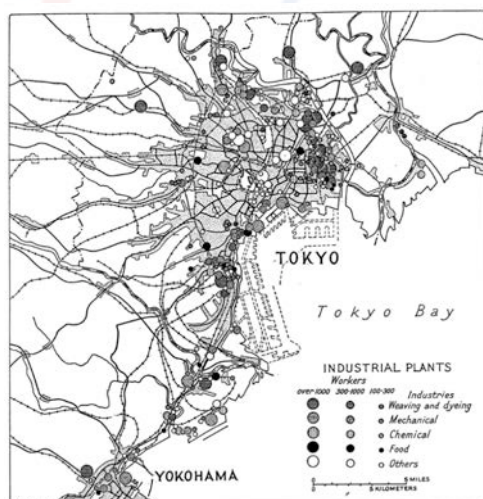


Fig. 3 Trewartha's analysis, 1934
Tokyo, Industrial city

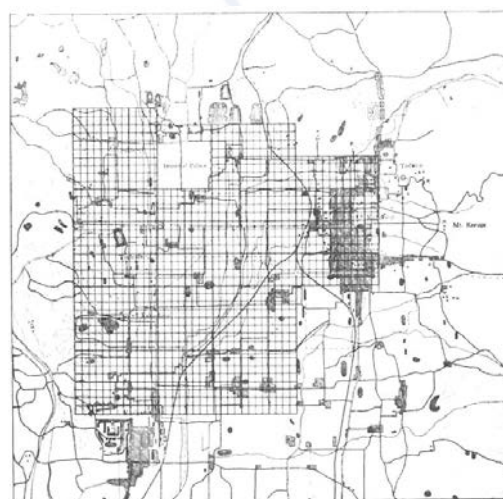


Fig. 4 Hall's analysis, 1934
Historical and contemporary Nara

Despite the differences on approach, all Western authors shared an analysis resource, that is, the comparison of the Japanese city with the Western ones. Out of this comparison, the Western researchers noticed the absence of strict zonification, and the non-central arrangement of the city layout and functions.

5-Concluding remarks

The reexamination of the studies made on Japanese cities in this significant period has shown that there was a significant body of knowledge on the subject that has to be recognized as part of the development of the academic understanding of cities.

The most important studies were made during the 1920s and 1930s within the field of geography, in both Japanese and Western case. It developed during this time mainly because of the combination of two factors; the importance that the cities had by that

period, together with the change in the understanding of the landscape that allowed geographers to include the cultural features of the earth surface in their studies.

Within the geographical analysis of cities, there could be distinguished the following approaches:

- 1- Studies of location, including the distribution of cities within the country, or the distribution of particular interests within the cities as Sasaki's example.
- 2-Functional studies, again, of the whole city or detailed analysis of sections.
- 3-Development studies, made mostly by historians and geographers with historical approach interested in the processes of the city.
- 4- Morphological studies, considering the plot pattern and building fabric. This type of study were less common than the rest. In Japan, the impermanent character of the constructions and their frequent destruction by earthquakes and fires, left the street layout as the preferred feature of study because of its relative permanence.

Regarding specifically Western publications, this re-evaluation of the bibliography of this significant period has shown that the study of Japanese cities challenged some western preconceptions of cities. Moreover, the studies on Japanese cities of the American geographers were among the first American studies of cities, and therefore their studies on Japan were also an important part of the development of urban studies in United States.

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The Adaptability of Religious Facilities for Extraordinary Events and Their Role in an Emergency

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Abstract

The Great East Japan Earthquake, which struck on March 11, 2011, caused massive devastation to the Tohoku region. In the context of this emergency, there has been a move to look carefully at the role and influence of religion, principally in the field of sociology. If we look particularly at the aspect of building construction, many of the religious facilities in the Tohoku region that had experienced tsunamis in the past remained intact after the recent earthquake, and in fact served as evacuation shelters. The aim of this study to clarify religious facilities which are constructed to correspond to religious event work effectively in time of disaster. The results of this study are as follows;

- 1) Religious facilities have high potential for a safe shelter.
- 2) In Tenri city, there are so many resources of Tenrikyo such as accommodations and facilities for providing meals.
- 3) A religious group which has possibility to do a religious ceremony will behave itself good in time of disaster.

We have showed that the collective functions of Tenrikyo facilities at “ordinary” times, as well the organization’s ability to adapt to “extraordinary” events, could be very effectively utilized in the event of a major emergency. As a further focus of study, we believe a highly flexible evacuation plan can be developed by taking into account these facilities in the context of disaster prevention and management.

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Instructions

The Great East Japan Earthquake, which struck on March 11, 2011, caused massive devastation to the Tohoku region. In the context of this emergency, there has been a move to look carefully at the role and influence of religion, principally in the field of sociology. If we look particularly at the aspect of building construction, many of the religious facilities in the Tohoku region that had experienced tsunamis in the past remained intact after the recent earthquake, and in fact served as evacuation shelters. Given their essential goals, religious facilities tend to be very adaptable in accommodating large numbers of people, so their basic amenities, functions, and preparedness can be very effective and valuable in times of emergency.

The aim of this study is to demonstrate that since religious facilities and religious organizations are accustomed to holding regular festivals and ceremonies catering to many people, they have the potential to make very effective contributions to the relief work needed in the event of a natural disaster or other emergency. More specifically, we started with a quantitative assessment of religious facilities that functioned as evacuation shelters following the Great East Japan Earthquake, seeking to identify the requirements for such facilities. Our findings showed that when a Tenrikyo church served as an evacuation shelter, the amenities and stockpiled provisions for its regular religious gatherings and events were of great use. As a result, for the second part of this study we traveled to the city of Tenri (Nara prefecture) where Tenrikyo has its headquarters to assess the facilities and amenities possessed by this religious organization, as well as their preparedness for a natural disaster, and adaptability in catering to large numbers of people (e.g., for its regular religious events), in order to determine how capable Tenrikyo would be of adapting and responding effectively to the needs of an emergency. The reason we took up Tenrikyo as a particular case of a religious organization in this study are twofold. Firstly, although there have been a few scattered studies done about the use of religious facilities such as Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples as evacuation shelters, virtually no research exists on the usefulness of the facilities of “new religions” in emergencies. Secondly, since the city of Tenri is a large center of religious activities it has the potential to play a particularly big role in emergency situations.

Note that in this study we use the term “extraordinary” to refer to times when regular religious ceremonies are held; “emergency” to times when a serious, unexpected event such as a natural disaster occurs; and “ordinary” to mean all other times.

Methodology and Definition

(1) Classification of evacuation shelters during the Great East Japan Earthquake (emergency time)

To quantitatively assess the use of religious facilities as evacuation shelters following the Great East Japan Earthquake, we classified evacuation shelters based on a list published by the “Earthquake Disaster Response Headquarters” of the prefectures of Iwate and Miyagi, to determine the proportion of religious facilities that were used over time.

(2) The adaptability of Tenrikyo following the Great East Japan Earthquake (emergency time)

We conducted interview surveys of managers/caretakers and evacuees at a total of five religious facilities used as evacuation shelters following the Tohoku earthquake—two facilities of Tenrikyo branch churches and three facilities of other religions—for the purposes of comparison. To assess the advantages of using religious facilities as evacuation shelters, our survey focused on determining a general outline of the facilities, their adaptability at the time of the earthquake, and the conditions under which they were used as shelters.

(3) Facilities of Tenrikyo

We identified the resources at the disposal of Tenrikyo, by looking at the distribution and features of facilities connected to Tenrikyo within the city of Tenri. In particular, we focused on food provisions and their stockpiling, as well as cooking amenities.

(4) The adaptability of Tenrikyo for religious events (“extraordinary” times)

We conducted a fact-finding survey on the use of Tenrikyo facilities and space conversion during the “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba,” the annual religious event that attracts the greatest number of visitors. We assessed how Tenrikyo facilities are converted to event venues, plotted the locations of features such as first-aid stations, and through an interview survey with the Tenrikyo PR Department, we inquired about the preparedness and adaptability of the facilities for large-scale events such as religious ceremonies.

From the results of all the above activities, we examined the “ordinary”-time preparedness and “extraordinary”-time adaptability of Tenrikyo facilities, to evaluate their potential for effective deployment in the event of an emergency.

Tenrikyo is a religion started by a woman named Miki Nakayama in 1838 in what is now the Mishima neighborhood of the city of Tenri in Nara prefecture. It is one of the oldest of the so-called “new religions” that were founded in Japan in modern times. With churches in more than 16,000 locations and over 1.2 million followers, it is a huge religious organization. Figure 1 presents an outline of the religious and administrative structure of the organization.

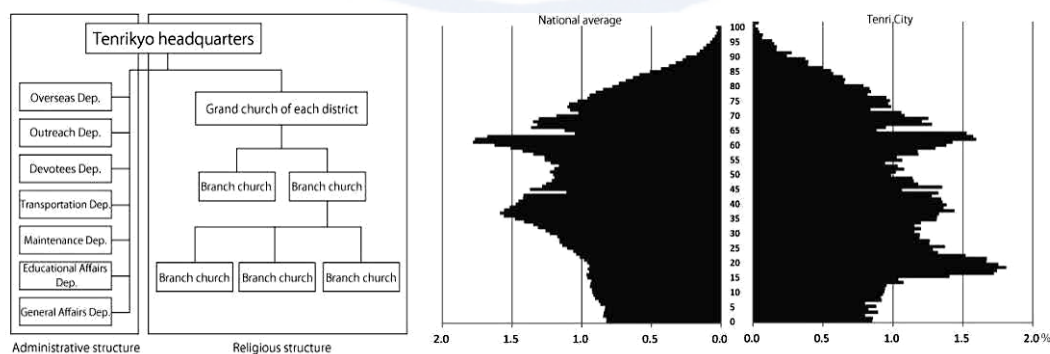


Fig. 1 Organization chart of Tenrikyo

Fig. 2 Age distribution of Tenri City population compared with the national average

Tenri came into being as an independent city in 1954 after the merger of six municipalities in Nara, centered around the town of Tanba in the district of Yamabe. Tenri is the only municipality in Japan that takes its name from that of a religious organization. The city has a population of 68,815 (as of the end of Jan. 2012), but the distribution of residents by age is strikingly different to the national average. (. 2) This can be explained by the fact that young people from all over Japan come to Tenri to attend its various educational facilities—Tenri University and Tenri High School, and the Tenri Kyoto Gakuen High School—and also that future successors of Tenrikyo churches come to work for two to three years at a time at a facility connected to the religious organization. Around the central part of Tenri City, there are numerous Tenrikyo-affiliated facilities, and scattered around these facilities are accommodation guesthouses known as “stations.” A quite unique characteristic of Tenri is that large numbers of people—several times more than its permanent population—visit the city, most notably when Tenrikyo holds its religious ceremonies. Thus, the city is used to hosting very large numbers of people.*1)

Adaptability of religious facilities in the Great East Japan Earthquake

(1) Evacuation shelter trends in Iwate and Miyagi prefectures

Figures 3 to 6 show aggregated data from documents released by the Disaster Response Headquarters*2) of both Iwate and Miyagi prefectures, regarding the change over time in the number of evacuation shelters used in the two prefectures, according to building type, along with the change over time in the number of evacuees for each building type. Figure 3 shows that in Iwate the proportion of religious facilities used for shelters peaked on March 28 at 11.2%, thereafter gently declining. Overall, religious facilities accounted for 7.2% of all shelters used in Iwate—significantly higher than the 4.3% for the Great Hanshin Awaji Earthquake (of 1995).R8) From Fig. 4 we see that the peak value in Miyagi was 6.5%, on May 11. In Iwate religious facilities hosted a peak of 12.0% of all evacuees on April 4; the equivalent peak value in Miyagi was 5.6%.

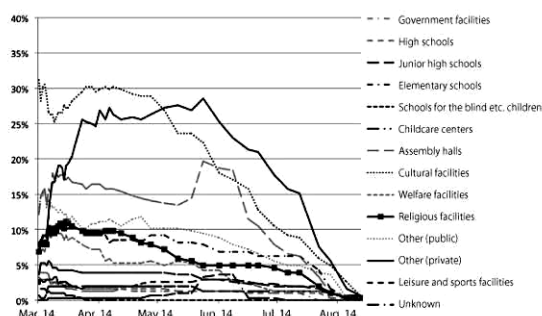


Fig. 3 Change over time in number of evacuation shelters by building type for Iwate Prefecture

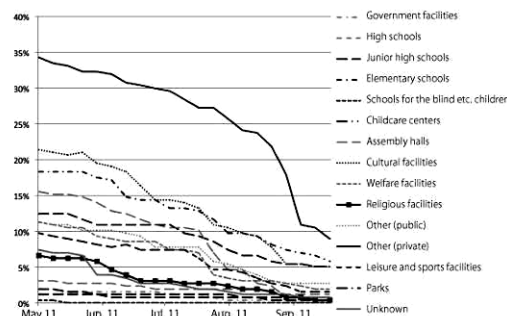


Fig. 4 Change over time in number of evacuation shelters by building type for Miyagi Prefecture

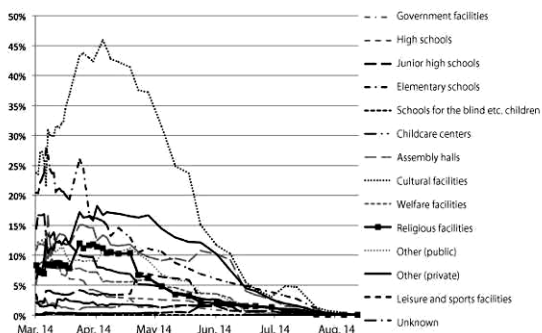


Fig. 5 Change over time in proportion of total evacuees hosted by building type for Iwate Prefecture

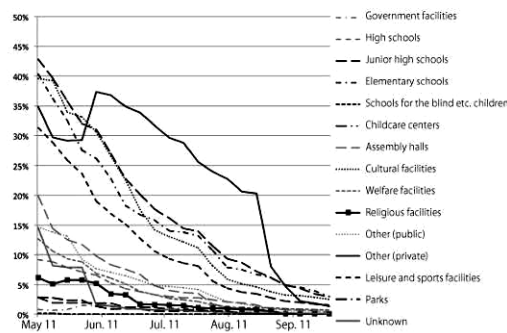


Fig. 6 Change over time in proportion of total evacuees hosted by building type for Miyagi Prefecture

All this makes clear that religious facilities were extensively used as evacuation shelters, but to significantly different degrees in Iwate and Miyagi. This may have to do with topographical differences between the two prefectures. In Iwate the mountains press right up against the coast and people tend to live in smaller settlements where the ties between people tend to be tighter. While large-scale evacuation shelters are quite difficult to set up, making shelters out of the many little shrines, temples, and other religious facilities that are rooted in this territory is relatively easy. Also, since many earthquakes and tsunamis have occurred in this area in the past, the religious facilities are usually built in places that are not so vulnerable to damage. Thus, during this disaster too, these facilities were able to play the role of local bases by serving as evacuation shelters.

(2) Results of survey on religious facilities used as evacuation shelters

Table 1 presents a summary of information from articles appearing in the Asahi Shimbun (daily newspaper)*3) about religious facilities used as evacuation shelters and about evacuation conditions.

Table 1 Religious facilities used as evacuation shelters, as reported in newspapers

No.	Publication date Facility name	No. of evacuees	Evacuation details	Features in the evacuation shelter	Others
1	2011.3.12 Tsukiji Hongan-ji Temple (Tokyo)	200 (as of 8 p.m. Mar. 11)	-Temporary hall and funeral hall were offered for use as a shelter for temple visitors. -The monk of The temple announced availability of place on Twitter.	-Rechargers for mobile phones were lent out. -Rice balls and sandwiches were distributed.	-The temple was offered as a shelter for the first time since the sarin gas attack on the Tokyo subway in March 1995.
2	2011.3.16 Zuigan-ji Temple (Miyagi)	300	Unknown	-The practice hall, normally closed to visitors, was offered as a shelter. -The trainee monks looked after the needs of evacuees, e.g., meals, toilets. -Meals and beddings were provided.	-Food was donated by local souvenir shops. -Evacuees helped clean up of the approach way to the temple and souvenir shops, which were submerged under water.
3	2011.3/17, 7/10 Jion-ji Temple (Rikuzen Takata City)	69 (Mar. 17) 23 (Jul. 9)	-After the tsunami receded, residents of houses that survived came to the temple with food and fuel.	-People slept together in a large hall with tatami floor (140 mats). -The temple used its own bedding. -The temple had several large kerosene heaters.	-Evacuees knew each other.
4	2011.3.17 Tozen-ji Temple, Esho-ji Temple (Matsudo City)	Approx. 60 at three facilities	-The temples offered to accept evacuees from Fukushima.	Unknown	Unknown
5	2011.3.19 A temple (Ishinomaki)	Approx. 50	Unknown	Unknown	-The temple was the only structure in the village that escaped destruction.
6	2011.3.26 A temple (Miyagi)	50	Unknown	Unknown	-Everything was destroyed including private houses, elementary school, city hall; the only building left standing was the temple behind the mountain.
7	2011.4.15, 6.1 Senju-in Temple (Kamaishi City)	700(Mar. 11/the day of disaster)	-Evacuated to a temple in the hills.	-The head monk was very kind. -It was not cold, even at night.	None
8	2011.4.22 Chokan-ji (Ishinomaki)	Approx. 40	Unknown	Unknown	-The temple was on the slope of a mountain.
9	2011.4.23 Gassan Shrine (Rikuzen Takata City)	68	-People evacuated to the hills immediately after the tsunami; after dawn they moved to the shrine that was opened as a shelter.	Unknown	-The shrine is at the top of 64 stone steps.
10	2011.5.10 2011.5.17 Otsuchi Inari Shrine (Otsuchi)	70	-The shrine was designated a shelter. -When the first wave of the tsunami hit, the number of evacuees was less than 40, but by evening the number grew to about 120.	-After the disaster struck, the priest and his wife provided meals, clothing, bedding, and heater.	-The shrine is on the hill in Otsuchi-cho.
11	2011.5.13 Daitoku-in Temple (Otsuchi)	Unknown	Unknown	-Due to water supply cut, The flush toilets at The temple became full only one day after The disaster struck.	-The evacuees themselves built toilets, water tanks, etc.
12	2011.5.16 Saiko-in Temple (Oofunato City)	10 (at time of disaster)	-Tsunami flooding reached to approx. 30 m below the temple.	Unknown	-There is a stone monument commemorating The Showa Sanriku Earthquake at The temple. The local residents took refuge at The temple, as explained on The monument.
13	2011.5.23 Dogen-in Temple (Ishinomaki City)	About 130. The temple accepted up to 380 persons	-The temple started accepting evacuees 10 minutes after the disaster struck. -Food ran out after 3 days.	-The main hall (120 tatami mats), a hall (50 tatami mats), corridors, and monks' quarters for were offered as a shelter. -5 portable toilets -The temple set rules to follow at the temple.	-The temple is normally available for training camps. -There is an air conditioned facility for a large number of people.
14	2011.7.12 Kichijo-ji Temple (Otsuchi)	250 (on day of disaster)	-Seeing the tsunami coming closer, teachers and children from Kirikiri Elementary School took refuge at the temple together with neighboring residents.	-There was no supply of food for 5 days. -The temple used 150 kg of rice, donated by supporters of the temple	-The temple was not designated as an evacuation shelter. -A catering center nearby could not be used due to a power blackout.
15	2011.8.1 Kozuchi Shrine (Otsuchi)	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	-Before the earthquake, people gathered at the shrine every week to perform Kagura.

A search for the period between March 11, 2011 and January 16, 2012 uncovered a total of 29 articles about the use of religious facilities as evacuation shelters. The number of people accommodated per shelter was as few as 10 and as many as 700—a vast difference—but the typical facility hosted around 50 people at a time.*4) Also, on average, Buddhist temples (14 facilities) hosted a higher number of people per facility than Shinto shrines (3 facilities). Though this represents only a small sample, this result can be explained by the basic differences of architectural design and layout between temples and shrines. Temples tend to have many buildings that can be entered, such as the main hall and quarters for monks, and since these feature tatami-style floors they can be used for lodging. In contrast, Shinto shrines only contain the shrines to the gods, and even their outer shrines are usually open to the surroundings. For this reason, they are difficult to adapt for the needs of evacuees. The only buildings that can generally be adapted for evacuation purposes are the residence of the priest and offices.

As Table 1 shows, the features of the religious facilities used as evacuation shelters were described in various ways, e.g., “having large spaces within the shelter site” (3, 14), “rich in resources” (1, 2, 3, 11, 15), and “with amenities to cater to large numbers of people” (14). The articles also included references to the ties between the religious facilities and nearby residents, such as “support from the local souvenir shop” (2), and “there were already strong ties between local residents due to the fact that they use the facilities under normal circumstances” (14, 16). These characteristics can be regarded as distinctive qualities of religious facilities.

(3) Religious facilities used as evacuation shelters

The results of our interview surveys of five religious facilities that were used as evacuation shelters—two Tenrikyo facilities and three other religious facilities—are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2 Interview survey of religious facilities used as evacuation shelters

Facility name	Evacuation shelter	No. of evacuees and evacuation period	Meals, provision stockpiles	Relationship with local people	Others
K church of R Association (RK) Kamaishi City 2011.6.26 9:00-9:30 Evacuee (woman in her 50s)	-No evacuees came from nearby areas because there was little damage or flooding of buildings. -Evacuees stayed in the main hall, men downstairs, women upstairs.	-Max. about 60 persons on day of disaster -Members (devotees) who were at the church at the time of the earthquake stayed on as evacuees. -Currently about 9 persons	Unknown	Unknown	-The church is composed of seven branches, including Kamaishi City and its surroundings. -Tenrikyo headquarters sent support of materials and personnel after the disaster.
K branch church of Tenrikyo (TK) Kamaishi City 2011.6.26 10:45-11:15 Wife of church head	-The branch church was used to exchange information. -The mood was cheerful thanks to the many children.	-About 20 persons stayed here, including some who were not followers of Tenrikyo. Max. stay of 1 month. -People came here on the day of the disaster out of uncertainty.	-We had a stock of food. -Commodities arrived 4 days after the disaster. -A water pipe exploded. -We used water from nearby mountain stream. -Meals for 30 local people were prepared for 1 month.	-People have a strong sense of local community, known as “people of the same mountain stream.” -Ties between local residents got stronger after the disaster.	-Two temples on the sides of the valley were the designated evacuation shelters. But one was flooded due to the tsunami, resulting in fatalities.
R branch church of Tenrikyo (TR) Ootsuchi town 2011.6.25 17:30-18:00 Church head and his wife	-There were 3 religious facilities in the area, a temple, a shrine and a church. -The temple and an elementary school were officially designated as shelters, but the church too was used as a shelter.	-30 persons for a max. stay of about 6 days. -People whose house was damaged and also some whose house was not damaged, both followers and non-followers, gathered here out of uncertainty.	-We have cooking facilities for religious events. -We used spring water from a house nearby. -We were able to use bottled gas.	-Even before we had frequent exchanges with local people, e.g. the church head served as head of the community center.	-Volunteer helpers were accommodated here. Max. about 14 persons. -Materials arrived from people connected to Tenrikyo.
K Shrine (KO) Ootsuchi town 2011.6.27 12:20-12:40 Shinto priest	-A meeting room of about 50 tatami mats was used	-Since this shrine was a designated shelter of the area about 100 nearby people came here. -From about March 13, when fires subsided, the number fell to about 20.	-We had 200 kg of rice (donated to the shrine), and we had a certain amount of water in stock.	Unknown	-The shrine shifted to its present location in 1629. -So it’s not that the shrine was located at this high place based on the experience of past tsunamis.
D Temple (DA) Ootsuchi town 2011.6.25 18:15-18:50 Evacuees (2 women in their 40s)	-Almost all evacuees were acquainted with each other.	-Max. 99 stayed here. As of June 25, 40 persons from 21 households are staying here.	Unknown	-About 5 local residents work as management representatives of the temple. -The temple operates solely on the donations of local residents and income earned from fees to use the temple facility.	-A temple in another town owns the land and the buildings of this temple. -The hall owned by this temple is where residents perform funeral ceremonies and practice tanka poem composition.

The Tenrikyo facilities are denoted by “TK” and “TR”; the other facilities as “RK,” “KO,” and “DA.” Some facilities, like DA, are used as a place for local interaction on a daily basis, while other facilities, like TR, contribute to forging ties in the daily life of the community, for example through the active participation of the head of the facility in local activities. Two common features that distinguish the amenities and preparedness of the religious facilities is that they possess large indoor areas with tatami floors, and that since they receive offerings they have relatively little difficulty with food provisions. Furthermore, the two Tenrikyo churches, TK and TR, are equipped with cooking amenities for large-scale religious events. Clearly, these

unique characteristics of the amenities and preparedness of religious facilities can help greatly to make an evacuation shelter function effectively.

From the above findings, we can see that the outstanding features of Tenrikryo churches are that like other facilities used for shelters they are equipped with large indoor spaces with tatami flooring and keep a good stock of food provisions, but also that they are well equipped with cooking amenities to cater to the large numbers of people that gather for their monthly religious services. From this we can conclude that this preparedness for routine religious activities lends the churches a high level of adaptability to emergency situations.

“Ordinary” time at Tenrikryo

It’s clear that the amenities and stockpiles of provisions that Tenrikryo churches keep for their regular religious activities are an essential factor in the functioning of an evacuation shelter in an emergency. Thus, in this section we turn our attention to the city of Tenri, where Tenrikryo is headquartered, to investigate the state of facilities and amenities operated by the organizations and its preparedness for an emergency.

(1) Distribution of Tenrikryo-affiliated facilities within Tenri City

To understand the various Tenrikryo facilities in aggregate, we studied the distribution of the facilities within the central part of Tenri City and organized them using a residential map and a list of facilities issued by Tenrikryo. The results are shown in Fig. 7.

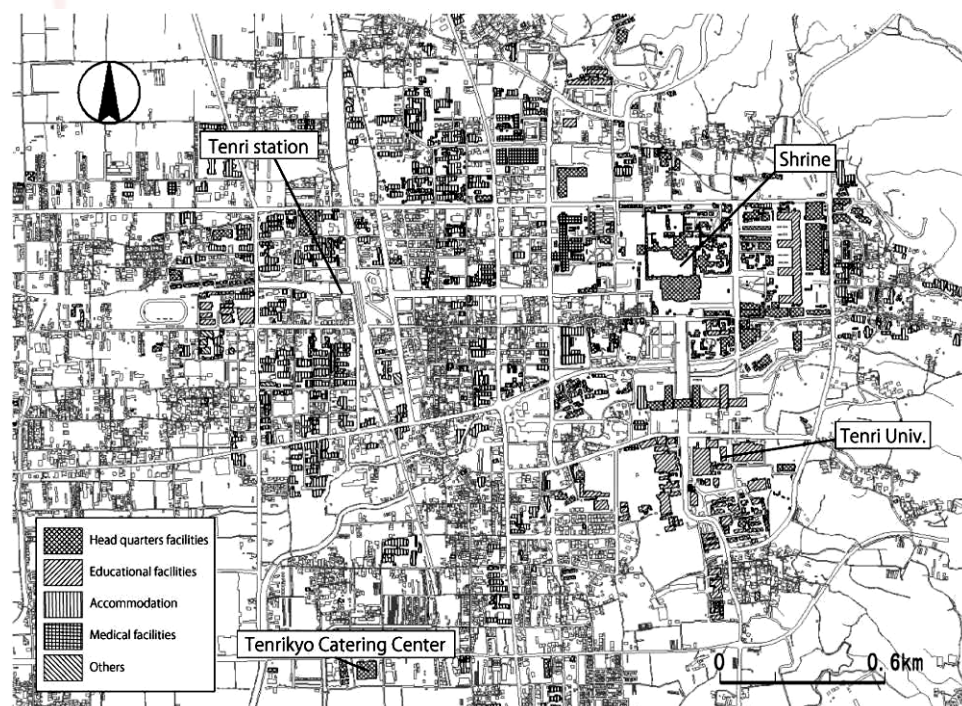


Fig. 7 Distribution of Tenrikryo facilities in central Tenri City

Within the city there are “stations” (guesthouses) at 255 locations, with a total capacity of around 47,000 persons. In addition, there are eight educational facilities, including Tenri University and Tenri High School, and three healthcare facilities, including the (Yorozu) Tenri Hospital—all in and around the Mishima neighborhood.

All the Tenrikyo facilities are concentrated in this area because the holy sanctuary of Tenrikyo is located there. The headquarters of Tenrikyo is close to the sanctuary, and to its south is Tenri University and a host of other educational facilities. The “stations” are located to the northeast, northwest, and southwest of the railway station. Like this, although the Tenrikyo facilities are distributed around the holy sanctuary, there are broad distinctions between them. These facilities are offered to followers from all over Japan and during Tenrikyo’s major religious events they are utilized to capacity. There is no question that the rich variety of the religious organization’s facilities and their large aggregate scale enables them to serve as a strong foundation for emergency response measures.

(2) An outline of the Tenrikyo Catering Center

The Tenrikyo Catering Center is located in the Tamachi neighborhood of the city. It boasts a total floor area of 16,203 m², making it the largest provider of meals in all of Asia. The center supplies meals every day to all the various Tenrikyo facilities in Tenri, producing up to 230,000 meals in a single day. Currently, however, it prepares around 20,000 meals on an ordinary weekday, and up to about 90,000 meals a day when there is a major religious event. The variation in meal production of the Tenrikyo Catering Center over the space of a year is shown in Fig. 8. So while on ordinary weekdays the center turns out 10 to 20,000 meals, on the occasion of the monthly religious service, the major spring and autumn festivals, and the “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba” in summer, it makes around 40 to 90,000 meals a day. It’s evident that the output of this massive kitchen operation varies significantly throughout the year.

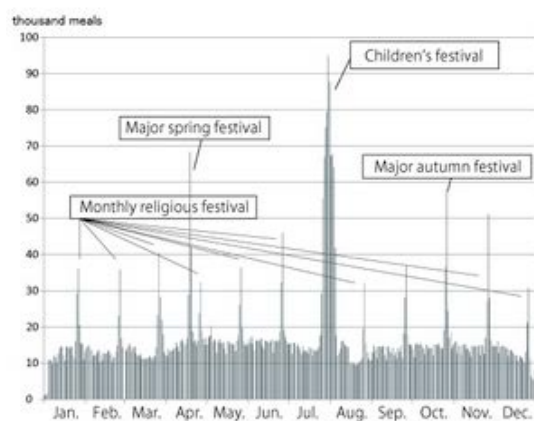


Fig. 8 Variation in meal production of Tenrikyo Catering Center over one year

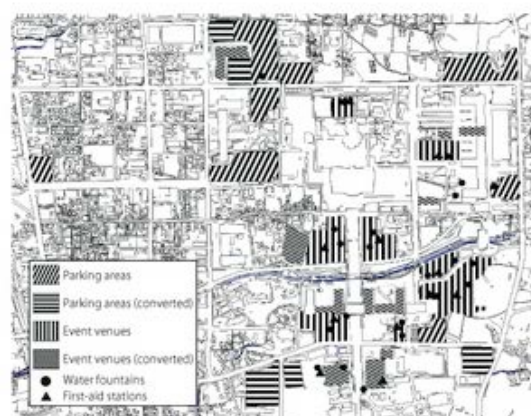


Fig. 9 Utilization of land during children's pilgrimage to Jiba

How Tenrikyo adapts for its “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba” event

(1) An outline of the “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba”

The “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba,” an event held for the children of Tenrikyo followers, is the organization’s largest religious event in terms of the number of devotees that congregate in Tenri. Held over 10 days, from July 26 to August 4, around 250,000 people make the pilgrimage to the Tenrikyo headquarters. They stay at the “stations” (guesthouses) owned by the Grand Church to which they belong, and they participate in religious activities at various places around the holy sanctuary of

Tenrikyo. In the evening, followers parade along the main road to the south of the sanctuary, which is thronged by crowds of people.

(2) Conversion of Tenrikyo facilities to serve as event venues

Here we examine how Tenrikyo adapts its facilities for special occasions.*7) Figure 9 illustrates the distribution of parking areas and event venues that are converted from Tenrikyo facilities, as well as the distribution of drinking fountains and first-aid stations. There are 13 parking areas, 17 event venues, of which 5 parking areas and 10 event venues were converted for the purpose from existing facilities. The parking areas are set up mainly in the sports fields of schools and in the grounds of churches, while the event venues are arranged in the buildings of Tenrikyo's educational facilities and headquarters. Most of the organization's educational facilities, in fact, are converted for use as event venues and parking areas. These facilities are available because the event is held during school and university summer holidays, also allowing students from the schools to work as volunteers to help run the event. Each venue is provided with 22 drinking water fountains and 11 first-aid stations to deal with cases of dehydration and sunstroke that inevitably occur due to the sweltering heat, as well as other unexpected problems. The water fountains are organized by young Tenrikyo devotees of the Youth Association, while the first-aid stations are attended by students from the Tenri Nursing College, who remain on stand-by to care for the pilgrims. The whole "children's pilgrimage to Jiba" event, which is attended by followers and students from all over Japan, is managed by a total staff of up to 5,700 people. From these basic facts, it is apparent not only that the Tenrikyo facilities offer plenty of space, but also that the organization is able to systematically implement large-scale personnel support through its followers. These two features indicate that Tenrikyo has the adaptability to respond very effectively in the event of a major emergency.

(3) Preparation for religious events by organizers

To assess how Tenrikyo adapts itself for special occasions, we conducted an interview survey with the Tenrikyo PR Department.*6) Organization of the "children's pilgrimage to Jiba" is led by the Tenrikyo Youth Association, with the collaboration of other groups in the organization. Traffic-related matters are handled by the Transportation Department, first-aid stations and teahouses are set up by the Maintenance Department, and each of the attractions is managed by the Grand Churches of each district. Normally, devotees stay at the "station" (guesthouse) of the Grand Church to which they belong, but if there is insufficient space, accommodation is arranged at the headquarters and at educational facilities. For these "excess" people, Tenrikyo keeps tens of thousands of sets of bedding are kept. A large number of students help with managing the event. All the students at Tenri Kyoto Gakuen participate, while for Tenri High School and Tenri University only students who wish to volunteer take part. For the parades held in the evening, a request for traffic control is made to police, to enable the pilgrims to cross the public road safely. For the period of the event, Tenrikyo officials submit a plan to the police and fire station, regarding pedestrian crossings and roads closed to vehicular traffic. Then if approval is received, Tenrikyo volunteers conduct the necessary traffic safety work themselves.

As outlined above, all the various parts of the organization collaborate to make a success of the 10-day event in the city. This requires a great deal of organizational capability in a variety of areas, including the stocking of provisions and other supplies, operation, management, and administration, as well as organizing volunteers, but Tenrikyo seems quite accustomed to handling these challenges. Certainly, this organizational capability, together with its various facilities, material resources, and catering prowess, would be of great assistance in the event of a major emergency.

Conclusion

The key findings of this study can be summarized in the following points.

1) Religious facilities were utilized more during the Great East Japan Earthquake than during the Great Hanshin Awaji Earthquake. The unique amenities of religious facilities, their stockpiles of foods and other essential provisions, as well as their connections with the local community make them very attractive for use as evacuation shelters, and even after shelters are no longer needed, they remain useful as bases for collecting and distributing information and material resources for the surrounding area. All in all, the use of religious facilities for evacuation shelters is very valuable.

2) In terms of space, organizational capability, and material resources, Tenrikyo can comfortably manage extraordinarily large-scale events like its “children’s pilgrimage to Jiba.” It can coordinate all these resources to successfully run this single religious event over many days. And since it runs this extraordinary event regularly (every year), it has virtually got the process down to a fine art. Undoubtedly, this capability would prove very valuable in the event of a major emergency.

We have showed that the collective functions of Tenrikyo facilities at “ordinary” times, as well the organization’s ability to adapt to “extraordinary” events, could be very effectively utilized in the event of a major emergency. As a further focus of study, we believe a highly flexible evacuation plan can be developed by taking into account these facilities in the context of disaster prevention and management.

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The logo for the International Association of Business Schools (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a larger light blue arc and a smaller, slightly offset light red arc.

Cluster Alliance – The Alliance Influenced Factors in Taiwan’s Hi-tech Industry

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0388**Abstract**

With the saturation of cluster development, corporate strategy aims to seek co-workers so as to remain cluster competitiveness in the global economics. Taiwan’s industrial clusters are facing the challenge from multinational enterprises (MNEs). To compete with MNEs, firms that gathered among regional science park in Taiwan took strategic development such as joint ventures and alliances to extend cluster’s vitality and renew cluster life cycle.

This study aims to discuss the alliance influential factors among the cluster’s network. The research generalizes cluster alliance critical influential factors which applied to Taiwan’s hi-tech industrial clusters, and investigate how heterogeneous industrial factors affect the strategic decision in alliance partners’ selection. Hi-tech industrial clusters rely on technology capabilities, market forces, and industrial differentiation. Considering these cluster incentives, corporate capability and mutual relationship construct the possibility of cluster alliance.

This study adopts the regression analysis to verify that firms in cluster would take technology and market factor into consideration when different cluster seeking for alliance; the industry factor affects as a moderator when technology and market factor affects cluster alliance tendency. This research finds out that Industry factors would induce the cooperation possibility, showing that linkage with the value chain and constructions of cluster network are the essential elements in corporate strategy. And this study explores that industrial heterogeneity would weaken the market effect to cluster alliance tendency. Without past experience, more risks need to be considered in cross-industry alliance.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Overview and Motivation

Numerous innovative creations stimulate the pace of technology development. The competition makes it possible more human to explore advanced and improved inventions to generate more opportunities of gaining profit. In Taiwan, the geographical environment narrows the resources and therefore mostly the companies in Taiwan are small and median enterprises (SME). To compete with multinational enterprises, firms in Taiwan took strategic development such as joint ventures and alliances. Besides, the densely populated environment makes firms to get closer with their supply chain partners.

Cluster is defined as groups with interconnected companies to share their resources and technologies, clusters can strengthen the industrial division among the upstream to the downstream of the supply chain (Porter, 2007). Gradually the proximity enterprises turn out to gather as the clusters to integrate value creations. There are over seventy industry clusters around Taiwan. The growth of cluster development accelerates the innovation and competitiveness throughout the global economics. The booming IT industry in Taiwan also cut a striking figure in the international. However, this kind of development strategy now has been widely used in many other countries. Although Taiwan's cluster development still remains 1st in the world. Cluster development in Taiwan need to create the differences in order to extend the cluster vitality (Gnyawali, 2013). This research intends to construct an alliance structure to build a linkage within clusters. The enterprises can extend their business through formal network relationships in nationalization (Fernhaber, 2013). Cluster networks can lead to the formation of exchange relationships, which have been suggested to be a vital component to new venture internationalization as they can provide both resources and legitimacy (Oviatt and McDougall, 1994). Also, mature development clusters can exchange different integrated resources. Such collaboration can help extend the cluster vitality and some of them may find different possibilities in their business.

Taiwan's hi-tech industry has been moving forward to this kind of network collaborations. With the exploitation of cluster alliance factors construction, enterprise can have comprehensive arrangement in exploring business and compete with MNEs. There are plenty of factors while considering choosing alliance partners, many studies mentioned about individual selection about their partners, but few of them considered about organizational integration. The coordination between firms may involve strategic thinking. With the view of integration consideration, the decision can be more compressively.

Research Objective

Hi-tech industry effects heavily from knowledge-based resources. The product/service life cycle usually last for short period. Research has found that most of firms exchange leverage cluster-based resource to reduce research and development from itself. This study aims to discover the influential factors when cluster seek partners from other clusters. In technology-based clusters, knowledge diffusion and absorption promote technology improvement. Knowledge flows between alliance partners would provoke firms to find new inventions. Economic consideration from market side also affect heavily from the integration within the clusters.

The research investigates the incentives from technology and market factors, different alliance partners provide resources differently. Homogeneous industrial clusters can merge capacities and heterogeneous industrial clusters compound their technology to improve existing development. Which type of alliance partners that can bring out more incentives plays the main role in decision-making? Research has found that different kind of integration shows the difference in development. Whether the cross-industry alliance would provide more advantages than common alliances is the main issue to discover. Taiwan's hi-tech industry represents a well example of cluster development. Through this research firms among the clusters would have more effectively suggestions in decision-making. The objectives of this study are as follows:

- Generalizing cluster alliance critical influential factors which applies to Taiwan's hi-tech industrial clusters.
- Investigating how heterogeneous industrial factors effects the strategic decision in alliance partners' selection.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Industrial Cluster

Industrial cluster theory, originated from economies of agglomeration, indicates that firms or value-chain-based linkage of the industry slowly gather together in a particular area to seek production advantages through this kind of regional agglomeration. In this cluster individuals could gain their vertical and horizontal dependency such as specific suppliers, service providers, company's mutual dependence and companies of associated industries (Porter, 1998). The resources and network synergy brings out cluster's vitality—the extent to which a cluster is imbued with new knowledge resources over time—, and suggest that cluster vitality is very critical for sustained flow of cluster benefits (Gnyawali, 2013).

Clusters have been described as groups of interconnected businesses that form a significant economic unit (Morfeis, 1994). One of the most inclusive definitions of a cluster may be the one provided by National Governor Association (2002) where they define cluster as a geographically bounded concentration of similar, related or complimentary businesses, with active channels for business transactions, communications and dialogue that share specialized infrastructure, labor markets and services, and are faced with common opportunities and threats. Swann and Prevezer (1996) define clusters as groups of firms within one industry based in one geographical area. Clusters indeed create the geographically integrated effect, in many places people use this kind of development strategy to build up business in diversity.

Industries absorb these benefits to breakthrough personal advantages. Therefore, firms with similar demands gradually attract each other and become different types of industrial clusters. The industrial cluster can strengthen overall bargaining power and build up collaboration network. SMEs use cluster development to expand their competitiveness in order to compete with MNEs. Besides, it's more convenience to internationalize through informal (geographically proximate firms) and formal (alliance partners) network relationship (Fernhaber and Li, 2013). Firms in cluster tend to exchange knowledge and technology. They both share knowledge to explore niche business in the same market. The state of cluster development index in Taiwan still remains 1st in WEF's (World Economic Forum) survey, which means that Taiwan is also a role model in conducting industrial cluster research.

Dahmen (1952) firstly defined the element of successful industrial cluster. Not only the internal linkage efficiency but also the self-mobility through forward and backward production chain in industrial complexes should be sustained in a cluster development. The firms build their linkage efficiency through work integration. And the professional division of labor from upstream to downstream strengthened the whole cluster to form a circulation among this cluster. They exchange knowledge through informal social networks and thus stimulate the formation of business clusters in rural areas that can improve the performance of firms. When the mutual relation gradually developed, the knowledge can be strongly enhanced.

These so-called consequences are the cluster effect. The cluster effect brings out successful business in originally inconspicuous area and therefore attracts researchers to investigate the phenomenon. In Taiwan, industrial clusters represent their competitiveness for the past decades. However, these days many countries build up integrated clusters as their economic unit and threaten Taiwan's international business. With the growth of cluster development, Taiwan once created its innovative capability, but there's still a long-term development to industrial clusters.

2.1.1 Cluster Phenomenon

An industry cluster is a small geographic area (usually the size of a metropolitan area) that hosts a significant number of a given industry's competitors, suppliers, and/or distributors (Porter, 1998). Zaheer and Manrakhani (2001) describe four main reasons for a company to locate in a cluster: 1. resource-seeking, 2. market-seeking, 3. efficiency seeking, and 4. strategic asset-seeking. Firms get together to implement each other, including raw materials to human resources. Such combinations of integration enhance firms' capacity and thus linked firms together to form a cluster. Tacit knowledge about markets and manufacturing techniques that can be acquired through regular contact with managers within the cluster determines the strategic assets to this specific cluster (Saxenian, 1994).

However, cluster also has its life cycle, though this organization could facilitate the collaboration between firms and enlarge capacity by the efficiency of integration. Poudel and St John (1996) defined three phases through which clusters pass: 1. Origination and emergence of the cluster. 2. Convergence of the cluster firms. 3. Firm reorientation and decline in the performance of the cluster. During the rise of a cluster, companies inside the cluster grow much faster than those outside of the cluster. However, during the decline of a cluster, these firms also shrink and go out of

business at a faster rate than the rest of the industry. Klepper (1997) also distinguishes three different stages of an industry life cycle: embryonic, growing and mature. In this model, there is an embryonic stage with small output, a subsequent growing stage, and a mature stage with a decline in the number of companies and employees. But neither the age, nor the quantitative development of companies and employees sufficiently describes the development of an industry. Not all of the clusters can continually retain its vitality. As cluster development mature, dynamics such as innovation and creativity decreases. Therefore, the ongoing revolution in cluster development is essential to maintain cluster vitality. To better understand the nature of cluster evolution, which has nurtured economic growth, scholars have attempted to unpack contributors to cluster evolution from the perspective of the environmental uncertainty and resource abundance effects. The facts that these factors determine cluster to link together so as to renew cluster vitality.

The growth of Taiwan Hi-tech clusters faces the convergence of cluster firms. To improve and survive from decline of development rely heavily on innovative process. Firms in cluster sought to build a continuous value creation and knowledge sharing network. The industrial cluster can conquer internal rigid and inertia because of continuous involvement of new entrants. When cluster gradually saturated, it must turn out to meet external stimulations. Collaboration within clusters made firms easily to get used to different resource integrations. Especially to highly competitive market, the adaption to dynamic changes by integrated alliance help increasing the possibility to success.

2.1.2 Hi-tech Industrial Cluster

There are many industrial clusters in Taiwan. Most of them gathered as Science parks to build innovate and creative inventions for commercialization. Science parks are widely seen as an effective tool to promote industry cluster, to realize larger and more visible returns on the R&D investment of a nation, and to bring about national/regional economic development. These industrial clusters share knowledge rapidly with individuals within the cluster organization. They divide works and remain professional competency so as to focus on main-tech development. In addition to informal collaboration, they also take formal collaborations to reinforce mutual trust when knowledge sharing. By combining some of the incentive structures of markets with the monitoring capabilities and administrative controls associated with hierarchy (internal organization), alliances can provide a superior means to gain access to technological and other complex capabilities. Alliance runs the gamut from fairly simple unilateral contracts, such as licensing, through more complex contractually based arrangements, such as technology sharing and joint development agreements (Mowery, 1996). And firms can easily obtain the complementary resources by signing contracts.

2.2 Influential Factors in Hi-tech Cluster Alliance

There are many ways to enhance the possibility of alliance, and there are many studies mentioned about the influential factors for strategic alliance. However, in these days, to cooperate with members in nearby area is not enough for the globalization. The alliance should consider more than geographical factors since the network have linked each part of country and even continent to continent. Therefore,

to realize the critical factors that could help firms, or even the clusters to cooperate with each other should be more useful for firms to learn how to explore their careers. Expanding firm capacities varies from internal and external resources. For internal expanding, firms seek low-cost and R&D activities; in the other hand, firms outsource part of work. Some firms also take strategic alliance as one of way to outsourcing.

2.2.1 Technology

Industrial and economic clusters have emerged as a special form of spatial organization in economics theory regarding organizations efficiency based on their geographic locations, networks and relations. However, technology clusters are different from the classic economic cluster. For hi-tech industries there are some important factors that could stimulate the firm's performance.

Clusters are the main factors for increasing jobs, income, and global export goods. According to Sanchez and Omar (2012)'s study, there are five factors that can lead to cluster improvement: Strong innovative base with supporting R&D activities, using technology to improve productivity, advisory board for companies in industry clusters, competitive pricing, and market expansion nationally and globally. Such factors can also be taken into alliance consideration. Clusters strive for competitiveness and resource integration, which significantly impact firm performance. By knowledge spillover and technology transfer, firms among different clusters can obtain codified knowledge from the past integration in the cluster. Therefore the reliabilities of knowledge transfer can easily be estimated. Many studies indicate that technology is the prior influential factor when firms need to find collaboration. Also, the strength of integrated capability of technology and innovation lead to feasibility of collaboration development. Besides, the spread of knowledge and learning capability are necessities in maintaining cluster vitality. When clusters need to expand its capacity and ally with other clusters, it is necessary that cluster should gain more learning capabilities and faster transmission in technical knowledge.

2.2.2 Market

The spatial clusters make it more easily for firms to reduce the coordination costs. Also, the collaboration benefits the exchange of technology information, which promotes the new product development and research of improvement. By competitions the firms among clusters construct the advantages in industrial competitions. The range of industrial clusters gets bigger than a single industry, so they can grasp the importance of cross-vendor and industry connections, complementarity, technology spillover effects, skills, resources, marketing and customer needs, these links are competition, productivity and new business formation and direction of innovation and technical depth of the basic elements.

The advantages that help industrial clusters reduce costs, amplify the market share and strengthen the competitive advantage, even with the pioneer enterprises to enhance the overall reputation increase the possibility of an alliance. The study of industrial cluster in the literature talked about the production, demand and other factors, issues related industries, as well as value chain architecture considerations, Child et al. (2005) also mentioned in the industrial cluster network architecture, the members of the cooperative will reduce transaction costs; the cluster alliance also

provides a form of network resources, markets, technology and access to information (Gulati et al., 2000).

2.2.3 Industry

The empirical picture that emerges from this analysis is that alliances are used when there is a disparity between a firm's existing operations and the firm's new activity. Clusters and networks remain fuzzy concepts when we consider their own interrelated relationships and their relationships with the factors and variables of the whole economy, such as institutional arrangements, trading efficiency, level of specialization and agglomeration, as well as their dynamic evolution (Li et al., 2010).

The linkage of value creation through network collaborations matches by both formal (strategic alliance) and informal (cluster) coordination of the partnership. Furthermore, the development of cross-industry alliance can also improve the overall network effect.

The opportunities in alliance are fraught with uncertainty. Business goals, strategies and organizational methods depending different industry show a wide range of differences. If the decision among these situations can cooperate well, it then therefore creates more business opportunities. Researcher says that the social network used to emphasize the accumulation and relationship. In these days we seek the concept of the linkage within value chain and cluster integration, which we often called cluster value. Through competitive advantages and the organization strategy integrates the development of the entire value chain. The cluster can gather more partners form global clusters.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Research Framework and Hypotheses

The following are the definitions of cluster alliance influential factors and sub-factors (see Table 3.1 & Table 3.2). Based on these factors, the questionnaire would be designed to verify the research assumptions.

Table 3.1 Definitions of cluster alliance influential factors

Influential factors	Definitions	Sub-factors
Technology	In hi-tech industry, technology represents the essence of the creation and the capability. The strength, creativity, and the diffusion of the technology could enroll more attraction of the feasibility of alliance.	Value of Technology
		Knowledge Diffusion
		Capacity of Innovation
Market	In every industry, market resource is the key element when firms need to gain more profits. Besides, market share and firms reputation also needs to be considered when expanding. Thus market should be the incentives when hi-tech clusters' alliance has to be built.	Cost Reduction
		Market Share Expansion
		Reputation Creation
Industry	Alliance could make industrial integration or cross-industry collaboration. Both of them would create more positive synergies and industry expanding, especially in hi-tech industry. Different combinations could blur more creative productions.	Clusters' Network
		Linkage within Value Chains

Table 3.2 Sub-factor Definitions of cluster alliance influential factors

Sub-factors	Definitions	Indicators	Researchers
Value of Technology	Show integrated capacity when firms ally to each other.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Numbers of certification patent ● Numbers of patent cited. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Catalin, 2012 2. Gomes-Casseres, 2006
Capacity of Innovation	Determine the strength of innovative creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● R&D expenditures ● R&D personnel 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Kodama, 1992
Knowledge Diffusion	Facilitate the knowledge flow and information exchange. Technical knowledge interworking in different firms.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Co-citation numbers ● Degrees of departmental communication 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chan et al., 1997 2. Connie and Breitzman, 2009
Cost Reduction	Inter-firm relationship Transfer technology and cooperate in technological development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Labor cost reduction ● Transaction costs 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sergio Janczak, 2008 2. Sia and Bruton, 2005
Market Share Expansion	A ratio of multiple outputs to multiple inputs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Firms productivity 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Farrell, 1957 2. Oum et al., 2004
Reputation Creation	Investor Recognition Hypothesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Number of stockholders 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ron Kaniel, Dong Li, Laura Starks, 2003
Clusters' Network	Network linkage density among the cluster	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Cluster density 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dyer and Singh, 1998, Lavie, 2007; Stuart, 2000
Linkage within Value Chains	Taiwanese firms rely heavily on the power of upstream and downstream companies to conduct their business if they are unfamiliar with the domain field.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Number of companies which conduct business along the value chain. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chuang, Chia and Wong, 2013

From Hypothesis 1~3 this study suggests that technology, market, and industry factor would have a direct effect on alliance tendency. The influential factors would positively affect manager's decision when considering strategic alliance. And Hypothesis 4 suggests that industry factor would be the moderator when technology factor affects alliance tendency. Researchers have different view on linkage within the value chain. Lai et al. (2005) argued that innovative activity comes from direct contact with a variety of sources.

However, many of integrated clusters eventually diminished after the network construction. Industrial clusters that accumulate high levels of innovative success need to assemble different information in their existing field so that it could facilitate the next round of innovation. The cross-industry concept of business integration also provokes enterprises to seek partners from different fields. But the willingness of

business combination from two different fields still not as good as they expected. Some of successful R&D alliances appear no significant in their operational fit (Gassmann et al., 2010). Many alliances in Taiwan have been found that some of enterprises are lack of technology or market advantages. However, the contractual relationship still can be built in such collaboration.

This study aims to provide the credible evidence to show that alliance partnership focus on inter-firm relationship more than firms' individual capabilities. The social relation between partners may trigger larger enterprise to lead small companies, or cross-industry cooperation. Hypothesis 4 suggests that the industry factor affects as a moderator when technology factor influence cluster alliance tendency. Companies need to choose their partners from the same supply chain or different field would adjust the effect of market factor affects the alliance tendency. The incentives from the technology view may be weakened by the linkage of VC and completeness of network construction. Also, the network relationships can regulate the effect on market consideration. Hypothesis 5 is set to test for the moderate effect of industry factor. It suggests that the industry factor affects as a moderator when market factor influence cluster alliance tendency.

3.3 Research Method

At first, this research would use reliability test to examine the designed questionnaire. And the study would use regression analysis to test for the assumptions. The regression analysis would be divided into two stages: the first stage is to verify the direct effect to the alliance tendency, and the second stage is to test whether industry factor would affect as a moderator.

The research intends to use senior managements in the Hi-tech industry clusters as the research sample. This research sent 130 questionnaires to workers in science parks (Hsin-chu science Park, Central Taiwan Science Park, Tainan Science Park and Kaohsiung Science Park) and their co-workers nearby the regions. And the response rate is 78.5% (102/130).

Chapter 4 Results Analysis

4.1 Reliability and validity test

To ensure that the survey design has a high degree of reliability, the study employed reliability analysis to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire. Nunnally (1978) proposed Cronbach's α coefficient as a measure of reliability; α coefficient greater than 0.7 is high reliability while less than 0.35 is low reliability. From Table 4.1, it can be seen that the composite reliability values are larger than 0.7, showing that this study has high reliability. Originally the Cronbach's α for industry factor is lower than 0.6, after subtracting the two sub-factors (c1 and c5), the result turns out to be reliable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.782 > 0.7$).

This research also uses factor analysis to reduce the dimensions in order to conduct the regression analysis. Principal components analysis with Varimax Rotation which produced the dimension of differentiation was used in order to confirm whether or not the scale construct validity. According to Kaiser's (1974) research, to define if the

subscales were suitable for factor analysis, KMO (Kaiser-Meyer Olkin) statistical tests was used. And the results for factor analysis fitness are meritorious (KMO > 0.8) for doing the survey.

Table 4.1 Reliability and validity test

Variable	KMO	Cronbach's α	N of Items
Technology	.87	.844	7
Market	.857	.741	7
Industry	.843	.782	4
Alliance Tendency	.836	.858	6

4.2 Regression analysis

The research uses regression analysis to test the hypotheses. According to Table 4.2, the correlation analysis shows the correlation between the three factors. The results show moderate correlated to the interaction are all significant. This implies that industry factors may have interference effect to technology and market factors.

Table 4.2 Correlation analysis

		Technology	Market	Industry
Technology	Pearson Correlation	1	.511**	.397**
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	102	102	102
Market	Pearson Correlation	.511**	1	.550**
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	102	102	102
Industry	Pearson Correlation	.397**	.550**	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	102	102	102

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

Table 4.3 shows the results of regression analyses. In first three equations, the simple linear regression test for single factor is significant (p-value of Technology factor is 0.007; p-value of Market factor is less than 0.001; and p-value of industry factor is less than 0.001 as well). However, taking three factors into the regression model, only industry factor shows significant (p-value<0.001). The p-value of technology factor is 0.843; p-value of market factor is 0.385. This indicates that technology and market might not really directly affect the alliance tendency. The fifth equation, taking interaction into regression model, shows that both industry factor and interaction term are significant (p<.05). According to the analysis, this shows that the industry factor has indirect effect on technology and market factors.

Table 4.3 Regression analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1. (Constant)	1.082E-16	.096		.000	1.000
Technology	.264	.096	.264	2.742	.007***
R square	.07				
Adjust R Square	.061				
2. (Constant)	3.973E-17	.092		.000	1.000
Market	.377	.093	.377	4.071	.000***
R square	.142				
Adjust R Square	.134				
3. (Constant)	-5.743E-17	.083		.000	1.000
Industry	.555	.083	.555	6.675	.000***
R square	.308				
Adjust R Square	.301				
4. (Constant)	-4.699E-17	.083		.000	1.000
Technology	.020	.098	.020	.198	.843
Market	.095	.108	.095	.873	.385
Industry	.495	.101	.495	4.887	.000***
R square	.316				
Adjust R Square	.295				
5. (Constant)	.067	.091		.736	.463
Technology	.003	.098	.003	.031	.976
Market	.156	.108	.156	1.442	.153
Industry	.516	.099	.516	5.206	.000***
Technology*Industry	.214	.089	.282	2.406	.018**
Market*Industry	-.278	.109	-.304	-2.550	.012**
R square	.364				
Adjust R Square	.331				

Table 4.4 Research supported results

Hypothesis	Supported or not
H1: Firms in cluster would take Technology factor into consideration when different cluster seeking for alliance.	Not Supported
H2: Firms in cluster would take Market factor into consideration when different cluster seeking for alliance.	Not Supported
H3: Firms in cluster would take Industry factor into consideration when different cluster seeking for alliance.	Supported
H4: Industry factor affects as a moderator when Technology factor influence cluster alliance tendency.	Supported
H5: Industry factor affects as a moderator when Market factor influence cluster alliance tendency.	Supported

From Table 4.4, the result shows that Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 are not supported, which means that Technology and market are not significant for the direct effect on alliance tendency. Apart from this, Hypotheses 3 to 5 are all supported, which means that Industry factor has both the direct and indirect effect on alliance tendency. According to Table 4.10, Industry factor has a positively direct effect on alliance tendency ($\beta = 0.516$). In addition, the interaction between technology and industry factor has a positive effect on the alliance tendency ($\beta = 0.282$), while the interaction between market and industry factor has a negative effect on the alliance tendency ($\beta = -0.304$).

To further explore how Industry factor affects the alliance tendency, the study then use sub-factors of Industry factor to test for the influence.

Table 4.5 Regression analysis for sub-factors of Industry factor

Questionnaire	p-value	β
C2: The past alliance partners belong to the same value-chain system as our company.	0.087	0.155
C3: The past alliance partners also compete with our company in the same market.	0.002***	0.289
C4: The development of internal specialization relative increased after the alliance.	0.025**	0.205
C6: The company's future development tends to search for cross-industry alliance.	0.033**	0.194

According to Table 4.5, the regression analysis shows that C2 is not significant (p-value=0.087). C3 positively affects the alliance tendency (p-value =0.002; $\beta = 0.289$). It shows that the enterprises tend to collaborate with their market competitors. C4 also positively affects the alliance (p-value =0.025; $\beta = 0.205$), which means that firms are likely to take strategic alliance to improve internal specialization. As long as they execute the professional division of labor, they can concentrate on their core-technology. In this way, they can achieve a great synergy. C6 has a positive effect on alliance tendency as well (p-value =0.033; $\beta = 0.194$). It implies that firms expect to approach the cross-industry alliance. Although there's a long road to achieve, they still have the interest to attempt this kind of collaboration.

Chapter 5 Conclusions and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusions

Currently firms' cooperating strategies for alliance are being widely discussed in literature. Ahuja (2000) indicates that technical, commercial, and social capital form the firms' propensity to alliance; and its resources and external environment also determine whether managers would make their decision (Park et al., 2002). However, mature cluster development creates stabilized knowledge exchange and common orders. The incentives decrease as long as the cluster integration has become fully developed. The conclusions are summarized as follows:

1. The study finds that technology factor doesn't have a significant effect in cluster's alliance. This result is conflict to some studies. Though hi-tech clusters rely on technology capability and degrees of innovation ability, few of them would take their core-technology as the bargaining chip in cooperation. Firms in the clusters divide their work into many parts of processes and workers to eliminate the technology infringement. But it's still risky to put themselves to a highly transparency in technology. Without mutually trust relationship in a long-term period, the clusters' network might collapse. Furthermore, different degrees of cluster development have various degrees in technology dependency (Menzel and Fornahl, 2009). In the growth stage, firm's alternative concepts compete with each other. The technological field is quite heterogeneous and there is a large amount of uncertainty concerning the future direction of the trajectory. Therefore technology plays an important role in the growth of cluster. Different technology collide with each other can create various results and this is exactly the differentiator for clusters to exceed those individuals. And at the mature stage of cluster development, it's hard to differentiate the integrated independent technical capacity among the clusters. The enterprises look up for the synergy effect instead of single terms of ability. Thus the technology factor is not strong enough for being the crucial factor. Lack of other accompanied effects, technology shows no direct influent on partners choosing in cluster alliance. In mature clusters, the value of technology and capacity of innovation is unquestionable. What they needs more is the linkage within other knowledge diffusion system. Knowledge network among different regions would be crucial for firm's survival in global market sectors. This network resource not only depends on their existing knowledge, but also their linkage with value chains. Intensive exchange among clusters renews the vitality of cluster's life cycle.

2. Also, market factor in this study doesn't show significant effect on alliance choosing. Though cluster development can reduce the cost and expand resource acquisition, this effect in Taiwan's cluster doesn't seem to attract the enterprise much. As Li et al. (2013) mentioned in their study that although they benefit from agglomeration economies over time, firms located in geographical clusters become habituated to dealing with local partners leading to lock-in effects. Such clusters may also enter into a cycle of "entropic deterioration" that eventually degrades the knowledge resources available in the cluster. The priority for those enterprises is to maintain cluster heterogeneity. The so-called Cost-reduction strategy has no longer been able to sustain the competitive advantage. Besides, SMEs share their orders in order to get the capacity they originally were unable to load. The collaboration must have some inequitable effect. On realizing the result, the incentives to minor companies then decrease the market effect. And in the end the effect gradually become blurred in the alliance.

3. Industry factor in this research affect directly to alliance tendency. Network relationships also engender respect, trust, truthfulness, and friendliness, and help build social capital, an important resource that entrepreneurs capitalize on (Ahlstrom and Bruton 2006; De Carolis, Litzky, and Eddleston 2009; De Carolis and Saporito 2006; Hanlon and Saunders 2007; Hite 2005; Liao and Welsch 2005; Yiu and Lau 2008; Zhang et al. 2008). The intensely linkage within the value chain and adequate capacity of innovation help firms strive for international competition.

4. As Hansen (1999) observed that the transfer of tacit knowledge was more effective in networks with strong ties whereas the transfer of explicit knowledge occurred more often in weakly connected networks. Firms in great network of cluster collaboration could have more ability to diffuse their knowledge. Therefore industry factor can indirectly influence technology to have a positive effect on alliance tendency. Increasingly patenting strategy provides further competitiveness for cluster unit to prevent infringement from other rivalries.

5. Furthermore, this study also finds that there's a a negative interaction between industry and market factor in alliance choosing. The greater market expanding it possesses, the more heterogeneous cooperation it would attempt to stretch out. In order to gain more territory, large clusters would seek more possibilities to differentiate their qualities.

However, if the market expansion is not well enough in their existing field, they would rather choose co-workers along the supply chain than taking the risk to search for cross-industry alliances.

6. This study discovers that enterprises tend to collaborate with their market competitors. The geographic proximity of firms in the cluster could enhance direct observation of competitors (Burt, 1987; Pascal and McCall, 1980; Rogers, 1995). Firm may try to mimic others and inadvertently generate innovation (March, 1994).

This study takes Taiwan's Hi-tech industrial clusters as the example of mature stage of cluster development to observe how clusters could renew their cluster vitality. Continuously evolution in cluster development can lead clusters sustain their competitive advantages and keep exploring new technology. It is believed that cluster network relationships will become the future trend of internationalization.

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An Ethnographic Study of the Use of Twitter by Interactive Travelers

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Abstract

In the age of mobile media and the Internet, travelers share their experiences and exchange information online while on the move. The term “interactive travelers” is used to refer to travelers using mobile media to communicate with others (friends, family, Internet acquaintances) while on the move. In this study, we focus on Twitter, a service used by interactive travelers during their travels. We address the following research questions: How do interactive travelers use Twitter during their travels? What is the significance of using Twitter while traveling? The study targeted 14 undergraduate and postgraduate students who participated in a six-day educational travel program conducted in Helsinki. For the study, an ethnographic approach was chosen. It involved traveling with the participants and observing and recording their reactions, behavior, and interpretations as bystanders. The study has enabled us to identify the Twitter usage patterns of interactive travelers.

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Background and objectives of the research

In the age of mobile media and the Internet, travelers share their experiences and exchange information online while on the move. Urry (2011) points out that the more we engage in corporeal travel, the more we increase our virtual travel in cyberspace. Molz (2011) uses the term “interactive travelers” to refer to travelers using mobile media to communicate with others (friends, family, Internet acquaintances) while on the move. In addition, Molz (2011) highlights the lack of research on interactive travelers.

In this study, we focus on Twitter, a service used by interactive travelers during their travels. Twitter is an information network comprising 140-character messages, called “tweets” (Twitter Help Center, 2013). In 2012, Twitter reached 500 million registered users worldwide, whereas the number of users in Japan exceeded 30 million, making it the world’s third most active country on Twitter, behind the United States and Brazil (SemioCast, 2012). According to an investigation conducted by the Ministry of International Affairs and Communications (Japan), the most common reason for using Twitter is, similar to other forms of online communication such as blogs, to “convey interesting information to others.” However, the second most common reason is to “update others of your current status,” and Twitter is often viewed as a tool used by individuals to convey information about themselves to others.

In this study, we address the following research questions:

- How do interactive travelers use Twitter during their travels?
- What is the significance of using Twitter while traveling?

Summary of the study

Location

The study was conducted in Helsinki, the capital of Finland, in March 2012. From 2006, Helsinki began providing a free public wireless LAN service within the city (Helsingin Sanomat, 2006). The service enables anyone to use free public wireless LAN in public spaces within the city, such as the City Hall, the port, art galleries, parks, and shopping centers, as well as on public transportation, such as buses, trams, and metro (City of Helsinki, 2012). Because registration is not required, foreign travelers can also easily access the Internet for free using mobile media devices compatible with wireless LAN. A large number of restaurants, cafés, and hotels also provide public wireless LAN to their customers for free or at low prices. Therefore, we considered Helsinki to be a suitable location for deepening our understanding of interactive travelers because of its traveler-friendly public wireless LAN infrastructure.

Participants

The study targeted 14 undergraduate and postgraduate students who participated in a six-day educational travel program conducted in Helsinki. Although the participants were not regular tourists—they were participating in an educational travel program—the program provided them with a considerable free time, and for the participants, one

objective of the program was to enjoy a graduation/spring break with friends from their seminar room.

Of the 14 participants, 13 were in their early twenties and one was in her late twenties. According to the 2012 White Paper on Information and Communications (Japan), young adults in their twenties had the highest rate of internet usage. In fact, the students used mobile media to access the Internet on a daily basis, and all 14 participants had brought with them laptop computers and smartphones with wireless LAN functions.

Method of Investigation

Edward M. Bruner, the ethnographer and author of “Culture on Tour: Ethnographies of Travel,” argued that the most effective method of conducting research on tourism is to travel with the group and share the unexpected happenings that occur during the trip (2007). In this study, we followed the example of Bruner (2007) by adopting an ethnographic approach, which involved traveling with the participants and observing and recording their reactions, behavior, and interpretations as bystanders. Before the trip, we confirmed the participants’ Twitter usage patterns and obtained their permission to collect data that they posted to Twitter during the trip.

On the last day of the trip, we conducted a group interview of approximately 30 min in which all participants were present. Group interviews are advantageous because they give participants time to recollect and reflect on their past experiences; hear the opinions of others; and qualify, modify, and reject their initial views after careful consideration. We used a semi-structured interview, a method that enables researchers to follow a general framework of questions while adding new questions and changing the order of questions according to the context of the discussion (Tani & Ashida, 2009). The interview was videotaped after obtaining the consent of the participants. After the interview, we transcribed all the utterances in the video in accordance with the transcription method introduced by Tani and Ashida (2009).

Method of Analysis

To clarify patterns in the participants’ tweet-posting activity, we measured the number of tweets posted on an hourly basis. Next, we analyzed the Twitter usage patterns of the participants during the trip by cross-referencing the results of the above measurements with our field notes and the transcribed data from the group interview.

Then, to clarify the significance of the participants’ use of Twitter during the trip, we analyzed our field notes, the content of the tweets posted during the trip, and the transcribed data from the group interview. In this analysis, we referred to the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 2010). We adopted a method whereby one of the researchers assigned categorical codes to any data relevant to the study. This method was applied to all data, and corrections were repeatedly made and confirmed by two other researchers. By this process, we extracted the key categories in terms of the significance of using Twitter during the trip from the perspective of the participants.

Results and Discussion

How did the participants use Twitter during the trip?

The students posted a total of 531 tweets during the trip. Two participants were using Twitter's protected tweets setting (only approved followers can view tweets); however, this did not necessarily mean that these students had restricted their followers to family members and friends. The remaining 12 students were using Twitter's public tweets setting (anyone can view tweets, not only followers). Of the 531 tweets, 495 (more than 90%) were public tweets. The highest number of Twitter followers for any one student was 541 and the lowest was 91, resulting in an average of 289 and a median of 300.

Here, we describe the tweeting patterns from day two to day five of the trip since the first and last days involved movements to and from the study location. On day two, all participants participated in a walking tour of the town as well as workshops at two museums. A large number of tweets were posted on the evening of this day, during the time period between returning to the hotel and going to bed. However, on days three, four, and five, which contained a significant amount of free time, tweets were posted by at least one participant almost every hour between 9 am and 11 pm. The participants could do this by securing "technological readiness" (Olson & Olson, 2012), that is, by discovering locations where they could access public wireless LAN while in the hotel and while engaging in independent activities.

Through our interactions with the participants in the field and the group interview, we learned that participants had posted tweets during the daytime while touring the city by using the public wireless LAN available on public transportation facilities such as the metro and trams. Students often posted tweets about their experiences from various locations within the city while traveling to their next destination.

We compared the participants' average number of tweets per day during the one-month period before the trip to the average number of tweets per day during the trip. The results revealed that during the trip, half of the participants posted a number of tweets equal to or greater than that during the period before the trip. The remaining 50% posted fewer tweets than that during the period before the trip. Faced with an unfamiliar Internet connection environment, the former group still managed to maintain their tweet posting pace by discovering locations that offered public wireless LAN and securing "technological readiness." However, one participant from the latter group explained that

"Tweeting about 'current' events is fine, but it wasn't possible to access the Internet in some places. So, when I couldn't tweet right away, I planned to do it later at the hotel, but, looking back, I found it difficult to limit the tweets to 140 characters."

This participant viewed Twitter as a media tool for conveying information about one's "current" situations and thoughts. Therefore, the coincidental presence or absence of public wireless LAN at the "current" location affected the number of tweets posted.

What was the significance of the participants' use of Twitter?

Here, we discuss the above question with reference to the following three categories, which were generated from the coding process, while also providing specific examples of individual participants:

- (1) A tool for constructing “narratives” of travel experiences
- (2) Viewing the “narratives” of other participants
- (3) Open microcoordination

(1) A tool for constructing “narratives” of travel experiences

Of the 531 tweets posted by the participants, 324 (61%) contained detailed diary-like accounts of activities undertaken, places visited, and thoughts entertained during the trip. The following are examples of the participants' tweets:

- Yesterday, I thought about the daily lives of people living in Finland, the lives of people shopping at shopping centers or supermarkets, and the lives of the people working there. I'm sure they also spend their days off differently from us. So many of the shops are closed on Sundays. I wonder where they go and what they do on their days off.
- Museum of Photography. Using “soundscapes” to express “silent” photos via sounds. To complete the task, we had to form concrete images from isolated scenes. The process helped me to focus carefully on a single photo. As a result, I could appreciate the work more deeply than I would by just looking at its caption...

According to Bruner (2007), the final product of tourism is experience; however, experience in itself is essentially incomplete unless it is organized through “narrative.” This is because “narrative” gives meaning to everything and is the process through which we interpret our travels and lives (Bruner, 2007). Therefore, the results showed that the participants interpreted and reflected on their travel experiences by constructing “narratives” in the form of tweets.

(2) Viewing the “narratives” of other participants

During the group interview, all participants stated that they had regularly viewed the tweets of other participants during the trip. The following are examples of remarks made by participants during the group interview:

- I knew where other people were and what they were doing at certain times. Not at the same time, but at similar times.
- Since we were often doing different things, simply knowing where other people were helped us to share our experiences and made us want to go to those same places the following day.
- I was interested to see what kind of food everyone was eating in Helsinki. It made me want to go out to eat the next day. The tweets about food were interesting.

The above remarks show that Twitter was used for the purpose of viewing the “narratives” of other participants' travel experiences during non-group activities. In

addition, viewing the travel experiences of other participants was useful when planning what to do on the following day, and therefore contributed to enhancing the participants' travel experiences.

(3) Open microcoordination

Of the 531 tweets posted during the trip, 144 (27%) were sent to other participants using the "@" sign followed by the recipient's username. The following are examples of such tweets:

- We're meeting on the platform of Kaisaniemi metro station at 13:30. Let's meet in the hotel lobby at 13:20 and go together.
- OK

Such tweets were sent to fellow participants to confirm current locations during non-group activities and coordinate times and places for later meets. This corresponds to what Ling and Yttri (2004) refer to as "microcoordination." The term "microcoordination" was originally used to refer to personal coordination activities between individuals performed using mobile phones; however, when such communication occurs via Twitter, the context differs in that the exchanges can also be viewed by others, including other Twitter followers. The participants of the present study followed each other's tweets and loosely shared information on their whereabouts and activities by engaging in "open microcoordination."

Conclusion

The study has enabled us to identify the Twitter usage patterns of interactive travelers. The circumstances of travel are very different from those of daily life; however, the study has found that for interactive travelers, gaining access to public wireless LAN and securing an equivalent level of "technological readiness" can be a condition for enjoying stress-free travel. Furthermore, interactive travelers used Twitter as a tool for constructing and conveying "narratives" of their travel experiences. In addition, we found that Twitter was used to view the "narratives" of and engage in open microcoordination with other travelers, suggesting that the service is often used as a tool for enhancing travel experience.

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On-Site Socialized Housing Program: A Comprehensive Approach towards Sustainable Community Development

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1. Preface

(1) Background of the research

The world's population has exceeded the 7 billion mark. The urban population of developing countries has reached about 2.56 billion, and in 2030 some 80 percent of the world's urban population is expected to concentrate in developing countries. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), therefore, calls for "drastically improving at least 100 million slum dwellers' lives by 2020." "To improve drastically the slum dwellers' lives" does not mean improving their living environment alone. It also means our challenges to the overall problems of urban poverty that exist at multiple levels, such as breaking away from low wages, expanding education and basic public service opportunities.

As the concentration of urban population progresses, it is a major challenge for us how to build a society where people can live in safety and security, as well as with human dignity. Various measures have been taken and yet it is far to cope with these issues. It has come to be widely recognized that social capital, such as trust, reciprocity and social network, that can unite society, as advocated by Robert Putnam, is very important to resolve the problems of insecure society and divided society. Various programs to encourage economic self-sustainability, on the basis of the poor people's entrepreneur spirit, such as Grameen Bank's microfinance and the Bottom of the Pyramid schemes, have been undertaken throughout the world. There has also been a growing trend in general that encourage private-sector corporates to fulfill their social responsibility, known as CSR, and not just pursue profits alone.

Even so, it is hardly true to say that enough opportunities are given to slum dwellers today with the progress of globalization that emphasizes market principles. In the Philippines, Socialized Housing Programs have long been implemented to enable slum dwellers to own for themselves the land and residences they have long occupied. However, in reality, the programs are having a very hard time achieving the targeted objectives, with increasing arrears in repayment and resale of their rights. There are mainly two factors behind such situations being repeated. First, the Socialized Housing Programs have been worked out as a system to bring "informal" slum dwellers directly to "formal" markets. Informal society is a unique society that people whom formal society could not sustain socially, economically and institutionally have created to survive in cities. These people have earned their living, built homes, and lived their lives on their own account. It may be fundamentally wrong to require the slum dwellers fixed amount of repayments every month while they are getting no formal incomes like monthly salary or no minimum wages guaranteed.

Second is who the beneficiaries of the Socialized Housing Programs are. Those who get benefits from the improvement of slums are not only slum dwellers who will tenure land and housing, but also people residing in areas surrounding the slums, the city, the province, and eventually, the whole country. Then, one cannot help finding some contradiction in the current situation in which "formal" programs with little flexibility are "thrown" onto "informal" income earners, thus laying the blame on the poor for the failure of the slum improvement programs due to difficulty in repaying their loans. It appears imperative, therefore, for the whole society – individuals, their community and the country – to take up the problem of improving slums as their own

problem and letting the poor positively into formal society, rather than shutting them out in order to take this undertaking closer to the realization.

For improving slum dwellers' lives, a balance between "economic life as an activity to sustain material life" and "social life as an activity to live together with others" will lead to the sustainable development (Onda, 1997). So it seems unavoidable that finance programs to give onsite settlement opportunities, without preparing systems to improve slum dwellers household economic capacity essentially will not produce expected results.

Therefore, this research looks into how slum dwellers' informal economy can be converted into formal economy, and ways to improve their lives through sustainable social and economic development.

(2) Purpose of the research

This paper compares slum dwellers' household economy and the amount of their repayments in the Socialized Housing Programs in two cases in the city of Cebu, Republic of the Philippines and clarify the problems of the ongoing Socialized Housing Programs. Then, it analyzes the process of development in which community activities become active after the confusion at the initial stage when the development programs were introduced. Finally, as this research's proposals, the paper aims at showing the potential of slum dwellers' organizations, as owners, managing and running the collective housing units built on their dwelling areas.

(3) Method of the research

Case 1 deals with Barangay Luz (referred hereafter as 'Luz'). Researches were conducted from 2006 to 2011 on the community's features, household economy, details of the Socialized Housing Program, the development process before and after the introduction of the housing program, and the program's amortization payment situations through qualitative and quantitative research methods as well as participant observation.

Case 2 deals with Barangay Lorega (referred hereafter as Lorega). On-the-spot research was conducted on eight occasions continuously between August 2010 and February 2014, focusing mainly on qualitative research and visual research by participant observation. The research purposes were to clarify the dwelling environment of dwellers in cemeteries, household economy and life style, details of the Socialized Housing Program as well as the way it was introduced, and the relationship among actors involved in the housing program, and the differences of opinions about the program that caused the division of cemetery dwellers into two groups. For the same purposes, hearings were conducted on the Barangay Captain (i.e. town mayor), the Cebu City Assembly member in charge of the Socialized Housing Program, the representative of the non-governmental organization (NGO) that serves as a partner for the Socialized Housing Program and the leader of the Socialized Housing Program dwellers' organization.

2. Cebu City's land features and population, and the Socialized Housing Programs for the urban poor in the Philippines

(1) Land features and population of Cebu City

The city of Cebu is located in the central part of the east coast of Cebu Island, and center of the Visaya region. In this oldest colonial city in the Philippines, blessed with good ports, 866,171 people are living (as of 2010). The city has land features, with the land's big differences between the highest and the lowest levels, and its plains account only 18 percent of the island's total area where more than 88 percent of its population and city functions are concentrated (Etemadi, 2002). The population growth rate between 2000 and 2010 was 1.88 percent (compared with 1.65 percent in 1990-2000). With this population growth rate, Cebu City's population will become twice the current size in 37 years (National Statistics Office of the Philippines, 2011).

(2) Socialized Housing Program for the urban poor

In the Philippines, citizens' participation was institutionalized for the first time in 1991 by the Local Government Law, and in the following year, policy measures were taken to place emphasis on improving living conditions of the urban poor by the enactment of the Urban Development Housing Law. Among the various measures to improve dwelling areas of the slum, the Community Mortgage Program (CMP) attracted the most attention. The CMP is designed to provide low-interest loans without collateral to low- and middle-income people who have been occupying public and privately owned land, without residency rights, to help their land purchase and improve their dwelling environment. The system requires those who want to get CMP loans to form dwellers' organization so that the members of the organization will receive guidance and support concerning legal procedures for receiving loans and operation and management of the Socialized Housing Program from support organizations with expert knowledge, called the Originator. In addition, there are Socialized Housing Programs implemented at various levels, such as the country, the province and the city. These programs are made up of the housing infrastructure development plan for the poor, including homeless people, that provides loans up to 300,000 peso per person (about 600,000 yen), and long-term low-interest loans to help finance the housing construction (for houses only, or houses with land). (Housing and Urban Development Coordinating Council: HUDCC, 2005)

The Philippines, at different government levels, have made efforts at slum improvement by revising institutions and laws since the 1990s, as illustrated above, but until today, it is hard to say that those efforts have achieved intended results. While the housing demand in 2005-2010 reached 3,756,072 units, the housing construction goals were set at 1,145,558 units, or one third of the demand (HUDCC, 2012). As the reasons for such demand and supply gap, the HUDCC cites the difficulty in obtaining and organizing the record of land owners, and the government's limited resources, including the high cost for the task, the advance of globalization that has been pushing up land prices and turning more land for commercial and industrial use by reducing land for housing, and resultant one-sided overemphasis on development of high-income housing as against declining incentives for low-income housing construction. The current situation of the housing supply lagging badly behind the actual housing demand, while the urban population keeps

increasing, is expanding the worsening of the urban dwelling environment, such as air and water pollution, spread of contagion, traffic jams and worsening of poverty.

3. Living environment in slums before implementation of development projects and household economy

(1) Barangay Luz

Luz is located some 5 kilometers northeast from the central part of the city of Cebu. At present, about 15,000 people are living in a land site of some 20 hectares. Since people who lost their homes in the 1956 big fire in central Cebu moved into the land area owned by the Cebu Province government, huge slums have been formed here. In the latter part of the 1980s, a large land area adjoining Luz was sold to the Ayala business group and the commercial development project called "Cebu Business Park" was decided. Because all the Luz residents are dwellers without residency rights, they feared the possibility of eviction. When some of the dwellers requested the Cebu provincial government for transfer of land, the provincial government approved the sale of land through the Community Mortgage Program, on condition that the Cebu City government as the Originator guide and manage Luz dwellers. However, the Luz dwellers all have experience of evicted from where they used to live. There are 16 districts, known as sitios, but because many of them did not trust the government's new program, only three of them accepted the CMP scheme. It took 14 years before the Socialized Housing Program was finally put into force in the entire Luz.

Table 1 shows the comparison of the detail contents of the three Socialized Housing Programs in Luz and their repayment situations. The first is the central government's CMP, the second the provincial government's Socialized Housing Program Ordinance 93-1, and the third is the Cebu city government's Socialized Housing Program (CSHP). The interest rates for these schemes' loans are the same at 6 percent a year, while the repayment periods are different according to the purpose of the programs, at 25 years, 5 years and 10 years. Their monthly repayment amounts are different due to the differences of the repayment periods and land prices. The repayment amounts are 140.30 pesos (about 280.60 yen) for the CMP scheme, 400 pesos (about 800 yen) for the Ordinance 93-1 scheme and 346.29 pesos (about 692.58 yen) for the Cebu Socialized Housing Program. Land prices for the CMP are the lowest since the project began earlier than the other projects, while land prices for the CSHP that entered into business partnership for the project in the 2000s are more than twice those for the CMP.

Table 1: Comparison of three land acquisition programs in Luz

Project	CMP	Ordinance 93-1	CSHP
provider	National Government	Provincial Government	Cebu City Government
paid by	community organization	individual	individual
payment period	25 years	5 years (postponed for another five years)	10 years
interest rate (annual)	6%	6%	6%
implemented in	1988	1990	2002
payment initiated in	1997	1993	2004
program ends in	2022	2004 (ended)	2013 (postponed)
land price (Php/m ²)	530	560	1,300
monthly amortization (Php)	143.30	400	346.29
collection rate	79%	those tenured = 7% those completed = 24% on going = 47% delinquents = 22%	7%

As for the repayment rates in these three housing programs, the repayment rate of the CMP was 79 percent, according to the research conducted in 2007. This figure for Luz is higher than the CMP's national average of 73.14 percent per year for 1994-2007 (Social Housing Finance Corporation, 2009). Meanwhile, in the 93-1 scheme, households that obtained the land ownership accounted only for 7 percent of all that received loans in the scheme. The repayment rate for the CSHP is extremely low at 7 percent, but despite that low repayment rate, the extension of the program was decided. The low repayment rates, except for the CMP, were mainly due to the fact that the two programs have no one like the "originator" in the CMP who can give guidance and support and also that the contract is on an individual basis and it is difficult to keep their incentives for repayment (Kobayakawa, 2009).

Table 2 shows a compilation of numbers about the household economy in various parts that have introduced the above-mentioned programs in Luz. In those three communities, the households that earn informal incomes accounted for around 65 percent. Judging from the monthly average amount of their incomes, it can be said that the Luz dwellers are earning incomes of almost the minimum wage level. To make the matter worse, because their incomes are informal, the incomes are very unstable and irregular. Without any savings, they would immediately become unable to make repayments for housing loans in the program once they or their family members become ill or even die, causing them to need a good amount of money. In the community that adopted the CMP, repayments are being made even today, and the dwellers there are expected to tenure land and houses eventually, but the other two

housing programs ended in failure. It was decided that the Cebu Socialized Housing Program will be extended again, but the amount of repayments would have to be reviewed to cope with the rise of land prices. In that event, it would become even more difficult for the residents there to continue repayments regularly. The Cebu provincial government's 93-1 program has ended inconclusively and is now shelved. The program has now been a longstanding pending issue for the provincial government as it cannot sell off the land where land owners are scattered like a patchwork.

Table 2: Household Economy of Luz

Program	households	informal households (%)	average monthly income (Php)
CMP	92	65%	9,384
Ordinance 93-1	114	62%	6,816
CSHP	117	66%	10,569

(2) Barangay Lorega

Lorega is located some 1 kilometer northwest from the Cebu City Office. It has 13 hectares of land area, where slightly less than 13,000 people are living in 17 sitios. There once used to be San Miguel's beer brewery and a slaughter house in the area, but today, it is a residential area after major industries moved out to suburbs. The status of Lorega's landownership is varied, with many private and public owners owning parts of the area, and formal and informal types of residency mixed. In the center of Lorega still exists Cebu City's public cemetery, reportedly opened in 1936. The cemetery area covers about 2 hectares, where about 400 households are said to be living as of 2011.

For cemetery dwellers, gravestones serve as their furniture, like tables and beds, and for kids there, they are playground equipment. Houses are built ingeniously around gravestones standing at-randomly. Because of the nature as a "cemetery" there is no infrastructure prepared. Dwellers take care of such facilities on their own. Dwellers in Lorega are those who flowed into this city on a mass scale from countryside in the 1950-1960s, placing their hopes in the postwar development of the big city Cebu, but were not absorbed into the formal society. People who cannot find jobs and cannot afford to pay rent began to gather around Lorega's cemetery.

Lorega's town mayor submitted a request to Cebu City to let cemetery dwellers live in places which can be called "house" and improve living environment, such as hygiene and security. The petition was approved by the City Assembly and the public cemetery was closed in 2010. Of the total construction cost of 13 million pesos for the Socialized Housing Program, 10 million pesos (some 20 million yen) was allocated from the Priority Development Assistance Fund by the former congressman. The remaining 3million pesos was provided by a Catholic NGO and Gawad Kalinga (GK). Thanks to the funding, a 3-story Medium-Rise-building (MRB) accommodating 60 households was built. GK Lorega is a rare case even in Cebu City, where MRB was accepted by slum dwellers.

The main actors in the Lorega SHP project are Cebu City, the owner of the land, GK, which is responsible for the building construction, and the dwellers' organization. GK conducts activities involving every dweller in Lorega for sustainable community building. Its motto is "bayanihan" meaning "spirit of service to share." In this "bayanihan" spirit, housing beneficiaries, engineers and volunteers come together to cooperate in realizing construction of inexpensive and simple houses and regional facilities. The Lorega Socialized Housing project using the GK methods has been named "GK Lorega." The housing beneficiaries are required to contribute 2,000 hours of labor. This method, called "sweat equity", is an important process to nurture joy of complete their houses and "ownership consciousness" toward their housing and community through working cooperatively together. For GK Lorega, built with the special regional development budget and donations, Cebu City decided to provide the land on a 50-year lease. The GK Lorega dwellers have now been allowed to live permanently as formal residents by paying only 300 pesos a month for management and maintenance fees, in addition to "sweat equity" for the required hours. GK plans to build three more MRBs in the near future.

4. Development process of the community development after implementation of the land and housing acquisition program

(1) Case of Barangay Luz

The Socialized Housing Programs in Luz as a whole are in a situation where land and house acquisition is difficult, as discussed above. Judging from the current amortization payment status, the programs are failing. However, if the programs are discontinued at this point, the cancelation of the programs will kill the dwellers' incentives – very important factor for the community development – born at the time the programs were introduced, and such incentives cannot be expected to work any longer for the slum improvement. The following paragraphs analyze how the introduction of the Socialized Housing Program raised the dwellers' incentives for the community development.

Until through the 1990s, Luz was a typical slum where people living there could not afford to buy and eat food without outside support. But by the 2010s, slum dwellers began to positively work on the participatory development, with the number of economically sustainable dwellers increasing through the process. Behind this drastic change of Luz was the introduction of the CMP. Dwellers there that were given the possibility of acquiring their land changed their consciousness about the environment drastically. They became nervous about trashes in streets, which they had never paid attention before. And a clean-up campaign began. While through their clean-up campaigns, they have learned how to separate recyclable cans from garbage, produce compost from kitchen garbage, make small products with used juice packs, and earn cash from trashes. Those products are now sold in the Internet marketing throughout the country and even abroad.

One of the most remarkable among the Luz people's vitalized economic activities is the rental room business. The multipurpose cooperative in Luz is offering funds for those who have already paid up their CMP amortization or paying it constantly to help expand the rental room business. In the first two years after rental rooms are completed with the cooperative's fund, the cooperative receives rents from rental room users to repay the loans. The cooperative also introduces customers to the rental

room owners. There are strong and growing needs for cheap rooms in Luz that offer convenient accesses to neighboring work places for employees in the Ayala Shopping Center and workers at nearby construction sites. So it makes a stable business. The owner can make 6,000 pesos a month, or the lowest monthly wages, if the owner has at least three rooms as the rental rooms fetch monthly rents of 1,500 to 2,000 pesos per room. A system to start up the rental room business, even if they have no savings, has been established in Luz so that they can earn a stable income as rents. The reporter of this research is paying close attention to this business pattern.

(2) Case of Barangay Lorega

It was fortunate for the GK Lorega dwellers to become able to live in the Medium-Rise-Building (MRB) without amortization payment. In 2013, extensive corruption scandal came to light over the Priority Development Assistance Fund, and the budget is currently frozen and it stops GK from another constructions.

As of February 2014, 49 families are living in the GK Lorega. The move-in time lag is attributable mainly to time-consuming procedures. Economic activities at the GK Lorega have become gradually active. Today the residents of the GK Lorega handle a co-op shop, shao mai vending, signboard making, and T-shirt print shop. They are also donated machines to produce roofs and building blocks from abroad. It is still premature to obtain data of these businesses and earnings. However, it is quite clear that they are capable enough to manage businesses.

The GK representative and a Japanese entrepreneur are planning to set a training centre in Lorega. They believe that if cemetery dwellers are given appropriate and enough training, they will be able to find jobs. They also are discussing the possibility of the dwellers at the GK Lorega starting up new business together. For example, they think, the roofs of the GK Lorega building will be turned to a roof-top restaurant to have customers enjoy panoramic views of Cebu City. Housewives who are now earning incomes from laundry in the city may also jointly open a laundry shop on top of the building roofs. They can expect collect customers more systematically and earnings more effectively by starting up a business in a team rather than soliciting customers individually at individual shops, they say.

5. Conclusion

(1) Lessons from the two cases of Cebu City

This part summarizes what have become clear in the two cases of Lorega and Luz. First, the poor in Cebu City who had stuck to the traditional independent houses have accepted the idea of the MRB. The slum dwellers now understand very well that they have no choice but to accept collective MRBs in order to secure proper housing in urban areas where available land for housing is limited and land prices are high. It is expected that the MRB will become the main stream of the future on-site development of slums. Second, the problems of repayment arrears and interruption in financing programs for the urban poor are often caused by the fact those borrowers with informal job and income have no stable monthly wages. Third, in cases of Lorega and Luz, dwellers community activities became active once their fears of eviction are removed. The dwellers began to participate positively in environment, economic, social and recreation activities in the community, and expand their social

network, to obtain new information, knowledge and resources through the networks, and create opportunities for jobs and business. Slum dwellers have the ability to do sideline-type jobs like making small products using recycled trashes as well as the ability to start up business or set up an organization to do contract work for big companies. Fourth, the successful case of rental room business in Luz. The rental room business model with the cooperation and help from the whole community showed that dwellers with no savings can start up business. Fifth, support and assistance from outside agents with knowledge are essential until a dwellers' organization is formed in a community and that organization grows to become able to launch activities independently and put them on the track. In the case of Luz, the Originator of the CMP, and in the case of Lorega, the GK representative played that role.

On the basis of these lessons learned through the research, the researcher would like to consider in the following paragraphs the ways to solve problems of slum improvement that have been frustrated because the amortization payment cannot continue.

(2) The possibility of management and operation of the Medium-Rise-Building by the dwellers' organization

This proposal refers to the on-site Medium-Rise-Building programs in urban areas. The recommended construction method is, by adopting the GK method, to form the dwellers' organization among those who agree to the purpose and idea, obtain cooperation from experts and engineers, and have members of the dwellers' organization work in construction to contribute the required hours of "sweat equity" in accordance with the "bayanihan" spirit. What is expected from the "sweat equity" in the MRB construction is not only the effect to cut construction costs but more the effect to consolidate mutual confidence and solidarity of the dwellers through the "sweat equity" as well as raising awareness of ownership and deepening attachment to their community.

The collective MRB is projected to be a 5-story structure, with 20 households living on each of the top three floors. The top three floors will house living quarters, while the second floor will have the space for rental rooms, and the first will offer commercial rental space for shops and work areas. The rental space to be created on the first and the second floor is the device designed for the dwellers' organization to secure stable incomes and is the very feature system this research proposes to help convert slum dwellers' informal economy to formal economy. The rental rooms and rental space will be run and managed by the dwellers' organization to be formed by the 60 households living there, and, as examined in the study of Luz, rents to be earned from those rental space and rental rooms will be paid to those who have provided funds until repayment of the MRB construction costs is completed. After the construction costs have been repaid, the rents and earnings will be incomes for the dwellers' organization. After costs for operation, management and maintenance of the building are deducted from the rents and sales, the balance will be distributed among all families participating in the project.

This proposed system to convert to formal economy will work only in urban areas where needs for rental rooms and shops are high. This system also enables slum

dwellers with no savings in informal economy to start a new life without being forced to pay unsustainable amortization. Also because the system distributes monthly rents to dwellers, once the construction costs have been repaid, this will be a very attractive project with high incentives. It incentives will also be high for housewives who have to raise children and elderly people who have to stay where they live, while their bread earners work outside home.

This proposal requires further research of the 5-story MRB about its validity and appropriate number of families to be accommodated in the housing. In the meantime, the proper size of the rental space and the ways to utilize the MRB's roofs should be considered the owners of the collective houses and the dwellers organization on their own, rather than being told by third parties. For the management and operation of the collective MRB by the dwellers' organization, it is essential to have right support and education by the Originator in the initial stage, and the dwellers' organizations' "bayanihan" spirit to make the project sustainable.

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Problem of Law Related to Forest Management in Thailand

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Abstract

Thailand's forest area decreased from 53.30% of total country area in 1961 to 33.56% in 2009. Some key factors contributed to this huge reduction include social and economic factors, policy factor and law factor. This study aims to investigate the current problem and status of law aspect related to forest management, as it should be one of the prominent factors which affects the success of forest conservation. This study reviews literature and do content analysis. Results show that causes and problems concerning forest laws in Thailand are lack of people participation, too many laws regarding forest issues, too many governmental offices handle forest management where overlapping of their roles are inevitable, and local governmental offices do not understand their roles according to forest laws and hence often neglect to practice them. Besides, the forest zoning area is not clear and the issuing of national forest conservation area was in conflict with the area that people have been traditionally owned since forefathers. These are the main causes of unsuccessful forest management in Thailand in term of laws.

Keywords: Laws, Forest, Management, Thailand

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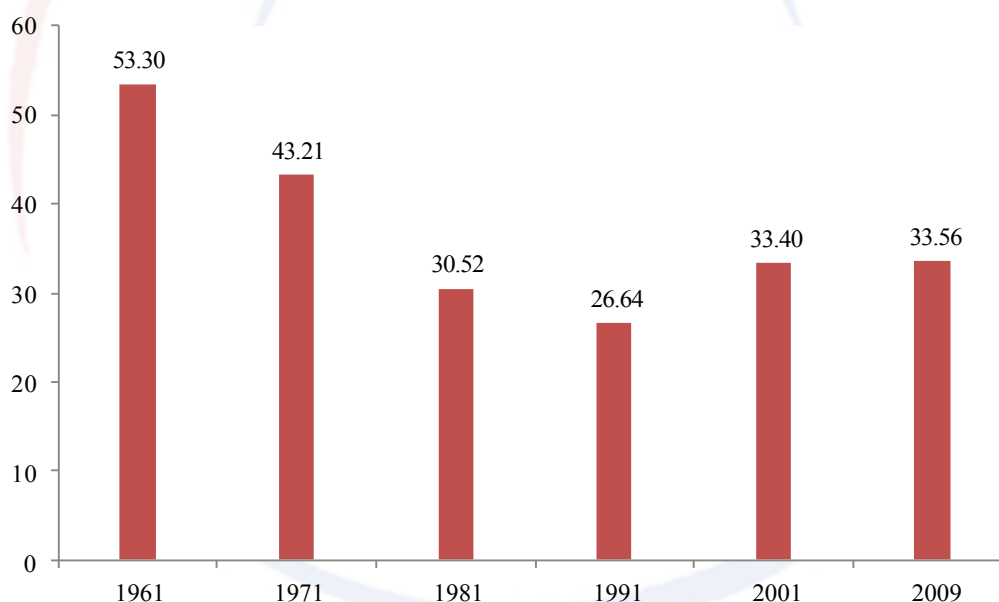
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1. Introduction

Thailand's forest area decreased from 53.30% of total country area in 1961 to 30.90% in 2010 or 19.74 % decreased. The figure in 2009 – 2011 particularly reported that Thailand's deforestation increased 26.9 % (Planning and Information Bureau, 2010).

Forest reduction results in many environmental impacts. For example, extinction of plant and animal species, change of local climate weather, (Coskun and Gencay, 2011), land and soil degradation, soil erosion, and other impacts (Natural and Environment Plan and Policy Office, 2010).

There are many factors contributing to forest reduction such as economic and social pressures on the natural resources. Since Thailand has to develop country and promote economic growth, as well as the policy to support industry and tourism, this has caused the reduction of the forest area. Apart from those reasons, there is also a problem with laws concerning the forest management, which should be the main factor for successful forest management (Struhsaker *et al*, 2005). Thailand has many laws regarding forest issues, for example, Forest Act of 1941, National Park Act of 1961, National Forest Act of 1964, etc. However, although there are many laws concerned with forest management but forest area is declining, as shown in picture 1.



Picture 1 Situation of forest area in Thailand.

2. Objective

The paper is therefore aimed to investigate the current problem and status of law aspect related to forest management.

3. Methodology

This study is conducted using a document research. Literatures were collected and reviewed particularly those related to laws, regulations, and measures for forest

management. The laws particularly included were Thailand Constitution of 2007, Forest Act of 1941, National Park Act of 1961, National Forest Act of 1964, Preservation and Protection of Wildlife Act of 1992, Forest Plantation Act of 1992, National Environmental Quality Act of 1992, Decentralization to Local Government Organization Plan and Procedures Act of 1999. In this paper we analyzed the gaps or weaknesses of laws that can become obstacles to forest management.

4. Result

From studying the relation of laws concerned with forest management in Thailand, we found causes and problems concerning forest laws in Thailand. They are lack of people participation, too many laws regarding forest issues, too many governmental offices handle forest management where overlapping of their roles are inevitable, and local governmental offices do not understand their roles according to forest laws and hence often neglect to practice them. Besides, the forest zoning area is not clear and the issuing of national forest conservation area was in conflict with the area that people have been traditionally owned since forefathers.

4.1 Forest laws in Thailand lack people participation.

Thailand Constitution of 2007 requires local participation in management, maintenance, utilization of natural resource and environment, and biodiversity. However, the study of other secondary legislations relating to forest management such Forest Act of 1941, National Park Act of 1961, National Forest Act of 1964, Preservation and Protection of Wildlife Act of 1992 and Forest Garden Act of 1992, showed that these laws do not incorporate local participation right (Punchamart, 2003; Yodprom, 2005; Salam et al, 2006; Chouibumroong, 2006; Khonkaen, 2007; Rattanakrajangsri, 2009). Local people participation is essential factor for managing forest successfully and reducing conflict between local people and government officer (Chouibumroong, 2006; Pimladda, 2008).

Main laws which are used for forest management in Thailand formulated solely by government and lack local people participation such as defining boundary of forest area that is publicly or privately owned. Establishment of protected area such as national parks, national reserved forests, and wildlife sanctuaries are carried out with authority of Member House of Representatives, without any representative of local people or land owners.

At present, Thailand has a law that supports people participation in managing their environment, namely National Environmental Quality Act of 1992. The law requires local people to participate in giving opinions into environmental issues concerning them, for example, opinions on the newly proposed development project, or opinions on how to make the project appropriate for local people. In practical, however, participation is still only at the low level of just being informed of the project and those who are involved are not the true stakeholders.

Therefore, to practice what is written in the laws for forest management, it should really involves local people to participate in all processes of forest management such clarification of forest boundary, formulate forest management measures in order to

gain acceptance and understanding of local people, and also to lessen conflict between local people and government officers.

4.2 Too many laws regarding forest issues.

From literatures about law enforcement such as Torugsa (2009), Plukcharoen (2010), Noomnuan (2011), we found that there are several laws, and perhaps too many, for forest management in Thailand such Forest Act of 1941, National Park Act of 1961, National Forest Act of 1964, National Environmental Quality Act of 1992, Preservation and Protection of Wildlife Act of 1992.

However, how to select which laws to be used for forest management with appropriateness to the situation is quite problematic because each law has different sets of definition of forest, boundary of forest, laws enforcement and punishment for on illegal cases.

4.3 Too many governmental offices responsible for forest management

There are also too many governmental offices responsible for forest management as we studied from different literatures such as Varaporn (2004), Khonkaen, (2007), Torugsa (2009). From these studies we found that there are four main governmental offices which are responsible for forest management including Royal Forest Department, Department of National Parks, Rehabilitation and Conservation Areas Bureau and Local authorities. Within each main government office, there are still many sub-offices for forest management as follows.

4.3.1 Royal Forest Department

The authority and roles of the Royal Forest Department (RFD) are to protect and control forest, to make strategic plan for deforestation prevention, to conserve and to manage land use, and to support community to participate in reforestation and forest management.

There are 15 sub-offices under the RFD, such as Forest Land Management Bureau, Community Forest Management Bureau, Forest Resource Management Bureau, etc.

4.3.2 Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Conservation (DNPWC)

The authority and roles of the Department of National Parks *Wildlife and Conservation (DNPWC)* are to conserve, protect and restore forest and wildlife resource, to conduct research and academic service, to manage forest and wildlife with people participation, and to support sustainable use of natural resources.

There are 12 sub-offices under such as Rehabilitation and Conservation Areas Bureau, Watershed Conservation and Management Office, etc.

4.3.3 Office of Natural Resource and Environmental Policy and Planning

The authority and roles of Office of Natural Resource and Environmental Policy and Planning (ONEP) are to protect and restore environment for health and quality of life

of Thai people, to conserve natural resources in order to be foundation for sustainable development. That is to be done by restoration of renewable resources to its full potential as basic factors for development in the future. Also, it needs to preserve and utilize non-renewable resource with care and efficiency. In addition, there should be an enhancement in administration and environmental management efficiency, together with decentralization of authority to local and province offices.

There are 10 sub-offices under this organization, such as Natural Resource and Environment Management Division, Urban Environment and Area Planning Division, Land Administration Division, etc.

4.3.4 Local authority

This office is responsible for protection of and maintaining forest land, natural resource and environment, to manage, maintain and look after forest, land, natural resource and environment. Local authority includes Province Administration Organization, Municipalities, Tambon (or sub-district) Administrative Organization.

Result from this study finds that the functions and authority of these above mentioned government offices are similar in responsibility on forest management. These functions and authority include: 1) protecting, controlling and planning a strategy to prevent deforestation and illegal practice in forest area, 2) supporting community to participate in reforestation, community forest management and community forest restoration, 3) conserving, protecting and managing forest area in such a way that is efficiently used.

The result shows that there are many offices responsible for forest management in Thailand. Due to this reason, it is difficult for each office to define their roles properly because their responsibilities are overlapped and unclear, particularly if each office is not coordinated with each other. This results in lack of principal office to take responsibility in forest management. This results in unsuccessful forest management in Thailand.

4.4 Local governmental offices do not understand their roles as defined in forest laws and hence often neglect to practice them.

Local governmental offices are Province Administration Organization, Municipalities, Tambon Administrative Organization. Local government offices have responsibilities in manage and conserve forest for community. Their roles as a local government is to protect and manage forest for community since these offices are local, they can address, understand and solve problems immediately. Unfortunately in many cases, these offices themselves do not quite understand their roles as to protect and manage forest land (Varaporn, 2004; Khonkaen, 2007). This is also one of the causes why forest management is not so successful.

Functions and authority of local government offices, which were given upon Decentralization to local government organization plan and procedures Act of 1999, include protecting and maintaining forest land, natural resource and environment, managing, maintaining and looking after forest, land, natural resource and environment.

Since Municipalities and Tambon Administrative Organization are close to community, they are supposed to understand and solve problems that may arise rapidly. However, as what we have seen in the past, these offices may not perceive that it is their responsibility to manage forest land because they have other and more obvious tasks to handle at hand, together with they themselves are not clear of their roles and functions in forest management. They also lack knowledge and understanding of how to conserve or protect forest because they are not certain that forest land is under their authority.

4.5 The forest zoning area is not clear and national forest conservation area was in conflict with the area that people have been traditionally owned since forefathers.

The whole process of establishing national forest conservation areas such as national parks, national reserved forests, and wildlife sanctuaries was done by the government. No input or participation of local people and community was involved. Therefore, local people did not have a say in the process. This has caused conflicts between the government and local people living in the areas where the establishment of protected areas were established (Punchamart, 2003; Chouibumroong, 2006; Rattanakrajang Sri, 2009).

The declaration of national forest conservation areas boundary are unclear. Maps and boundary of the areas are overlapped between publicly and privately owned. Solutions to that problem are to create local participation in clarification of forest boundary, cooperation between different groups of stakeholders, and modification of governmental offices' roles and functions in dealing with the problem.

Guidelines for solving such conflicts are to create strategic plans for managing forest, and zoning forest area should involve participation from community and local people.

5. Conclusion

The hindering factors from laws concerned with forest management that makes it unsuccessful are lack of people participation, too many laws regarding forest issues, too many governmental offices handle forest management where overlapping of their roles are inevitable, local governmental offices do not understand their roles according to forest laws and hence often neglect to practice them, forest zoning area is not clear and national forest conservation area was in conflict with the area that people have been traditionally owned.

Therefore, to use laws as a means in solving forest area reduction in Thailand includes firstly, there should involve participation from local people and community, particularly true stakeholders of land owner. Secondly, reforming laws for forest management including integrating laws concerned with forest management from several laws. Thirdly, local authority should be the main office that is responsible of forest management. Lastly, the governmental offices should provide or allocate budget, personnel and knowledge for forest management.

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***Quality Control Circle: A Case Study to Reduce Production Costs of Jasmine Rice
in Trantip Group Chachoengsao Province, Thailand***

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Abstract

Our research objective was to ways management to reduce the cost of cultivation jasmine rice using Quality Control Circle technology in Tharntip group Banchongsub district, Phanomsarakram district, Chachoengsao province, Thailand. The finding revealed that the estimated costs of production were high up to 2,565 baht/rai with an average yield of 550 kg/rai. The transfer of technology with a Quality Control Circle was proposed to reduce costs of production. Attempts were made to determine before and after the application, and analyzed the cost of problems using technique QC 3 tools, i.e., check sheet, Pareto diagram, and the cause and effect diagram. It was found that the cost of process of using fertilization for the cultivation was high at 510 baht/rai it was recommended that a team work should be applied with a Quality Control Circle. The training methods comprised of organic fertilizer and insect repellent. The results of the training methods could reduce the cost of cultivation jasmine rice down to only 1,200 baht/rai or 46.78 percent. And the average production up 650 kg/rai or 15.38 percent.

Keywords: Jasmine rice, Cost reduction, Quality Control Circle.

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Introduction

For the past four decades, the global rice market has been dominated by a few exporters, namely, Thailand, Vietnam, the United States, and Pakistan, accounting for 60–70 percentage of the total exports. During this period, Thailand has remained the top rice exporter in the world. Unlike the export side, the import side looks quite fragmented, with many countries each importing a small amount of rice. The top six importers account for only 20–30 percentage of the market share. Through the years, both China and India, the top two rice producers and consumers in the world, have played a minor role globally with occasional exports and imports. Despite India's rise as an exporter since the mid-1990s, both these countries, which account for half of global rice production, have largely focused on domestic food security. Trade is an afterthought for these two giants and it is mostly used to manage occasional surpluses and deficits.

But, with India's meteoric rise to the top of the export chart and China's unexpected rise to near the top of the import chart in 2012, this might be a thing of the past. In 2012, India displaced Thailand from the top spot by exporting 10.4 million tons of rice vis-à-vis 6.9 million tons for Thailand. India's removal of its export ban on the no basmati market in late 2011 after a gap of 4 years, burgeoning domestic stocks, and a weak rupee definitely increased India's export prospects in 2012. But, Thailand's mortgage scheme should get most of the credit for India's rise to the top by making India's broken and parboiled rice fly off the shelves like hotcakes. Like India, nobody expected China to come close to displacing Nigeria as the top importer in 2012, with 2.9 million tons of imports compared with 3.4 million tons by Nigeria. A majority of these imports have come from Vietnam and Pakistan. Apart from rice, China also imported large amounts of wheat and corn (maize) in 2012. Altogether, Chinese grain (wheat, rice, and corn) imports increased from 2.5 million tons in 2011 to 11 million tons in 2012 tight corn supplies and greater demand for wheat from the feed sector increased their imports. But, it is still intriguing to many why China is importing so much rice because domestic production has no apparent shortfall in the past few years. (International Rice Research Institute, 2012)

The Jasmine rice is the rice varieties reputable of Thailand, which has an area of cultivation around the world of approximate 18,631, 447 rai. The source production the jasmine rice that has the quality of best on North East, has an area in the cultivation 15,383,756 rai, have the plantation area placed at Thung Kula Rong Hai, the area 2,107,681 rai which the territory covering 5 provinces include Surin, Roi Et, Buri Ram, Yasothon and Mahasarakham, The secondary was Northern has the area 2,021,954 rai, Central region has the area 1,220,871 rai and South region has the area 4,892 rai. In the years 2554 to 2555 the export volume of rice 202,000 tones, the total value of export 6,445 million baths. (Agricultural Economics Office, 2012)

For Tharntip group, the situated in Ban Chong tamboon, Phanomsarakham amphoe, Chachoengsao province, the farmer group that grow the Jasmine rice 105 of the organic agricultural, has members 25 persons and has an area in the cultivation of the rice 220 rai which has a small rice mill itself, the member of Tharntip group has a concept for find a way reduce the cost of grow the rice that down original, the researchers make the study and the data collection of process growing the rice, which make the persons that grow the jasmine rice 105 has the cost up to 2,565 baht per rai,

while there the average productivity just 550 kg per rai (Tharntip group, 2012). The show that the farmers use the cost on the rice cultivation of exceed demand of the Tharntip group when compared with price the rice on Phanomsarakham amphoe, about 10,000 baht per ton or 10 baht per kg. when the farmers has the product just 550 kg per rai. The farmers have profitable for grow the Jasmine rice, the average of 2,935 baht per rai. So the researchers have and interest that will find ways to reduce the cost of rice lower. The enhance a high profits with the teamwork, using the quality control circle (QCC) such as ; the research of Mr. Prawach Chourwong (2011), the study for ways to reduce costs of grow the Jasmine rice 105 in Bang Khla amphoe, Chachoengsao province. After bring the quality control circle, to reduce the cost of grow rice, the farmers within the group can reduce the costs, growing the rice down, the average from 4,403.39 baht per rai, as 15 percentage.

Research Methods

Researchers explored the area, which planted with rice and hand out questionnaires. The participants were interviewed with relevant theory and research. Quality Control Circle (QCC) and the proposal of how to reduce the cost of growing Jasmine rice 105 were distributed in Ban Chong tamboon, Phanomsarakham amphoe, Chachoengsao province. All details and steps used were as follows:

The education and collecting information is processing the jasmine rice 105, starting from the preparation grain elevators until processing after the harvest, by interviewing the farmers that are members within the Tharntip group for analysis find the cause of problem the cost of rice, by interviewing the farmers that are members within the Tharntip group for analysis find the cause of problem the cost of rice.

The transfer technology by adopting the principles of teamwork and the process of the activity with activity the Quality control circle (QCC) (Kitisak Proypanitchalend, 2008) and the students in engineering disciplines, the Industrial management participants for the training a lecturer for the farmers in these times, by using the training course 3 days on February 21-23, 2012).

Attempts were made to trained the farmers to participate in using all technologies regarding to cut costs at every stage in the production process for the production of Jasmine rice 105 in Ban Chong tamboon, Phanomsarakham amphoe, Chachoengsao province.

The application of Training Quality Control Circle, QC Story, and QC 7 tool was done to analyze and find the cause of the problem during the cost of production of Jasmine rice 105.

Establishment of cost reduction activities for the Jasmine Rice 105 after training, where the first group was dealing with statements a fixed group.

An analysis of all causes of problems with the Quality Control Circle with QC 7 tools, where the third one consisted of a check sheet, Pareto diagram, and fishbone diagrams or cause, and effect diagram profile, as follows:

The distribution of a check sheet was used to determine the elimination of the Jasmine rice 105's services. The process of preparing soil for the harvesting and storage awareness, the cause of the problem, and the cost of rice production, were given at the beginning of the season.

The Pareto Diagram was applied to compare and see if the individual were very important. The only different was that it was used as a guide in selecting a major cause analysis and to find the correct one.

The cause and effect diagram was used to analyze factors, that could cause an impact on the process of planting rice in both the real and the sub-factors. The factors that affected the cost of cultivation derived from the analysis of the abovementioned diagram were farmers or equivalent to man in the diagram, raw materials that were used in the rice cultivation (chemical fertilizers especially the Eagles that allowed only eliminate pests), and methods or process of rice cultivation, which emphasized on maintenance of the cultivation by using fertilizers.

Results

The establish for the Quality control circle group (QCC), after the training for the farmers of the Tharntip group and the established a one pilot group, the member on group 9 persons, include the farmers growing the Jasmine rice 105, from the member of the Tharntip group to the Quality control circle (QCC) 9 persons. The Student (research assistant) 2 persons, the served as an assistant group and secretary group, for the research person that the serves as a counsel of group, should have the average age of 50 years old, the average age 43.14 years of the rice farming, the education level since the grade alumni until the bachelor degree level.

The information analyzer for find the root cause of the problem with the Quality control circle group (QCC), by making a select QC 3 tools, include: 1) Check sheet, 2) Pareto Diagram and 3) Cause and effect diagram (fish bonediagram), the details are as follows:

The check sheet: ware listing the data cost of production the Jasmine rice 105, the start was preparing the seed unit the harvest, the post-harvest practices were the data analyzed, by find the percentage of each topic on during the grow, the show table 1.

Table 1. The costs of the Jasmine rice 105, the farmer of Tharntip group.

The Transplant procedure	Cost(Bath/Rai)	Percentage
The seed preparation	425	16.57
The soil preparation	480	18.71
The grow method	360	14.04
The maintenance (fertilizer).	510	19.88
The Insect disease control and the animal rice pests	230	8.97
The harvest	400	15.59
The post-harvest practices	160	6.24
Total	2,565	100.00

Source: The Tharntip group, 2012

The Pareto diagram: the data of cost the rice in each issue that arose that the comparison of cause each set is very important to lower as well as guidelines in determining and select a major cause analysis and seek a solution before and after, which it considers in the process of growing the rice step 4, would costing the rice up to 19.88percentage, the show a figure 1.

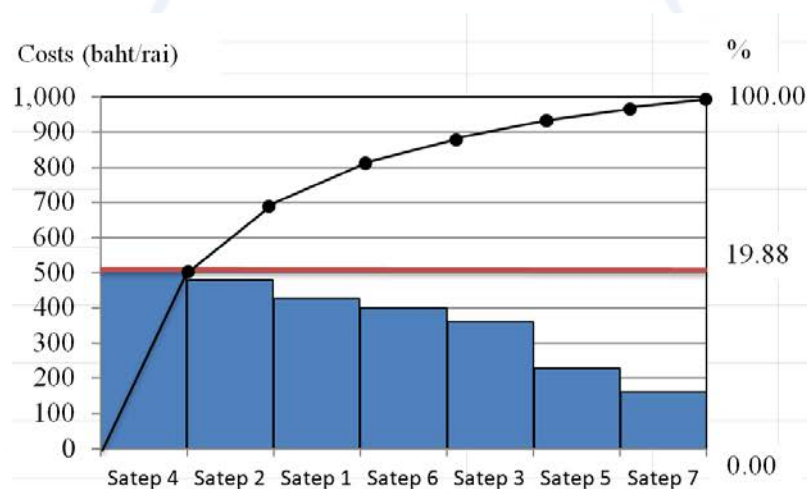


Figure 1. Pareto diagrams for compare importance of the cause for problem that more or less.

The cause and effect diagram The brainstorming can be chic in the group for analyze the causes of various factors that caused effect on the process of growing the Jasmine rice 105, the great cause and the cause sub, affecting the cost of such growing, farmers, seed, organic fertilizer, pesticides and insects, the machine include tractors, harvesters, fertilizer and machine and the methods rice, the result is that causing the farmers (Man) and causing the way of fertilizers (Method), the maximum score of 64 points as well which is causing to be revised first, the show a figure 2.

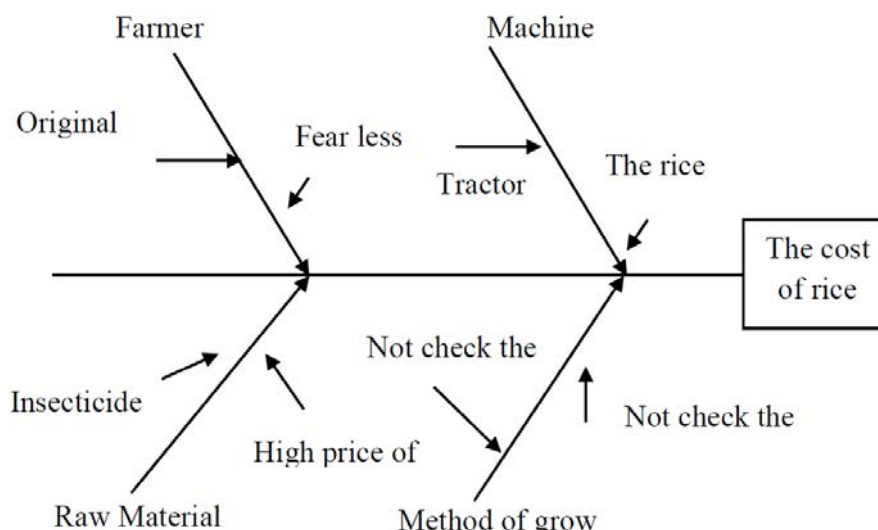


Figure 2. The cause and effect diagram.

The processed to improve the construction of activities group and the Quality control circle group (QCC), the conducting training and sampling for order to analyze the soil before the rice and the farmer is a member of QCC and interested the farmers, the authors as speakers one day course on March 17, 2012 . The soil samples were analyzed three times the amount of conversion and offered to bury the frog on the cob without burning the rice, conduct training of bio-composting and anti- insect before planting rice, the local research served as a lecturer, the course takes two days on March 22-24, 2012. The show table 2.

Table 2 . Improvement

The Transplant procedure	Improvement
The seed preparation	Selected the best quality seeds. Prior to soak in water with the QCC.
The soil preparation	Do not burn the rice stubble, Analysis of soil And improve the soil to use small tractors available. Termination of employment by large tractors. Reduce costs
The grow method	No improvement grows method.
The maintenance (fertilizer)	Use organic fertilizer with bio group QCC made to reduce the cost of fertilizer as well.
The Insect disease control and the animal rice pests	Eliminate of chemical insecticides. And use insect repellent liquid QCC group itself.
The harvest	No improvement harvest
The post-harvest practices	Termination of employment for large trucks. And use a small car and transported. Can reduce the cost of transporting grain storage warehouse

Discussion

The result of your training group created the Quality control circle (QCC), the conclusion have developed the skills to become a lecturer for students to become more efficient, the farmers training and established groups found that farmers have attended QCC to apply knowledge to benefit themselves, the work as a team to get the opinions of others even more and make use of quality tools to analyze the cause of the problem correctly and the described in the detailed description training test scores, the show table 3.

Table 3. The test scores of raining

Indicators	Before the training	After the training
Percentage	25.83	90.67
X	10.33	36.67
S.D.	283	2.45

The effect of adopting and procedures of the group you created the Quality control circle group (QCC) used and amended, the republic the soil samples were analyzed soil before planting and bio- composting, and water insects, the farmers can reduce the cost of the heavenly jasmine rice 105. Throughout the process rice from 2,565 baht / rai to 1,200 baht / rai and 46.78 percent, and the process of the jasmine rice 105 of the member's Tharntip with annual average production of 650 kg per rai, the show table 4.

Table 4. The costs of the Jasmine rice 105, before and after

The Transplant procedure	Before		After	
	The cost (Bath/Rai)	The percentage	The cost (Bath/Rai)	The percentage
The seed preparation	425	16.57	225	18.75
The soil preparation	480	18.71	62	5.17
The grow method	360	14.04	360	30
The maintenance (fertilizer).	510	19.88	53	4.42
The Insect disease control and the animal rice pests	230	8.97	0	0
The harvest management	400	15.59	400	33.33
The post-harvest practices	160	6.24	100	8.33
Total	2,565	100.00	1,200	100.00

Conclusion

The results of research study with the data collection process the jasmine rice 105 were analyzed the production cost and guidelines for reduce the cost of production; the details can be discussed as follows:

This study results analyzed, the cost of planting the jasmine rice in Tharntip group, the detailed analysis of production costs the jasmine rice 105 that throughout the process of planting the rice costs 2,565 baht /rai after leading the QCC group can reduce the cost of growing the rice, only 1,200 baht /rai, 46.78 percent with the findings of Mr. Prawach (2011), the study ways to reduce the cost of growing the jasmine rice 105. I found that the cost of planting the jasmine rice 105 of farmers, Bang circles the production costs to 4,403.39 baht per rai and the procedures that cause maximum cost and the process of loving care (fertilizer), amount 1,400.32 baht per rai and 31.80 percent of the process jasmine rice 105 after the lead group, the QCC cost reduced to 468 baht /rai and 67.50 percent.

The result of cost reduction activities the Quality Control Circle group (QCC), training the farmers and the established groups. The results of the application of the system to reduce costs and create the Quality Control Circle group (QCC) (the farmer groups) after training, the farmers have attended QCC to apply knowledge to benefit themselves that known teamwork listen to the content of each comment don't know a to and minimize the costs under various operations, the consistent with Mr. Thamrong Sangsuriyajan (2010). The study of the changing lifestyle of the farmers after training, the conducting economic life sufficient capital Asoke community, Warin Chomrap, Ubonratthani province. Group no 1, the found through a forest farmer training program in the year 2008, not knowledge activities after training with behavior change for the better in some indicators of each side and Group no 2, the agricultural training program in the year 2001 to 2006.

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Key Actors and Networks of Thai Happy Workplace Movement

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Abstract

In the past few years, there has been a social movement in Thailand that numerous organizations joining forces to promote and adopt the concept of well-being in organizations, the so-called “happy workplace alliance.” For more than five years, this social movement, by and large, has been consistently active and increasingly expansive. Although the central pivot has always been an independent state agency, namely the Thai Health Promotion Foundation (THPF), success of driving the happy workplace movement would never been reached without the cooperation from people from related departments in many organizations of every section. This paper represents the attempt to study, explore and put forward the key issues related to “Key Actors” in organizations, who contribute to the creation of a happy workplace. Regarding the research methodology, data collection was performed by a survey using questionnaire designed for this study. Questionnaire was distributed to representatives from organizations which participated in the Happy Workplace Forum entitled “5 Apps to Happy Workplace 3.0” hosted by the Federation of Thai Industries and THPF on March 5th, 2012 at the Queen Sirikit Convention Center. This paper shows the findings about roles of those key actors in the process of the happy workplace creation, ranging from policy makers, planners, activities initiators, intervention designers, activists, and evaluators. In addition, the paper will also impart more open-ended information, stories or thoughts regarding happy workplace creation that the key actors experienced.

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Introduction

Forces to create the happy workplace in Thai society have been active for more than five years. Even the key actor has always been the Thai Health Promotion Foundation (THPF), success of driving the happy workplace would never been reached without the cooperation from people from related departments in many organizations of every section. This article represents the attempt to study, explore and put forward the key issues related to “Key Actors” in organizations, who contribute to the creation of a happy workplace. This article also tells about roles of those key actors in happy workplace creation, including their duties, responsibilities and actions.

Research Method

Data collection was performed by a survey using questionnaire designed for this study (see appendix). Questionnaire was distributed to representatives from organizations which participated in the Happy Workplace Forum: 5 Apps to Happy Workplace 3.0 hosted by the Federation of Thai Industries and THPF on March 5th, 2012 at Queen Sirikit Convention Center.

Result of Study

“Is your organization a happy workplace?”

This study aims to study about roles of key actors in happy workplace creation; therefore, it is important to post the question to divide organizations which are happy workplace and those which are not. Such a question is based on the assumption that respondents hold personal judgment whether the organizations which they hold membership of are happy workplace or not (See question number two in the questionnaire). There were 259 respondents. 173 of them (66.80%) reported that their organizations were happy workplaces, while 64 of them (24.71%) reported that their organizations are were not happy workplaces. There are 22 respondents (8.49%) who did not respond to this question.

Table 1.1
Is your organization a happy workplace?

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	173	66.80
No	64	24.71
Total	237	91.51
Not Answering	22	8.49
Grand Total	259	100.00

According to the result above, researcher took respondents who responded positively to the question “Is your organization a happy workplace?” to be participants in this study. Information they provided was taken into account for data interpretation.

Basic Information

Gender

Of those 173 respondents, there are 107 female respondents (61.85%) and 60 male respondents (34.68%). The rest 6 respondents (3.47%) did not respond to this question.

Table 2.1
Respondents' Gender

	Frequency	Percentage
Female	107	61.85
Male	60	34.68
Total	167	96.53
Not Answering	6	3.47
Grand Total	173	100.00

Age

Of those 173 respondents, there are 63 respondents (36.42%) who are 31-40 years of age. 46 of those (26.59%) are between 20-30 years of age. 42 of those (24.28%) are between 20-30 years of age. There are 21 respondents (12.14%) who are over 50 years of age. There are 1 respondent (0.58%) who is under 20 years of age.

Table 2.2
Respondents' Age

	Frequency	Percentage
Under 20	1	0.58
20-30	46	26.59
31-40	63	36.42
41-50	42	24.28
Over 50	21	12.14
Grand Total	173	100.0

Business Sector

Of those 173 respondents who reported that they were members of organizations which are happy workplace, 77 respondents (44.51%) are from industrial sector. Of those 77, 49 respondents (28.32%) are from the large industrial enterprise.

Of 173 respondents, 49 respondents (28.32%) are from the service industry and 42 respondents (24.28%) are from public sector. It is interesting that those from medium industrial enterprise and medium service enterprise are at the same amount of 27 respondents (15.61%). Moreover, there is one respondent (0.58%) from small industrial enterprise and small service enterprise. The other 7 respondents (4.08%) are from state enterprise. The rest 5 respondents (2.89%) are those who reported that they are from other sectors.

Table 2.3
Business Sector

	Frequency	Percentage
Large Industrial Enterprise	49	28.32
Medium Industrial Enterprise	27	15.61
Small Industrial Enterprise	1	0.58
Total	77	44.51
Larger Service Enterprise	14	8.09
Medium Service Enterprise	27	15.61
Small Service Enterprise	1	0.58
Total	42	24.28
Government Sector	42	24.28
State Enterprise	7	4.05
Others	5	2.89
Grand Total	173	100.00

According to the table above, it can be said that organizations which pays attention on creation of happy workplace are in industrial sector and service sector, as well as government sector.

Job Position and Department

Of those 173 respondents who reported that they were members of organizations which are happy workplace, 96 respondents (55.49%), which is the largest group of respondents, are those who are working with human resource department of organizations. The other 75 respondents (43.35%) reported that they worked for other departments than human resource. Some of those 75 reported their specific positions, such as engineer, scientist, cargo manager, quality control supervisor, vice president, operation development director, nurse, lawyer, policy analyst, information technology officer, social security officer, and so on. There are 2 respondents (1.16%) who did not provide the requested information.

Table 2.4
Job Position and Department

	Frequency	Percentage
Human Resource Function	96	55.49
Other job function	75	43.35
Total	171	98.84
Not Answering	2	1.16
Grand Total	173	100.00

Key actors and their roles in happy workplace creation

There is one interesting question about happy workplace creation, which is “Who or which departments of organizations hold key responsibility in creating happy workplace and driving activities, as well as happy workplace creation process?” It is also interesting to study about key roles in happy workplace creation such as policy creating, initiation of happy workplace creation, tools and activities designing, activities driving, and evaluating happy workplace creation activities. The question

“Who or which departments of organizations involve in happy workplace creation?” is also raised.

Key department in happy workplace creation

Of those 173 respondents who reported that they were members of organizations which are happy workplace, it is interesting that the majority of respondents can be divided into two groups of 66 respondents. The first group reported that human resource department held key responsibility for happy workplace creation. The second group reported that human resource department working jointly with the specific happy workplace steering team held key responsibility for happy workplace creation. 22 respondents (12.72%) reported that the specific happy workplace steering team alone held responsibility on happy workplace creation. The rest 12 respondents (6.94%) reported that other departments held responsibility on happy workplace creation. Examples of those other department are employee relation unit, benefits unit, operation and organization development department, quality of life development club, health science unit, corporate social responsibility unit, ethics club, quality assurance department, and so on.

Table 3.1
Responsible Groups/Departments in Happy Workplace Creation

	Frequency	Percentage
Human Resource	66	38.15
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	22	12.72
Joint team of both	66	38.15
Others	12	6.94
Total	166	95.95
Not Answering	7	4.05
Grand Total	173	100

According to the table above, it can be concluded that most of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces put the role of happy workplace creation on human resource department and the specific happy workplace creation steering team.

Happy Workplace Creation Policy Maker

Policy making can be considered as an important aspect of happy workplace creation. Policy provides direction and common goals of organizations. Moreover, it can be a guideline for resources management. The question is “Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities in making happy workplace creation policy?”

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 93 respondents (53.76%) reported that top management held the key roles in such a policy making
- 2) 26 respondents (15.03%) reported that human resource department held the key roles in such a policy making

- 3) 18 respondents (10.40%) reported that human resource department and the specific happy workplace creation steering team, together, held the key roles in such a policy making
- 4) 17 respondents (9.83%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles in such a policy making
- 5) 12 respondents (6.94%) reported that top management and human resource department held the key roles in such a policy making
- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that other department than human resource department, top management and the specific team held the key roles in such a policy making
- 7) 5 respondents (2.89%) did not report which department held the key roles in such a policy making

Table 3.2
Happy Workplace Creation Policy Maker

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	93	53.76
Human Resource Department	26	15.03
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	17	9.83
Top Management and Human Resource Department	12	6.94
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	18	10.40
Others	1	0.58
Total	168	97.11
Not Answering	5	2.89
Grand Total	173	100

According to the above table, it can be concluded that most of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of happy workplace policy making with top management. Human resource department and the specific steering team are responsible for such a policy making as well, but not in as many organizations as top management does.

Happy Workplace Creation Plan Formulator

Not only policy that is important in happy workplace creation, working plan is as well. Plan formulation can be considered as the second most important management process, as working plan can serve as a blueprint for happy workplace creation working team. This blueprint provides the team with direction. The question is “Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities in formulating happy workplace creation plan?”

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 77 respondents (44.51%) reported that human resource department held the key roles in plan formulation
- 2) 35 respondents (20.23%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles in plan formulation
- 3) 30 respondents (17.34%) reported that human resource department together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles in plan formulation
- 4) 15 respondents (8.67%) reported that top management held the key roles in plan formulation
- 5) 7 respondents (4.05%) reported that human resource department together with top management held the key roles in plan formulation
- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles in plan formulation
- 7) 2 respondents (1.16%) reported that other departments held the key roles in plan formulation
- 8) 6 respondents (3.47%) did not report which department held the key roles in plan formulation

Table 3.3
Happy Workplace Creation Plan Formulator

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	15	8.67
Human Resource Department	77	44.51
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	35	20.23
Top Management and Human Resource Department	7	4.05
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	30	17.34
Others	2	1.16
Total	167	96.53
Not Answering	6	3.47
Grand Total	173	100.00

According to the above table, it is found that majority group of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of happy workplace plan formulation with human resource department. The second largest group of organizations, which are seen as happy workplaces, laid such a role with either the specific steering team, or the joint operation of the specific steering team and human resource department. However, there are some organizations which lay such a role with top management.

Happy Workplace Activities Initiation

Happy workplace creation can be considered as a new concept of organizational management which not yet to have standardized concept both in the world of practice and academia. Happy workplace initiatives, therefore, are important to happy workplace creation, especially in terms of igniting ideas, selling ideas, and inspiring people. All of those are for the purposes of creating acceptance and common understanding of employees, management, and other related stakeholders, which can be a firm foundation for driving happy workplace creation according with policy and plan. The question is “Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities of happy workplace initiatives?”

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 66 respondents (38.15%) reported that human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 2) 39 respondents (22.54%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 3) 29 respondents (17.34%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team together with human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 4) 25 respondents (14.45%) reported that top management held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 5) 6 respondents (3.47%) reported that top management together with human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that top management together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 7) 2 respondents (1.16%) reported that other departments held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives
- 8) 5 respondents (2.89%) did not report which department held the key roles of happy workplace initiatives

Table 3.4
Happy Workplace Activities Initiation

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	25	14.45
Human Resource Department	66	38.15
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	39	22.54
Top Management and Human Resource Department	6	3.47
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	29	16.76
Others	2	1.16
Total	168	97.11
Not Answering	5	2.89
Grand Total	173	100

According to the above table, it is found that majority group of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of happy workplace initiatives with human resource department. The second largest group of organizations, which are seen as happy workplaces, laid such a role with either the specific steering team, or the joint operation of the specific steering team and human resource department. However, there are some organizations which lay such a role with top management.

Happy Workplace Interventions Designer

As mentioned earlier that happy workplace creation is still a new approach of organizational management and not yet to have a standardized concept. Not only the related departments need happy workplace initiatives, but also need to play the role of designer of tools and interventions to create happiness and to develop happy workplace. The question is “Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities of happy workplace interventions designing?”

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 69 respondents (39.88%) reported that human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 2) 48 respondents (27.75%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 3) 30 respondents (17.34%) reported that human resource department together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 4) 12 respondents (6.94%) reported that top management held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 5) 5 respondents (2.89%) reported that top management together with human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing

- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that top management together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 7) 2 respondents (1.16%) reported that other departments held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing
- 8) 5 respondents (2.89%) did not report which department held the key roles of happy workplace interventions designing

Table 3.5
Happy Workplace Activities Designer

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	12	6.94
Human Resource Department	69	39.88
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	48	27.75
Top Management and Human Resource Department	5	2.89
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	30	17.34
Others	2	1.16
Total	167	96.53
Not Answering	5	2.89
Grand Total	173	100

According to the above table, it is found that majority group of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of happy workplace interventions designing with human resource department. The second largest group of organizations, which are seen as happy workplaces, laid such a role with either the specific steering team, or the joint operation of the specific steering team and human resource department. However, there are some organizations which lay such a role with top management.

Mobilizing and Managing Happy Workplace Activities

To create a happy workplace, policy making, planning, initiatives and intervention designing are crucial. The other thing that is as much important as those mentioned above is mobilization and management of happy workplace activities. It is important as it can assure that policy and plan are cascaded into actions. The question is “Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities?”

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 66 respondents (38.15%) reported that human resource department held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities

- 2) 53 respondents (30.64%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 3) 36 respondents (20.81%) reported that human resource department together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 4) 8 respondents (4.62%) reported that top management held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 5) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that top management together with human resource department held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that top management together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 7) 2 respondents (1.16%) reported that other departments held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities
- 8) 6 respondents (3.47%) did not report which department held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities

Table 3.6
Mobilizing and Managing Happy Workplace Activities

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	8	4.62
Human Resource Department	66	38.15
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	53	30.64
Top Management and Human Resource Department	1	0.58
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	36	20.81
Others	2	1.16
Total	167	96.53
Not Answering	6	3.47
Grand Total	173	100

According to the above table, it is found that majority group of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities with human resource department. The second largest group of organizations, which are seen as happy workplaces, laid such a role with either the specific steering team, or the joint operation of the specific steering team and human resource department. However, there are some organizations which lay such a role with top management.

Happy Workplace Activities Evaluation

To create happy workplace, what is as important as policy making, planning, initiatives and intervention designing, and activities' mobilizing is evaluation. Happy workplace activities evaluation is not only revealing about effectiveness and efficiency of the process of happy workplace creation, but also providing feedback that can be beneficial for happy workplace creation process improvement. The question is "Who/which department does hold the key roles and responsibilities of happy workplace activities evaluation?"

According to 173 respondents, interesting results are found as follow.

- 1) 69 respondents (39.88%) reported that human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 2) 49 respondents (28.32%) reported that the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 3) 28 respondents (16.18%) reported that human resource department together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 4) 15 respondents (8.67%) reported that top management held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 5) 2 respondents (1.16%) reported that top management together with human resource department held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 6) 1 respondent (0.58%) reported that top management together with the specific happy workplace creation steering team held the key roles of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 7) 3 respondents (1.73%) reported that other departments held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities evaluation
- 8) 6 respondents (3.47%) did not report which department held the key roles of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities evaluation

Table 3.7
Happy Workplace Activities Evaluation

	Frequency	Percentage
Top Management	15	8.67
Human Resource Department	69	39.88
Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	49	28.32
Top Management and Human Resource Department	2	1.16
Top Management and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	1	0.58
Human Resource Department and Specific Happy Workplace Steering Team	28	16.18
Others	3	1.73
Total	167	96.53
Not Answering	6	3.47
Grand Total	173	100

According to the above table, it is found that majority group of organizations which are seen as happy workplaces lay the role of mobilization and management of happy workplace activities with human resource department. The second largest group of organizations, which are seen as happy workplaces, laid such a role with either the specific steering team, or the joint operation of the specific steering team and human resource department. However, there are some organizations which lay such a role with top management.

Other Suggestions

This survey study did not only collect data by the use of close-ended questions, but also provided an opportunity for respondents to share information, stories or thoughts regarding happy workplace creation that they experienced. The following are what respondents shared.

- Siam University: Employees are provided with opportunity to speak up
- Eastern Palm Oil:
 - ✓ Company and top management provide certain amount of budget (THB 30,000) for voluntary or social responsibility activities
 - ✓ Company provides certain amount of budget (THB 30,000) for sport day activity
 - ✓ One Day Trip (Twice a year)
 - ✓ Recreation trips both domestic and abroad (Once a year)
 - ✓ Birthday party and Christmas party
 - ✓ Buddhist activities
 - ✓ Aerobic dance activity
- Schneider (Thailand) Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ Vegetable planting in the workplace

- ✓ Providing a budget for hometown development earning by submitting a project proposal to the committee to gain approval
- Asahi Tech Aluminum (Thailand) Co., Ltd.: Do not have available examples, but intending to find some for the conference next year
- The Ministry of Social Development and Human Security of Thailand: Special Activity Unit
 - ✓ Establishment of Buddhist wisdom club with the permanent secretary as an advisor. From the beginning with 10 members, currently, there are 70 members.
 - ✓ Purpose of the club is providing guideline according to Buddhist teaching for employees' work and lives
 - ✓ Activities of the club includes both organizing periodic Buddhism activities and on-going activities to help employees in integrating Buddhist teaching to their everyday lives
 - ✓ The club is not funded by governmental budget, but by voluntary donation
- TMSC International Lasic Center
 - ✓ Energy Medicine project, which is a weekly meditation activity
- Siam Cement Group Chemical: (Human Resource Section)
 - ✓ To create happy workplace, top management needs to have clear policy regarding what activity to do, when to do, and how to do, as well as to provide full support to the activity
 - ✓ Activities that can contribute to the creation of happy workplace should be enjoyable and utility. Activities can come in the form of club, such as
 - Telescope Club
 - Movie and Music Club
 - Golf Club
 - Sport Club
 - Physical Club
 - Health and Beauty Club
 - Board Club (Playing chase together)
 - Investor Club
 - ✓ Promoting the concept of "Work Life Balance"
- Kulthorn Premier Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ External
 - Donation for schools in remote areas
 - Afforesting
 - Building weirs
 - ✓ Internal
 - Sportday activity
 - Garden in the Workplace
 - Buddhist Merit activity
 - Morning Exercise
 - Walk Rally activity (Involving both management and employees)
 - Physical Health Check Up
 - ✓ The concept of happy workplace should involve creation of good working environment, as well as developing proper leadership of supervisors for creating happiness in the workplace

- SB Reality Co., Ltd. (Piyarom Sportclub): Vice President
 - ✓ Staff Day activity where employees can share with others what they are good at through any kind of stage performance they prepare. They can share with other about themselves, they can learn about others as well.
- Unimit Engineering Public Co., Ltd.: Material Control and Warehouse
 - ✓ “Save World, Save Friends” Club to host both internal and external activities for the purpose of happiness creation
 - Internal Activities: Buddhism for work, Singing Contest, Sufficiency Economy for Happy Life, and so on
 - External Activities: Internship program for students, money and books donation for schools, hosting activities with surrounding community at the temple, and so on
- Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Co-Operatives: Human Resource Section
 - ✓ Social contribution activities, such as countryside development project
 - ✓ Social development activities, such as quitting allurements project
 - ✓ Happiness creation activities, such as rewarding employees who have worked with the organization for 20, 25, 30, 35, and 40 years, as well as rewarding employees who contribute to the society
- Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Co-Operatives: Assistant Branch Manager
 - ✓ Encouraging employees to follow the core values of the organization
 - ✓ Opening up channel of communication for employees’ suggestions
 - ✓ Encouraging employees to play any kind of sports
- Smitivej Sriracha Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Providing interest free house repairing loan for flood victims after flooding incident
 - ✓ Free lunch every Friday
- Imperial Plaza Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Happy Birthday party for employees who have birthday in each month
 - ✓ Encouraging employees to participates in the corporate social responsibility activity
 - ✓ The weight losing competition to promote personal health care
- Procter & Gamble:
 - ✓ Hosting activities for employees, such as
 - New Year party
 - Mother’s Day activity
 - Father’s Day activity
 - ✓ Establishing clubs according with employees’ interest
 - Cycling Club
 - Bio-Organic Consumption Club
 - Meditation Club
 - Football Club
 - Badminton Club
 - ✓ Hosting social contribution activities, such as building schools
- Siriraj Hospital:
 - ✓ 360 Degree Goodness Project
 - Asking every employee to write down 3 of their goodness
 - Submitting all written down goodness to the committee

- Grouping those goodness
 - Creating goodness certificate for everyone
 - Giving goodness certificate to employees as New Year gift, so that employees feel their value and learn how to think positively
- Road Accident Victims Protection Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Loaning benefits for employees
 - ✓ Caring for employees' families
 - ✓ Scholarship awarding for employees' children
 - ✓ Management meet up with employees
- National Healthcare Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ The activity called "Neat costume, Good discipline, Great Services" which colleagues vote for the winner every quarter
 - ✓ This activity is to develop employees' personality and service skills by the use of environment and peer supports
 - ✓ The concept of Happy Workplace is known as the happy ambassador. Happy ambassadors are those who host any happiness creation activities
- Star Micro Electric (Thailand) Public Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ As a medium enterprise, the company focuses on employees' performance. Employees' benefits are according with Thai labor laws. In other words, happiness creation activities are limited. The result of such a limitation is problems in cross-sectional working. After top management encourages the concept of happy workplace, employees positively respond to the concept, resulting in better level of employee engagement and better working environment
- Department of Probation: Probation Officer
 - ✓ Friendliness of supervisors and management is important to the creation of happy workplace
 - ✓ Friendliness among colleagues can result in happiness in workplace
- Thai Nam Plastic Public Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Providing loan for employees to prevent them from being in debt out of proper financial institution
 - ✓ Encouraging personal saving
- Nahm Sanitaryware Co.Ltd
 - ✓ Supporting employees during the flooding incident, as well as in other cases of emergency
 - ✓ Encouraging the value of sharing
 - ✓ Encouraging the culture of asking for help, rather than giving order
 - ✓ Encouraging the culture of being generous to others
- Charoen Pokphand Food
 - ✓ Encouraging employees to have consciousness in the meeting
 - Dialogue with appreciative inquiry
 - Not to do 6 bad habits
 - Attacking
 - Suppressing
 - Blaming
 - Showing off
 - Blocking ideas

- Depriving
 - ✓ Selling budget consumption products to employees once a month
 - ✓ Promoting the concept of “Happy 8” of the Thai Health Promotion Foundation for employees and their families
- Saraburi Hospital:
 - ✓ Taking care of each other
 - ✓ Thinking positively
 - ✓ Valuing the concept of sharing
 - ✓ Thinking of goodness of others
 - ✓ Doing good things to the society together
 - ✓ Seeing the benefits of the majority
- Thai Summit Connector
 - ✓ Building relationship between employees and top management through birthday party organized for employees every month
 - ✓
- Thai Summit Connector: Head of Quality Assurance
 - ✓ Happy workplace creation is done through the activities, such as birthday party, lunch with management project
- Thai Summit Connector: Warehouse
 - ✓ Morning merit activity
 - ✓ Sport day
 - ✓ Social contribution activity
 - ✓ Visiting employees who are admitted in the hospital
 - ✓ Supporting employees’ and family members’ funeral
 - ✓ Scholarship awarding to employees’ children
- Home Product Public Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Voluntary Home Pro Project
 - Social contribution activities
 - Building restrooms for schools in remote areas
 - Providing help for flood victims
- Chalachol Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ Corporate Social Responsibility activities
 - Donation for students in remote area schools
 - Building Buddhist temples
- Saengsuruyachat Co., Ltd.: Marketing and Sales Department
 - ✓ Social contribution activities
 - ✓ Providing help for flood victims
 - ✓ Providing help for Aids patients
- Thai Catholic Radio: TV division (Signis)
 - ✓ Having relaxing corner for employees to have a chat or music activity
- VS Group
 - ✓ Buddhism activities
- Animal Bio-Material control Division, Department of Livestock Development
 - ✓ Having free space for employees to conduct activities, such as planting, and recreation activities
 - ✓ Having bicycle available for employees to promote physical exercise
 - ✓ Monthly donation for impoverished and disabled persons
 - ✓ Supervisors always share fruits and foods with subordinates
 - ✓ Big cleaning day activity

- ✓ Cooking and having lunch and dinner together
- Animal Bio-Material control Division, Department of Livestock Development: Medical Scientist
 - ✓ Having creative activities together, such as exercising, traveling, and Buddhist activities
- BAS Manufacturing Co.Ltd
 - ✓ 5 S's activities that can reduce cost of production
 - ✓ Forest planning activity for global warming prevention and flood prevention
- Srithai Superware Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ Sustainable growth concept
- Kasembandit University: (Consultant)
 - ✓ Recognition and reward for those who are being generous to others
 - ✓ Activities to promote physical health and mental health
 - ✓ Applied Thai dance for health
 - ✓ Fieldtrip
- Thai Chamber of Commerce University: (Researcher)
 - ✓ www.happysmes.com
 - ✓ Facebook sharing by liking the page "happysmes"
- Kasetphand Industry Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Visiting employees who are admitted in the hospital
 - ✓ Providing help to employees who are natural disaster victims
 - ✓ Providing help on funeral expenses
 - ✓ Traditional Sport Day
 - ✓ Leadership development program as a career development plan
 - ✓ Happy Society project (Social contribution activities)
- Prachinburi Glass Industry Co., Ltd.:
 - ✓ Providing recreation area for employees' activities, both indoor, such as fitness center and table tennis, and outdoor, such as sport area for football and basketball
 - ✓ Providing karaoke room for employees
 - ✓ Joint activities with surrounding community, such as Buddhist activities with temple close to the company compound
 - ✓ Joint activities with schools close to the company compound, such as taking students to a football match
- BMT Pacific Co., Ltd.
 - ✓ Interest free motorcycle purchasing
- Suan Saranrom Hospital
 - ✓ Birthday activity
 - ✓ New Year activity
 - ✓ Retirement activity
 - ✓ Ceremony of anniversary
 - ✓ Fieldtrip
 - ✓ Annual sport day
 - ✓ Taking patient to Buddhism activities

Conclusion

Creation of happy workplace can be considered as a process that needs cooperation from many related departments. According to this survey study, it can be concluded

that there are several roles in happy workplace creation. Each role is taken by aligned sections within an organization. The following table is representing those who are responsible for each role of happy workplace creation.

Actors Roles	The most frequently found actor	The second most frequently found actor	The third most frequently found actor
Responsible Groups/Departments in Happy Workplace Creation	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation
Happy Workplace Creation Policy Maker	Top Management	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation
Happy Workplace Creation Plan Formulator	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation
Happy Workplace Activities Initiation	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation
Happy Workplace Interventions Designer	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation
Mobilizing and Managing Happy Workplace Activities	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace

			Creation
Happy Workplace Activities Evaluation	Human Resource Department	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	The joint operation of Human Resource Department and The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation



Appendix: Questionnaire

Roles of Happy Workplace Creation

1. Basic Information

Organization's Title _____

Gender Male Female

Age Below 20 20 – 30 31 – 40 41 - 50 Over 50

Business Section

- Industrial Large enterprise Medium enterprise Small enterprise

- Service Large enterprise Medium enterprise Small enterprise

Government sector State Enterprise Other (Please specify) _____

Position/Department

Human Resource Department Other (Please specify) _____

2. Do you think the organization which you are a member of is a happy workplace ☺ YES ☹ NO

3. Key actors and their roles in happy workplace creation

3.1 Who/which department is taking responsibilities of happy workplace creation activities (Can choose more than 1)

Human Resource Department The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation Other (Please specify) _____

3.2

Please select the department(s) which take(s) responsibilities for each roles by making a check (✓)	Top Management	HR	The Specific Steering Team for Happy Workplace Creation	Other (Please specify)
1) Happy Workplace Creation Policy Maker				
2) Happy Workplace Creation Plan Formulator				
3) Happy Workplace Activities Initiation				
4) Happy Workplace Interventions Designer				
5) Mobilizing and Managing Happy Workplace Activities				
6) Happy Workplace Activities Evaluation				

4. Should you prefer to share your experiences, stories, or information regarding happy workplace creation, please feel free to do so in this section. Your sharing will be beneficial for happy workplace creation in Thai society.



The 'Performance of Ethnic Identity' of Up-Country Tamils in Sri Lanka

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Abstract

The research paper presents ethnographic material on the performance of ethnic identity of Up-country Tamils in Sri Lanka. Fieldwork at Kanthapola in the Nuwara-Eliya district, provides real insights into the everyday life of Up-country Tamils living in the plantations, as well as an understanding of how they themselves experience, talk about and reflect upon their own ethnic status and its salient characteristics, in relation to other groups in Sri Lanka. The findings show that Up-country Tamils remain a distinctive ethnic group which is seen as inferior in the hierarchical status of Sri Lankan ethnic groups. The results of the study, together with information from existing studies, suggest that the ethnic status of the Up-country Tamils has not changed greatly, despite the fact that there have been considerable changes in the original position of the community. These findings point to the importance of considering Up-country Tamils in regards to reconciliation among the ethnic groups in Sri Lanka.



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The setting

One day in early August 2013, I reached Kanthapola at noon, having used public transport, to meet a Sinhalese Grama Niladari (GN) at his office¹. Since the GN does not attend his office every day, this meeting was organized by an officer in the Nuwara-Eliya Divisional Secretariat. This GN was in charge of one of the divisions in the Kanthapola area where 60% of the population are Up-country Tamils, the third most numerous minority comprising 6 % of the total population of Sri Lanka. Up-country Tamils inhabit the plantation districts of the central highlands, largely concentrated in the districts of Nuwara Eliya, Badulla, Kandy and Ratnapura. The GN's office consisted of a small room with a veranda conveniently located by the roadside. I sat on a small bench outside the office door while waiting to talk to the GN, who was busy conversing with a resident in Sinhala. When it was my turn to enter his office, I was invited in, greeted formally, and asked to explain the purpose of my visit. As I was making my introductions, a man of about 60, wearing a shirt and sarong, came inside the room and interrupted us. He tried to talk to the GN about certifying a document to process someone else's application. At the end of their brief dialogue, the GN requested the man to come back and bring further documents, namely consent letters from the third party he was representing.

I was unable to understand what they were talking about, but his physical appearance helped me recognize the elderly man as an Up-country Tamil². After the man had left, the GN explained:

This man has come on behalf of a third party, as he spoke fluent Sinhala and could charge for his service. In this case, he is helping somebody whose retired mother worked on the estate as a tea-plucking worker and passed away 3 years ago without taking Employees Provident Fund (EPF)³ due to her failure to show the correct identification in the required documents. The deceased woman, who left three sons and three daughters, all married, had attempted unsuccessfully for 2 years to withdraw EPF before passing away. The second son, with whom the mother lived until her death, wants to benefit from this fund, however, the other children have to give their consent. Here, my role is to confirm that the other 2 brothers agree to this fund going to their brother, and that the documents he provides me are genuine (personal communication, August 5, 2013)⁴.

After a brief pause, the GN continued:

I have mostly served this community and this has enabled me to sketch the behaviour of these folks. The documents submitted to me earlier are not

¹ Grama Niladari Division is a subunit of the Divisional Secretariat and it operates through a government servant appointed by the central government to carry out administrative duties at a village level. Grama Niladari (GN) is a government officer, who is responsible for issuing character certificates, reporting deaths due to natural causes, certifying identity card applications, gathering statistics, maintaining voter's registry and acting as peace officers for personal disputes in his area.

² Up Country Tamils are the preferred name for a group of people descended from India to work in the British plantations in Ceylon. In official documents they are often referred to as Indian Tamils

³ In Sri Lanka, EPF is a social security scheme of employees which offers a joint action plan by the employer and the employee to save money by targeting retirement.

⁴ This is my own translation of an interview that was conducted in Sinhala.

originals. These people are not trustworthy and often give us trouble (personal communication, August 5, 2013).

This story illustrates the underlying ethnic discomfort that underpins relations between the Sinhalese majority and the Up-country Tamils in the plantation setting. Even many decades after their arrival in Sri Lanka, Up-country Tamils are still struggling to get access to public support systems. Their lack of language proficiency in Sinhala and their lower level of literacy conspire to make it difficult for this community to communicate effectively with Sinhala government officials. In addition they are frequently met with suspicion and overt discrimination, and stereotypes of them as untrustworthy or shifty, like the one above, flourishes. Hence, government services which are automatically granted to other citizens of the country are often inaccessible for Up-country Tamils.

This recent observation from my fieldwork in 2013, adds to experiences from my own childhood. Growing up in a remote village in the District of Jaffna, Northern Province where Sri Lankan Tamils predominantly live, I remember the presence of Up-country Tamil families who were usually not well integrated with the rest of the villagers. Many Sri Lankan Tamils are of the view that although *Thoddakkaddar*⁵ (Indian Tamils / Up-country Tamils) speak the same language as they do, the dialect differs greatly, and moreover invokes ethnic stereotypes that the *Thoddakkaddar* are uncivilized, unschooled, dishonest, and low caste. The fieldwork in the Kanthapola area provided me with real insights into the everyday life of Up-country Tamils living in towns and plantations in the Up-country as well as understandings how they themselves experience, talk about and reflect upon their own ethnic status and its salient characteristics, in relation to other groups in Sri Lanka. These insights, then, can help us understand the everyday dynamics of ethnic relations in Sri Lanka, and how these shape the lives of Up Country Tamils.

Ethnic identification, in this sense, is defined as an identifying process which is constructed individually or collectively during the interaction between internal self-identification or group identification, on the one hand, and the external categorization done by others, on the other (Eriksen, 2010; Jenkins, 2012; Phinney 2003). In other words, ethnic identification is a kind of social labelling process engaged in by oneself and others. Constructivists, especially Fredrick Barth, define ethnic identity as a production of social ascriptions or social status which is malleable and changeable (Barth, 1998; Banks, 1996). This means that ethnic identities have been molded, reconstructed and refabricated over a period of time. Further Barth explains that political and economic circumstances play a significant role in the construction and mobilization of ethnic identities. According to Barth (1998), individuals change their identity and this may change their locality, their substance pattern, their political allegiance and form, or their household membership. The question addressed in this paper is how Up-country Tamil individuals label themselves, their own group as well as those of other groups in their everyday life of the plantation set up. I draw upon ethnographic data conducted throughout 2013 in order to address this question.

⁵ Sri Lankan Tamils who live predominantly in Jaffna district call Up-country Tamils or Indian Tamils as *Thoddakkaaddar* relating to their workplace estates.

Past, present, and future: Up-Country Tamils

Indian Tamils emerged in Ceylon in the 19th century as Indian immigrants destined for British plantation work. From the 1830s the expansion of British coffee-growing, followed by tea-growing, in the Central Highlands of Ceylon, encouraged Indian immigrants from poverty-ridden districts of Chenkelpettai, Coimbatore, Madurai, Thanjavoor, Thiruchirapalli and other parts of South India to migrate. At the beginning, especially during the coffee times, immigration to Ceylon was of a seasonal character and the expansion of tea plantations from the 1890s onwards generated Indian immigrants to settle permanently or semi-permanently in Ceylon. Permanent settlement accelerated the process of family migration and thus the emergence of a distinct ethnic community in Ceylon.

From the outset their legal status was a hot political issue and their citizenship rights became a defining aspect of the politics of ethnicity in colonial Ceylon and later independent Sri Lanka. “With large numbers of plantation Tamils effectively settled in Ceylon, they began to participate in and stake their claim to political power as co-participants in the island’s affairs as early as the 1920s” (Shastri, 1999). At the beginning of the 1920s, the British government in India was pressured by the Indian Nationalist Movement to secure the rights of Indian immigrants who had migrated to the British colonies, and this led to a resolution in London in 1921. Ceylon, one of the British colonies, accepted the resolution and agreed to grant Ceylonese citizenship to Indian immigrants. As a first step, Indian immigrants were allowed limited voting rights after the introduction of universal suffrage of the Donoughmore Commission Recommendations of 1931⁶ (Hollup, 1991). As a result, at the 1947 General Election, held one year before Independence, the Ceylon Indian Congress⁷ was able to win six seats in Parliament and become part of the Coalition Opposition Party. This situation was met with grave concern by the local Sinhala political elite and eventually led them to seize power of Indian Tamils at the legislative council of Ceylon. The first step to curtail the rights of Indian Tamils was taken by the Sinhalese government when the nation received independence from Britain in 1948, the year the new Ceylonese government enacted and passed the Citizenship Act No. 18. In addition, problems connected with granting them citizenship were influenced by Sinhalese perceptions of Indian immigrants as labourers and 'aliens' (Hollup 1992). The Ceylon Citizenship Act was followed by two other Acts: the Indo–Pakistan Act (1949) and the Amended Parliamentary Act which expelled the majority of Indian Tamils to India. All these parliamentary acts deprived the Indian Tamils of citizenship and made them stateless overnight.

As a result of the Citizenship Acts, a significant number of Indian immigrants was forced to leave Ceylon. The question of citizenship became a subject of continuing dispute between the governments of Sri Lanka and India although in the cause of time, several agreements were reached leading to the granting of Sri Lankan or Indian citizenship to a substantial number of Indian Tamils. Finally, the remaining Indian

⁶ The Donoughmore Commission was responsible for the creation of the Donoughmore Constitution in effect between 1931–47 in Ceylon.

⁷ In 1950, the Ceylon Indian Congress, formed in 1940, changed its name to Ceylon Workers Congress (CWC) and became the largest trade union to support work conditions of Indian Tamils, as well as fair wages. Although some support was extended to the Indian Tamils, the CWC as a high caste-led organization did not grant them much in the way of social services and pay rises.

Tamils were granted Sri Lankan citizenship in 2009, with the ‘Grant of Citizenship to Stateless Persons (Special Provisions) (Amendment) Act, No. 5 of 2009.’ Today, almost all Indian Tamils who remain in Sri Lanka have received Sri Lankan citizenship.

The performance of ethnic identity of Up-Country Tamils

Compared to their compatriots who were repatriated to India after the implementation of the Citizenship Act of 1948, Indian Tamils who remain Sri Lankan citizens have witnessed significant progress in terms of legal and political recognition (Bass, 2000). The social and political achievements of Up-country Tamils in the twenty-first century in Sri Lanka are often considered remarkable, given the fact that in the twentieth century they were denied privileges that were given to other Sri Lankan citizens. Despite the low number of Up-country Tamil students in higher education, their educational achievements have improved significantly, especially in Ordinary Level (O/L) and Advanced Level (A/L) examinations. At the 14th Parliament election held in 2010, five of the seven Members of Parliament (MPs) were elected from the Nuwara-Eliya district.⁸ Notably, in the new cabinet, appointed on 23 April 2010, two ministerial portfolios are held by Up-country politicians. Today it is clear that there have been considerable changes in the original position of Indian Tamils.

In recent decades, Indian Tamils, who inhabit towns and plantations in the Up-country, prefer to be called Up-Country Tamils as this relates to their current residence and not their ancestral homeland. However, the Indian Tamils who are scattered around other parts of the island are not aware about this preference of Indian Tamils who used to live in the estates of the Central province. During the fieldwork in the Mullaitivu District, I visited the Kepapilavu village which is located 10 Km away from Mullaitivu town. Although inhabitants of this village were originally from Up-country,⁹ they were not aware of this fact, nor that Up-country Tamil leaders claimed this part of Sri Lanka as their home. Rather their concern was with the demands of Tamil Eelam.¹⁰ In Kepapilavu it was obvious that Indian Tamils who live in the Northern Province have paid a high price during the final battle (2008-2009) between the government of Sri Lanka and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE).¹¹ According to Sri Lankan Tamils, their identity as Indian Tamils has been manipulated and this led them to change their locality, their substance pattern, their political allegiance and form, or their household membership. However, this is not the case in the plantations of the Central Province. The following three portraits explain how Up-country Tamils, who used to inhabit the plantations, label themselves and their own group as well as other groups.

⁸ Currently Sri Lanka is administratively divided into nine provinces and twenty-five districts. Province is the first level of administrative division and district is the second level. The nine provinces are Northern, Eastern, Western, Central, Southern, North-western, North-central, Uva and Sabaragamuwa. Nuwara-Eliya is one of the districts in Sri Lanka, as well as one among three in the Central Province

⁹ These Indian Tamils settled in Mullaitivu, Kilinochchi and some other parts of Northern Province in the 1950s and followed by the 1983 riots in Sri Lanka.

¹⁰ The Tamil Eelam, consists of Northern and Eastern Province of Sri Lanka where Sri Lankan Tamils live predominantly, was the sole demand of the LTTE for three decades.

¹¹ 70 per cent of Tamil-speaking population killed in the final battle in Mullaitivu were Indian Tamils. This fact is unknown to the general public and international bodies.

*Nirmala*¹²

Nirmala is a 32 year old tea-plucking worker at the Park Estate, Kanthapola, Nuwara-Eliya. She is the fifth in a family of seven siblings, born and raised on the Hethershed Estate, one of the estates in Kanthapola. Nirmala went to the estate school since it was much closer to her line-room¹³ and all her estate friends attended the same school. At the O/L examination, she got 5 simple passes of out 8 subjects and had to discontinue her A/L studies.¹⁴ After her O/L, like many female tea-plucking workers after their primary level schooling, she joined one of the estates in Hethershed. This is fairly common for Up-country Tamil women as female tea-plucking workers consider the estate employment as a way of earning a decent income that enables them to look after their family without financial worries. Also they often believe that participation in income-generating activities allow them greater control over family decisions. Their employment at the estate is thus considered socially and economically empowering in the sense that it makes them less dependent on their husbands or others for survival.

At the age of 21, Nirmala married Siva and moved to Park Estate, Kanthapola, where Siva's family had been residing for a long time. Nirmala's husband, Siva, works in a hotel as a bellboy and earns Rs.10,000 to Rs.15,000 (\$ 100 to \$ 150) per month. Nirmala earns around Rs.4, 000 to Rs.6,000 (\$40 to \$ 60) in the off peak season, but can make between Rs.8,000 to Rs.10,000 (\$ 80 to \$ 100) during peak seasons. However, Nirmala is currently the only one in her household that works on the estate. Her mother-in-law, Ponnachchi, had, however, worked there for more than 35 years until she retired 6 years ago. Nirmala's brothers-in law work as coolies in vegetable gardens located within plantations or in nearby areas. None of Nirmala's brothers-in-law is interested in working on the estate as labourers. Nowadays many of Up-country youngsters are unlikely to look for employment opportunities within the estate system. This situation is very different to what it was at the beginning of 20 century.

Nirmala lives with her husband, their three sons, her mother-in-law, and two brothers-in-law in her line-room which is partitioned into a small reception area and a tiny bedroom. The kitchen, made of cement and wood, is roofed by tin-sheets, and is located in a separate section of the line-room. Nobody has their own water tap or toilets but have to share these facilities with three or four other families living in the same line. Up until now, there has been no maintenance of Nirmala's line and the family still does not have the legal deeds for their room. For Nirmala and other residents, keeping their line-rooms clean has become a major challenge due to the poor drainage and sewage systems. Such water and sanitary problems have been a central feature of line-housing for several decades. For Nirmala and many other Up-country Tamils living in these conditions, the quality and sustainability of housing, in which they had lived for several decades without any renovations or upgrades, is a constant worry. Nirmala consequently feels that they are ignored and disregarded by

¹² This is a pseudonym, as are all other references to my field respondents.

¹³ The majority of estate workers live in a "line-room" which is typically a few square meters wide and hardly convenient for a large, extended family. These line rooms are built like barracks in two double rows back to back, accommodating 24 households—one family for each room (Shantha Kumar, 1999)

¹⁴ To continue A/L studies, there should be 6 passes out of 8 subjects. This is a compulsory requirement to continue A/L studies in any of secondary schools in Sri Lanka.

both the plantation management and the Sri Lankan government. However, since she was born and raised on tea estates in Sri Lanka, for her, Sri Lanka is her residence, not India.

Nirmala has been working as a tea-plucking worker from the age of 21. She is currently working in the Park-tea estates together with approximately 120 other female workers that are divided into two working groups. Work is demanding and every working day is structured in a similar way. Nirmala usually leaves home by 7.00 a.m. and walks all the way to the estate harvesting place (in Tamil, it is *Malai*) for the 8.00a.m. start.¹⁵ The first round of tea-plucking finishes at 10.30 a.m. after which the workers are allowed a short tea break for 15 minutes. The second round then continues until 12.30 p.m. After an hours lunch break, tea plucking recommences at 1.30 p.m. and is completed by 5.00 p.m. The most experienced among tea-pluckers acquire the ability to work rapidly and generally set themselves a daily target of 18 Kg of tea leaves. For their small breaks the workers get into groups and share their meals with work-mates. Since Nirmala usually watches Sri Lankan Tamil TV channels, and shares certain sensibilities with her friends and colleagues at work, she usually joins her caste friends to share meals under the tea bushes. As a person belonging to a high caste, Kudiyanavar, one of the most highly respected castes in Up-country, she takes pride in her caste status. Nirmala even proudly said that the chance she got to speak for this study was highly criticized by other low-caste tea plucking women.¹⁶ Also, in Nirmala's line, apart from 3 families, all her neighbours belong to the low-castes of *Parayar*, *Chakkiliyar*, and *Pallar*, but she explained that she has never drunk a cup of tea at their place even if she goes there for any social functions at their place. If her family is invited for a wedding of low-caste person, they eat banana and biscuits, which are not cooked by them, with a soft drink,. For her, caste is an important social status which has been maintained throughout the plantation setting. It is important to bear in mind that the identity of Up-country Tamils is negotiated by a group of people who are homogeneous – they all belong to estates where they have worked and lived for many decades. However, it is clear that the prevailing caste system in Up-country commands social divisions and differences within the community.

Raja

Raja, an arts graduate, had been working as a Development Officer at the Nuwara-Eliya District Secretariat for 18 months. He was born and grew up on an estate of Kanthapola, in the Nuwara-Eliya district. His parents and grandparents were born in the same line-room. Raja did not know much about the birth details of his great grandparents, but he is fourth generation Indian Tamil and his parents worked on the Kanthapola tea estate until their retirement. Raja's father passed away three years ago and his retired mother and unmarried brothers, including Raja, still live in the same line-room.

In the A/L examinations, Raja passed with 'Distinction' (3 "A" pass) and was admitted to one of the Sri Lankan state universities. While studying he socialized with Sinhalese, Sri Lankan Tamil and Muslim students. It was a new experience for him

¹⁵ Every day they pluck tea in different areas which are more far from their residences. Their line-room is located in an isolated area and there is no public transport to their workplace.

¹⁶ The researcher has chosen workers randomly at their workplace and many women were also interviewed during her ethnographic survey.

since he never had the opportunity to interact with other communities until he went to university. He had enjoyed the social life there. Most of his friends were Sri Lankan Tamils, but his relationship with the Sinhalese and the Muslim was good, although not intimate. Since Raja majored in Political Science taught Tamil, he has many Tamil-speaking friends. “When I spoke with Sri Lankan Tamils, I felt more comfortable, than with people from other communities,” Raja said. Not only Raja, but also other estate residents who lived in Kanthapola felt more at ease with Tamil-speaking communities. The above account reveals that many estate people are still geographically isolated since they do not have the opportunity to leave the estate.

Raja reiterated that Indian Tamils who predominantly live in estates should be called Up-country Tamils since they have a separate identity which distinguishes them from other Sri Lankan communities. Raja had a strong sense of belonging to the Up-country Tamils which gave him emotional satisfaction and a sense of being a valued member of the group. For Raja, Up-country Tamils have a collective identity, sharing a common ancestry, historical memories, culture and religious practices among its members, as well as being attached to a specific territory. Here Raja claims his identity within the context of common culture, religion, language, place of origin.

Further Raja continued that the widespread view that even if friends of different ethnic background get along fine and help each other, deep inside they have a strong sense of their own group individual roots. He says “when two new university students met for the first time, the first information they would gather about one another would be their ethnic membership” (Personal communication, August 15, 2013). According to Raja experience, ethnic membership was the key determinant when people developed friendships, selected room-mates, or found life partners. For Raja, the fact that his generation has felt the sense of degradation, made him argue for inter-ethnic harmony between Tamil-speaking communities. Raja had not perceived his experience in these terms until he was admitted to the state university; for him this was simply the way things were in the past.

Vijayakumar

I met Vijayakumar early in my fieldwork. He was born in 1959, the youngest of five children, and grew up on a plantation. He is third generation Indian Tamil. Vijayakumar had worked as a labourer for 10 years in the same estate where he is now a *Kangani* (Supervisor / Overseer). Vijayakumar manages to speak Sinhala with the company management staff, but has not mastered writing in Sinhala. However, his children, Mathavan 16 and Mathu 14, grew up speaking Sinhala and Tamil since they attended the Kanthapola town school. Vijayakumar sees Sri Lankan Tamils and Indian Tamils as a separate ethnic group despite the fact that the same language is spoken by both groups. Here, it is important to note that “actual interethnic relations may very well diverge from stereotypes as they are presented in casual conversations; that there may be a discrepancy between what people say and what they do” (Eriksen 2010). Like many other estate Tamils, Vijayakumar considers Sri Lankan Tamils as “better dressed”, better groomed” and more civilized than them. Vijayakumar recalled the memories of his childhood at school. “Jaffna Tamil-teachers taught me how to come to school on time and the way of dressing for school, things which my parents had not taught me” (Personal communication, August 22, 2013). Further he says:

In my childhood, Grade 1 to Grade 5, all students were in one classroom and only a few teachers taught us. Among them, I respected most those who came from Jaffna. Jaffna teachers were well trained and competent and made great effort to improve the education of Up-country Tamils. However, nowadays the teaching appointments of estate -Tamils with O/L qualifications have reduced the quality of education in Up-country (Personal communication, August 22, 2013).

He worried that today the mastery of English by Up-country teachers is not adequate. According to him, this is one of the political strategies to suppress the Indian Tamils. While discussing about the relationship of Sinhalese with Up-country Tamils, Vijayakumar says:

Up-country Tamils are consciously aware that they live in the towns and plantations which are surrounded and dominated by Sinhalese. In addition, many of the government officers for the estates, including medical doctors, nurses, GNs, and estate management staff are Sinhalese who come outside the estates. We face many challenges when we approach the officers in the government offices where Sinhala is mostly used for communication. As a result, we fail to do things at time and frustrated much. As a result, many of us still do not have Birth Certificates, National Identity Cards, and Marriage Certificates.

To summarize the above portraits, the Up-country Tamils have lived through many decades as victims of exploitation, both by the British planters and then the private companies, as well as discrimination and marginalization by the government of Sri Lanka. For several decades, they were not part of political discussion, and considered a neglected community. Even today, third and fourth generation Up-country Tamils feel similar discrimination and disregard from the government and plantation management. However, Up-country Tamils have generally tried to secure their political and civil rights within a multi-ethnic Sri Lanka, not within Tamil Eelam. The people of Up-country are not engaged in competition with any other ethnic group. There was and still is little chance of massive violence occurring in central Sri Lanka (Bass 2008). They have never claimed land that belong to other ethnic groups- they seek only to have state recognition as an ethnic group and the right to have the same privileges and rights accorded to all Sri Lankans. In the Kanthapola area, all statements and practices of my respondents express a distinct social status of Up-country Tamils. In their everyday lives they did not demonstrate the willingness to return to India contrary to what outsiders perceive as being characteristic of the Indian Tamils who live in India. I see the younger generation among the Up-country Tamils are no longer in favour of the idea of being branded as "people of Indian origin." Much young generation of Up-country Tamils who dwell in towns and estates in Up-country do not want to join the estates for jobs as their parents. Despite they do not have proper educational background, estate youth desire to work outside the estate, not because they have clearly defined career ambitions, but out of a simple desire for something better (Dunham et al. 1997 quoted in Hollup 1996). Even the young generation also labelled themselves that people who live in the estates are inferior and lower relating to other communities' education, caste, lifestyle, appearance and behaviour.

Conclusion

Up-country Tamils' interactions with others, and their reflections on themselves, lead to the conclusion that Up-country Tamils remain a distinct ethnic group which is seen as inferior in the hierarchical order of the categorization of Sri Lankan ethnic groups. "The criteria for ranking ethnic groups are nevertheless different from class ranking: they refer to imputed cultural differences or even inborn racial differences, not to property or achieved statuses." (Ericksen, 2010) In the case of Up-country Tamils, there may be a correlation between ethnicity and class which means that there is a high likelihood that persons who belong to an Up-country Tamil ethnic group belong to a special social class which has its own group roots. However, today, among Up-country Tamils there is an awareness of creating a separate ethnic identity to fight for their political and civil rights. This is a clear indication that they have started to think about their community and are moving towards making Up-country their home.

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Palestinian Culture of Identity

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Abstract

Write down: I am an Arab!

This powerful proclamation is an extract from a poem composed by the eminent and late Palestinian poet Mahmoud Darwish. His instructive and proud words were the initial spark that challenged to respond to the question of the suppressed identity of Palestinian Arabs in Israel. This study will attempt to explore the cultural representation of identity for generations of Palestinian young men and women who were born and lived in Israel but remain culturally repressed and silenced by the hegemonic forces.

Identity has been a controversial issue in the mind of every Palestinian ever since the 1948 "Al-Nakbah." This study will attempt to comprehend and analyze the multiple ways in which different generations of 1948 Palestinians identified themselves within their societies.

While studying the Arabs of Israel one notices that their cultural and intellectual productions (poetry and literature) reflect aspects of the conflicts they endured. Confusion and contradictory feelings permeate their psyches as they attended Israeli schools and spoke Hebrew as their official language.

This paper will explore the literary heritage of two generations of 1948 Palestinians: The writings of Palestinians of 1948 who were born before Al-Nakbah (living within the borders of Israel today). Those include poems, plays and novels. It will also explore the writings of the younger generation of 1948 Palestinians (born and raised after the Al-Nakbah and considered to be the new generation of Israeli Arabs).

A critical analysis will identify how these two generations of Palestinian writers dealt with the contradictions of living inside Israeli society that did not acknowledge them as the indigenous inhabitants of the land. Their translation of their sense of belonging within their literary works will be evident and how they dealt with the conflict of being simultaneously Israeli Arab as well as Palestinian.

How can cultural production reconcile the homeland carried in the memory nostalgically and the real society they lived in within the Israeli borders?

Keywords: Culture and intellectual production can be the homeland of an intellectual.

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Introduction:

When home as place (geographically) is lost in a glimpse and occupied by strangers, home is carried in the heart and mind and expressed in cultural productions: art, literature (novels, plays, poetry), songs, and most of all get-togethers with other dispossessed Palestinians (who become 'home for you') (Al-Barghouthi, 2004).

Henry Tajfel's social identity theory (1979) proposed that the group one belongs to give one a sense of self-esteem; on the other hand, a group can also enhance its self-image by holding prejudiced views against other groups, and this leads to dividing the world into "them" and "us" and fomenting prejudice and discrimination (McLeod, 2007).

Boundaries are created in the society by differentiating communities from others in symbolic ways, which, as conceptual categorizations, represent feelings towards environments, people, objects and practices, times and spaces (Lamont & Molnar, 2002, pp. 167-195).

Since the individual "self" is part of the "collective self" boundaries between the "we" as higher rank or better off and "them" as lower rank and 'less than' create inequality, fear and insecurity. An individual's concept of security is intricately tied to the concept of identity and collective identity. The feelings of insecurity are nurtured by these divisions (Cho, 2012, pp. 299-316).

Schwarz defines identity as something that produces meanings or is known as cultural representation. He believes that a nation is a symbolic community and it is that which accounts for "power to generate a sense of identity and allegiance" (Stuart Hall, 1996).

Mekkawi identifies the Palestinian Arab community as a colonized national minority that after the Al-Nakbah¹ 1948 was:

Emotionally wounded, socially rural, politically lost, poverty-stricken and nationally hurt. They suddenly became a minority ruled by a powerful, sophisticated majority against whom they fought to retain their country and land. It was an ongoing experience, for every family, which remained, had immediate relatives on the other side of the border. Arabs in Israel² were left without political leadership nor an educated elite (Mekkawi, 2008. pp. 23-24).

Azmi Bishara believes that Palestinian identity is not about being a minority, nor immigrants; Israel was enforced on them, citizenship for them is their license to stay on their land, so they are loyal to the law but not to the values of the state (Gust, 2008).

¹ The "Nakbah" is the Arabic word for catastrophe which Palestinians use to delineate the occupation of their homeland in 1948 and the expulsion of a quarter of a million indigenous Palestinians from Palestine.

² Those Palestinians who managed to stay within the 1948 borders while their sisters and brothers were driven out under duress through many massacres committed against the defenseless Palestinians.

Also Majid Al-Haj, a professor of sociology at Haifa University explains: They belong to a double “periphery. Located at the margins of both Israeli society and the Palestinian national movement” they often combine a strong Palestinian identity with an equally powerful desire for full and equal recognition as Israeli citizens (Identity Crises, Israel and its Arab Citizens, 2004).

Post Al-Nakbah, Palestinian Arabs living in what came to be known as the state of Israel, went through certain stages as they attempted to express their national identity: *Isolationism*; *Radical Palestinianization*; *Openness to other Palestinians* living in Gaza and the West Bank (post 1967); *Active Participation in the Political Resistance* acts in support of the intifada in 1987; the second wave of the Al Aqsa Intifada crystallized the feeling of Palestinian national identity. Finally, the *Launching of the Peace Process* talks in 1990. (Koprulu & Koldas, 2010, pp. 43-73).

Ghassan Kanafani’s study of Palestinian resistance literature under occupation covers the period between 1948-1968, and points to a lack of forcefulness in the expression of national identity evidenced by the writers’ emphasis on the themes of love and social problems rather than political identity. Mahmoud Darwish and Samih Al-Qassem both started with humble and weak poems and novels, but in time they modified their style to accommodate and express political aspirations, as is evident in Palestinian resistance literature. He points to how the Israelis intentionally sought to weaken the study of the Arabic language which led to the increased use of slang Arabic rather than formal Arabic, a step that would contribute to erasing the Palestinian Arab identity. Moreover, Kanafani discusses the imprisonment and torture of Palestinian poets and intellectuals including Samih Al-Qassem, Mahmud Darwish and Hanna Abu Hanna who most of the time were put also under house arrest. A major paradigm shift ensued in the sixties where poetry was used to expose social issues and values like dignity and pride. The concept of the land evolved from woman to mother, and from mother to mother earth and the homeland (Kanafani, 2012, pp. 47-63).

Juhaynah Omar Khatib’s study about the development of Palestinian literature agrees with Kanafani on the humble beginnings of the Palestinian early narratives (prior to Al-Nakbah) and sees that as a symbol of the uprooting of the Arab identity; writers were paralyzed and isolated following the trauma of Al-Nakbah. Radi Shehadeh sees that 1948 Palestine literature was full of references to the identity crisis, the idea of double identity (whether psychological or emotional), anxiety, the military rule, the confiscation of the land and the problems of racism in Israeli society as the authors tried to adapt to those (Khatib, 2012, pp. 41-45).

Since earlier studies explored mainly the works of the older generation of Palestinians, this study focuses on the new cultural productions of the young generation, born and raised after the establishment of Israel, and seeks to answer the following questions:

1. How successful were the measures taken by the Israelis to diminish the Arabic identity of Palestine from the perception and feelings of its people?
2. What were the factors that preserved the identity of a people under occupation?

3. What are the cultural tools that the 1948 Palestinians used to express their identity?

Political and Social Conditions:

After Al-Nakbah, and during the establishment of the state of Israel, the *1948 Palestinians* were under military rule or marshal law; there were many restrictions on their movement, their freedom of speech, and any collective cultural activity. Many of the writers were taken imprisoned with no charges except expressing some kind of political or cultural activity (Kanafani, 2012, p. 28).

Allan Pape, a Jewish historian says that the strangers – Jews who came to Palestine at the beginning of the 20th century - did not appreciate the kindness of the Palestinians who were the landlords. The new arrivals considered themselves as the ones who have the right to this land and considered the Palestinians, who were so hospitable to them, as strangers and enemies of the state. This approach of considering the Palestinians as a threat has not changed in the State's institutions since 1948 (Pape, 2012, pp. 12-13).

After the establishment of the State of Israel, lands were confiscated, and Palestinians were kicked out of their houses to other villages as a first step to separate them from their lands. (Pape, p. 39). Hence, it is not surprising that the land was strongly symbolized in their writings to the point where it was and still is considered as sacred. Elaboration in appendix one.

Methodology:

This study will divide the contemporary work of the Palestinians in historical Palestine into two categories: The first (older) generation writings who were born before Al-Nakbah and the second (younger) generation of writers who were born and lived after the creation of the state of Israel.

The first part will analyze the writings of Mahmoud Darwish, Samih Al-Qassem, and Tawfeeq Zayad, all of whom witnessed “Al-Nakbah” and the creation of the state of Israel on their lands. The second part will look at the writings of Naseem Atef Alasadi, Suliaman Dagash, Kamleh Badarneh and Sayed Qashou.

Part I: Literature of Pre- “Al-Nakbah” Generation:

In this part the study will analyze and examine the literature of the first generation who were born before Al-Nakbah, specifically Mahmoud Darwish, Samih Al-Qassem and Tawfeeq Zayad.

I: The Great Poet of the Palestinian Revolution: Mahmoud Darwish (1941-2008):

Darwish was six years old in the year of Al-Nakbah (1948), and he was forced to leave his village along with hundreds of thousands of Palestinians. His family fled to Lebanon for two years. At the age of eight Darwish, unable to bear the pains and hardships of being a refugee, walked all the way back to Palestine along with one of

his uncles. He walked while still a child through mountains and valleys (for a whole night) to reach his home in his village AlBerweh, only to find that it had been totally demolished, and an Israeli camp Moshav, a camp for Jewish settlers, had been constructed in its place. *I found myself again a stranger on my land* (Al-Deek, 2003, p. 14). However, Darwish stayed.

In Darwish's school celebration of the Israeli Independence Day, Mahmoud Darwish actually recited his first poem which was entitled: A letter to my Jewish brother. that was his first poem ever which started in the fifties. Later, Darwish became a seasoned poet and he had a very important role to play in the National Palestinian Movement as a prominent poet, thinker and intellectual who had much to do with the development of Palestinian political and literary consciousness. His frequent imprisonments only served to enhance his poetic abilities, as Kanafani claims (Kahloush, 2014). Some of his poems are: Still there is a Path in the Path, On this Land, I am from there, the Poem of the Land, on the Light of a Rifle, Waiting for the Returnees, they Like me Dead, a Cable from the Prison, and Birds don't die in the Galelee.

In 1964, Darwish had the courage to challenge not only the Israelis but the whole world who was engaged in a conspiracy of silence about Palestine, he expressed his identity clearly and ferociously addressing his interrogator:

Write down: I am an Arab!

And my identity card is number fifty thousand, I have eight children and the ninth is coming after a summer. Will you be angry? Write down! I am an Arab, Employed with fellow workers at a quarry, I have eight children, I mine their bread, garments and books from the rocks. I do not supplicate charity at your doors, nor do I belittle myself at the footsteps of your chamber, so will you be angry? My father... descends from the family of the plow, Not from a privileged class, And my grandfather...was a farmer, Neither well-bred, nor well-born!, Teaches me the pride of the sun, Before teaching me how to read, Write down!, I am an Arab, You have stolen the orchards of my ancestors, And the land which I cultivated, Along with my children, And you left nothing for us, Except for these rocks. So will the State take them As it has been said?! Therefore! Record on the top of the first page: I do not hate people nor do I encroach but if I become hungry, the usurper's flesh will be my food Beware. Beware...Of my hunger, and my anger! (Al-Deek, 2003)

At a later stage, Darwish found it very painful to accept the 1967 defeat and occupation of the West Bank, despite that he implanted hope in his poem On This Land

There's on this land,
The lady of lands,
The mother of the beginnings
And of the ends.
It was called Palestine
Its name later became Palestine
My lady: I deserve,
Since you're my lady,
I deserve life

He says addressing the land as if it were his sister: Sister, since 20 years we haven't written poetry, we were fighting (Al-Deek, p. 58).

After he expresses his grief, he emphasizes his attachment to the land:

My homeland is not a suitcase and I am no traveler
I am the lover, and the land is my love

He denies the Israeli his relation to the land in a sarcastic way when he talks about their attempts to look for ruins to prove their existence in Jerusalem thousands of years ago; he says:

The archeologist is busy analyzing the stones, looking for a sample of legends to prove that I was not, to prove that I was just passing by while planting trees and expressing my love (Al-Deek, p. 59).

Darwish keeps declaring his identity:

I am a prisoner in my country
Without Land
With no flag
With no house
I am an Arab
I had a hand that cultivated
And we know how to build a modern factory and home

The trinity of the land, the home and the mother in Darwish's poems is prolific. His poem: "To my Mother" is one of the most emotionally engaging and nostalgic poems.

I long for my mother's bread, my mother coffee and my mother touch. I love my life because if I die, my mother's tears will shame me.

For the intifada he uses a commanding voice which mobilizes the revolutionaries:

Siege your siege, no other ways out.
Beat your enemy, no other way out
If your arm is to fall, pick it up and move.
If I fall by your side, pick me up and hit your enemy with my body.
For you now are
Free, free, and free (Al-Deek, p. 62).

II: Poet Samih Al-Qassem 1929-:

Al-Qassem is one of the most important writers of 1948 Palestinians, from the first generation who lived Al-Nakbah Al-Qassem is a Palestinian Druze whose Arabic poetry is well known throughout the Arab World. His poetry is influenced by two primary periods of his life: Before and after the Six-Day War. He joined the Communist Hadash political party in 1967. Al-Qassem has published several volumes and collections of poetry and expressed his experiences through many poems and plays. He has poems about Jerusalem, Palestine, the homeland and citizenship. Al-Qassem calls himself in one of his poems: 'a god that does not compromise' (Zeidan, 2013, p. 102).

The concept of the land is prominent in his poems as it is in Darwish's poems. He addresses the Israelis using the land metaphorically as the womb that incubated his children saying:

I plow the land with my ancestors' bones to beget my children! I embrace the soil and cuddle its wheat all of my life, my land, my heritage, will never be what you want (Zeidan, p. 121).

About his experience in prison, full of pride he describes himself as the dawn that will never be halted from coming, the poem that no wall will block (Zeidan, p.122).

Al-Qassem translated his pain, anger and determination after the 1967 war in his milestone poem "The enemy of the Sun" saying:

I might lose everything...
 I might work as a garbage collector...
 You might take my last piece of land...
 I will resist you the enemy of the sun...
 I will resist and till the last breath in my veins
 I will resist, and resist and resist ...

In 1987, his anger reaches its peak when the second Intifada begins in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, and begins by using the language of incitement and says in his last poem about the Palestinian Intifada:

Advance, advance
 All the sky above you is hell.
 And all the land under you is hell.
 The elder you can kill and the child.
 But will never give in. (Zeidan, p. 107).

Al-Qassem's poem, we might give a chance but we will never forget; on the year 1976 was a very loud scream of justice and righteousness when he said

We never deny, we don't.
 You have arms of all shapes and colors, we never deny
 Arms out of devil imagination we never deny we never
 But who owns the land deed? The history deed and the human deed?
 Who of us owns the deed
 But in the pocket of my coat I guard the deed

After the occupation of the last part of Jerusalem in 1967, Al-Qassem talks about the Holy City and about its occupation as a flagrant invasion of everything sacred.

He calls on the street vendors asking them to buy wooden statues of Jesus Christ in exchange for a handful of flour or bread. (Al-Qassem, 2009)

III: Tawfeeq Zayad 1929-1994:

Born in the Galilee, Zayad studied literature in USSR. After returning home, he was elected mayor of Nazareth on December, 9, 1973, and elected as head of 1948 Palestine Rakah, a communist party, a victory that is said to have "surprised and alarmed" Israelis. His election to the Knesset in the 1973 pressured the Israeli

government to change some of its policies towards Arabs - both those inside Israel and in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (The Poet, Tawfeeq Zayad, n.d.)

Zayad has many several anthologisms most famous are: With my teeth, the bridge of return, we are here staying, lets the whole world liste, and my people.

In his poem “We are Staying” a very strong voice of resistance and determination emerges in 1966. He wrote:

Like twenty impossibililites, we are staying...³
 On your chests we are staying...
 As a wall in your throats we are staying...
 As a piece of glass in your eyes we are staying...
 As typhoon of fire we are staying...
 In hunger, naked, singing our poems we will stay...
 Filling the streets with anger, filling prisons
 With pride (AlHawari, 2014).

And he wrote:

I call to you all.
 I take your hand and hold it tightly.
 I kiss the ground on which you place your feet.
 I know that for you I would give my life.
 My life I would give for you (Zayad, Adab.com, n.d.)⁴

In his poem named “ I challenge”

The land will not absorb my blood
 My soul will never rest
 Kill me I challenge you
 Crucify me I challenge u
 My home is my passion
 My flame
 The land is mine
 Its skies are my fond
 My present, my future.
 My nativity. my tomb.
 My blood, my Flush.
 My heart.. My ribs.
 And it’s my father, my sons and my grandfather.
 My heritage, my songs, my flags and my glory.
 My high house and my address of challenge. (Zayad, Adab.com, n.d.)

As described the three poets represented the strong voices that challenged the occupation and portrayed the Al Nakbah and Palestinian suffering, anguish, and resistance in beautiful and powerful pieces of poetry that transformed Palestinian and Arab consciousness. The three of them used the land metaphorically as mother, as lover, and as home. The three poets excelled in writing about the Intifada because that poetry was the most moving in their heritage.

³ Why twenty? Because the second occupation took place almost twenty years after 1948.

⁴ This poem was sung by the famous Marcel Khleifah and became one of the iconic revolution songs.

The three writers' voices of resistance and challenge grew stronger and louder after the defeat of 1967; their anger about yet another occupation after the initial 1948 one broke the walls of isolation that had encapsulated them since 1948. Post 1967, these poets and their poetry served to connect different areas of Palestine despite the consistent attempts of the Israeli forces to shut them up through imprisonment and marginalization.

Part II: Literature of Post-Al-Nakbah Generation:

In this part we will explore the writings of three other Palestinian poets

I: Suleiman Daghash was born in 1952 in AlMaghar village. His father was one of the freedom old, accused of tearing off the Israeli flag, he was sentenced a fine 25 Lire, which was a big amount at that time (Daghash S. , n.d.).

In 1972 he published an anthology entitled "My identity is my land;" he kept the vocabulary of his mentors from the older generation in describing his identity metaphorically as the land, the mother, and the lover. He says in his first poem "Loyalty:"

The land fed me its breasts and to the land is my loyalty...
 The land fed me and a breast is belonging
 He who takes milk from a breast is likely to worship a god in the skies
 (Daghash, 1979)⁵.

Daghash refused to serve in the Israeli army and was jailed for four years were he wrote:

In prison my love grows bigger
 My heart doesn't know the cuffs
 If you [my people] ask for my eyes willingly I will obey
 Despite my cuffs I keep on going to the sun and walk on my path (Daghash, 1979).

About his identity he said:

I have an Arabic heart,
 A heart like the mountains of my home land
 I will never be humiliated
 Will never betray
 I am a proud shadow who draws by his blood a pure face of history
 I will stay forever struggling...will refuse all attempts to undermine me
 I will stay forever Palestinian (Daghash, 1979).⁶

His later poems were collected in 2003 in an anthology entitled: "The Last Water." In his poem "Two Tanks Away," he uses an expression from the Quran to describe the confrontations and bombardment" (Daghash, 2003, p. 81).

We knelt to Adam when the angels thus dictated
 So why is Heaven falling down?
 We will create Paradise for the angels

⁵ The poems were sent by its author as an attachment with no page number

⁶ Daghash's expression of his identity is quite audacious and powerful since he is actually an Israeli citizen who was born in Israel. He sounds fearless when he says: I will stay forever Palestinian.

Here on earth
 To dance at the rooftop of our dreams...
 Prepare what kinds of deaths you have
 We will shake the dust off like the Sphinx
 And fly over the fires...
 We will live at an arm's length from your tanks! (Daghash, p. 77)

II: Naseem Atef Al-Assadi:

Alasadi was born in 1979 in AlJaleel. He works as teacher of Arabic language in his village school. In his poem entitled "When you will understand?" he declares his national identity clearly, challenging the Israelis:

When you will understand that our youngsters are like our mountains and our plains
 Our wrists were created to raise flags
 Never will we be defeated...
 The world will perish before we are defeated.
 When you will understand that the land is our yard, our goal, and our compass...
 When will you understand that we will never accept humiliation
 No matter how long
 The neighing of our horses
 Will extinguish your vague voices...
 When you will understand that we are the people of strife
 Struggle, peace and the people of ferocity
 Except for God we never prostrate.
 When you will understand? I think you don't (Al-Asadi, 2013, pp. 43-45).

In another poem "Scriptures on the Time Wall," he calls for revolution and the land is always present as most of the writers do. Al-Assadi address the land as a symbol of resistance, a place and space of belonging:

Revolt my land every time the blood revolts...
 Rejoice my land, your people are coming...
 How long the night of the oppressor will last?
 It will come to an end and be defeated.
 Don't think the Aqsa mosque can be humiliated
 It has free people ready to redeem it.
 Smile my land your people never died
 And we will always taste bitter on their tongues (Al-Assadi, pp.52-53).

Finally, Al-Assadi addresses the Arab people while expressing his identification with the Arab Spring revolutions; he sees those uprisings as a beacon of hope and a light for the *1948 Palestinians*

In "After the Victory," he says:

Hay Arabs rise up against destiny
 to teach our youngsters that ours are lands of people of freedom
 people who break the shackles on their souls by sunrise (Al-assadi: 73).

III: Kamleh Badarneh:

Badarneh is a writer from Arrabit AlBotouf village; she is in her early forties and published her first book in 2000. The book comprises two studies on Palestinian folkloric narratives and the image of the Palestinian Arab woman within that folklore. Another book she authored is “One Autumn.”

In this book, Badarneh metaphorically represents the Palestinian identity as a wheat plant; her anger about Al-Nakbah and the usurpation of the land is focused on some of the landlords who were traitors and sold their lands to Israel. The Israeli in her story is reflected as a stranger who lures the protagonist Abu Mahmoud’s friend, Abu Said, into planting vegetables in his land instead of olives. Olives for Palestinians represent their identity, endurance, determination and millennia of living in Palestine. Abu Mahmoud admonishes his friend, Abu Said, because he feels that he compromised his principles and acquiesced to the power of the stranger. “Damn you Abu Said, I didn’t know you were stupid! Mice could attack you and build their houses and settle in your land; worms will eat your harvest, the mite of the wood threaten your abode, aren’t you aware of all of that?” (Badarneh, *One Autumn*, 2012).

IV: Sayed Qashou:

Sayed Qashou is an important author from the young generation of Palestinian Israeli Arabs. He was born in 1975. He works as a Journalist in the Haaretz newspaper and writes in Hebrew. One of his novels, *Let It be Morning*, was shortlisted for the Booker Prize. His Comedy TV series gave him a lot of fame and his novel *Dancing Arabs* was translated to six languages.

In *Dancing Arabs* Qashou authors five short stories as diaries of the family life of a Palestinian Arabic family of 1948 Palestine. It is autobiographical in nature. The first two stories are about his childhood. The third story “I wanted to be Jewish,” describes the most tragic period of his life. He had a most humiliating experience during the first week of his enrolment in a prestigious Israeli boarding school. He was the only Arab among his Israeli schoolmates and was ordered by a soldier to get off the school bus when he discovered he was an Arab (Qashou, *Dancing Arabs*, 2011, P. 82).

This demonstrates that even when an Arab accepts to integrate into the Israeli society and adapts to the Israeli culture and identity, he still is considered a stranger and a threat! This is the apartheid reality of Israel.

His second novel is about the Arabs who accepted the existence of Israel. He narrates the story of an Arab-Israeli journalist (autobiographical in nature) who works at a famous Israeli newspaper and lives in an Israeli city. This journalist grew up in a family where his father believed in the establishment of the Israeli state since its beginning (Qashou, *Let It be Morning*, 2012).

I used to fight with my friends who used to say that my father is a traitor, I used to lose my temper and shout that they are jealous of me and sob.

About the Palestinian Intifada and the killing of Arab Israeli protesters by the Israeli army, he says:

Something has been broken inside, something has died, 48 hours of protests were able to put the State in a situation of questioning the citizenship given to Arab residents, and those two days were able to bring forward all the Israeli rage and hatred (Qashou, 2012, p. 23).

Qashou's life changed after the Palestinian Intifada; there were limits on the news coverage in the West Bank while his Jewish colleagues were given all the freedom they wanted to cover what was going on:

Only Jews have the privilege of criticizing their government; if I do it I will be accused of aiming at destroying the Zionist State (Qashou, 2012, p. 25).

He had to move from Tel Aviv to his Arab village of Beit Safafa⁷ As the Israeli siege tightens around the Palestinians, he creates a situation at the end of the novel where a two-state solution is declared. Therein is the open-ended question: What if? He assumes that his village will be under the jurisdiction of the Palestinian Authority and that he is living there. He portrays the protagonist (himself) as a bewildered person at the end of the novel. (Qashou, 2012, pp. 238-239).

Conclusion:

This study has attempted to answer the following questions:

How successful were the measures taken by the Israelis to diminish the Arabic identity of Palestine from the perception and feelings of its people?

What were the factors that preserved the identity of a people under occupation?

What are the cultural tools that the 1948 Palestinians used to express their identity?

Through this analysis of two generations of Palestinian Arab Israeli writers, we notice that themes they discussed in their novels, poems and narratives are similar. What seems to be prominent is the trinity of the land (earth), the lover, and the mother. The source of pride of those authors was the fact that they were indeed living on the land of Palestine and never left. The earlier generation mourned the loss of the land to the Israelis, described their suffering in jail, challenged their oppressors and celebrated the Palestinian revolution in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.

Even though the younger generation of writers were preoccupied with the same ideas, they went beyond the earlier generation when they identified with the Arab Spring and movements or uprising in the Arab world. Despite the fact that the younger generation of writers were born in Israel, went to Israeli schools, spoke Hebrew and worked in Israeli environments, they continued to suffer even more poignantly when it came to their Palestinian identity. Even those of them who attempted to integrate within Israeli society were refused by Israeli apartheid policies. As such, they were in

⁷ The majority of Arab villages in Israel are inhabited by Arabs only. Cities are mixed.

even deeper pain and anguish because, on the one hand, they were let down by the Israeli society when they attempted to adapt to its culture, and on the other hand, they were not able to (nor are they still able to) be absorbed by the Palestinian society. So they are in reality really alienated, strangers in a society that they grew up in.

The questions of the study have therefore been addressed. The importance of this study rests in the timeliness of the question of identity. Today Israel is still working on legally identifying the country as a “Jewish” state, which in effect means the expulsion of hundreds of thousands of both Christian and Muslim Palestinian Arabs from Israel.



Appendix One

The first Arab Canaanite tribes arrived around 3200 B.C. and settled on the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea in the land that came to be known later as Palestine. For centuries, the indigenous population of that land witnessed the creation and dismantling of many kingdoms and states through invasion, colonization, war, and emigration. Palestine was at the crossroad of many civilizations (Hitti, 1951).

Arab Canaanites composed the tissue fiber of this land; they built their capital in Jerusalem and they became prominent merchants of the sea. They discovered the Canaan color/ purple from the Orax shells⁸ and they traded in colored glass, pottery, brass, metal and cutlery tools. They gave humanity the precious alphabetical letters which replaced the Egyptian figure letters.

The question of the Palestinian identity emerged as a concern for Palestinians and Israelis alike, as Ghada Karmi explains in the Introduction to her book that: “The Israeli’s Dilemma in Palestine and the cause of Palestinian tragedy” that Zionism was attempting in its project to create a common identity for a people with a common religion (Judaism) who had never lived as one people before while, on the other hand, uprooting another people (the Palestinians) who had roots in the land and lived consistently in it for thousands of years (Karmi, 2007). The Palestinians had a rich culture, heritage and civilization and occupation and expulsion attempted to erase their indigenous identity.

These concerns materialized and became a threat to the Palestinian Arab population’s cultural and national identity in Palestine. The political deal was sealed when the United Kingdom's Foreign Secretary, Arthur James Balfour, issued the famous Balfour Declaration during the British mandate.⁹ This declaration was perceived by Arabs in Palestine as “The promise of those who do not own to those who do not deserve”

With the help of the British forces and the two World Wars that erupted in Europe, the number of Jews in Palestine increased from 28,000 in 1914 to 650,000 after World War II. The creation of the state of

Israel took place on May 15, 1948. The well-trained Zionist militias defeated the Palestinian Arabs who had no army¹⁰ and were fighting a guerilla attacks against the invaders. What ensued was the expulsion of eight hundred thousand Palestinian citizens out of their homes and lands. In May of 1948 only a minority of Palestinian Muslim and Christians remained in Palestine (Abugabeyeh, 2004)

⁸ This was later to become the Royal and Papal color.

⁹ His Majesty's government view with favor the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavors to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.

¹⁰ The Palestinians were not allowed to have an army by the colonizing power Britain nor to own any weapons while the Zionist militias were flooding into the country with arms and committing assaults and massacres. Reference.

Appendix Two:

Definitions:

1948 Palestinians: are the citizens of historical Palestine and their descendants who could survive and stay in Palestine and became citizens of the state of Israel.

Intifada: is the uprising against occupation in the West Bank and Gaza strip.

Important Dates:

1948: Al-Nakbah, were the state of Israel was created on the most fertile parts of Palestinian lands, and Arabs were under the military rule till 1967. They call themselves 1948 Arabs, or the sons of Canaan, their great ancestor.

1967: Were Israel occupied the other parts of the land of Palestine which was annexed to Jordan in 1948 to be called the west Bank of the Jordan's river, and the last part of Palestine land which was annexed to Egypt to be called Gaza strip.

1987: the first intifada, which witnessed the raise of Hamas, the Islamist movement in the Palestinian resistance.

1988: the PLO's declaration of recognizing the Palestine state on the 1967 borders, which means the acceptance of the Jewish state on the 1948 occupied lands by the Palestinians.

1991: the launching of the peace process between Israel and the Palestinians.

1996: the signing of Oslo agreement between the Palestinians and the Israelis.

2000: the eruption of the second intifada, which was more armed revolutions.

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Gentrification and Heritage Tourism: Spatial Conflicts in Central Bangkok

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Abstract

Approximately 300 people dwelling next to Mahakan Fort in central Bangkok were sentenced to make way for a public park, as part of the conservation of Bangkok heritage district and 'gentrification' aiming at transforming neglected areas and creating a world-class tourist city. The community members have been struggling for several years to land sharing with city authorities and the elites who failed to appreciate the value of the inhabitants as part of the heritage setting.

Instead of proceeding with the forced eviction, the community members have demonstrated their ability to conserve the site and to manage their own affairs. They have tried to turn the contested area into a living museum and offered their own services as guardians of the site by organising a night-watch system to protect the site. They also created the beginnings of a public park more pleasant than empty lawns, offered to pay rental fees to the city authorities, and proposed tourism as a vehicle for promoting their cultural heritage.

The paper argues that creating a public park without community participation is not always the best solution of heritage conservation. Meanwhile, preservation of the park and urban heritage conservation cannot be dissociated from indigenous people living in the historic district. It is living heritage embodied in local people to give a real meaning of visitor experience.

Keywords: Gentrification, heritage conservation, tourism, eviction, land sharing

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Introduction

Heritage conservation in Thailand is today faced with several obstacles that have become manifest in the failure to recognise local culture values and vernacular heritage (Stent, 2013).

Communities, who are living around urban historic quarters for several generations and have a high concentration of distinctive cultural assets, should be involved in the planning and implementation processes of urban heritage conservation. Currently, a number of the urban historic quarters and communities in Bangkok are threatened by rapid economic and social transformation. While important palaces, royal temples, archeological sites and urban landmarks have been preserved, old communities and their distinctive characteristics featuring 'ancient' wooden structures, traditional cultures, and intangible heritage have received little attention in urban heritage conservation and development by local authorities (Pimonsathean 2007). Even worse, they are threatened to comply with local authorities' order to leave their home site to make way for a public park in coalition with tourism. This can be seen as a threat appeared with the attempt by the city authorities to demolish the small but vibrant community of Mahakan Fort residing in central Bangkok. The long-standing ruling class members and the city authorities failed to appreciate the value of early nineteenth century wooden vernacular architecture, social practices, and local cultural values in this traditional community, and attempted to turn the space into a public park in order to open space of 'royal heritage' namely the old city wall, fortifications, and other historic monuments.

The paper examines challenges in safeguarding urban space of the Mahakan Fort Community (MFC) who has been under threat of displacement as a result from the urban historic conservation project, and the strategies used in their resistance to the forced eviction. The author proposes an approach to urban community conservation which encompasses physical elements of the historic community as well as the consideration of their socio-economic and intangible heritage dimensions. The forced eviction of the MFC has been recognised by numerous NGOs, other slum communities, and educational institutes as an outstanding case which the community members have been fighting in court since 1992, against local authorities for safeguarding their land and community legacy. This fighting leads to a conservation approach which addresses the need for community involvement in heritage conservation and development. Today this community has been a learning center and a tourist attraction for modern visitors who are keen on issues of conflict management, community heritage conservation, vernacular architecture, and arts and crafts production.

Gentrification and Heritage Conservation

Understanding the consequences of urban redevelopment process, especially in gentrification and historic preservation is a main concern of urban scholars, cultural heritage experts, human right activists, and tourism planners. According to Daher (1999: 45), gentrification is defined as "...the process by which low-income occupants of developed or rehabilitated areas in urban or rural settings are replaced by higher-income occupants". Such process generally attracts new residents and new economic activities and consequently creates an increase in property values and taxes which the

original inhabitants cannot afford the rent. This also leads to displacement, disruption to livelihoods, and discontinuity of local cultural values and ways of life (Daher, 1999). Thus, gentrification is related to the production of new social identities for the middle class through the restoration of deteriorated working-class neighborhoods.

Although the concept of gentrification originally started with ‘residential gentrification’ of inner city areas, it is also associated with regeneration and tourism (i.e. tourist facilities replace those affordable to the local residents) in the global context, including the new urban colonialism, which has adverse social impacts on original residents living in the areas (Atkinson & Bridge, 2005; Orbasli, 2002). Meanwhile, gentrification is linked to ‘revanchist’ public policies which spatially discriminate people by class and race through the process of displacement – initiated, encouraged, and approved by authorities, according to Pokharatsiri (2013). The concept of ‘new urban revanchism’ is commonly seen in developing countries, especially Thailand, where space symbolises the power of ruling class and institution (Pokharatsiri, 2013; Prakitnonthakan, 2013). Accordingly, vernacular heritage is not officially valued and recognised; thus, local inhabitants are rarely involved in decision regarding their own heritage, or involving historical sites that are located within their communities (Stent, 2013).

Rationale of Rattanakosin Master Plan

Being influenced by the notion of urban development and city beautification, a conservation of Bangkok old town or Rattanakosin was initiatively aimed at drawing investment and geared towards the development of tourist attractions into previously neglected areas and creating a world-class city. This Bangkok old town has been well protected under the Master Plan of Conservation and Development of Rattanakosin (hereafter Master Plan) in 1982, along with the supervision of the Rattanakosin and Historic Towns Committee (hereafter Committee) which is formulated by the central government and chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister. The Master Plan significantly contributes to the safeguarding of three historic royal areas of the old town including (1) the location of the Grand Palace and the Temple of Emerald Buddha, (2) the eastern side of the first area where a number of monasteries and palaces of royal families still remain today, (3) the western bank of the Chao Phrya river which was served as the capital during 1767-1782 (Sirisrisak 2009). It is noted that 133 items of the prominent structure for preservation were announced on the occasion of the bicentennial anniversary of the Chakri Dynasty. These objects have been expressed in architectonic and visual form the authorised memory of the city (Askew 2002). Likewise, Prakitnonthakan (2013) also observed that the Master Plan selectively features heritage conservation of high culture - such as palaces, monasteries, forts, walls, and government offices created by royalty and aristocracy:

“These plans to conserve and develop the area are completely determined by the frame of mind which draws on the royal-nationalist bundle of historical memory. Most of the projects are designed to open up vacant space in order to improve the views of prominent monuments associated with the monarchy”.

(Chatri Prakitnonthakan, 2013: 133)

It is accepted that the Master Plan has contributed to the preservation of surviving physical manifestations of the Indic urbanism which once lay at the basis of the

Siamese state (Askew, 1994). However, community heritage such as historic quarters and communities, everyday life, vernacular culture, traditional markets, and shop houses, is excluded from the Master Plan (Pimonsathean 2007; Sirisrisak 2009). The conservation plan includes decisions to preserve and renovate Mahakan Fort and the historic gate and wall, but traditional living settlements become neglected to maintain 'sense of place' (Shinawatra, 2009). The conservation plan was hardly discussed with the public and local residents living around the area. It seems that there is no place for cultural heritage of local people in the conservation plan. Accordingly, a variety of conservation projects that were developed in the Master Plan created adverse impacts on local inhabitants, who had not been involved in urban planning and conservation processes (Wungpatcharapon 2009).

In Bangkok old town, some squatter communities are supported by NGOs and politicians in claiming the right over the land. One of which is the MFC, a small, but mutually supportive community of around 300 inhabitants (67 households) residing between the old Bangkok city wall and the city moat next to Mahakan Fort, one of the two historic fortresses, which still have been in existence nowadays. Originally, fourteen fortresses were built in the reign of King Ram I (in the 1780s), along with the establishment of Bangkok and the Grand Palace, to protect enemy invasion. It is noted that many people may not be aware of an existence of this small community situated on the land of 7,836 square metres, 52 metres wide by 150 metres long (Aruninta, 2009).

In January 2003, the MFC was served with an eviction notice by the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA) as part of the Master Plan. In order to expand the green space within the city for tourism, the BMA stated that removing the community and creating open space would help tourists to have a dedicated site from which to view nearby prominent monuments built by kings (such as Mahakan Fort, the city wall, Loha Prasat, and Wat Saket) and enhance tourist safety from criminal elements (Pithouse, 2008; Prakitnonthakan, 2013). However, there is no serious study whether the green space is real or illusory.

This eviction order marked a tense moment of struggle, protest, and harassment because the community members tried to defend their humanity right to land, as defined by the UN Human Right Council (2007), "*the human right to adequate housing is the right of every woman, man, youth and child to gain and sustain a safe and secure home and community in which to live in peace and dignity.*" For the beautification of Bangkok old town, the MFC - who has still lived for up to six generations and worked there - was offered relocation to a site on the periphery of Bangkok, 45 km away. Through personal communication with the community members on 19th January 2013, the new site in Minburi district is a long distance with poor infrastructure and no vehicle access to hospitals. In addition, the relocation to the new site deteriorated relationships of social intimacy including their traditional occupations which require a high degree of face-to face communication in business. If these people relocate to a far site for commuting, it will mostly prevent their descendants from carrying on forever. It can be noted that they are forcibly evicted in disregard of the law, leaving them subject to disruption to their daily life, economic opportunities, livelihoods, and social support systems.

Vernacular Architecture and Living Heritage

In his research project on Rattanakosin Charter, Prakitnonthakan (2013: 141) described a collection of vernacular heritage at the MFC reflecting an evolution of wooden structures featuring the late 18th century traditional Thai houses, with their characteristic large open spaces underneath:

“There are old-style stilt house residences dating back to the early Rattanakosin period: “gingerbread” style wooden houses reflecting the taste for foreign styles during the Fifth to Seventh reigns; and wooden houses belonging to the past half-century or so. The layout of the community is old and quite unique, not found in any other neighborhood on Rattantakosin Island or elsewhere”.

The distinctive layout of the community enables individual houses to make great use of the common area. The houses are built next to one another and all have good access to a community courtyard. Interestingly, there are no walls and fences isolating each family as existed nowadays in Bangkok (Prakitnonthakan 2006 and 2013).

In terms of historic value, the MFC was served as the birthplace of traditional performing arts of *Likae* which was performed in the royal palace. In other words, it was the ancient home site of aristocrats and artisans who had worked at the Siamese court. The MFC also features a series of ‘traditional’ occupations including the hand-manufacture of ascetics’ images (hermit dolls), making bamboo bird cages, breeding fighting cocks, goldsmithing, food production and vending. Nowadays such traditional occupations are still the main source of income for some residents who depend on their close association with the ‘backpacker enclave’ of Khaosan Road. Importantly, the MFC is a loyal Thai citizen who desires to develop their site as a living tribute to national tradition (Herzfeld 2006). They have an active committed to the conservation and maintenance of historic sites around their home site.

Forced eviction from the historic community would amount to a violation of housing rights and against the principles of conservation in the Washington Charter (Prakitnonthakan, 2013) and would, at the same, mean the death of what the Harvard’s anthropologist Michael Herzfeld (2006) described as a “...*vibrant, cohesive community with a remarkable sense of collective responsibility and mutual support.*” Furthermore, the demolition of this old community would mean the end of “...*a rare complex of vernacular architecture*”, including beautiful old teak houses without fences which are worth preserving in rapidly modernising Bangkok.

Reaction to Forced Eviction

Considering Mahakan Fort area as the untidy and crowded slum community clustered behind the white imposing wall, the city authorities failed to appreciate the community heritage that is inherited from past generations. The BMA has probably calculated that what happens to the MFC will affect the rest of twenty communities that make the Rattanakosin area their home sites. According to the Master Plan, buildings constructed after the nineteenth century were to be demolished and replaced by open space (Shinawatra, 2009). The provision of the Committee came into force, during the 1990s, in an attempt to ‘cleanse’ local communities residing in urban

historic quarters (Pokharatsiri, 2013). After 13 years of conflict, the first house in the community was razed in the process of clearing one third of the community. This happened despite disagreement of other 38 homeowners who did not take compensation money from the city. Ten more homes were the next to be demolished since the homeowners have received all compensation payments.

The community members organised themselves and tried to prevent the eviction using all the recognised methods. They staged protests, delivered petition to the BMA, built barricades and organised a night-watch system to guard the community. In the words of Tawatchai Woramahakun (cited in COHRE 2003), a community leader, when pointing out a barricade to prevent the authorities from coming into the community and destroying their houses:

“This is the only thing we can do to protect ourselves because the BMA is determined to evict us and they can come in at any time with bulldozers and officials to do it.”

Furthermore, they set up a vernacular museum of the site and refused to abide by frequent court decisions to proceed with the eviction. Until now, the MFC has remained in existence, although they have been living in constant fear of eviction. The forced eviction at the MFC has raised many questions, as follows:

- What is the value of the site? Is it necessary to preserve artifacts and architecture alone or is it necessary to preserve communities living in the settings?
- Who benefits from the development of a tourist park, and who pays the cost of tourism?
- Was the BMA evicting the community simply for tourism purpose? Should it be these people alone that pay such a devastatingly high price for the social cost of tourism?
- For gentrification and community economic development, it is true that the residents have no legal right on the land. Do, however, they have the right to be part of overall economic development in their community area in which they have resided for several generations and still worked there? If so, how?
- Do they have the right to determine the direction of historic conservation located within their community?
- In which ways could we resolve the conflict between the public park and housing issue?

The author argues that creating a public park without community participation is not always the best solution of urban development. In order for sustainable development in the government funded projects, planning needs to incorporate people from the bottom up (Wungpatcharapon 2009, Wattanawanyoo 2012). The Master Plan is certainly unpleasant news for twenty- one communities associated with the Master Plan. The idea of gentrification and urban redevelopment should keep the affected community as the priority and figure out how to develop the area later (Prakitnonthakan, 2006). Likewise, Michael Herzfeld (2003) commented that “No western tourists would be interested in a plain park, but a community within a park would make for a real tourist attraction”. It is true that domestic and western tourists may desire an authentic experience by interacting with local residents and learning

traditional cultures, arts and craft production within the communities (Richards and Wilson 2006).

What is more interesting about this community's resistance to the eviction is that they supplemented it with a number of additional, pre-emptive activities. Resistance to the change will be more powerful and productive if a driving force is inferior and vulnerable. In this case, the community has gained support from outsiders by creating a loose network with NGOs at the local level and international level, conservational network, other communities, government agency and educational institutes (see Bristol 2007). They gain support from many parties which propose a highly innovative land sharing plan (one-fourth area) as an alternative to eviction and relocation. The plan included the renovation of older buildings and the integration of local residents into a public park (Du Plessis 2005).

The MFC has tried to open up space for the formation and consideration of creative alternatives to their own displacement. From the perspective of community members, an empty and uninhabited park in this secluded space would provide a perfect haven for criminal gangs. Meanwhile, the public park behind the thick old wall with the canal in the back can be seen as a drug crime and prostitution spot as there is no night-watch system. Coming up with a new proposal, they offered to take turns to help maintain the park's cleanliness and provide security both day and night for those visit in exchange for permission to live in one fourth of the land. According to the project, the community will remain as a living museum while the rest of the land will be converted to the park as the previous plan. Importantly, they have jointly established a fund to preserve the ancient wooden houses and also offered to revitalise the floating market adjacent to the site so as to promote community-based tourism and traditional handicrafts. Providing recreation at no cost will also help to develop the community as a tourist attraction. If the public show interest, this historic community could certainly become another living heritage in Bangkok (Lipat-Chesler 2010).

The community started implementing part of this plan, and many outsiders rallied to the call to support them in this process. Some helped create the media to keep the public aware of the community's plight and used design as a negotiation tool to the authorities. Unfortunately, the project is still facing administrative and legislative difficulties and cannot be implemented (see details in Pokharatsiri, 2013).

The Learning Center

Having an interview with community members during the community field trip on 19th January 2013, the author has discovered that the residents have continuously implemented and turned the site into a living museum as suggested by educational institutes. They have created meandering pathways amongst the buildings and ancient trees, and turned the oldest existing house in the settlement into a museum and exhibition area for their proposal. This large community square is the place where people of all ages can participate in social events as they desire. It is noted that the site appeals many university students who come to learn community-based lessons such as conflict management, community-based tourism, urban heritage conservation and management. The visitors have gained the first-hand experience in sharing their views with the community members and their leader. Recently, the community has signed a memorandum of understanding with Rajamangala University of Technology Phra

Nakhon on the development of service learning program. This collaboration attempts to exchange knowledge between the community and students, instructors involved on how to wisely manage tangible and intangible cultural heritage.

Being located adjacent to outstanding tourist attractions, especially the Golden Mount, Rattanakosin Exhibition Hall, Wat Ratchanada, the Democracy Monument, and Bangkok's largest backpacker enclave of Khaosan Road, the MFC can be a potential tourist attraction among western tourists who are keen to local cultural values and ways of life. The community is strongly recommended to devolve into a creative tourist attraction as the tourist backpackers could engage in authentic experience and participative learning in the arts, traditional cultures, architectural heritage and special character of the site. For educational purposes, the community members have offered a series of craft production workshop including making bamboo bird cages and making hermit dolls. In order to appreciate the enormous value of the community driven initiative, a revival of disappeared performing arts of *Likae* should be encouraged and incorporated into educational programs for young students and local people interested.

The community members demonstrate their commitment and sense of appreciation for cultural heritage. This reflects from their preservation of their traditional festivals inherited from the past including Loy Krathong, National Youth Day. In addition, a regular ritual for the protective Spirit of Mahakan Fort annually takes place one week after Songkran festival (traditional Thai New Year during 13-15 April). This event aims to pay respect to Spirit of Mahakan Fort who helps protect the inhabitants from any harm.

The community members have created social media, especially Facebook to raise public awareness of a marathon fighting for their own spaces and promoting their history, traditional wisdom, and social events including service learning projects within their community.

Conclusion

Heritage conservation should not be undertaken as a specialised activity of learned historians for the pleasure of the elites only. They should not be seen as high-class heritage commodification for the purposes of creating new social identities for members of the middle and upper-middle classes. Rather, heritage conservation should be seen as a complex activity aimed to enhancing cultural continuity, genuine community development and participation, and the reaffirmation of the sense of belonging to a shared place and way of life (Daher, 1999).

The conflict among local residents, the city authorities, and other players in urban conservation reflects the negative impacts of the top-down approach used in the Master Plan.

Recreating the pleasant scenery without considering the importance of local inhabitants will never succeed in surviving the site (Siririsak, 2009). The city authorities should not be passive participants in the conservation process. They should call for genuine community development and discourage all types of displacement or relocation. They should bear in mind that a country's most important resource is its people, and that without them, culture and cultural production will lose its special

meaning. It argues that driving out low-income communities will not contribute to their preservation. It will also bring about a decline and discontinuity of the historic quarter from being passed on. Instead, allowing the community to stay at the present site will help preserve vernacular heritage and support their ways of life. Modern visitors would prefer to interact with local residents, rather than simply a plain park.

The case of MFC illustrates a small, but vibrant and cohesive group of residents who have tried hard to open up their space for the formulation and consideration of creative alternatives to eviction through their strong actions and innovations. The community members show their strategies in counteracting eviction threats in an innovative manner, which is essential as part of developing sustainable strategies for the conservation and management of the site (ICOMOS, 2005). It also illustrates a unique opportunity for partnerships among key stakeholders including NGOs, other communities, educational institutes in promoting models for development which incorporate cultural assets and economic precincts as part of urban historic conservation. Creating a living museum, in coalition with a community-based tourism area, has been proposed as a meaningful vehicle for engagement in promoting their vernacular heritage and ways of life. Meanwhile, community-based tourism can influence policy in conservation of community heritage by creating general public awareness. The increase of visits of the MFC can help the community in negotiating with city authorities.

Despite the daily struggle to maintain their existence, the residents have also lived a normal, largely hidden life behind the wall they have settled. It is hoped that there will be no more inevitable threats that may harm this small strong community. The lesson from this case would give some insights for other historic communities particularly in developing countries that tend to have a similar approach in preventing the eviction in the light of adverse threats and pressures of gentrification.

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Best Practice of Thai Local Autonomy Government: Benchmarking between Thailand and Japan

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0446

Abstract

The purpose of this dissertation is to study, prepare and improve the competency of Thai local Autonomy. It's the alternative way to cure chronicle problems of Thailand, such as politics, social, corruption, economy and so on. However, the decentralization to Thai local government supposes to be analyzed, studied and adapted for Thai culture in the proper ways.

Thus the objectives of this dissertation is to

1. Study about Best Fit for Thai Local government to reach high penitential local autonomy.
2. Study about SHRM to educate and support Thai People for understanding how local autonomy is necessary for their quality of living.
3. Create Best Fit model for Local Autonomy Government's working system.
4. Create tools and measurements of Thai local autonomy.

The studying methods of the dissertation is divided to three parts

1. Top executives deep interview in Thailand and the professor Local Autonomy College in Japan
2. The questionnaires for asking the people who use local Government's services
3. Observing the working behavior of local Government in Bangkok for case study and studying secondary information and document.

The dissertation goals are to guideline and create the proper models of Best Fit and Best Practice of Thai local government for making Thai democracy to be stronger and solve the crisis of politic, economic and social situations that happen in Thailand now.

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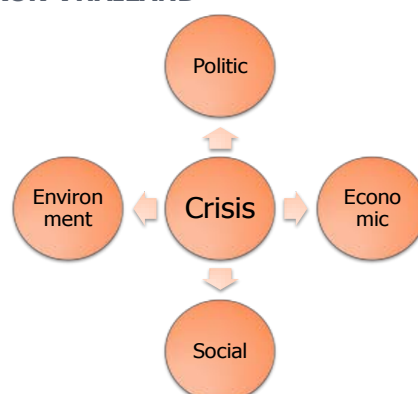
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Introduction

This dissertation was inspired from the seminar in the topic of “How to improve Bangkok to be the leader of capital city for AEC and globalization” (Udom Thomkosit, 2554). This seminar gave the interesting information about the problems and opportunities that Bangkok supposed to be improved to go to the higher level of the capital city. This article suggested the direction for the readers who interested in continue studying and research to improve the knowledge of this topic for helping Bangkok to be the international capital city. Bangkok metropolitan is cover the area of 1568 km*km and has total of population about 5,702,595 and not include the peoples who do not register in census’s system. This information can confirm that Bangkok can be the international city and the hub of social, politics and economy of AEC and international

However, today Bangkok is facing many problems and has low potential to resolve these problems. Moreover, the problem were accumulated until growing up to be chronicle problems, so this is the right time that Bangkok have to renovate to reach the highest competency to compete with other international cities.

CRISIS, PROBLEMS AND EXPECTATION IN BANGKOK THAILAND



For the strategy of Human Resource Management’s concept, such as SHRM, Best Practice, Best Fit, and other tools, can be used and adapted to identify Best Fit or specific model of management to align vision and mission of local autonomy with public policy. Bangkok is a good case study of the city that needs a specific model for management. This dissertation will collect and analyze the information of all Bangkok’s dimension and design the model of the management in Local Autonomy that match with environment, culture and value of Thailand. Moreover, It will integrate the knowledge of SHRM with local government and public administration and suggest the best fit for Bangkok to improve to be the hub of international city for AEC.

For the concept of local autonomy, the strength of local autonomy can increase capability of problem’s fixing, competition and performance of local government, so both of qualitative and quantitative methodology will be used to support the validity and reliability of the information. The knowledge of SHRM , competency and learning organization will be integrated to improve and increase the level of Bangkok

and local autonomy in Thailand to be international and hub cities like Tokyo, New York, Seoul and so on. All information of the dissertation will be collected from deep interview of in all level of executive and questionnaires in target groups. The information will be used to design and suggest the best fit and best practice for Local Government in Thailand, such as Bangkok.

MAP ROAD OF THE DISSERTATION



If Bangkok or other cities in Thailand have the goal to be the international capital cities, they have to have three types of competencies.

1. As a special local governance function, Bangkok has to have the participation from most of citizen for all steps of administration and management. The most important goal of Bangkok is to support and take care of local people for having high quality of lives for basic needs and to have good governance in local autonomy management. Bangkok has a unique character that different from other basic local governance units and it's not necessary to follow the law of central government. Therefore, Bangkok supposes to focus on the distinctive responsibilities of special local autonomy roles.
2. As the capital city function, Bangkok has to have at least two functions, first, being the hub of public administration such as preparing the place for central government office building and parliament, preparing the place for Bangkok people for reaching local service and participating with any activities. Second, the capital city is the symbol of the country, so Bangkok has to maintain cultures, arts, and any reputation of Thailand.
3. As an international city, if Bangkok want to be a hub of international city, Infrastructure is very important. Bangkok has to have any comfortable services, and activities which were accept by international countries, such as, the hub of communication, transportation, cultures, economic, social and sport. Because of high competency of these, Bangkok will have enough potential to reach to be the international hub city in the world

EXPECTATION OF BANGKOK THAILAND

○ Expectation



Bangkok CEO and local people have to concern all of these factors and have to improve vision to develop these specific characters together with, first, the city of happiness and high quality of living, second, the elegant city of Thailand, and third, the hub city of civilization both country and international level.

The purpose of this dissertation is to study, prepare and improve the competency of Thai local Autonomy. It's the alternative way to cure chronicle problems of Thailand, such as politics, social, corruption, economy and so on. However, the decentralization to Thai local government supposes to be analyzed, studied and adapted for Thai culture in the proper ways.

The objectives of this dissertation is to

- Study about Best Fit for Thai Local government to reach high penitential local autonomy.
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THE OBJECTIVE OF THE DISSERTATION



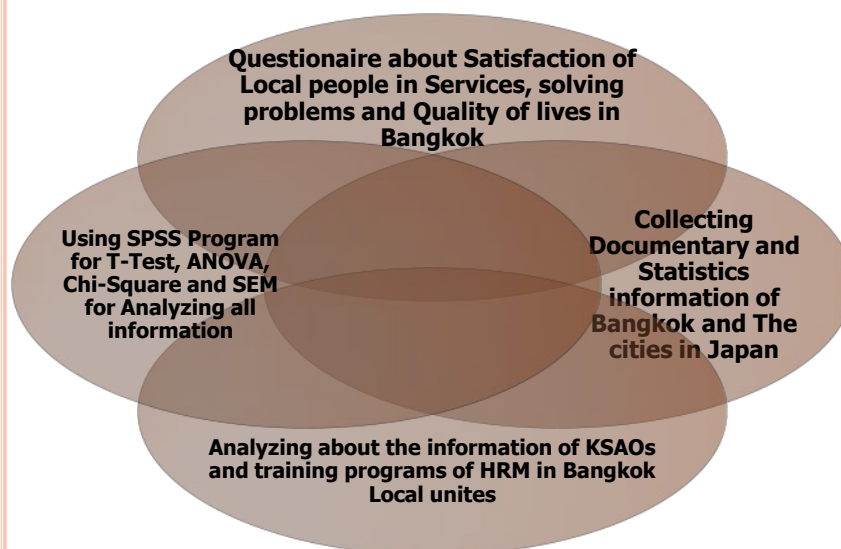
The studying methods of the dissertation is divided to three parts

- Top executives deep interview in Thailand and the professor Local Autonomy College in Japan
- The questionnaires for asking the people who use local Government's services
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QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

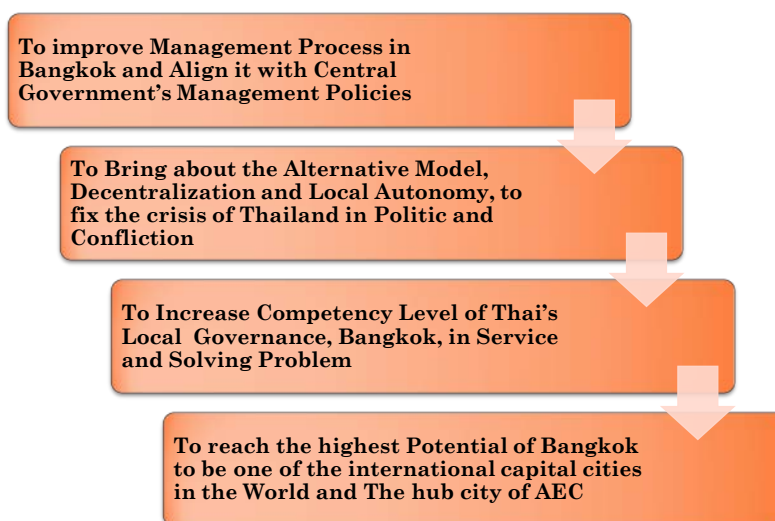


QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY



The dissertation goals are to guideline and create the proper models of Best Fit and Best Practice of Thai local government for making Thai democracy to be stronger and solve the crisis of politic, economic and social situations that happen in Thailand now.

THE PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE AND BEST PRACTICE EXPECTED FROM THE DISSERTATION



The concept of and nature capital city

The most important thing to develop to be the capital city to the right direction is to understand the nature of each capital city's context and find the fit strategy for improving. Usually, International capital city has many unique natures, first, it is the center of all activities in each country, such as central of government, central of business and economy, central of hiring, information and benefit. It is not only the

center of opportunity, but also the center of problems of whole country. Second, it is the door of country to open to international relationship, so it has the status of the hub to connect to other international cities. Third, for the capital city's status, the more benefit and opportunities, the more complexity of problems and confictions and competitions. Forth, the capital city is the center of many kinds of problems such as population, traffic, prostitute, crime, illegal protest and corruption.



Because of these reason, the concept of capital city management has to focus on the present and emergency problems. Preparing to increase competency for all dimensions to increase potential of services and solving problems is very important. On the other hand, if the capital city has low quality of competency for solving the problems it will be ruined and declined by overwhelming problems.

The concept of solving problem and developing for capital city

First, All service and solving problems have to focus on people for increasing quality of lives, not serving on politics or government's officer or other opposite policy.

Second, the key succeed of public administration and democracy is the quality of lives and the people's participation.

Third, Local people have to be a part of policy making. Efficiency is the principle and objective of public administration. It counts on the economy of scale in the unit of management. Therefore, the management of capital cities has to fit on scale or size. If the scale is big and not fit, they will have the problem in flexibility for working and the participation of people. Usually, the smaller, the more flexible and the more participation.

Fourth, the principle of local autonomy bases on the principle of solidarity and subsidiary of local governance unit, because each unit has to work together and align with all activities. If it does not align, the management and the service will not efficiency, so the organization structures and designs have to support all local units' integration both horizon and vertical level.

Indicator of the fit size of organization is the flexibility, because it depends on situation and environment of each organization. For example, In France, the indicator of the fit size counts on the unique character of each unit and the efficiency of public

services. In Japan, most of communities are the cities' communities and Japan has a strong culture of efficiency's principle, so the local units of Japan are merged for having bigger size of economy scale.

LOCAL AUTONOMY: THE ALTERNATIVE OPTION FOR SOLVING THE IMPORTANT CRISIS IN THAILAND



Financial System of Local Government in Bangkok

Financial is the key of succession of management and solving problems. High potential of fiscal system bring about not only having enough incomes, but also participating of people and efficiency of using money from tax.

However, the fiscal system of Bangkok is still weak and depends on central government's budget. The point illustrates the low ability to improve local autonomy in all aspects of management. Moreover, the incomes of Bangkok is very low when compare with other capital cities, so it impact Bangkok on lacking potential for handling services and problems. The problems will increase everyday if Bangkok still has low level of local autonomy and depend on central government.

The best way to fix this problem is fiscal decentralization and high autonomy levels enough to handle problems by themselves.

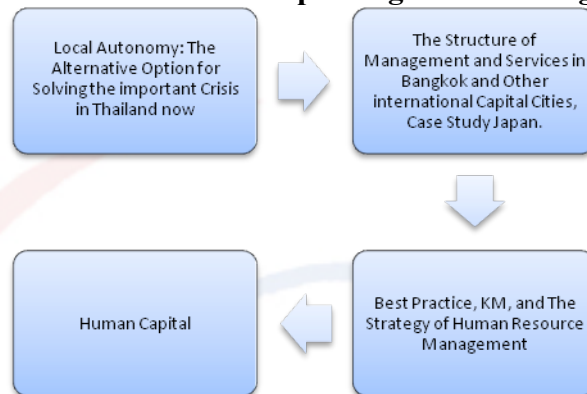
The status of law

All capital cities have special law, so they have strong status approved by metropolitan law. If local government has the law that aligns to basic need of them, it will fit to manage itself to what local want. This is the important reason that Bangkok should have opportunities to be a part of making its local law.

The management system

Bangkok should decrease bureaucracy system, improve local government system and down size organization. All systems in organization should be professional like business system. Moreover, the objectives of Bangkok management have to focus on the benefit of local people, the participation of local people and vision for future’s improvement.

Literature review and theories for improving the knowledge of this dissertation

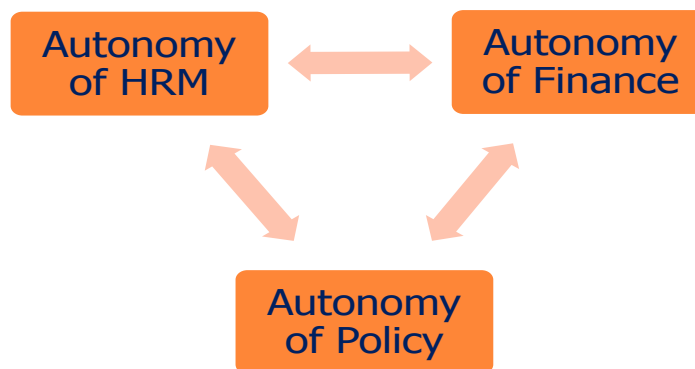


The Local Autonomy

Local Autonomy is the independent that local units can manage themselves without interfering from central government. There are three areas that it covers.

1. Human Resource Management Autonomy
2. Fiscal Autonomy
3. Policy and Law Autonomy

LOCAL AUTONOMY: THE ALTERNATIVE OPTION FOR SOLVING THE IMPORTANT CRISIS IN THAILAND



Conclusion

This dissertation bases on three steps.

1. Literature Review to get idea to bring about the best model for Local government

1.1 Local Government Principles

1.2 SHRM, Best Practice, Best Fit and Knowledge Management

1.3 Human Resource Management for Local Government

Studying Best Practice of Local Government in Japan and Thailand

Benchmarking Local Government Thailand with Japan

Analyzing all information for making Knowledge Management (KM)

Suggest the Best Fit Model for Thai Local Government

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***Hydrogenation of Palmitic Acid as Palm Oil Model Compound over Sulfided
NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ Catalysts***

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Abstract

Bio-hydrogenated diesel (BHD) has always been an interesting alternative for renewable fuel. The hydrogenation of oils seems to be a very promising method in term of production of future fuels. The major advantage of this process is the formation of hydrocarbon products at the conventional fuel range with less sulfur containing. The aim of this present study is to investigate hydrogenation of Palmitic acid as the palm oil model compound is studied over sulfided NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂. The three catalysts are compared specifically based on different Ni loaded with Ni/(Ni+Mo) weight ratios of 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4 accordingly. Then, sol-gel and NiMo complex co-impregnation procedure were prepared and being processed. The catalyst reactivity was investigated via the hydrogenation reaction of Palmitic acid in a stirred batch autoclave at a temperature of 240-320 °C for 1 hour with the support of 10 bars of H₂. The liquid parts of the products were then analyzed by Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry and Gas Chromatography-Flame ionization detector. The change in the hydrogenation activity of catalyst and the effect of temperature (240-320 °C) on the yield and composition of product were also carefully investigated. The conversion of all catalysts in Palmitic acid to C 15 and C 16 hydrocarbons clearly showed that the hydrogenations had undergone both hydrodeoxygenation and decarboxylation procedures. The product selectivity of hydrodeoxygenation (C16) increased with the increases of Ni/(Ni+Mo), with the weight ratios from 0.2 to 0.3. But, the 0.4NiMo catalyst was the likely desirable choice with a higher selectivity of decarboxylation (C15).

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1. Introduction

The potential sources of fuel for transportation are natural gas and petroleum which are non-renewable fossil fuels with limited sources, unpredictable prices and increasing the emission of CO_x, NO_x and SO_x gases, which cause global warming and environmental problems [1,2]. These concerns lead to considerable efforts have been made to develop clean and renewable fuels technologies in order to secure the world energy reserves and gain environment benefits.

Bio-hydrogenated diesel (BHD) has been interesting for alternative renewable fuel. The hydrogenation of vegetable oils or fat is a promising route to the production of future fuels and the major advantage of this process is the formation of hydrocarbon products at the conventional fuel range with less sulfur and nitrogen containing.

This work attempted to investigate on the hydrogenation of Palmitic acid over sulfided NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ in a stirred batch autoclave at 240-320 °C for 1 h with 10 bars of H₂. The effects of Ni loaded on product selectivity of decarboxylation were investigated.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Catalyst preparation

The mixed oxide Al₂O₃-TiO₂ support were synthesized by sol-gel method using Al(*s*-BuO)₃ and Ti(OBu)₄ as starting materials. The NiMo based catalysts were prepared by impregnation method. The solution of NiMo complex (Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and MoO₃ in water) was impregnated on Al₂O₃-TiO₂ support and impregnated support was dried under reduced pressure at 110 °C. Finally, the greenish powders were calcined at 550 °C for 2 h.

2.2 Catalyst characterization

- BET measurement

The prepared catalyst 0.2 g was purged under N₂ at 350 °C for 4 h. BET measurement was performed in N₂/He at -196 °C. Total surface area, pore size diameter and pore volume were obtained.

- H₂-TPR

The prepared catalyst 0.2 g was packed in a reactor then pretreated under Ar at 200 °C for 30 min. The catalyst was cooled down to room temperature. The reducing gas 5%H₂/Ar was allowed to the reactor. Temperature programmed reduction was carried out from 40 °C to 900 °C and the hydrogen consumption was monitored by thermal conductivity detector as displayed as H₂-TPR profile.

2.3 Catalytic reactivity test and products analysis

Hydrogenation of palmitic acid over sulfided NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ was performed in a high-pressure batch reactor (Parr autoclave reactor). The liquid mixture (palmitic acid, dodecane and dodecylcyclohexane) 20 g was filled in a batch reactor. Prior to the activity test, the prepared catalyst 0.4 g was sulfided at 400 °C under 10%H₂S/H₂

atmosphere at a flow rate of 25 ml/min for 4 h. Then, the sulfided catalyst was loaded into the reactor under N₂ atmosphere and catalytic activities was undergone at 240-320 °C under 10 bar of H₂ for 1 h. The liquid products were analyzed by GC-MS and GC-FID technique.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Catalyst characterization

- BET measurement

Total surface area, pore volume and pore size diameter of prepared catalyst are summarized in Table 1. Total surface area of catalysts decreases with the increasing of Ni loading, resulting from the blocking effect of Ni metal on porosity of support. The pore structures corresponding to Figure 1 are in the range of mesoporous materials [3,4,5].

Table 1: Physical properties of support and NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts

Catalyst	$a_{s,BET}$ m ² g ⁻¹	total pore volume cm ³ g ⁻¹	mean pore diameter nm
support	308.43	0.553	7.178
0.2 NiMo	236.39	0.514	8.697
0.3 NiMo	176.47	0.337	7.642
0.4 NiMo	159.49	0.360	9.044

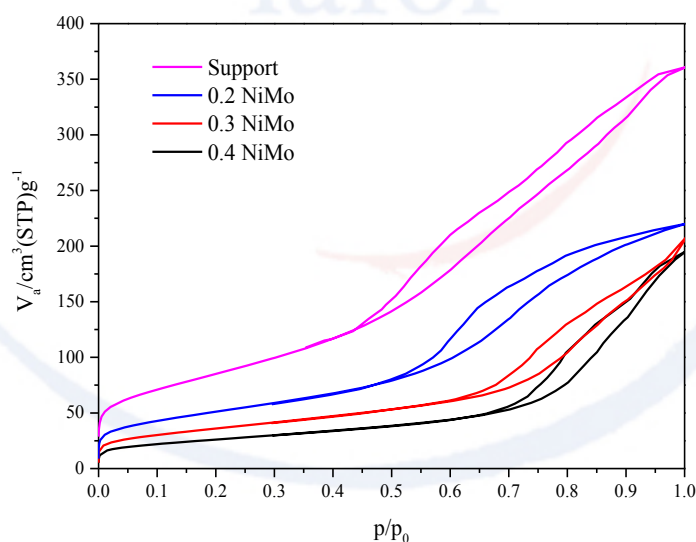


Figure 1. N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of support and NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts.

- H₂-TPR

H₂-TPR profiles of all catalysts were investigated and illustrate in Figure 2. A series of catalysts shows three reduction temperature regions. The first reduction peak appeared at low temperature (385–430 °C), was assigned to the reduction of Mo⁶⁺ to Mo⁴⁺ [6] of the well dispersed octahedral Mo species and also around 440-480 °C was assigned to the reduction of Ni²⁺ to Ni metal. The second peak around 550-563 °C could be attributed to the formation of NiMoO₄ phase [6,7]. The last reduction peak

at higher temperature (730-843 °C) is generally associated with a further progress in the reduction of Mo species of the first peak, together with the partial reduction of strongly Al₂O₃ interacting with coordinated tetrahedral Mo species (Mo³⁺ to Mo²⁺)[6].

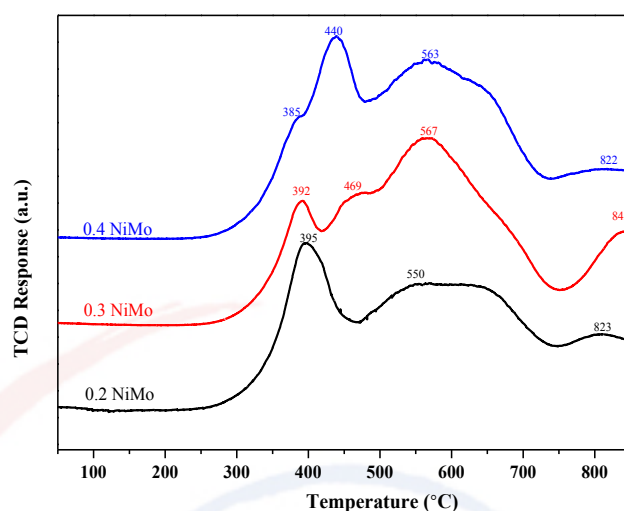


Figure 2. H₂-TPR profile of NiMo over Al₂O₃-TiO₂ supported catalyst.

3.2 Catalytic reaction test and product analysis.

The hydrogenation of Palmitic acid in mixed of dodecane and *n*-hexadecane over 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4 weight ratios of Ni:Mo catalysts are reported in term of activity, were shown in Figure 3. The results show that all catalysts achieved 100% conversion of Palmitic acid to C15 and C16 hydrocarbons at 300°C.

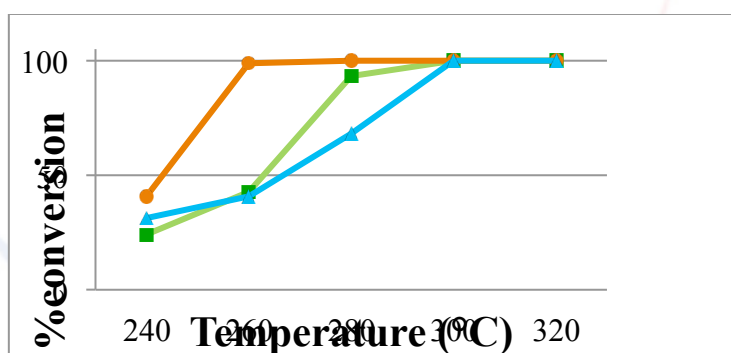


Figure 3. % Conversion of NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ catalyst.

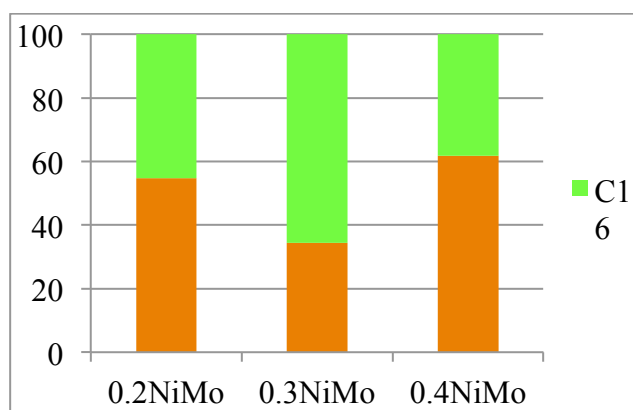


Figure 4. Selectivity of NiMo over Al₂O₃-TiO₂ supported catalyst.

From Figure 4 showed that to the selectivity of NiMo over Al₂O₃-TiO₂ supported catalyst. The result were showed that the formation of hydrocarbons with one carbon less than the corresponding Palmitic acid to *n*-pentadecane was the main product in the decarboxylation (C15) pathway, while *n*-hexadecane was formed in the hydrodeoxygenation (C16) of Palmitic acid. The reaction pathways for hydrogenation are presented in Figure 5. Related, in our research showed that the hydrogenation had undergone both hydrodeoxygenation and decarboxylation pathways. The product selectivity of hydrodeoxygenation (C16) increased with the increases of Ni/(Ni+Mo) weight ratios from 0.2 to 0.3. But the 0.4NiMo catalyst was the desirable choice with a higher selectivity of decarboxylation (C15).

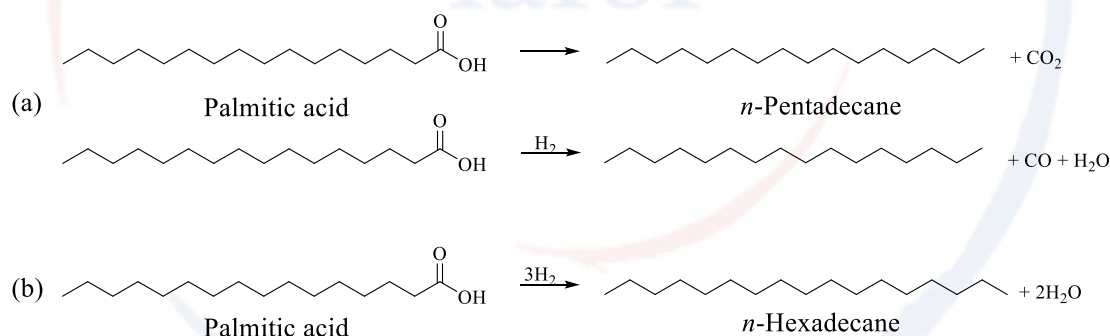


Figure 5. Reaction of Palmitic acid on sulfided NiMo/Al₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts (a) decarboxylation (C15) and (b) Hydrodeoxygenation (C16)

4. Conclusions

The hydrogenation reactions over catalysts with different Ni loading by Ni/(Ni+Mo) weight ratios of 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4 respectively, were performed in a batch reactor at 240-320 °C under 10 bar of H₂. The conversion of Palmitic acid to C15 and C16 hydrocarbons in all catalysts was completed at 300 °C and clearly showed that the hydrogenation had undergone both hydrodeoxygenation and decarboxylation pathways. The product selectivity of hydrodeoxygenation (C16) increased with the increases of Ni/(Ni+Mo) weight ratios from 0.2 to 0.3. But the 0.4NiMo catalyst was the desirable choice with a higher selectivity of decarboxylation (C15).

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge Research and Development Chemical Engineering Unit Operation (RCC). Department of Industrial Chemistry, Faculty of Applied Science, Graduate College, King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok for their supports in information and operations.



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***Gender Differences in Learning Behavior for Students
with Special Needs***

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Abstract

The primary purposes of this study were to investigate the different performance on gender for students with special need in Taiwan. The research data was from 2010 special needs education longitudinal study (SNELS) in Taiwan. There were 1870 participants from SNELS 2010, totally 12 categories on disability, included mental disability, visual disability, hearing disability, speech and language impairment, physical disability, health Impairments, emotional or behavioral disorders, learning disability, multiple disabilities, autistic spectrum disorder, developmental delay and other significant handicaps.

The study analyzed the data by t-test, results suggest that the performances could be concluded in two parts, one is the performance of academic progress for students in this year, the other is the performance on behavior and learning situation in class, and described as below. 1. There are 8 items in the questionnaire on performance of academic progress for students in this year; zero item got the significant result. 2. There are 10 items in the questionnaire on performance on behavior and learning situation in class, 5 items got the significant results. Girls were significantly greater than boys in 5 items, included in pay attention and concentration in class, following teacher's directions, seating on the seat with quiet behavior, continuing to do one thing, collaborative working with other students.

This study support strategies on the class management, via interactive participant, redesign teaching materials, job analysis step by step, visual interface application, operating activity, verbal share and publication opportunity. This study provide learning strategies to enhance opportunities for boys /girls with different disabilities.

Keywords: special needs, gender, performance, disabilities, longitudinal study

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1. Introduction

Many differences between the behaviors of boys and girls. Generally, people consider that the development of girls are early in verbal skills, and of boys are in visual-spatial. And boys are more aggressive, girls more nurturing.

In view of so many differences between boys and girls, as they grew up, there were many different experiences and opportunities may lead to divergent outcomes or highlight existing differences. For the reason that, as students learned, teachers should thought girls and boys with different treatments or teaching methods.

In order to know what different between boys and girls with special need, we investigate the different performance on gender for students with special need in Taiwan.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

There were 1870 participants from SNELS 2010, totally 12 categories on disability, included mental disability($n=421, 22.55\%$), visual disability($n=30, 1.6\%$), hearing disability($n=130, 7.0\%$), speech and language impairment($n=127, 6.8\%$), physical disability($n=146, 7.8\%$), health Impairments($n=119, 6.4\%$), emotional or behavioral disorders($n=33, 1.8\%$), learning disability($n=4, 0.2\%$), multiple disabilities($n=284, 15.2\%$), autistic spectrum disorder($n=289, 15.5\%$), developmental delay($n=184, 9.8\%$) and other significant handicaps($n=103, 5.5\%$).

2.2 Questionnaire

The research data was from 2010 special needs education longitudinal study(SNELS) in Taiwan. All questionnaires design as answer options according to the 4-point scale, the question using a 4 point Likert scale with 1 being “never” and 4 being “often”; 3 “sometimes” and 4 “often” were considered as positive responses, 2 “seldom” and 1 “never” were considered as negative responses. (Wind et al., 2013).

2.2.1 Academic progress items

The part of the performance of academic progress for students in this year could be divided in 8 items, just as below,
 $5 > .05$; Communication skills, $p = .963 > .05$; Interpersonal skills, $p = .786 > .05$; Emotional management capabilities $p = .738 > .05$; the abilities on gross motor skills, $p = .490 > .05$; the abilities on fine motor skill $p = .093 > .05$. so this part of study could not explain the different between boys and girls.

2.2.2 Behavior and learning situation items

The part of the performance on behavior and learning situation in class could be divided in 10 items, just as below,

- (1) In pay attention and concentration in class.
- (2) Following teacher's directions. (1) in the achievement in Chinese subject

- (2) In the achievement in math subject
- (3) Self-care ability
- (4) Communication skills
- (5) Interpersonal skills
- (6) Emotional management capabilities
- (7) the abilities on gross motor skills
- (8) the abilities on fine motor skills

Results suggest that the performances could be concluded in two parts, one is the performance of academic progress for students in this year, the other is the performance on behavior and learning situation in class, and described as below.

- (1) seating on the seat with quiet behavior.
- (2) participate in class discussion
- (3) ask question voluntarily
- (4) answer question
- (5) finish homework on time
- (6) work alone devotedly
- (7) continuing to do one thing until finish.
- (8) collaborative working with other students.

3. Results

3.1 The performance of academic progress for students in this year

In all 8 questions, in the achievement in Chinese subject, $p=.281>.05$; in the achievement in math subject, $p=.852>.05$; Self-care ability, $p=.79$.

3.2. The performance on behavior and learning situation in class

3.2.1. In paying attention and concentration in class, girls (mean=1.93) are significantly better than boys (mean=1.75), $p=.000<.05$, the meaning that girls do better than boys in paying attention and concentration in class.

3.2.2. Following teacher's directions, girls (mean=2.42) are significantly better than boys (mean=2.26), $p=.000<.05$, the meaning that girls do better than boys in following teacher's directions in class.

3.2.3. Quiet behavior, girls (mean=2.57) are significantly better than boys (mean=2.39), $p=.000<.05$, the meaning that girls do better than boys in seating on the seat with quiet behavior.

3.2.4. Attention to one activity, girls (mean=1.84) are significantly better than boys (mean=1.74), $p=.027<.05$, the meaning that girls do better than boys in continuing to do one thing.

3.2.5. Collaborative working with other students, girls (mean=1.81) are significantly better than boys (mean=1.68), $p=.006<.05$, the meaning that girls do better than boys in collaborative working with other students.

4. Conclusion

This study could conclude 5 parts from the results as below.,

1. In paying attention and concentration in class, girls performance are better than girls, when learning, girls are more absorbed than boys, so this study suggesting combining teaching materials and activities, let all the participants could operate procedure to enhance the learning motivation and attention for children with different disabilities.
2. Girls do better than boys in following teacher's directions in class, therefore recommended that teachers should use the manner of visual or critical statement, stressed the directions students should follow, so that each child could explicitly knowing the directions and Implementation it.
3. Girls could sat on seat more quietly than boys when learning, this study suggest that offer dynamic operating activity, verbal share and publication opportunity, to active and rich the course during static state class. And offer children both physical and sedentary activities learning process.
4. In continuing to do one thing, girls performance are significant better than boys, this study suggests that when the teachers design the teaching materials, must focus on visual design and job analysis step by step in the instruction. From the visual and clear instruction, children could understand the content, and children could adjust his/her learning speed from the learning schedule. From the records, they could understand their learning content and speed, so let all course process could be step by step and high achievement.
5. Girls do better than boys in collaborative working with other students. When teaching in progress in-group activities with other students, teachers should pay attention in male students, giving assistance timely, so that every child are able to participate in group activities.

Factors affecting Happiness in a Workplace

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Abstract

This study had its two main objectives of exploring factors affecting happiness in a workplace and factors affecting unhappiness in a workplace in the Thai context. Survey questionnaire was used to collect data from numbers of employees from various corporations in Thailand who participated in Happy Workplace Forum 2012. List of factors affecting happiness and unhappiness in a workplace was revealed. In addition, a model of happiness in a workplace was presented.

A large, faint watermark of the iafor logo is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue font, surrounded by two concentric, semi-transparent circular arcs, one in red and one in blue.

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Introduction

Thai Health Promotion Foundation (ThaiHealth) with its slogan “The sustainability of well-being for Thai people,” has long involved in researching and funding numbers of research projects on the topic of “Happy Workplace.” ThaiHealth realizes the importance of happiness in a workplace as it can bring about benefits to both workplace and its employees, and eventually to the Thai society as a whole.

Dr. Charnwit Wasantanarat, Director of Healthy Workplace Office, said that “Happy Workplace” has been created to fill the gap between employers and employees, with the aim to make people in the workplace happy. It is believed that “people” are the most important assets of organizations. If people are happy working, they work effectively and their organizations will grow sustainably (ThaiHealth's Support for “Happy Workplace” Prototype, 2011).

The “Happy 8” conceptual framework has been created from ThaiHealth’s research project to promote work life balance for employees, consisting of 8 pillars. Through the holistic approach consisting of 3 areas (people, family and society) and these 8 pillars, happy workplace program aims to improve mental and physical health of employees (Happy 8, 2014).

People: 1) Happy Body-Enjoy good health in one’s body and in one’s mind; 2) Happy Relax-Able to relieve stress from work and in daily life; 3) Happy Heart (Relationship)-Show kindness and sympathy for oneself and for others, and be generous, 4) Happy Soul (Spirituality)-Possess a good sense of moral, 5) Happy Brain-Improve one’s knowledge through learning, 6) Happy Money-Manage personal finances well.

Family: 7) Happy Family: Create understanding and a stable environment in one’s family.

Society: 8) Happy Society: Support one’s community at work and at home. Promote social harmony.

The above statements go together with the happiness trend at the international level where money is not the pathway to happiness. Ed Diener, also known as “Dr. Happiness”, a leading researcher in positive psychology argued for a strong genetic component to happiness, and has amassed some compelling data showing that external conditions do little to change one’s happiness. His recent research has focused on the relationship between income and happiness, about which he writes: “...over the past 50 years, income has climbed steadily in the United States, with the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita tripling, and yet life satisfaction has been virtually flat...While happiness isn’t highly correlated with income, it *is* highly correlated with social relationships.” Indeed, in a recent cross-national study on teenagers, Diener found that “the most salient characteristics shared by the 10% of students with the highest levels of happiness and the fewest signs of depression were their strong ties to friends and family and commitment to spending time with them.” (Diener, 2014)

Moreover in his latest book, *Happiness: Unlocking the Mysteries of Psychological Wealth*, Diener sums up the results from his twenty-five years of research on happiness. He underlines four central ingredients for a happy life:

1. Psychological wealth is more than money. It is also your attitudes, goals and engaging activities at work.
2. Happiness not only feels good, but is beneficial to relationships, work and health.
3. It is helpful to set realistic expectations about happiness. No one is intensely happy all of the time.
4. Thinking is an important aspect to happiness. His theory of Attention, Interpretation, and Memory (AIM) helps people to increase their psychological wealth.

This research is yet another attempt to explore factors affecting happiness in a workplace of Thai employees and funded by ThaiHealth.

Happy Workplace Model

Over the past 7 years, the concept of Happy Workplace has been widely discussed on Thai and international academic arena. A team of researchers navigated the matter and attempted to create a model by carrying on a study of 103 happy workplaces in Thailand. The results are presented as a Happy HOME Model, consisting of 3 sub models-HO (Happy Organization), HM (Happy Management) and HE (Happy Employee) (Kaewpijit, Utsahajit and Kusumavalee, 2011).

The first model is developed by Sombat Kusumavalee (Kaewpijit, Utsahajit and Kusumavalee, 2011). It is called Happy Organization Model where he found 3 types of organizational structures suitable for 3 types of organizational characteristics, namely simplified organization, creative organization and sustainable organization.

The second model, Happy Management Model, is developed by Juthamas Kaewpijit (Kaewpijit, Utsahajit and Kusumavalee, 2011). It formulates the model of '3 ToBes', a concept that analyzes happiness through the eyes of human resources experts who are in charge of happiness management. The model revolves around three aspects (1) the nature of happy workers, how to live and work in order to 'Be' happy workers (2) the creation of 'Being' good things for work by focusing on giving respect, opportunity, communication, continuous development and learning, and (3) the result of 'Being' good workplaces which promotes the happiness of workers. This leads to beloved and respected boss, organization's performances that can mirror happiness and the families of staffs are valued.

Formulated by Wichai Utsahajit (Kaewpijit, Utsahajit and Kusumavalee, 2011), the third model is called Happy Employee Model and discusses the 7 factors to happiness at individual level.

First factor: Thought, belief, attitude, wisdom and practice

A basic factor of perception of employees' happiness involves personal mindset. Some people perceive happiness from their way of thinking. Some can feel it regardless of bad situation. On the contrary, some cannot do so as they fail to be upbeat in spite of a position situation. Moreover, intelligence, which can be developed through learning, thinking and self-practice to become someone who has an insight into happiness in life, is an important factor in establishing an individual ability to perceive happiness if they understand life. One would go through different situations that cause desirable and undesirable circumstances, affecting perception of happiness. Therefore, if one understands the rule of nature, one can perceive happiness upon reality while, in any situation, seeing and understanding the nature of life.

Second factor: Job characteristics

This factor can be divided into 2 components. The first element deals with job characteristics itself. They can motivate employees, especially when staff members have an opportunity to choose their favorite job, or when they and others consider that the job is worthy and significant, or when they can progress in their career and witness their skill development. Ultimately, it can lead to job satisfaction which affects the employee's perception of happiness.

The next part is working process and other supportive factors. It can be described that an interesting, challenging job procedure, which entails a proper difficulty level, a clear goal and achievement, can motivate employees. Workers can be motivated when receiving useful opinion or advice, proposing creative ideas in order to improve work process. Alternatively, motivation can emanate either from remuneration that matches their performance and has a reasonable rate, or from workplace with suitable supportive factors. All of these are crucial for employees' perception of happiness.

Third factor: Supervisor, colleagues, customers and other related parties

A person-related factor is another significant issue affecting perception of happiness. A supervisor is a factor which considerably influences employees' perception of happiness at an organization. This is because a supervisor is a person with whom every subordinate must regularly interact and has power to advantage and disadvantage his/her staffs. Meanwhile, colleagues coordinate and work together to complete a job by due date and customers are a group of people who are necessary for success and existence of the organization. Other related parties are also involved in order to achieve the assigned job. Therefore, fundamental of individual and work behavior controls employees' perception of happiness.

Fourth factor: Organizational culture and work atmosphere

An organizational culture can be referred to as a frame of behaviors displayed at the workplace. It serves as a mutual standard which the majority of people follow, helping everyone to perform their roles in line with the organization's expectation. When an organizational culture is positive and promotes achievement-oriented work behaviors, while developing creativity, knowledge and skill, and fostering teamwork, helpfulness and family-liked warmth at work, it can be said that most of employees

can enjoy work happiness. Moreover, work environment is a necessary happiness factor for a worker as a good work condition should provide convenience and safety at work.

Fifth factor: Life style

This factor relates to the activities of one's life style such as consumption behavior and health care, both mentally and physically. As staff's lives do not cope only with work, a personal life is important as well. Thus, a life style does involve in employees' perception of happiness.

If laborers' life style is plagued with stress-prone activities such as excessive expenditure for consumption, gambling, lottery or drinking---behaviors that mentally and physically spoil one's health, workers will suffer, inevitably affecting work behavior and perception of happiness. On the contrary, with proper way of life such as spending on consumption as necessary, being economical and wisely taking care of his mental and physical health, one will feel relaxed and have no stress from debt or depending on others, and can live freely. Misbehavior, therefore, affects perception of happiness in individual's life, concentration and commitment to job success which eventually bring about happiness at work.

Although this factor has no heart in the picture due to variation of individual's behavior and life style, the organization can promote correct understanding of good life style to support mental and physical health so that workforce can be able to complete the assigned job successfully which would enhance perception of happiness from work.

Sixth factor: Family

Family is a key fundamental factor related directly to everyone's life. After work hours, all employees return to their home. If the family is full of love, warmth and care, it will encourage the employee at work. On the opposite, if his family has no good and intimate relationship, he would not be supported for a success.

Seventh factor: Society and situations/surrounding factors

As staffs are members of the society, any change, including situations and other surrounding factors such as economic and political factors, technology and nature, in the society undeniably affects staffs' lives. Happiness perception at work is dependent of feelings in everyday life. Daily experiences or situations with which an employee deals affect happiness. This last factor is the least controllable issue.

Research Objectives

This study had its two main objectives of exploring factors affecting happiness in a workplace and factors affecting unhappiness in a workplace in the Thai context.

Research Methodology

Survey questionnaire was used to collect data from numbers of employees from various corporations in Thailand who participated in Happy Workplace Forum 2012. (Happy Workplace Forum is an annual event where organizations, be private, governmental, or state enterprises, gather together to share knowledge and information on how to create a happy workplace.) The forum attendees were asked to identify 3 factors affecting their happiness at work and 3 factors affecting their unhappiness at work. 535 sets of response were received for happiness factors and 416 sets of response were received for unhappiness factors

Research Findings

Results from a survey of opinions of 535 participants in the Happy Workplace Forum can be shown as follows:

Factors Affecting Happiness in a Workplace

1. Task Itself	37.94%	203
2. Work Team	12.71%	68
3. Co-workers	11.02%	59
4. Supervisors	9.15%	49
5. Work Atmosphere	6.72%	36
6. Compensation and Benefits	5.42%	29
7. Recognition	5.23%	28
8. Subordinates	2.99%	16
9. Organization	2.80%	15
10. Work-Life Balance	1.68%	9
11. Health	1.31%	7
12. Career Path	1.12%	6
13. Training and Development	1.00%	5
14. Activities	1.00%	5
	100%	535

From the figure, the top five factors affecting happiness in a workplace include task itself, work team, co-workers, supervisors and work atmosphere.

Details of Each Happiness Factor

1. Task Itself		
a. Being assigned interesting, preferred or fun tasks	39%	80
b. Being able to accomplish the task as targeted	38%	78
c. Being assigned important and valuable tasks	20%	40
d. Having reasonable workload	3%	5
2. Work Team		
a. Working with achievement oriented team	47%	32
b. Having close and supportive relationships	44%	30

c. Working with open-minded people	9%	6
3. Co-Workers		
a. Having helpful and supportive co-workers	42%	25
b. Having understanding and caring co-workers	34%	20
c. Being accepted and respected by co-workers	24%	14
4. Supervisors		
a. Having understanding and caring supervisors	41%	20
b. Being accepted and respected by supervisors	33%	16
c. Having unbiased and fair supervisors	26%	13
5. Work Atmosphere		
a. Having nice, quiet, clean and green environment	56%	20
b. Having sincere and caring atmosphere	44%	16
6. Compensation and Benefits		
a. Receiving fair, acceptable and on-time remuneration	100%	29
7. Recognition		
a. Being recognized by the organization	100%	28
8. Subordinates		
a. Having achievement-oriented subordinates	56%	9
b. Having helpful and supportive subordinates	44%	7
9. Organization		
a. Working in a growing and stable organization	100%	15
10. Work-Life Balance		
a. Having work-life balance	100%	9
11. Health		
a. Having good health	100%	7
12. Career Path		
a. Being promoted on a clear career ladder	100%	6
13. Training and Development		
a. Being trained and developed continuously	100%	5
14. Activities		
a. Participating regularly in recreational activities	100%	5

The next part displays factors affecting unhappiness in a workplace

Factors affecting unhappiness in a workplace

1. Supervisors	21.69%	90
2. Task Itself	16.10%	67
3. Work Atmosphere	15.38%	64
4. Co-workers	13.22%	55
5. Work Team	11.05%	46
6. Organization	4.80%	20
7. Health	4.32%	18
8. Compensation and Benefits	4.08%	17
9. Subordinates	3.60%	15
10. Recognition	2.88%	12
11. Career Path	1.20%	5

12. Activities	0.96%	4
13. Work-Life Balance	0.72%	3
	100.00%	416

From the figure, the top five factors affecting unhappiness in a workplace include supervisors, task itself, work atmosphere, co-workers and work team.

Details of Each Unhappiness Factor

1. Supervisors		
a. Having biased and unfair supervisors	44%	40
b. Working with supervisors who are not visionary and do not communicate well	16%	14
c. Working with supervisors who are incapable and blame everything on subordinates	14%	13
d. Working with egoistic and authoritative supervisors	9%	8
e. Having inexperience and unintelligent supervisors	9%	8
f. Having unhelpful and unsupportive supervisors	8%	7
2. Task Itself		
a. Having unrealistic timeline and deadline	33%	22
b. Having unreasonable workload	29%	19
c. Being assigned unwanted and inexperience tasks	13%	9
d. Being assigned too complicated tasks or tasks that require intensive cooperation	13%	9
e. Being assigned unpleasant or unethical tasks	6%	4
f. Being assigned unimportant and invaluable tasks	3%	2
g. Being demanded to do the tasks without any sayings	3%	2
3. Work Atmosphere		
a. Having unpleasant, unclean and unsafe environment	36%	23
b. Having too much competitive and political atmosphere	28%	18
c. Having untruthful and insincere atmosphere	23%	15
d. Having too many sub groups with their own sub culture	13%	8
4. Co-Workers		
a. Having uncooperative and unsupportive co-workers	44%	24
b. Having untrustworthy co-workers	29%	16
c. Having egoistic and close-minded co-workers	27%	15
5. Work Team		
a. Having too much destructive conflicts working in teams	61%	28
b. Having weak and benefit-oriented relationships	24%	11
c. Having too many trouble makers and envied team members	15%	7
6. Organization		
a. Working in a low performance organization	35%	7
b. Working in a non-visionary and aimless organization	30%	6
c. Working in a stagnant and irresponsive organization	25%	5
d. Working in a highly regulated and too formal organization	10%	2
7. Health		
a. Having bad health or not enough rest	78%	14
b. Being depressed and sad	17%	3
c. Having an accident at work	5%	1
8. Compensation and Benefits		

a.	Receiving unfair and unreasonable remuneration	70%	12
b.	Being in debts	18%	3
c.	Receiving a salary cut or demotion	12%	2
9.	Subordinates		
a.	Having unproductive and close-minded subordinates	54%	8
b.	Having unsupportive and uncooperative subordinates	33%	5
c.	Not being accepted and respected by subordinates	13%	2
10.	Recognition		
a.	Not being recognized by the organization	100%	12
11.	Career Path		
a.	Having no advancement nor job security	100%	5
12.	Activities		
a.	Having no chance to participate in any recreational activities	100%	4
13.	Work-Life Balance		
a.	Having no work-life balance	100%	3

Comparing between happiness and unhappiness factors, it can be said that the top five factors are similar factors affecting both ways, excepting a bit difference in sequence. Task itself was rated as the number one factor affecting happiness at work, while supervisor was rated as the number one factor affecting happiness at work. Finally, all factors can be grouped in to 4 groups as follows: Work-related Factors-Task Itself, Compensation and Benefits, Recognition and Career Path; Other People-related Factors-Work Team, Supervisors, Subordinates and Co-workers; Self-related Factors-Health and Work-Life Balance; and Organization-related factors-Work Atmosphere, Organization, Training and Development and Activities.

The following model represents the conceptualization of the research findings:



Conclusions

These research findings have confirmed that factors affecting happiness in a workplace involve not only work-related factors, but also other factors including people-related, self-related and organization-related factors. All these factors are crucial and any organization who put its priority on being a happy workplace must pay closest attention to.



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The logo for the International Association of Business Schools (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a larger, light blue arc and a smaller, light red arc, both of which are slightly offset from each other, creating a sense of depth and movement.



***Health Promotion Strategy in Happy Workplace: Case Study of QTC (PCL)
Manufacturing of Transformers in Thailand***

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Abstract

Physical and Emotional Health of employees in organizations have been a critical concern in the past few decades among researchers and HR practitioners. Several factors such as deadlines, negative organizational atmosphere, work conditions, emotional stress, as well of work-family conflicts are sources of both health problems which eventually influence the overall health of organization. As such, health promotion in the workplaces has gain attention among organizations in Thailand in order to improve their employees' productivity.

The objective of this article is to investigate health promotion strategy that can make employees happy and healthy at work. Qualitative approach was adopted as a research methodology for the study. QTC Energy Limited (PCL), a local manufacturing of transformers in Thailand, was purposively selected from a list of happy workplaces in Thailand. Twenty in-depth interviews were conducted among managers, staff-welfare committee, and employees. Additionally, a number of company reports as well as company website were review comprehensively

The results indicated that the Health Promotion project was established to cover various dimensions, such as physical and mental health care not only for individuals but also their families. In addition, financial education, health education and social responsibility were provided at all levels of employees. Welfare committee was officially set up in order to communicate them about health promotion activities. Participants was educated about health care in order to raise health awareness extensively especially in the area of work safety and risk related issues.

Consequently, most employees perceived the Health promotion project as a way to create equality and happiness at work. The two main strategies that can effectively promote health include: 1) Employees come first 2) The equal opportunity is a key for improving and obtaining health care.

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Introduction

Changes caused by the development of technologies, science, globalization, etc. have put an effect on working life of people. Some tends to stay at work longer or have more than 7 hours at work, some considers their work even on holidays. The result from continuously work and the change in way of life have made people care less about their health, therefore they tend to have physical and mental illness.

When a person who works in the company have worse health condition, the effectiveness of their work and the overall effectiveness of the organization will definitely be affected (Miller and Ahmad, 2000). Many organizations in the society have put their effort to manage the complexity of health issues. Health promotion have benefits for company not only to enhance the performance of their employees, but also increase the motivation and the sense of belonging in the organization (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). Therefore many domestic and international organizations have emphasized on health promotion for their employees.

In Thailand, the Happy Workplace was initiated to help people in the organization gain their physical and mental health and work happily. Many organizations have their own health promotion model, but there is no concrete plans and results.

Therefore, this study aims to investigate the organization which has health promotions and those promotions have proven by awards from government and related organization in order to study the concept, procedure, and result in health promotion for employees.

Objective

To study health promotion concept and procedure.

Literature Review

The objective of this article is to investigate health promotion strategy, therefore the researchers conducted both Thai and international literature review in health promotion area including principles, theories, characteristics, strategies, and roles of stakeholders in health promotion in the organization.

Theory and Related Research

The definition of health promotion, according to the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion (1986), is the process of enabling people to increase control over, and to improve, their health. To reach a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, an individual or group must be able to identify and to realize aspirations, to satisfy needs, and to change or cope with the environment. Health is a positive concept emphasizing social and personal resources, as well as physical capacities. Therefore, health promotion is not just the responsibility of the health sector, but goes beyond healthy life-styles to well-being. (WHO, 2009)

Ministry of Labor, Thailand, has defined health promotion as any action, supported by employer, employee union, or government, aim to enhance well-being, physical and

mental health, sanitation, safety, as well as the progress in living not only for employees but also their family. (Ministry of Labour, n.d.) Health promotion is the endeavor to resolve risk factors affect the behavior of employee or social environment such as smoking or alcohol addicted. It emphasized on fundamental factors which cause the diseases, the increase in poverty, and social disadvantages and directly affect health (Hawe p., 1997) This concept is consistent with Whitehead D. (2006) that health promotion in organization is the investment in order to prepare its employees with enthusiasm and inspiration, reduce absenteeism, personal and welfare problems, reduce industrial relation dispute, and increase effectiveness of the organization in every aspects, improve performance, competitiveness, and images. Health promotion can be considered as the source of support environment for productivity and competitiveness.

In this changing environment, it is crucial to understand the needs of employees in order to encourage employees to adapt themselves so that the health promotion will be effective and appropriate for them. Maslow's hierarchical theory of motivation has describe the trend of human needs in 5 steps as followed:

1. Physiological needs: the minimum requirement for surviving such as four requisites to serve physical needs.
2. Safety needs: Security, safety, free from the threat.
3. Social needs: consists of social interaction, love, relationship, and friendship.
4. Esteem needs: self-esteem and respect from others. It demand for success, dignity, and fame.
5. Self-actualization: the ultimate and most valuable human needs that can be achieved when other needs above are essentially fulfilled and the self-fulfillment of full personal potential takes place. (Stephen P. Robbins & Timothy A. Judge, 2010.)

Maslow believed that human behavior can be explained by the tendency of individuals in order to find what they need, desire, and something meaningful to themselves. Therefore if an organization can identify those needs and congregate them into health promotion, it will become a powerful tool to motivate and create positive reinforcement to employees. The effectiveness will increase since the environment in the organization helps building enthusiasm which is the behavior that the organization want. The motivation is categorized into two factors according to Herzberg's two-factor theory as followed:

1. Hygiene factor is the factor that may cause dissatisfaction to employees and does not give positive motivation or the fundamental requirement to prevent dissatisfaction in employees such as the individual relationship, supervision, policy and management, and working condition.
2. Motivation factor is the factor that create positive satisfaction and increase productivity such as job characteristics, career advancement, and responsibility. (Natchuda Hlangpetch, 2008)

Moreover, O'Donnelle (2002) said in his book *Health promotion in workplace* that health promotion is the art and science of helping people change their lifestyle to move toward a state of optimal health, which is a dynamic balance of health in 5 dimensions as followed:

1. Physical Health is the physical condition of employee which can be affected from smoking, physical activities, alcohol, and nutrient.
2. Emotional health is mental condition, stress in everyday life which related to illness and bad habits.
3. Social health is the support from social including family, friends, colleagues, and neighbors. Social health plays an important role in rehabilitation such as reduce stress that affect physical and emotional health.
4. Spiritual health is the determination in living and learning to share. In some case, religion that is the important element in spiritual health.
5. Intellectual health is the accomplishment in living which affects all health mentioned above. It relates to education, healthy habits, unemployment and disease, and social, economic, medical benefits, and self-esteem.

From all theories mentioned above, it can be considered that each dimension of the five dimensions of health is similar to Maslow's theory of needs. Thus, health promotion in the organization is guideline to serve not only employees' needs but also the organization desire for effectiveness and productivity.

Health promotion in tobacco and alcohol to serve fundamental needs according to Marslow and O'Donnelle's theories. Especially in tobacco, which is the main target of health promotion policy in western countries because smoking is a major determinant of death and the origin of many diseases (Hanne H., Kristiina P., Piia J., 2010.)

Qualitative research of Hann et al. (2010) pointed that the reasons behind smoking can be categorized into 2 groups; the first reason is to protect themselves from their own blame and accusation from others. Smokers had realized the risk and persuaded themselves and interviewer that smoking is not harmful. The other reason is from other factors such as boredom from daily work and influence from colleagues. This reason affects to working performance since smokers tend to take a break from one to one-and-a-half hour to smoke (Sherriff N.S. & Coleman L., 2013.) However, in order to promote a successful health campaign the organization has to emphasize on "health" and "family" by positioning itself as a counseling center.

Health promotion or the process to support competency and health development in people can be done by create awareness as the consequence from their decision and create self-responsibility in health. According to Ottawa charter for health promotion, this process consist of 6 strategies as followed:

- Strategy 1: Build Healthy public policy
All policies aim to provide the environment that arouse people (employees) to realize the importance of health, learn and act according to health promotion and create healthy behavior at home, workplace, and society. Moreover, these policies should concern the effect on health and environment. The good example for public policies are smoke-free in public transportation which help protecting non-smoker, food and medicine control, policy on cigarette tax which its revenue is used to promote other health programs, wearing helmet campaign, and Don't Drive Drink, etc.

- Strategy 2: Create supportive environment

Health supportive environment is the subsequence from healthy public policy. All changes in way of life, work, and recreation have an effect on health. Therefore, the method that society or organization direct their working environment should support the healthy society or healthy organization.

- Strategy 3: Strengthen community action

It is obvious that health promotion is the continual activity which the community (in this case in employees of the organization) have to take an action from the beginning such as define target, make a mutual decision, set up and implement strategic planning, encourage self-help within community. In some case, the financial and technical support can be received from external organization. However, the community must take an action by themselves in the long term . After success in health promotion, it should transfer experiences and techniques to other communities or become the best practice for others to adopt such as bio-organic club, exercise club, and bicycle club.

- Strategy 4: Develop personal skill

In some case each person must have their own skill in health promotion program, which can be such as exercise and quit smoking. The organization should support for personal health development by providing information in health and living. The alternative choice for people can be provided by give them a choice to take care of their health in their own way.

- Strategy 5: Reorient health service

Most people thinks that reorient health service is to change only the way medical personnel and public health work from service provider to health supporter for people (employees). In reality, attitude of people is an important part to create health among people, they should participate in health support program in their home, workplace, school, and in the community. Therefore the responsibility of public health service is to set the direction of health promotion and support employees living instead of provide only health service in clinic. However, health promotion in each organization depends on organization culture. Health service can be started with the channel between health department and community including politics, economy, and environment.

In order to reorient health service, health research becomes crucial to investigate the way to change how people learn and set up an appropriate learning. This method can change the attitude of employees toward health service from health provider to the organization who concerns about the needs of employees.

- Strategy 6: Moving into the future

Health promotion can be successful if the strategy is adjusted to suit the person's everyday life where they can learn, work, and enjoy. Health can be created by taking care of oneself and others, making decision, and most importantly, to be ensured that the society he lives allows everyone have a healthy condition.

The concept of work-based smoking cessation service aims to reduce the number of people who start smoking and reduce risk of cardiovascular disease in both smokers and people in a smoking environment (Gerson C. Jr., Laura M.T. N., Graziella F.B.

C., Gaspar R. C., & Audrey B.S., 2014). The campaign was started by sending a message about risk from smoking by using technologies such as motion pictures, animation, or social network on the internet (Joan L. B. Et al., 2014). There are consultant for employees who wants to participate in the program (Sherriff N.S. & Coleman L., 2013). Those consultants are well-trained in quitting method and procedure in order to enhance their own specialty and capability to persuade smokers to quit. (Simon R.T., Hollis L.,& Eric L.R. B., 2014.). In addition, the smoking control and cessation funds and smoke-free air laws are the major support for health promotion in the organization

However, Wynne (1997) suggested that the fundamental of health promotion is the direction and determination of management of the organization. In order to create a success program, the infrastructure and process must be set to support the operation. Whitehead (2006) described health promotion model according to the level of intervention as followed:

1. Organizational leadership level: Management level of the organization has to involve in the development, operation, assessment of health promotion programs, method and model of the program, strategic planning and targeting in health promotion through organization culture and health promotion policy.
2. Interpersonal level: This level involves in learning, social interaction, social support, resolve social conflict, and encourage participation of other teams and teams with autonomy.
3. Individual level: This level helps increasing performance and self management of employee. In addition, individual level supports healthy behaviors.
4. Municipal community level: Provide linkage between the target of health promotion in the organization and the involvement in municipal community through agencies.
5. Public policy level: This level supports environment and health policy which conforms with target of the organization.

From the theories above, it can be implied that there are many internal factors effect health promotion in the organization. First, structure and management in the organization which consist of strategy, target, potential, preparedness (mutual target). Second, the structure of the organization (leaders, committee, members, and departments) in order to develop and improve activities within the organization. Other factors include the potential of members in the organization, management, determination in target, plan, and management, methods of work and human resource management, monitoring and control, involvement, and tangible and intangible benefits. (Chaiyaporn Piboonsiri, 2007)

In order to set up health promotion in the organization, therefore, health care manager plays an important role since health promotion has direct effect to working environment of employees (Whitehead D, 2006) Health care manager should be a developer and innovator in health. In the meantime, he must learn the dynamic of healthy employees and balance in economy, moral, inequitable expenditure of employees, sickness, absence and injuries from work. If health care manager lack of leader skill and support, health promotion cannot be success and can be implied as a reason of stress in employees. Thus, health promotion model which is support the negotiation and increase the involvement and unity of team is also crucial. In order to increase learning capability, the organization should set up a supportive policy includes:

- Infrastructure of the organization which concerns in health and society
- Health promotion programs within the organization
- Sustainability in health promotion program in the organization
- Resolve the problems by concerning health, employees, and society
- Integrate health knowledge in the organization and community nearby
- Link the overall support in the organization with health promotion policy and procedure
- Determination to support the ability in health promotion

In Thailand, not only government bodies such as Ministry of Labor who support health promotion, but also Thai Health Promotion Foundation who encourage organization to provide health promotion to their employees. The foundation has developed Happy Workplace campaign to support work-life balance of employees, support balance between IQ (Intelligence Quotient) and EQ (Emotional Quotient) to develop a healthy organization. According to organizational health and human resource management research in state universities (Nattawut Rojniruttikul, 2009) All policies human resource department used with its employees, such as training and development policy, employees' feedback policy, organization environment, the use of technologies, organization structure, and stability of working, have a crucial effect on health promotion within the organization and lead the organization to sustainability. To clarify the factors effect on the success of health promotion in the organization, this study was conducted with the concept and procedure as followed.

Research Design

This research used qualitative method by conducting in-depth interview with management, employees, and related welfare committee. Moreover, the researcher conducted literature review from project document, memorandum, and online document. This study used QTC (PCL) manufacturing of Transformers in Thailand as a case study.

Population and Sample

Sample selection was categorized into three groups: management, welfare committee, and employees. This study was conducted by using 20 samples consist of 2 management, 2 members of welfare committee, and 16 employees.

Result

Health Promotion Strategy in Happy workplace: Case study of QTC (PCL) manufacturing of Transformers in Thailand was conducted in order to find the best case in concept, process, result, and role of stakeholders in health promotion.

Health Promotion Concept

QTC Energy Public Company Limited was established in 1995 by Mr. Poolpipat Tantanasin, specialist in transformer component, production line, and transformer design. To produce high quality transformers, the company has integrated advance technologies in every aspects to create low cost transformers. Production lines consist

of experienced and well-trained local employees. It has put an effort to create competitiveness in global market for the reputation of Thailand and its people.

Table 1: Health promotion concept in the organization

No.	Health promotion concept in the organization	
	Management	Welfare Committee
1.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We have developed internal CSR first because our staffs have to enjoy their well-being before we start CSR with external environment. - We take step-by-step action in order to take care of our staff. If we find drug addicts among staff, the first thing we do is take them to addiction treatment. - We told the committee that the health support program must be done once every year. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - First, we assess the risk in our staff then we try to create activities by using some additional program outside the company. - We have established the helmet fund to encourage our staff to put it on while riding. If there are any offender, we will warn them to create safety awareness.
2.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - At the present our policy is to recruit only non-smoker. But we also take care of drug addicts, we put the effort to make them quit and come back to work with us. - We have done the assessment in every areas we could. - Not only promote activities to our staff, but we also record the statistics and monitor our participants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most activities done are for our staff. If they are capable, they will be sent to become social service assistants. - If staff are in the addiction treatment process, we will not take it as a day off and we wait for them to come to work with us again.

Taking Care From the Inside Out

The management of QTC Energy Public Company Limited consists of internal and external management. In internal management, the concept of management is to develop structure of the organization, build standard infrastructure by using high technologies, implement systematic procedure to meet the international standard, and provide fundamental four requisites for all employees. These are the basic concept in management which Mr. Poolpipat Tantanasin has developed to produce high quality product to compete in both domestic and international market.

Apart from supervising the operation, QTC Energy Public Company Limited has adopted the concept of Happy Workplace to take care of physical and mental health of its employees. Mr. Poolpipat Tantanasin has given precedence to the work system in every aspects according to the quality method and meet the standard. QTC Energy Public Company Limited has reorganized its structure in 2012 which emphasizing on the sustainable business and work according to ISO 26000 standard. The company has adopted the corporate social responsibility (CSR) concept which gives priority to the employees of the company. The well-being of the employees will help them work effectively and they can help the community and society continually.



Figure 1: Organization management model

Opportunity is Important

Welfare management of QTC Energy Public Company Limited has many forms and covers in many aspect such as health, safety, mental health, family, finance, and social responsibility. Since there are many types of welfare promotion, they cannot be done by only person in the organization. The welfare promotion programs can become concrete and continuously developed because of the involvement of every person in the company. The reason behind the success of the company is the organizational culture which gives an opportunity for every employees to express their opinions. Moreover, leaders of the company emphasizes on the coexistence of everybody, forgiveness, and take care of each other as a family.

The meaning of being a part of the organization is not only work for the company, but also involve in the development of the company such as to create products, make profit, and improve work process. The foundation of all development activities is the organization culture which support employees to express their opinions and potential. As well as QTC Energy Public Company Limited, the company gives an opportunity for its employees to express ideas which benefit themselves, their family, and society. The company set up welfare committee to look after employees' needs. The committee will serve for a period of 5 years. The welfare meeting is held in a weekly basis which employees can give their opinions on their needs and the improvement they want. These opinions will be received and take them as agenda in the meeting, and then send to the human resource department. The former member of welfare committee said that he gave the opinion about the adjustment of accommodation fee for employees who does not live in the room provided by the company. The

suggestion had passed the committee and finally approved by management because they agreed with the rationale of this adjustment.

Most of employees find it is happy working here. The major factor of happy workplace is to take care of each other as a family. Within QTC Energy Public Company Limited, It has adopted the understanding, forgiveness, and opportunities for its employees to change. For example, the white factory program can demonstrate the core concept of the organization. Management will set the random drug test without the employees awareness, if there is any drug addicts and they confess the company will give them a chance for physical and mental treatment and they can get back to work whenever they are ready.

Health Promotion Procedure

QTC Energy Public Company Limited attend Association for the Development of Environmental Quality (ADEQ) program which is supported by Thai Health Promotion Foundation. The program aims to develop and support health promotion within workplace systematically. After the program, QTC Energy Public Company Limited appointed the committee to take charge of health promotion program. The main objective of the committee is to drive health promotion strategy as predetermined in the policy. Meanwhile all employees have their responsibility to support, involve, and publicize the program. Then the committee has created the activities for the employees.

Since QTC Energy Public Company Limited has developed many health promotion programs under healthy workplace project. In this study, the four outstanding, successful, and continuously developed programs were selected as followed:

Smoke-free Factory

After attending the health promotion in workplace development program, the committee has initiated workplace development plan. The first activity was Smoke-free Factory, which is the major factor effects the health of employees. The procedure of this activity are as followed:

1. Announced the smoke-free factory policy which consists of 1) Every area of the factory is smoke-free area. 2) There is 1 smoking area within the factory. 3) Employees and visitors are allowed to smoke only in the smoking area. 4) Employees of QTC Energy Public Company Limited are not allowed to smoke in the office hour. 5) Employees of QTC Energy Public Company Limited are allowed to smoke only in the lunch break. 6) If any employees violates the term above, he will be punished according to regulations in the workplace and safety regulations in the workplace. (QTC Energy Public Company Limited, 2010)
2. Publicize the activities and create awareness to the employees through media such as bulletin board, spot television advertising, and voice broadcast.
3. Provide health knowledge in bulletin board such as the world's no tobacco day.

4. Conduct survey in smoking behavior, the result showed that there are 22 smoker in the company.
5. Develop quit-smoking program for employees who are willing to quit. There is a break area for smoking abstinence in the cafeteria, "Visiting Friends" activity in smoking abstinence clinic at Central Chest Institute of Thailand, and focus groups activity.
6. Monitor the result of activities and records statistics of participant in both pre and post survey.

Alcohol-free Factory

This activity is held according to the health promotion in workplace development program and extended from Smoke-free Factory program. This activity aims to control risk which effects the health of employees. The procedure of this activity are as followed:

1. Take a study in related organization and attend the health promotion in workplace network to conceptualize the activity.
2. Train all employees about health and point the importance in self awareness.
3. Publicize the activities and create awareness to the employees by distribute media from the Office of Stop Drink Network such as sticker, brochure, poster, and vinyl.
4. Announce the alcohol-free policy for employees in every level. The policy includes 1) The company does not support any alcohol drinking in any activity held by the company. 2) Selling unhealthy product in the company is prohibited. (QTC Energy Public Company Limited, 2011)
5. Annual activities are held according to the policy of the company. Sport Day, seminar, and New Year party are alcohol-free and the employees are not allowed to bring alcohol to the company.

White Factory

White Factory program aims to prevent employees from drugs and support their physical and mental health. This program is also under the health promotion in workplace development program. The procedure are as followed:

1. Invite speaker from the Office of Narcotics Control Board to educate employees about harm caused by drugs and legal penalty.
2. Set the random drug test by using urinalysis test within the factory in a monthly basis. If there is any drug addicts and they confess the company will give them a chance for treatment and not consider as a day off. If the employee refuses the test result, the company will send the result to Department of Medical Sciences, Chonburi, to confirm the result. If the second result shows that employee is a drug addict, that person will be discharged and prosecuted.
3. Define drug test as one of key indicator of the organization since Rayong province is one of the serious area in term of drugs. The company is currently apply for the white factory at the Rayong provincial office.
4. Set an annual sport day in order to encourage employees to exercise instead of using drugs.

Safety Driving

1. Investigate the risk behavior of employees in transportation accidents and give priority to the motorcycle riders.
2. Hold a meeting in order to set the activities which can help reducing transportation accidents for employees.
3. Set an enrollment for a presenter of 100% wear a helmet campaign and set up a campaign board in front of the factory gate.
4. Set traffic policy for employees to comply with. Everyone who ride by motorcycle must wear helmet, and who drive or take a front seat must fasten seat belt (QTC Energy Public Company Limited, 2011)
5. Check whether employees wear helmet or not. If any employee cannot afford to buy a helmet, the organization will give them helmet which employee can pay an installment back to the company.
6. Support employees to go to the "Dialogue in the dark" exhibition at Chamchuri Square which will help employees aware of safety and the importance of their health.
7. Take employees to the driving license test in public holidays to support safety driving and comply with traffic regulations. There were 34 employees had take the driving license test at Department of Land Transport, Nong Yai, Chonburi.

Result from Health Promotion Programs

The purpose of every activities is to create concrete result in the organization. Therefore the assessment has been made after finish each activity. Assessment can help all stakeholders learn not only whether the program is successful or not but also problems and obstacles. All health promotion programs in the organization mentioned above has been assessed and the statistics results are as followed:

Smoke-free Factory: The result shows that the 44.53% of employees who attended 14-days-program cannot reduce the amount of cigarette smoked per day. The amount of cigarette surveyed before starting the program is 123 cigarettes per day. After finish the program the surveyed had been taken again and the result shows that the amount of cigarette smoke is decreased to 35 cigarettes per day.

Alcohol-free Factory: 83 employees or 68.03% of total employee participated in "Alcohol-free, Smoke-free" program. After the program there is no alcohol beverage in the factory and the case that employee bring alcohol to the factory is not found.

Safety Driving: 34 employees or 76.5% of participants of the program joined the driving license test in public holidays. Moreover, the survey was conducted on the motorcycle riders and the result shows that 16 riders or 69.56% of all employees who ride to work wear helmet. 100% of employees who drive to work fasten their seat belt. (Boontam, 2011)

Participants' Opinions

Apart from statistics provided by welfare committee, which is recorded as a database for the activities to be held next year, participants also have opinions for the health promotion programs held by welfare committee. Most of them are positive and they feel much better after attending the programs.

Table 2: Participants' Opinions

No.	Opinions Toward Health Promotion in Organization Employees
1.	I drank, smoked, and gambled before started working here. I have already quit everything. At the first time I arrived the company, I have saw the sign "If you drink, what will your family have for dinner?" So I quit drinking, smoking, and gambling after Buddhist Lent period. I have quit them for five months. I used to quit for five years but I returned to them because of family issues. At the present the situation becomes better so I absolutely quit.
2.	I like Safety Driving Program since it involves in everyday life. I have join it myself because I ride a <u>motocycle</u> to work every day and I am not sure whether I do it right according to traffic regulations, such as what kind of helmet is suitable, and they have told it in the program. Therefore, I gained more knowledge and become more careful.
3.	Many programs held by welfare committee have make employees like us appreciate because we work so hard, if we do not know how to take care of ourselves we might face premature death.

No.	Opinions Toward Health Promotion in Organization Employees
4.	I like many activities within the company, they take good care of our health.
5.	I impress the quit-smoking program, I cannot believe I can do it. It was like a competition with myself. I have children and I do not want them to be like me. It was very hard at the first time, but attending the program helped me a lot because they encouraged and forced us until we can completely quit. I appreciate it.
6.	They take good care of our health, for example, the quit-smoking program. They forced us to quit. After we did it, we invited our friends to join the program. And it was fun.
7.	At first I do not understand what "White Factory" is. Then the welfare committee had communicated with us so I understand more about the program.
8.	I totally agree with the safety driving program. We ride a motorcycle to work and buy things every day. I did not like wearing helmet but since my friends brought the nice one, it made me want to wear it too.
9.	At first I thought all the programs were ridiculous. Can it be done? How come the company force us to do these things? But after I attended the program after my friends had joined it, I started to spread the word such as I complaint my family if they drink.
10.	I used to drink and smoke for a long time until I had annual health check-up and the result was that my lung is not in a good condition. I was afraid but cannot quit until I joined this program.
11.	I impress with many programs and appreciate that the company take good care of us.
12.	I wanted to quit smoking for my children. I have gained a lot of courage from my colleagues and supervisor during the program and I can completely quit smoking.
13.	I want the program to be held annually.
14.	I am proud and delightful when our company received awards from all health programs.
15.	I am pleased that the committee encourage us to attend the program. They persuade us by demonstrate the benefit of the program instead of forcing us, so I found it hard to refuse.
16.	We are happy to know that all management of the company take care of all health programs, and gain more morale.

Roles of Leaders and Human Resource Department

To accomplish health promotion programs in the organization, all stakeholders must learn their own responsibilities and work accordingly. When everyone perform their duties appropriately, health promotion strategy will be success and lead the organization toward happy workplace in the future.

Table 3: Role of stakeholder in health promotion

No.	Role of stakeholder in health promotion		
	Management	Welfare Committee	Employees
1.	<p>- We emphasize on health in every employees and we put an effort to take care of everything in this area. We think that our employees work hard so we have to take good care of their health, or else they have to work for medical treatment expense and it will never be enough.</p> <p>- We underline health promotion agenda in every annual meeting with welfare committee and support them to create programs or activities.</p>	<p>- Before we create activities, we are likely to survey what other factory do and how they do it. At the first time I worked here health promotion activities were new for me.</p> <p>- When the leaders tell us what they want, we take it and make a plan as soon as possible. We create all program as a team. Moreover, we ask our friends what kind of activities they want because if we do the same activities for the same target, others will get bored.</p> <p>- Leaders have told us to keep the record of all activities and assess the successfulness of them. Furthermore, we put an effort to enter the contest to get the feedback and develop our activities. We are very pleasant when we receive awards from those contests.</p>	<p>- I would like to join the programs indeed. When I attended quit drinking quit smoking program, I questioned that whether I can quit them or not because I could not quit it myself. Then I joined this program with my friends, they gave me courage to quit and I eventually quit smoking and drinking.</p>
2.	<p>- The welfare committee have worked so hard and have autonomy to create programs or activities after received policy from management. We want our employees get what they actually needs, not only what we think they need.</p> <p>- The only thing that me, as one of the management, can do is attending in every activities and support whatever employees need.</p> <p>- We encourage our employees to join the activities and take a break. If anyone do not want to attend, they can keep working.</p>	<p>-In the very first stage, many employees did not understand what we did and did not want to attend. We had to persuade them in every way to bring them to our activities. When one employee attended, he influenced his friends to join too.</p> <p>- We often persuade them. In some case such as smoke-free program, we have limited the smoking area and force them to smoke only one cigarette. They get frustrated but we still persuade them to do for their own health. We had some difficult time when doing this activities.</p>	<p>I attended safety driving program because I realize how important it is. However, all participants must have their own self-discipline in every programs.</p>

No.	Role of stakeholder in health promotion		
	Management	Welfare Committee	Employees
3.			After joining the program, we can see that management are attentive and invest for us, thus we should do it with all capability.
4.			I have joined the activities because my friends encourage me to. At first I do not want to join, but after attend it the program I start to like it.
5.			I attend quit-smoking program. I felt good at the beginning but after a while I become frustrated because I used to smoke at least 5 cigarettes per day. Right now I keep telling myself that I can make it.
6.			Our responsibility is to do our best, try harder, and pressure ourselves.
7.			We take what we have learned and apply it in everyday life. We often remind ourselves what to do.
8.			I attended the program because my friends did and I also invite more friends to join. The company take care of us, and we take care of our friends too.
9.			If we can do it, it will benefit ourselves. We gain a lot after join the program.

No.	Role of stakeholder in health promotion		
	Management	Welfare Committee	Employees
10.			If you want to quit, you must have determination and make an effort to accomplish your goal.
12.			I gain more courage because I want to do it for my children.
13.			Our responsibility is to join the program every time it is held.
14.			Do everything in a routine basis.
15.			We have received courage from colleagues. After we saw our friends quit smoking and the committee said that quitting is saving money, we think about it and concentrate.
16.			They give us a chance to correct what we have done, so we have to take that chance and do it as good as we can. We have hope for that.

Roles of Management in Health Promotion Programs

Leader as Initiator Leaders play an important role to drive health promotion in organization. They have to set the direction of the organization including health promotion strategy. They have to provide guidance on the implementation of health promotions and also determine the outcome of health promotion programs.

Empowerment Although management is the person who make decision in order to set the direction of the organization, but when there is policy and person who is in charge leaders should allow them an autonomy to work and control over to express their potential. As well as health promotion management within the organization, leaders should have their welfare committee express their opinions and make decision.

Leader as Supporter At QTC Energy, all leaders give their support considerably. They give financial support even though there is no monetary return on investment to organization. They allow employees to attend programs even if they will lose time to work. Moreover, they always encourage employees. Sometimes they take care of activities, sometimes they join themselves to persuade employees to participate. Leader always encourage their employees

Roles of Human Resource Department in Health Promotion Programs

Welfare Committee as Operator Welfare committee is an important body to drive all health promotion activities or projects for employees. In QTC Energy, Committee jointly undertake the project from initiation through project closure process.

Welfare Committee as Learner Before starting any health promotion project, welfare committee will learn basic information which is necessary to implement such as trends of health in workers or health care method within the organization. Then they will take a comparison study with other organizations and agencies involves. After finish health promotion project, they will gather the result and compare it with other organization through contests to find the appropriate work standard and challenge their work in the future.

Welfare Committee as Communicant Welfare committee make a communication in 2 ways; first they publicize to gain awareness from employees before starting the program and spread the result of program after finish it. This kind of communicate will make employees have self-esteem since they put their effort to take care of their own health. The second communication is to encourage and cheer up the participants of the program.

Roles of Participants in Health Promotion Programs

Participant as Controller In order to participate health promotion program from the beginning until the end, management, committee, and others must support employees. But the most importantly, employees have to be self motivated to participate regularly. In some program, such as smoke-free factory which allows employees to smoke only one cigarette per day in limited area, committee cannot control participants all the time. Therefore, participants are the most important person to control and create disciplinary for themselves for their own benefits.

Participant as Communicant The significant indicator of a successful health project is that the participants live their wellness life, have a physical and mental health, and also increase the number of participants in the organization. If participants find it important to attend the program, they will invite and convince their colleagues to join the program too.

Participant as Encourager Many participates note the importance of the programs, such as smoke-free factory, alcohol-free factory, or white factory, because these programs can change their habit. They realize that all drugs and alcohol effect their physical, emotional, and mental health. In some case participant want to start smoking or drinking again because of the change in their emotion. Therefore most of the successful participants who can quit drinking, smoking, or using drugs admit that they can completely quit because of their own courage and also encouragement from their family.

Discussion

Health Promotion Strategy in Happy workplace: Case study of QTC (PCL) manufacturing of Transformers in Thailand aims to investigate the concept, procedure, and result of health promotion in the organization. The researcher has found the interesting concept and procedure as followed;

- 1) The concept of health promotion in QTC Energy Public Company Limited consists of two core philosophies: 1. Take care from the inside out. The company tries to strengthen physical and mental health of its employees to help the society in the future. 2. Give employees an opportunity. Everyone in the company has equal right to attend all programs. Any employee who makes mistake, such as drug addict, can receive a second chance and come back to work again.
- 2) Even though there are many health promotion programs in the organization, but the procedures of each program are similar. Starting with the health trend studies, the committee will collect the employees interests and implement the campaigns, therefore the policy is set to sustain the result of each program.
- 3) Roles of stakeholders in health promotion. In this study, stakeholders' responsibilities are crucial even though they have different roles. If everyone act according to their responsibility, health promotion in the organization will be success. These roles including 1. Management role: initiate, empower, and support. 2. Human resource department or welfare committee: operate, learn, communicate. 3. Participants: self-control, communicate, and encourage.

Recommendation

This study was conducted by purposively selected QTC from a list of happy workplaces in Thailand. Additional studies in other organizations could address the contribution success factors in health promotion. Additionally, the result from comparative studies can be used in broader scale.

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Should Prostitution Be Legalized?

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Abstract

The subject of my research paper is “Should prostitution be legalized?” it is written with context of old Indian culture and the phase of changes in society. Where at one point of time just like the cast system even the profession of sex workers was socially accepted and respectable! But gradually due to the change of time and cultural diversities, this profession and people in it became socially out casted.

I have tried to show the kind of treatment given to this segment of society and also given history of its beginning to its current state. Based on various reference book and history of India from Ancient to modern time is given for the same.

Along with history of Indian civilization where in different stages, with different monarch, and different society with religious changes of that time, I have tried to cover the account of same profession of sex workers in concurrent society of other countries like Europe, Turkey and USA. This is to show a comparative study of Sex workers.

By writing this research paper my initiation is to show the conflict of a segment of society who is rejected by the advent of time, which is now ill-treated and exploited by the underworld and by society itself. What preventive measures can be taken to give them social, political and professional right with security; most importantly acceptance in the society of today’s times. It’s like fight against untouchability in India and its eradication.

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Let us understand the definition of Prostitution "*Prostitution is offering and provision of sexual services for financial gain or barter*". If we look back in the history of world, May it is Asia or Europe, prostitution has existed since the start of civilization. It has been in existence from the beginning of ancient society and trade. Now, before I start with my point of view on the above mentioned sensitive and taboo subject, I would like to share a brief history of India, which has accounts of "Prostitution" as an integral part of the society.

If you take a good look on prostitution as an occupation, it's one of the oldest professions in human history. Religion such as Catholicism, which used to manage prostitution once now rejects it. Old Christian church bishops & clergies used to charge 10% on the amount charged by prostitute who used the premises of Church. During the time much earlier to this, Indian society had the practice of prostitution from the very beginning of its first civilization.

During the beginning of civilization in Harappa and Mahenjdarro the temple which were also the supreme power in olden times practiced **Devdasi Pratha**, this system was introduced to entertain the traders coming from Sumeria, Babylonia, Egypt and to some extent north eastern regions of India and Afghanistan (Earlier known as **Brahmavrat** by Aryans who later Invaded India). There was another reason to have this practice apart from entertainment, the trader who were visiting India would naturally be far from their country and would be deprived of their culture, food and most importantly physical needs. To prevent any social crime against any female member of the society by these outsiders the "**Devdasi Pratha**" i.e. **Mistress of God**, was introduced. These Devdasis were considered as a good part of the society and regarded with high respect by the Heads, Chiefs, Temple and even trader who would seek their services to entertain their customers.

Soon the Aryans invaded India and took over the Sarasvati Sindhu Civilization and introduced its own religious belief, but did not completely change the old system. The "Devdasi Pratha" still remained in practice. But soon the cast system was formed and a new society based on Rules, Regulation and may be prejudice was introduced. This led to the downfall of the Devdasi to its collapse as people soon started regarding this profession as malpractice which was only for the sake of Kings and Mahants of those times. These Devdasi were given new recognition by the society i.e. Vishkanya, Gajgami, Roopjeevani etc. But still they were accepted by the kingdom and were pardoned tax by the kingdom and were given other social benefit in the society (One can find such example in Mruchchhikattikam of Shudrak, where Vasantsena is a well-known, respected Devdasi. Also there is story of Amrapali in Buddhist scripture who was made Janpad Kalyani of Ujjaini to fulfill demands of entire Ujjaini society and was considered as the property of all the people). In ancient India, there was a practice of having Nagarvadhus, "brides of the town"(grooms). Famous examples include Amrapali. Kautaliya's Arthshastra (320 BC-150 AD) has a chapter titled "The Chief Controller of Entertainers' (Courtesans, Brothels, Prostitutes and other Entertainers) Responsibilities", in which he makes a distinction between prostitution and trafficking, and emphasizes the absolute necessity of the willingness and consent of the prostitute to engage in a sexual relationship.[1]

Soon after the Mughal era started these Devdasi were no more considered the property of Temple and Mughal emperors gave the title Kaneez, Tabayaf or

Kothewali to the women indulged into this profession (FYI – Tabayaf were only those who entertained their customers by singing and dancing there was no physical needs fulfilled by them). These above examples were having special allotment in society, like in present times even in olden days these women were given land by the king in segment outside the society or were allotted a special place to live and practice its trade. Till now though this profession was losing its respect one should know that till Mughal period most of the time the women folk entering this profession were doing this on their own will. After the Mughal invasion there was trade of slaves from Baluch, Kandahar, Egypt, Syria and Turkey.

Well then the question arise how did this profession become untouchable like a segment of few members of society in India? The answer is also back in history. After the invasion and rule of British power in India, there were two major revolutionary changes which took place, One Education in English language and its culture and second industrial revolution which made world a small place soon.

When the British East India Company established its army base and operational hub in India, it had slowly started expanding its strength and power over the Indian Kings. These kings were indulged into unproductive activities like music, dancing and most importantly physical entertainment from mistress or kept. These mistress who were also known as Rakhail, Bandi or Vaishya who would entertain the king for expensive rewards, gifts and to one extend status equal to queen. But, once the kings lost their kingdom to British Company, these Bandi also lost favor from the kings. They were compelled to trade with British officer and entertain them. During the British East India Company's rule in India in the late 18th and early 19th centuries; it was initially fairly common for British soldiers to frequently visit local Indian “**nautch**” dancers.

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, thousands or even millions of women and girls from continental Europe and Japan were trafficked into British India

Another reason was that The British East India Company, were encouraging slave trade, prostitution for the sake of entertaining the British officers who were living far from their family. The exploitation to other local trade had resulted in many young girls being thrown into skin trade due to this in Colonial period of Indian history.

Ratnabali Chattarjee mentions

“Further, being situated within the broader category of "Indian W omen" the prostitute was also a subject of reform. Meanwhile, legal, medical and political discourse on "prostitution" continued to grow in England and India right through the 19th century, but British officials with are mark able Persistence continued to regard the Indian prostitute as a sexual commodity only.

William Acton, British medical authority on veneer al disease, first conceptualized prostitution in terms of economic laws of supply and demand: The desire for sexual intercourse is strongly felt by the male on attaining puberty and continues through his life as an ever present sensible want ... this desire of the male is the want that produces the demand of which prostitution is are slut ... in fact the artificial supply of a natural demand.”[2]

British when introduced Railways in India, soon wanted to start Railway service in Africa, Mainly to carry Gold and other precious metal which was difficult to carry in dry regions of Sao, Cape Town etc. (There is explanation of demand of railway by Colonial Robert Patterson who became well known for his African adventure in Sao). The need for manpower was fulfilled by importing people from India and Local of Africa both British and Indian in origin. Back in India the East India Company had carried on the same practice of entertaining its highest delegates and officers by providing them with girls who were purchased as either slave or as prostitute for a brothel.

Now certain officer who had been to Africa and returned did not know that they were suffering with AIDS a disease, which was transmitted to them by the Green Baboon (These monkey are having the HIV Virus in them but are resistant to the disease due to some inbuilt genetic mechanism). Soon due to the advancement of modern times in duration of year 1919, there was discovery of AIDS in citizens of America and Britain, whose source lead to the officers who had served in India, Africa and then migrated to their country or other.

They had not only carried this disease to their country but naturally as they were involved in physical relationship with women who were practicing polygamy to multiple people, they also spread the disease to most number of people who had Sex with these women. Thus, it scared the majority of people who were ignorant of this new found disease. The British and Educated class of Indian society had by then had been heavily influenced by the foreign education, got entirely different view point for these women. Thus, they were a rejected part of the society.

Current scenario with pros and cons

If we have a look at present scenario then “There are approximately 10 million prostitutes in India.” [3] There are 300,000-500,000 children in prostitution in India. [4] There are 300,000 -500,000 children in prostitution in India. 160,000 Nepalese women are held in India's brothels. [5] About 5,000-7,000 Nepalese girls are trafficked to India every day. 100,000-160,000 Nepalese girls are prostituted in brothels in India. About 45,000 Nepalese girls are in the brothels of Bombay and 40,000 in Calcutta [6]. There are more than 100,000 women in prostitution in Bombay, Asia's largest sex industry center. 90% of the 100,000 women in prostitution in Bombay are indentured slaves. In Bombay, children as young as 9 are bought for up to 60,000 rupees, or US\$2,000, at auctions where Arabs bid against Indian men who believe that sleeping with a virgin cures gonorrhea and syphilis [7]. The red light district in Bombay generates at least \$400 million a year in revenue, with 100,000 prostitutes servicing men 365 days a year, averaging 6 customers a day, at \$2 each. [8]. Sonagachi in Kolkata, Kamathipura in Mumbai, G.B. Road in New Delhi, Reshampura in Gwalior, Budhwar Peth in Pune, host thousands of sex workers & are the famous red light centers in India.

Mumbai and Kolkata (Calcutta) have the country's largest brothel based sex industry, with over 100,000 sex workers in Mumbai. It is estimated that more than 50% of the sex workers in Mumbai are HIV-positive. In Surat, a study discovered that HIV prevalence among sex workers had increased from 17% in 1992 to 43% in 2000. A major part of this industry is controlled by underworld mafias, Pimps (Bharwas,

Dalaal), Middle man, Agent, corrupted police etc. this is because of no legal acceptance of this profession

“Based on information from the women themselves, women in prostitution are observed to be prostituted through choices precluded, options restricted and possibilities denied. Prostitution in this view is observed to a product of lack of choice, the resort of those with the fewest choices or none at all, when all else fails, as it often does. - Catherine MacKinnon, American Feminist.

What if it's legalized?

In Countries like India prostitutes are not legally considered as existing people on record. They suffer all problems in society but they are not provided any legal aid for their rights. They deserve dignified life, if considered human right. Most of the time children of these prostitutes are also compelled to involve in this industry. Apart from it, due to this profession being considered bad, illegal, it's mostly practiced behind the back door in the society. This means children of these class of society suffers in terms of proper sanitation, education, nutrition.

Now, Let us think of a legal profession where "people offering and providing services and skills for financial gain" are taxed. As they are tax payers they enjoy pension, housing loans, educational loans, investment options and most of all legal recognition. Now if we think of making sex workers and industry around sex pay tax, it simply implies we make it legal and accountable! As we make the industry legal and accountable most of the evil surrounding it will take back seat. We can regularize their minimum wages, health and safety regulations, minimum age of entry, pension schemes, loans for various reasons, and legal acceptance and recognition. So also we put a check on evils like child abuse, violence, trafficking, rape etc.

Think of the customers; getting sex in the dark back alley while no one notices you seems lucrative (read dangerous) but then going to buy sex in a legal (read safe and healthy) brothel will put off a considerable number. Plus it will also keep STD's and other health related problems at bay.

Now the point where it may become a lucrative career choice, seems quite unlikely as we are talking of making the profession legal for the interest of people trapped in it and not taking away the social stigma associated with it. There are certain professions which will be looked down upon come may what!

Considering living on their tax and using it for public benefit. If we can provide a legal structure to take care of them, we can very well use their money for their own benefit. Owing to the fact that Indian constitution imposes taxes on blue collared and white collared people, there can be amendments on this profession too.

Every service and profession that involves money can be taxed and made accountable to keep a tab on illegal activities that will eventually cloud such industries. When the profession is legalized and taxed all these illegal people like corrupt policemen, middlemen (pimps/dalaals), or thieves may no longer hold much control on prostitutes. It's only 'cause it's illegal they treat them badly.

“necessary step [to prevent rape] is to legalize prostitution — carried out in brothels or by call-girls — provided the sex workers are adults and have not been forced into the trade. The more you try to put down prostitution, the higher will be the incidence of crime against innocent women. You may find the idea repulsive but ponder over it and you will realize there is substance in the argument.” – Khushwant Singh [9]

Legalizing prostitution does not mean indirectly inviting, encouraging prostitution, or showing lucrative employment opportunities to young generation. As already told some profession are always looked down upon and practiced under inevitable conditions. In spite of prostitution considered as illegal activity in India, human trafficking is still into existence.

If it’s legalized, the following outcome can be expected:

Supreme Court of India in December, 2009 asked the govt. “If you are not able to curb it by laws then legalize it.” SC added that- legalizing prostitution would help monitor the trade and rehabilitate sex workers.

If there are 2 million prostitutes in India who earns 1000 `INR a day, then this leads to a total of INR` 200, 000 /- revenue a day and roughly ` 72,000, 000 /INR- a year. By legalizing, government can earn a decent tax on this revenue, which will be beneficial to the country’s economy.

Legalizing will ensure a secure & safe future for sex-workers, their children and those who’re involved in this. They would get better living, a chance to opt for better career options instead of compelling situation where they are not having much option but to join their parents into illegal activity. These females would be legally fir for claiming for protection under offensive, physical or mental torture, violence.

Government can implement some rules which include:

- Registration of each sex-worker
- Licensing of brothels, Dalaal, removal of middle-man
- Mandatory checks in order to ensure safety for the sex-workers
- Girl/child less than 18 years can be prevented from entering into this profession.

These measures will lead to a decrease in:

- STD/HIV Disease spread
- Child trafficking,
- Women harassment, sexual violence, rape etc.

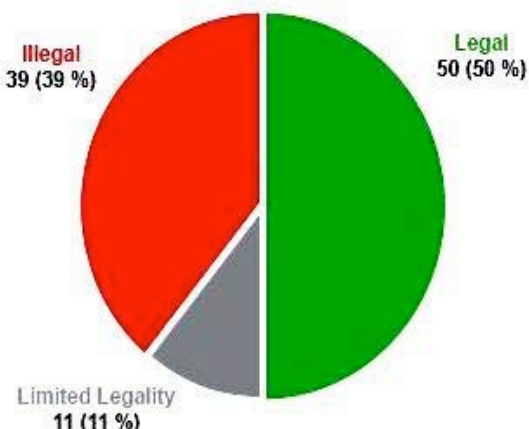
There are some countries in which legalization of prostitution not only worked but they have been able to curb STDs:

- Brazil
- Amsterdam (Netherland)
- New Zealand
- Thailand
- The Philippines and many more..

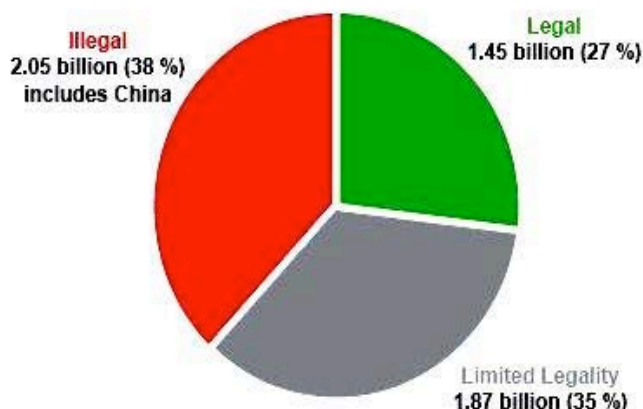
Many countries have legalized and monitored prostitution. In Singapore, it is common and a publicly open trade. In Denmark, women can be prostitutes as long as it is not their only means of occupation. Canada, France, and Mexico and even the biblical area of Israel allow prostitution. In the Netherlands, it is to be contained in brothels and in England and Wales, it is limited to individuals being able to be prostitutes. In the US, it is illegal except for the state of Nevada. Prostitution is legal in 50%, illegal in 39%, and limitedly legal in 11% in one hundred countries worldwide chosen to inclusive of major religions, geographical regions, and policies toward prostitution (prostitution.procon.org, 2009). As of 2009, one source estimated that there were 800,000 women working as prostitutes in the Philippines, with some of them believed to be underage. If prostitution is legalized, it will benefit sex workers and their clients. For whatever reason, financial or personal satisfaction, sex workers can help their clients who pay for sex because that is their only way to get sex. And people who have conditions of erotic phobia and other sexual dysfunctions have therapeutic claims of sex workers helping them overcome such conditions.

On the morality issue, which many people have debated over prostitution, Prostitution is not going away. Legalize it and regulate it. People are needed to have a realistic approach rather than being moral, especially when there are not specific laws to control other illegal activities. In societies and countries where prostitution is legalized, regulated, and monitored, rates have dropped in crime, prisons being overcrowded, murder, rape, and suicide rates have gone down, STD, HIV, and AIDS cases have also dropped. Another benefit of legalizing prostitution is to the prostitutes themselves, which are treated poorly by pimps and abused or owned by gangs. Keeping prostitution illegal contributes to crime because criminals make prostitutes and their customers an easy target for fraud, robbery, and other criminal acts. The victims could not report this to authorities for this will have to make them admit for doing something illegal when the attack took place. It would also help if prostitution will be monitored to make sure there will be no more human trafficking, no more minors being into that trade.

Number and Percentage of Countries with Legal, Illegal, and Limitedly Legal Prostitution (of the 100 countries)



Population (total # and % of total) of Countries with Legal, Illegal, and Limitedly Legal Prostitution (of the 100 countries)



Legal in 50 (50%); Limited Legality in 11 (11%); Illegal in 39 (39%); Total: 100 (100%)

- | | | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------|---|
| 1. Afghanistan | 26. Czech Republic | 51. Israel | 76. Portugal |
| 2. Albania | 27. Denmark | 52. Italy | 77. Romania |
| 3. Angola | 28. Dominica | 53. Jamaica | 78. Rwanda |
| 4. Antigua and Barbuda | 29. Dominican Republic | 54. Japan | 79. Saint Kitts and Nevis |
| 5. Argentina | 30. Ecuador | 55. Jordan | 80. Saint Lucia |
| 6. Armenia | 31. Egypt | 56. Kenya | 81. Saint Vincent and Grenadines |
| 7. Australia | 32. El Salvador | 57. Korea, North | 82. Saudi Arabia |
| 8. Austria | 33. Estonia | 58. Korea, South | 83. Senegal |
| 9. Bahamas | 34. Ethiopia | 59. Kyrgyzstan | 84. Singapore |
| 10. Bangladesh | 35. Finland | 60. Latvia | 85. Slovakia |
| 11. Barbados | 36. France | 61. Liberia | 86. Slovenia |
| 12. Belgium | 37. Germany | 62. Lithuania | 87. South Africa |
| 13. Belize | 38. Greece | 63. Luxembourg | 88. Spain |
| 14. Bolivia | 39. Grenada | 64. Malaysia | 89. Suriname |
| 15. Brazil | 40. Guatemala | 65. Malta | 90. Sweden |
| 16. Bulgaria | 41. Guyana | 66. Mexico | 91. Switzerland |
| 17. Cambodia | 42. Haiti | 67. Netherlands | 92. Thailand |
| 18. Canada | 43. Honduras | 68. New Zealand | 93. Trinidad and Tobago |
| 19. Chile | 44. Hungary | 69. Nicaragua | 94. Turkey |
| 20. China (including Taiwan) | 45. Iceland | 70. Norway | 95. Uganda |
| 21. Colombia | 46. India | 71. Panama | 96. United Arab Emirates |
| 22. Costa Rica | 47. Indonesia | 72. Paraguay | 97. United Kingdom (including Scotland) |
| 23. Croatia | 48. Iran | 73. Peru | 98. United States |
| 24. Cuba | 49. Iraq | 74. Philippines | 99. Uruguay |
| 25. Cyprus | 50. Ireland | 75. Poland | 100. Venezuela |

Pros of legalizing prostitution by public opinion

Prostitution should not be a crime. Prostitutes are not committing an inherently harmful act. While the spread of disease and other detriments are possible in the practice of prostitution, criminalization is a sure way of exacerbating rather than addressing such effects. We saw this quite clearly in the time of alcohol prohibition in this country.

"What makes prostitution a 'victimless crime' in the sense that no one is necessarily harmed by it is that there are consenting adults involved." [10]

"Criminalizing the sex industry creates ideal conditions for rampant exploitation and abuse of sex workers. It is believed that trafficking in women, coercion and exploitation can only be stopped if the existence of prostitution is recognized and the legal and social rights of prostitutes are guaranteed." [11]

"Decriminalization would better protect people in the sex industry from violence and abuse. Police cannot and do not simultaneously seek to arrest prostitutes and protect them from violence.... Indeed, women describe being told, 'What did you expect?' by police officers who refused to investigate acts of violence perpetrated against women whom they knew engaged in prostitution. The consequences of such attitudes are tragic: Gary Ridgway said that he killed prostitutes because he knew he would not be held accountable. The tragedy is that he was right - he confessed to the murders of 48 women, committed over nearly twenty years. That is truly criminal." [12]

Cons of legalizing prostitution by public opinion

"MYTH - Prostitution is a victimless crime.

Prostitution creates a setting whereby crimes against men, women, and children become a commercial enterprise.... It is an assault when he/she forces a prostitute to engage in sadomasochistic sex scenes. When a pimp compels a prostitute to submit to sexual demands as a condition of employment, it is exploitation, sexual harassment, or rape -- acts that are based on the prostitute's compliance rather than her consent. The fact that a pimp or customer gives money to a prostitute for submitting to these acts does not alter the fact that child sexual abuse, rape, and/or battery occurs; it merely redefines these crimes as prostitution." [13]

"I believe that we will never succeed in combating trafficking in women if we do not simultaneously work to abolish prostitution and the sexual exploitation of women and children. Particularly in light of the fact that many women in prostitution in countries that have legalized prostitution are originally victims of trafficking in women." [14]

"Regardless of prostitution's status (legal, illegal or decriminalized) or its physical location (strip club, massage parlor, street, escort/home/hotel), prostitution is extremely dangerous for women. Homicide is a frequent cause of death....

It is a cruel lie to suggest that decriminalization or legalization will protect anyone in prostitution. It is not possible to protect someone whose source of income exposes them to the likelihood of being raped on average once a week." [15]

"Even if a prostitute is being tested every week for HIV, she will test negative for at least the first 4-6 weeks and possibly the first 12 weeks after being infected.... This means that while the test is becoming positive and the results are becoming known, that prostitute may expose up to 630 clients to HIV. This is under the best of circumstances with testing every week and a four-week window period. It also assumes that the prostitute will quit working as soon as he or she finds out the test is HIV positive, which is highly unlikely. This is not the best approach for actually

reducing harm. Instead, in order to slow the global spread of HIV/AIDS we should focus our efforts on abolishing prostitution." [16]

Considering, all these information about prostitution, prostitution should be legalized so law enforcement will be put to better use. Policemen effort and time to find and prosecute the prostitutes and their customers could be saved to take care of more important things and be able to help people in more important situations. It would not only help in controlling something will is practiced with all illegal aspects, but also provide a better chance for people involved in it to have a dignified life. Their social security, children's future, health care would be far more better than what is prevailing in the current scenario of country India.



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***Peeking through with a Gender Lens:
Similarities and Peculiarities of Human Trafficking Cases in the Philippines***

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Introduction

Trafficking in Persons (TIP) is a prevalent social malady in the Philippines, being both an act and condition that is committed by perpetrators against unwitting, sometimes even knowing, victims. According to the TIP Report (TIPS) prepared by the US State Department, Philippines is a “source, transit, and destination country for men, women, and children trafficked for commercial sexual exploitation and forced labor”(US State Dept., 2009).

In 2006, the International Labor Organization estimates around 1.8 million Filipino workers of illegal status including trafficked victims (ILO, 2006). The government estimates on the number of women trafficked range from 300,000 to 400,000 (US State Dept., 2008).

Cases of TIP negatively impact states and other actors on both national and international scale. The UN TIP Protocol, which forms part of the Convention against Transnational Organized Crimes, defines TIP as “the transport of persons, by means of coercion, deception, or consent for the purpose of exploitation such as forced or consensual labor or prostitution.”

According to the UN GIFT an estimated U.S. \$31.6 Billion is the derived annual profit extracted by human traffickers from exploited and forced labor. Of this, US\$ 9.7 Billion or 30.6% of the total US \$31.6 billion is generated from the Asia-Pacific region (Ibid). The Philippines is one of the main source points of forced and sexual labor to wealthy countries. The Philippines is categorized by the U.S. State Department as Tier 2 in its TIPS watch list.

The Philippines being one of the signatories of the Palermo Protocol, have instituted legal and administrative mechanisms aimed at addressing TIP domestically. The Philippine legislature enacted in 2003 the Republic Act 9208 otherwise known as the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act. This is the country’s foremost legal mechanism designed to provide structure for mechanisms addressing TIP.

However, policies combating TIP and its implementation lack depth of understanding of the differing needs of male and female victims of TIP. These being the result of: (a) Existing policies’ failure to incorporate the Gender Perspective in addressing TIP, (b) The inability of relevant stakeholders to look into the issues and problems related to TIP from the lens of gender perspective, and (c) Existing misconceptions that society has regarding men and women in general.

Acknowledging that even men and boys are trafficked is an often overlooked detail of the entire picture of TIP. D’Cunha argues that “gender stereotypes that present men as powerful and operating in the public sphere, and women as passive and primarily relegated to the privacy of domesticity, feed the misconception in many societies that men migrate, but women are trafficked”.

This paper seeks to explore the realities embedded in human trafficking by answering addressing this overarching question: What are the peculiarities of cases of male TIP compared to female TIP in the Philippines? This paper shall then: (1) Identify and discuss the differences in terms of experiences and special needs of female from male

TIP victims and (2) Locate the gender perspective in the existing policies and responses of both governmental and non-governmental organizations in addressing TIP.

With an eye for the gender dimension of TIP, this paper shall focus on the differences of experiences and needs of male and female victims of TIP. It shall also examine different governmental & NGO policy-interventions and whether or not it incorporates the gender perspective in addressing this transnational crime.

This study shall therefore limit its analysis and scope to the differentiated male and female perspective of TIP as it occurs in the Philippines using the gender analytical frame in analyzing whether responses and policies of the government are gender sensitive and whether experiences of male and female TIP victims differ.

This paper utilizes the Gender Analysis as its frame of analysis. Gender Analysis is “a set of processes for assessing and deepening understanding about the differences in the lives of women and men, their participation in social and economic life, and the differential impacts on their lives of policies, programs and services” (Office for Women-Queensland Gov’t., 2009). This is important as in the Philippines, and everywhere else, women and girls are treated differently from men and boys.

Gender analysis is used to investigate the impacts of policies, programs and services to the well-being of men and women and is logically inclined to analyze gender roles according to four categories: (1) **reproductive roles**-household, and therefore uncompensated, work (Swiss Agency for Dev’t & Cooperation), (2) **productive role**, refers to activities of women and men that produce economic resources, in cash or kind (Ibid), (3) **community-management role**, refers to voluntary activities at community level to ensure the provision and maintenance of collective resources and infrastructures and (4) **constituency-based politics role**, includes political and advocacy activities at the community, local, national and/or international levels, within traditional structures. This work shall proceed in analyzing the gender responsiveness of interventions of (a) CSOs-NGOs and (b) Governmental Agencies.

Defining Human Trafficking

According to Bruckert and Parent (2002), the definition of TIP as a transnational crime became uniform in the 80s and 90s, consolidating differing definitions by scholars. In efforts to fully understand this phenomenon and create a scientific and knowledge-based approach towards its understanding, TIP has been given internationally accepted definitions delineating it from other forms of illegal activities. This is due to the assumption that formal actors cannot frame tangible actions suppressing TIP in the absence of a clear definition and relevant knowledge related to this phenomenon.

According to Trainor and Belser (2006), TIP exists in an illicit global market dependent on the factors motivating demand and supply. Despite a set of internationally accepted laws and regulations designed to prevent it, trafficking continues as an exchange between traffickers and exploiters (Ibid). Victims of trafficking are treated as commodities “supplied” by recruiters and “demanded” by brothel or sweat-shop owners (Ibid). Demand for sexual services motivates the supply for trafficked prostitutes. The suppliers of these services are the brothel or sweat-shop owners.

Shahani (2013), discussed that from 2005 to 2012, there were around 1, 693 officially recorded cases of trafficking in the country. There exists an international and globalized market with significant power-differential gaps where the center has predatory demand for surplus human resource from developing countries (Ibid). In most cases, this widespread phenomena of fluid movements of people within and outside the country, is largely subservient to societal, economic and political infrastructures established by technological advance and globalization. Thus, the core-periphery analogy reintegrates magnetism of surplus labor from impoverished peripheral countries towards wealthy core countries where job opportunities are abundant and deficit in human resource due to declining fertility rates. The 12th most populous country in the world with limited job opportunities for professional and skilled workers, Philippines is among developing countries supplying cheap labor worldwide. The demand for cheap labor, according to Neomarxists, is enabled by neoliberal ideologies that capitalize heavily on imperialism, colonization and globalization. The confluence of these factors results in the prevalence TIP cases in the Philippines.

What inundates this movement of labor force from the Philippines to well-off states are: (1) growing demand for “caring labor”; (2) sophisticated policies for cultivating and marketing labor overseas; (3) concomitant dependence of the Philippine economy to OFW remittances to fuel domestic consumption, real-estate boom and economic growth (Ibid). Such an environment “opens multiple pathways for the workings of trafficking.” “There is a continuum of facilitation ranging from fairly transparent recruitment at one end to the flow through networks tightly controlled by organized criminal groups at the other” (Lee, 2005). An underground industry that facilitates this transnational crime capitalizes in its being a “low risk, high profit enterprise.”

“Given advances in communications, transportation and computerized banking, government policies that encourage migration, along with rising global demands for certain kinds of labor, traffickers can take advantage of larger supplies of humans, turning them into cheap and disposable –but eminently renewable—commodities” (Shahani, 2013). TIP could only thrive given the level of tolerance reflected in Philippine society’s societal infrastructures (Ibid).

A. Gender analysis of TIP in the Philippines

The differences of gender roles spell differences in the ways by which men and women victimized. Females are victimized due to the attributes attached to their reproductive roles, and their incapacity for self-determination caused by severe economic restrictions. These two gender roles combined, account for the primary reasons behind women being subjected to TIP. Men are equally trafficked according to their gender attributes. Demand for cheap labor is supplied by male victims in an effort to perform their roles as providers for their families. In a recent survey conducted by the National Police Commission (NAPOLCOM), there is a great disparity in terms of the ratio of female victims from male victims. Of the government case files by NAPOLCOM, there were only 3 males of the 123 victims (Leones & Caparas, 2001). Apparently, it is the fulfillment of reproductive (for women) and productive (for men) gender roles that are the main push factors for TIP in the Philippines. Filipina women are more prone to TIP than Filipino men given the disparities of gender roles each is assigned. A patriarchal society that condemns women to specific female gender role e.g. reproductive, is

epiphenomenal with the underdevelopment of other female gender roles which are confluent to their vulnerabilities to TIP.

Criminal elements working for owners of night clubs and brothels that cater to this “sexual” demand mobilize a vast network of recruiters to provinces and far-flung areas to recruit young women through promises of good employment. These are women unemployed, uneducated and heavily burdened by their reproductive roles at home. Traffickers use deception, indentured labor and force to traffic these victims. As the respondents have shared, fulfillment of female reproductive roles as carers for their family motivated them to seek employment abroad thereby being subjected to TIP in the process. Likewise, the need to provide for the needs of their families prompted male and female victims to access work abroad as there are no available jobs in their respective localities.

Male victims are unrecorded and are therefore lesser in number due to their reluctance to portray themselves as victims, a clear sign of weakness. This is reflected in the inexistence of a gender disaggregated data regarding TIP and the gender blind law enforcement measures and rehabilitative programs for TIP victims. Official records documenting the cases of male victims are not registered as cases of TIP but as ordinary labor cases. Undocumented cases may be attributed to the Filipino male’s cultural and societal preconditions, such as the concept of machismo that prevents them from willingly projecting themselves as victims. Inaccurate data pertinent to TIP is mainly responsible for the misunderstanding, confusion and neglect of duty-bearers in curbing other forms of violations resembling TIP.

The Commonalities and Peculiarities

I. Male and Female TIP Victims Profile and Experiences

According to the UNODC 2012 Global Report on TIP, majority of Filipino victims of TIP are under debt bondage, and most of them are trafficked for sexual exploitation, prostitution and pornography. Other victims were trafficked for purposes of forced labor, slavery, and child labor (Ibid). Interestingly, the Philippines is among the only three countries with reports of recorded cases of male TIP. The same report shows that the Philippines have established domestic and international routes of TIP.

Domestically, victims from provinces are trafficked to key cities for cheap labor as construction workers, household help or prostitutes. Internationally, Filipino TIP victims are trafficked and were detected largely in the Asia-Pacific, South Asian and East Asian Regions, mostly for the same purposes.

The Coalition Against Trafficking of Women in the Asia-Pacific (CATW-AP) claims there is a significant variation in terms of the range of ages of female victims depending upon whose data it is being used. Blas Ople Policy Center and Training Institute (BOPCTI) claim that ages ranges from 15-40 years old while the Visayan Forum Foundation, through an interview conducted by Newsbreak magazine, place the age range at 12-22 years. Majority of them come from rural areas and recruited to work as domestic helpers, sales ladies or nannies. They had limited education and belonged to families with 6-11 members (Enriquez: <http://catwap.wordpress.com/>). In

sum, the common notions of the female victims' gender roles in both their communities of origin and destination exacerbate their susceptibility to dangers of TIP.

In an interview with the BOPCTI key informant, majority of the female victims that they rescue and rehabilitate are subjected to multiple forms of VAWs. In the cases handled by BOPCTI, female victims trafficked to Malaysia are predominantly victims of sexual exploitation and slavery while those in the Middle East are victims of physical and sexual violence and labor related abuses. Sordid stories of women being found dead after they were locked in drums in a cargo vessel were shared according to the Center for Women's Resources to the Philippine Center on Transnational Crime (PCTC). Another case involved Filipinas found frozen dead in a van while being transported across borders in Europe (<http://www.pctc.gov.ph/>).

Majority of the recorded male victims are adults, married and had families who depended on them (Verite). They comprise 15% of the total number of trafficking victims all over the world (UNODC, 2012), most of whom are skilled and experienced blue collar workers; many are degree holders and licensed professionals. Most are passport holders and legally documented. They are trafficked to work as fishermen and construction workers in (Sabah) Malaysia, ship crew of illegal vessels in Taiwan, forced laborers in the Middle East. Their ages range 21-50 years old (Verite). Most of these victims have experienced forced labor conditions, physical and verbal abuse, other forms of labor malpractices and even sexual abuse according to the key informant.

The other side of gender-sensitivity

In most cases, NGOs and government agencies' proclivity to interpret gender sensitivity as a one dimensional focus on women's special needs results in the neglect of specific needs of male victims of TIP. This is reflected by the assumption that women and children are the referent objects of existing international and national laws. While it is a fact that women are victimized by TIP, men are equally victimized and have gender-specific needs. This gender bias is manifested by the fact that all over Philippines, there are very few shelters provided for male TIP victims. Majority of government and NGO-run shelters are designed for female victims. The lack of data documenting male TIP victims is interpreted as the latter's non-existence.

II. Modus Operandi and Profile of Traffickers

TIP victims are promised high-paying jobs in their destination areas by traffickers. Victims are made to believe that their traffickers will shoulder their exorbitant placement fees and other expenses so that when the victim arrives in the place of destination, she is already heavily indebted. Beholden to this debt, the victim is then forced to perform slave-like or sexual services in order to pay for these debts.

Of convicted traffickers in the Philippines, 77% are men and the rest are women. In the case of male victims, majority were deceived by male recruiters. Verite reported that majority of the victims have voluntarily entered the destination country where the exploitation took place. For higher salaries and higher hazard pay, many Filipino men are willingly trafficked into hazardous zones in the Middle East despite government bans. On the other hand, majority of recruiters of female victims are also women they

are familiar with e.g. relatives (CATW-AP). Victims are recruited by both local and foreign recruiters.

Modus Operandi

The BOPCTI key informant described the Modus Operandi of TIP syndicates as being network-like and complex to be fully addressed by one-dimensional approaches. Traffickers are mere facilitators of demands coming from recruitment agencies and direct employers. He pointed out that individuals and organizations with high demand for sex workers and cheap labor “outsource” to ground-level recruiters who merely perform segmentalized portions of the trafficking process. They are in concert with established networks of local drivers, port inspectors, and victims’ travel escorts who are unknown to each other. This enables risk-free TIP operations that are hard to detect, trace and prosecute. In case of arrest, detained trafficker cannot pinpoint or identify other actors. Demand is then outsourced to another supplier. Compounding the issue are the law enforcers complicit in these trafficking schemes.

Common among male and female victims is the use of deception and force of recruiters. Majority of male victims voluntarily apply for work abroad although some are also subjected to similar patterns of trafficking experienced by most of female victims. The key informant discussed that victims are made to sign contracts with promising salaries and excellent working conditions. Only upon arrival in their destination country that they find out that those contracts are replaced with terms that are below what was agreed upon. Other victims deceived that their agencies have paid for their expensive placement fee or transport fee and thus direct deductions were made from their salaries. Deep in debt, male victims, like female victims, are forced to serve beyond maximum terms of their contracts, made to work in inhumane conditions, or sold-off to slavery or sexual labor.

Responses to TIP in the Philippines

B. Governmental and Non-Governmental responses

Discussion and analysis of this section focus on the different governmental policies and actions undertaken by governmental agencies with particular attention to Gender Perspective or lack thereof. In the same manner, NGO interventions tackling TIP shall also be discussed.

I. Governmental Responses

The Philippines ratified R.A.9208 or the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003 which formalizes and structures governmental efforts systematically addressing TIP. Section 3(a) of this law provides a clear and concise definition by which acts constitutive of TIP are classified and could be meted corresponding penalties. Section 20 of RA9208 mandates the establishment of the Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (IACAT), which follows a multi-stakeholder approach to combat human trafficking. It undertakes measures to prevent and suppress TIP and ensures the victims’ recovery, rehabilitation and reintegration into mainstream society (Gutierrez, 2013).

RA10362 was ratified by congress in order to expand and cover aspects of TIP previously unaddressed by RA9208. The pertinent provisions contained by this amendatory law are: 1.) removal of the confidentiality clause on the identity and modus operandi of the accused in trafficking cases, 2.) the definition and provisions concerning “attempted,” and the “act,” of TIP for involuntary servitude and forced labor, 3.) amendments to the definition of child-trafficking to include barter, sale and trade of children.

In spite of their merits, these laws fail to incorporate thoroughly the gender perspective despite the gender mainstreaming campaigns of the government.

The Philippine government through the IACAT has recently prioritized the institutionalization of the gender perspective in its policy mechanisms and organizational undertakings. It is only recently that IACAT recognized the importance of: (a) collating gender disaggregated data that are useful in understanding and responding to TIP and (b) a gender-sensitive procedures of handling TIP cases. IACAT and its member agencies have been active in seeking international networks’ inputs and resources in its campaign against TIP.

The key respondent from the TIP division of the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), a member agency of IACAT, claimed that IACAT is finalizing its “Protocol on Handling Victims of Trafficking” which is currently in the hands of the Department of Justice for review. This protocol which explicitly incorporates the gender perspective is aimed at providing capacities to agencies, institutions and ground-level personnel to standardize and formalize operational procedures.

Currently, IACAT is using the “Performance Standards and Assessment Tools for Psychosocial Counseling Services for Women-Victims of Violence and Their Children” manual, according to the key respondent. While generally aiming to provide professional and accessible gender-sensitive psychosocial intervention for victims of VAWC, the guideline is the closest standardized institutional material available in addressing gender-specific rehabilitative and reintegration concerns of female TIP victims.

The Philippine National Police crafted the “Standard Operating Procedures for Trafficking in Person Investigations” (trafficking.org.ph, 2013). It is a step-by-step guide for front-line investigators and supervisors. It teaches risk assessment, management of victims, and the use of special tools and techniques to pursue and investigate TIP (Ibid). The manual emphasizes the importance of strategic planning, and outlines the roles played by case managers, investigators and investigation unit chiefs. A key objective is to enable the preparation of air-tight cases that lead to the successful prosecution of offenders (ibid). However, the effect of this welcome development is yet to be seen as it was only rolled-out this year.

Hierarchy of Lenses

Before law enforcement agencies are able to effectively evaluate a victim’s situation and apply appropriate gender-specific responses, generic TIP lens must be used. This means that ground-level law enforcement agents should be familiar with the basic

rubric in identifying cases that are categorizable as TIP. In the absence of this preliminary lens, the fullest extent by which the gender perspective may become an efficient tool of response may never be realized. It goes without saying that the same personnel must also be equipped with gender sensitivity skills in order to fully take into account the situation of the victims and recommend appropriate gender-sensitive interventions.

The BOPCTI key informant cited that governmental interventions continue to overlook the importance of gender perspective in addressing TIP. For example, the respondent has seldom observed that at least a woman interviewer is appointed to interview a female trafficking victim who has experienced sexual abuse. Initially recorded as ordinary cases of sexual harassment or labor malpractice, certain cases referred to BOPCTI are assessed as TIP only upon meticulous interview and debriefing. In the experiences of TIP victims coming from Sabah Malaysia, port authorities and law enforcement agencies are more inclined to view and treat the former as refugees and not as TIP victims. These incidences are thus officially recorded and data-banked as cases of displacement and not trafficking. Reintegration programs are conducted but are oftentimes inattentive to gender needs especially for those who experienced VAW and other forms of abuse. At times, psychosocial interventions may be given but are likewise gender-blind. This is due to the absence of an accurate data that is gender disaggregated. It follows that if concerned governmental agencies are unable to detect the victims' situation as falling in the mold of TIP, appropriate interventions will not be applied.

The tendency for government agencies is to respond with temporary and band-aid solutions.

II. Non-Governmental Organizations' Responses

Anti-TIP NGOs are acknowledged for different interventions that have positively impacted victims, and their families. Their incessant lobbying, tireless networking activities, continued rescue operations and many more unsung efforts have contributed to the ongoing campaign against trafficking. Aside from their respective interventions, anti-trafficking NGOs are also effective interlocutors of victims' needs and interventions available in different formal venues. In the absence of needed programs or interventions, NGOs have been there to supply it.

Despite these, not all NGOs employ gender-aware measures in their campaign against TIP. If the gender perspective is to be used in evaluating measures initiated by these NGOs, the Philippine anti-trafficking movement is still far from achieving a generally gender-aware approach to TIP. This is perfectly understandable given the natural diversity of anti-TIP NGOs which belong to various backgrounds (e.g. religious NGOs, feminist NGOs, etc).

Among the most gender-sensitive NGO response against TIP is that of the Coalition Against Trafficking in Women Asia Pacific (CATW-AP). CATW-AP's programs address the demand side of TIP. The CATW believes that demand for sexual services is among the determinants of the existence of TIP. CATW is currently lobbying for the legislation of an anti-prostitution law that will increase penalties for buyers in the sex industry (Enriquez: <http://catwap.wordpress.com/>). CATW-AP spearheaded a program

correcting the sexual socialization process and perceptions of young men aged 17-21, educating them about sexuality, attitudes and behavior towards women, and the issue of prostitution (Ibid). CATW-AP has already conducted eight (8) camps in the three (3) major islands of the country since 2004, imparting knowledge to 304 young men from schools and communities (Ibid). The initiatives undertaken by CATW-AP open spaces for replication by other NGOs and evidences the doability of creating, on both normative and institutional level, campaign activities and even policy mechanisms hinged on the gender perspective.

The International Justice Mission (IJM), another anti-TIP NGO runs “Project Lantern.” This initiative is composed of (1) law enforcement, (2) prosecution and the court system, (3) victim aftercare, (4) labor regulation, (5) local government unit oversight, and (6) civil society engagement (www.ijm.org). IJM has been responsible for the institutionalization of gender-sensitive innovations in court proceedings for TIP victims. One such innovation is the creation of a separate waiting area for women/children victims of TIP in the Cebu city/province courthouse preventing victims from being harassed by the trafficker and allowing the prosecution of the case to pursue.

IJM employs gender-sensitive aftercare of female TIP victims. It also assisted DSWD region 7 in establishing “HerSpace” Processing Centers inside DSWD’s Crisis Intervention Unit. Immediately after TIP victims are rescued from brothels, victims are interviewed and processed by trained DSWD personnel and member of the IJM inside the “HerSpace,” separate from the holding cell or processing area of the trafficker. This innovation allows the victim to feel that she is not at fault or that she is not being detained, lessening trauma. It also frees the victim from the intimidating police station environment. It also physically distances her from her tormentor, preventing her from threats and harassment. Finally, it allows the victim to gradually adjust before she is further subjected to aftercare interventions which IJM also provides in partnership with DSWD. IJM is also in partnership with several NGOs in improving the physical layout of shelters, improving security and spaces for interaction of victims.

Most important though is the campaign of IJM to develop economic self-determination of victims. IJM’s ESSR or Economic Self-Sufficiency and Re-integration Project, is a program that aims to increase “realistic and sustainable opportunities for economic self-sufficiency for trafficking victims.” IJM recommends their trained beneficiaries to local employers and have been successful in giving employment opportunities to former TIP victims. This is important as economic self-sufficiency allows former victims to extricate themselves from cyclical abuse that is a product of economic deprivation and dependency.

NGOs have been among the most innovative and creative forces in addressing TIP and this sector have been successful in filling-in gaps that are left unaddressed by the government. However, in the context of gender mainstreaming or in making approaches and interventions more gender sensitive, much coordinative work and sharing of expertise has yet to be done.

Conclusion

In this study, the use of the gender analytical framework has been vital in exposing factors, details and conditions which are often concealed from conventional worldview. Gender analysis applied in the context of TIP in the Philippines was able to surface normally overlooked gender roles and perspectives that have been persistent in the Philippine society. This is important since most literature available regarding TIP are either products of efforts of government institutions and agencies (and are therefore more policy-oriented) or informal actors such as CSOs and NGOs (thus, more action-oriented and are created for lobbying purposes). It is very clear that the precursors of TIP are conditions produced by gender inequalities. Gender Analysis explains the different social factors responsible for the predominant victimization of women to TIP and exposed existing concepts of manhood/maleness as the main factors concealing actual cases of male TIP. Analysis of the different reproductive, productive, community management and political roles of women from men allowed the researcher to nuance and trace the availability of gender responsive policies and interventions, even the lack thereof. Understanding the TIP situation in this country gives policy-makers and other concerned organizations a leg-up in creating victim-centered and gender sensitive policies.

It is assumed that gender-specific responses should be available to cater to the specific needs of the victims according to their gender. As this study has yielded, this is not always the case. Sustained efforts or the exploration of other efficient methods of dealing with TIP should be hinged on the gender perspective. Even if much attention has been given to cases of TIP in the Philippines and its female dimension, it appears that concerned governmental agencies have been inattentive to the special needs of women victims and the rarely acknowledged cases of male TIP. On different levels of policy-making and implementation, starting from the collation of gender disaggregated data, usage of such data in the development of corresponding policy mechanisms that address gender-specific issues pertaining TIP, creation of gender-sensitive measures that are victim-centric, to careful and meticulous implementation of such provisions that is constantly improved by a regular evaluation process, gender perspective must be injected.

IACAT have been sluggish in mainstreaming the gender perspective in its undertakings and policies, although it is making significant strides in terms of policy legislations. There is still a need for sustained and heightened gender-mainstreamed policy interventions and collation of gender disaggregated data pertaining TIP. Gender-sensitivity trainings and programs are most welcome especially for field operatives and law enforcement agents. Further, Gender analysis is an effective diagnostic tool in determining factors behind gender-blind policies in urgent need of amendments. It is most important to note that the gender perspective will never be realized nor properly incorporated in policies and programs if it is not anchored on the universal human rights.

NGOs also have a fair share of gender blindness. Although impressive reform undertakings and interventions were made possible by these organizations, not all are able to mainstream the gender perspective in their interventions. There is still room for improvement to an already impressive array of interventions made available by NGOs such as BOPCTI, IJM and CATW-AP. The laurels garnered from small yet

significant victories must not be limited within their organizational auspices; such expertise must be shared to other NGOs engaged in the fight against TIP. These replicable practices are supposed to be disseminated and supported by governmental and funding agencies.



***Intercultural Education: Balancing Tradition and Multiculturalism
in a Technological Society***

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Abstract

Our global community lives in an intercultural world, the clichéd melting pot of values, integrated into a unified global culture, where unique nations strive to retain their originality and promote individualism. Cultural unification is one of the challenging social issues of contemporary life, as present as a society's need to survive in different climates, geographic conditions, and for and foremost survive in a global world with mixed social rules and conditions. Cultural “measurements” of difference in terms of regions, ethnicities, religions, genders, generations and class are popular in the social sciences, and the development of intercultural education as a part of curriculum has become key. Yet, it is difficult to measure intrinsic knowledge, let alone the spiritual health of a community or ethnic enclave. Social knowledge and the individuals' sense of connection within a community—be it national or ethnic—is immeasurable and *immeasurably* important. This paper will address the regulation of such ‘measures’ as they are mediated through the educational process. Specifically, we will focus on how to implement and measure the acknowledgement and respect of difference within an educational setting, such that a unified nationality maintains the traditions and nuances of subgroups and encourages individuals to tailor their own cultural originality to become a worthy member of the global community. We will present a case study to illustrate these challenges, centering our research on the Georgian community in the United States.

Keywords: Georgia, Traditions, Assimilation, Education, Technology, Balance

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World society lives and develops in an intercultural environment. The universe is adjusting its existence to the conditions of globalization. Living in a century of technological change, for better or worse, means that this is a significant time when each minute gives us new chances for technological improvement. The opportunity for the rapid dissemination of information hastens the formation of an intercultural, unified and global society. The process of accumulation of different cultural values in a unified culture is a rapid and ongoing process, though still progress is complicated. Isolation, which is controlled with borders, stage-by-stage loses its power as far as the most communication is implemented via online space, area that is free from borders and problems handicapping the spread of any information novelties. Quite frequently the novelties are in contradiction with pre-existing rules and thus confrontation occurs. In contemporary society, the promotion of novelties and innovations are implemented so hastily that society cannot get well acquainted/educated with the novelties and thus it turns into a social issue. A relevant education should be an inseparable part of everyday life, though the contemporary world looks at this education in a different way.

The purpose of the current study is to explore the role of environment and role of family education on saving unique nations traditions in support of human happiness. To find out the relationship between ancient traditions and environmental influences based on Georgian and American cultural differences. In now days it is obvious that even every society is experiencing some kind of impact on their traditions and living habits. Rapidly developing modern technologies promote the popularization of intercultural perception. New styles of communication, online friendship, and the organization of online communities have generated interesting questions for researchers. The main purpose of these investigations is to make clear the positive and negative aspects regarding intercultural perception which become dominant in today's world. There are a lot of questions about how online communication changes our society, and why this new technological lifestyle (messaging, texting, online meetings) has become very useful.

National cultures despite their diversity face similar problems integrating old and new customs and traditions, managing the opposition between generations, and alleviating social conflict or alienation due to diversity, especially as technology invented to foster connection often proves isolating. Different cultures also facing the same difficulties in terms of saving their own specific life styles or cultural differences. Technological revolution made this process fast and uncontrolled. That is why in now days family role, early education and the living environment become very important and attributive. As is widely accepted, knowledge which comes from parents has enormous power and plays a significant role for every human personality, for the formation beliefs, which becomes the basis for choosing and defining one's own happiness. We will present an case study based on the observations and questionnaires to illustrate these challenges, centering this research on Georgian and American cultural differences. It is interesting to see how fast is influence from outside, from global world when people are immigrating from their country and what kind of impact globalisation makes on a society which keeps together people with absolutely same culture and traditions.

The psychological characterization of human qualities allows us to agree that, in general, despite cultural differences, or life style each of us wants to be a happy. Happiness is the most important basic condition, feeling, and emotion for every human. We can agree about it. But happiness can be very different for most of us. To find out the relationship or balance why happiness can have a different understanding must be not easy. Surely, we agree on its value, but its definition is more difficult to agree on. Happiness has a different meaning for different people, different ethnic groups, different cultures, nations, and different societies... Yes, of course, there are some general or basic features, such as health, which are universal for most of all humans, but still differences are significant, broad, meaningful and deep. Happiness is a belief. It is a thought, which comes from an understanding of the appearance, from an understanding of the problem or its outcomes. Understanding is related to knowledge. Likewise, knowledge is related to education. This makes it simple. Happiness is too close to education. Happiness is a very basic, fundamental, and no doubt, the most basic aspect/thought of a human being. At the same time we can say that we learn from our yearly childhood what is right, wrong, good, or bad. This means that instinctively we feel what provokes pleasure in us, and to we are called to happy moments in our lives, but the fact is that happiness can be more global and emotional than physical emotions only. This is a more meaningful thought, which calls forth happiness. This is a notion, further, which comes from a family value, cultural differences, or social rules we are used to and we come to appreciate. Human values can be different. The understanding of “wrong” or “right” can be exceptional, and this is why globalization and multiculturalism causes of a lot of confusions in today’s world. Every individual is learning what makes him or her happy. This is basic knowledge, which is called culture. Sometimes culture is taken like a tool of stability and understanding of life. Sometimes it is characterized like an obstacle on a way of happy, free, and easy life.

For ancient culture disregard of traditions means the loss of individualism. Yet, cultures, which are blended by the influence of contemporary life, face a loss of origins. Traditions carry the information and ceremony essential for the transmission of cultures. This is a vision in many countries. Georgia is one the best examples among the countries thinking in this way. Georgia has a position as a crossroads between the continents of Europe and Asia. The culture of the Georgians is a similar mix. Their history stretches back unbroken for many thousands of years. Local difficulties, traditions, and rules of life are distinctly Georgian. The Georgians were among the first peoples to convert as a nation to Christianity in the fourth century, and the Georgian Orthodox church has been the mainstay and today still plays an important role in modern society. Christianity is the state religion in Georgia, and it helps integrate all members of Georgian society. Time-worn traditions are still very important in Georgia of origin; for example, three generations usually live together under one roof, girls must remain virgins until marriage, and parents try to play an important role in their children’s future continuously even after they become an adult. For example, one of the very characteristic ancestral traditions which Georgians still value is the quality of invitation and hospitality at home, including welcoming unexpected guests at any time of day or night without any exceptions. Georgians always are ready to entertain guests without prior discussion or personal invitation. This ancient nation preserves and practices a special protocol regarding the entertaining of guests and table rules. Similarly, without question, Georgians value education and encourage their children to obtain a diploma and then seek a good job.

Lastly, Georgia survived as a nation because of family education, which means to teach generations exactly how to follow traditions.

Currently, Georgian society living in Georgia or abroad, like other historical nations around the globe, faces cardinal different challenges. Many old traditions are timeworn, inappropriate for present-day life and impede the development of certain nations and peoples. Quite frequently, within the same cultures, the different generations disagree about how it is possible to ignore inherited, obsolete traditions. It is obvious that ancient nations and cultures are proud of their historical past and the heroic achievements of ancestors. Such pride is a testament to the fact that many powerful and ancient cultures and civilizations have died out and still the small nation of Georgia is vibrant. Talks on ancient cultures, extinct or survived civilizations will drive us into the depths. Many ancient nations cite traditions as paramount to the basis (and perhaps the only way) for their survival; the national identity demands that certain lifestyle habits carry through the centuries and be kept with delicacy. But being proud does not mean that nation is ready to follow the same living rules on traditions. That is why the entire Georgian society face several problems: sexual minorities and attitude towards them; religion and government cooperation, the problem of alienation of generations; aggression; complicated public relations; disenfranchised teenagers and the deterioration of family.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that happiness is a thought which comes from free will, from free choice, and happiness starts with freedom. Understanding is related to knowledge. Likewise, knowledge is related to education. So, coming from that we have to choose or in a better way, we have to balance between Happiness of Novelties and Happiness of Traditions; Family Education or Environmental Teaching. For a Georgian raised in the traditional Georgian family, a sense of history and traditional attitudes and values are defining and *a priori*. However, American born Georgian children have quite different attitudes regarding the traditions. It is a fact that environment has a significant influence on a person. The surrounding environment where these children were born (the USA) is significantly different from the environment in which their parents were brought up (republic of Georgia). American born young Georgians better understand the American culture than Georgian traditions, despite the fact that still how strongly every immigrant family tries to keep the balanced Georgian traditions inside of family. It is obvious that some archaic traditions are look like being an unacceptable for youth the contemporary times. As for every Georgian we have no intention to offend the traditions of people in general, nor the memory of our ancestors' ways and values. It is truly hard and needs to be explained specifically how the word "tradition" carries crucial importance for nations with long histories and deeply ingrained cultural customs and mores and, further, why this issue is complicated and delicate. Traditions sometimes are very closely connected to self-esteem. Ancient nations equate the rejection of traditions with disrespect or a disavowal of one's true self. This is very strong side of the problem on a way to understand deepness of Georgian culture, but meaning of all these ancient traditions becoming weaker at American environment even at republic of Georgia where entire society was raised on the same cultural specifics.

The massive immigration of Georgians to the United States started over two decades ago. This is one reason why the issue of keeping traditions was not a painful and noticeable process for the Georgian immigration in the USA. After Georgian children

grew up in the USA, an American childhood defined their different perception of life. Youth do not understand as much the need for living with and preserving old Georgian traditions, which led our Georgian ancestors through centuries up to present days. At this crossroads stands, now, the real opportunity of keeping the national Georgian language and culture, keeping of traditions of relatives, hospitality, marriages and family. Youth choose the modern, particularly American style of life. Still, the problem of the influence of globalization is painful in Georgia as well. As I noticed above, due to modern technologies now it is not necessary for a human to travel a lot. Gaining information on different life styles is simplified. Consequently, future generations overlook the traditional lifestyle without thinking twice and give advantage to the modern and contemporary one. At this point, traditions can be erased when young Georgians assimilate into American culture.

As given in the title of the topic, the attitude to the issue of this research determines the intention not to reject the traditions but to recast them in balanced focus. The surroundings, where the observation took place is more than suitable for this productive research and for making systematic observation. North East Philadelphia is an area which is densely settled with Georgian immigrants who arrived in the USA during the last two decades. In the neighborhood there is a Georgian orthodox church which keeps Georgian community more unified together and somehow it helps to save ancient Georgian traditions too. This observation include to study a lifestyle of the Georgian families living in the USA and try to analyze the natural synchronization of the ancient Georgian traditions and modern contemporary American lifestyle.

Ten years ago, when I first started my observation of Georgian immigrants living at the USA, I discovered how different was the cultural world here from Georgian traditional life style. American living environment was full with different cultural interests, and new values. The differences between Georgian and American cultures are broad and distinct. Of course, there are many interesting details and similarities between too. For example, the aspiration for freedom, the love of hospitality, and a sense of purpose and curiosity for new things; a respect of family and have pride in the children. But on the other hand, there are a significant differences. One major difference entails the interrelation between generations in the family. For example, American parents have a different way of raising the future generation; they are more open with their children and give them freedom very early. American youths start to live without their parents at age 17-18. They earn their own money and don't feel responsible to assist their parents. They seek to purchase their own homes early in adulthood, instead of residing on their parents' property, as Georgians do. Americans youth are more independent at choosing their future education and making living plans; they apply themselves to finding the career in which they will feel comfortable in life, and seek to achieve the American dream of prosperity. In Georgia, the younger generation very often chooses a profession because of its popularity. Georgian youth very often are not as much independent in their educational goals because mostly there are dependent at their parents financially and morally too. On the other hand, Georgian parents are thinking there are fully responsible for their childrens financial side of education.

American and Georgian people have different views concerning friendship. For Americans friendship is more valued and popular during adolescence and young adulthood. In later life, new friendships develop less frequently than among

Georgians. On some stages of my research I used questionnaires. When I asked the reasons, why Americans lose touch with each other, the most of them explained it because of having very busy life and have little time to develop new friends. For Georgians friendship is like family in every life stages; this American phenomenon is unacceptable. Friends are part of the very fabric of a good life. They are considered part of every family, and Georgians spend a lot of time with friends whether they have time for this or not. Even neighbors wish to know each other, and very often they have very close relationships.

To changing living environment which Georgian immigrants are facing after immigration to the USA raises the importance of the question how to find a balance between old traditions and new challenges. The USA is a unique country in this regard. It is the most obvious and celebrated example of multiculturalism. America is a country, which does not force individuals to reject their traditions, religion, and cultural specifications, no matter how diverse or out of date these habits. America offers the freedom of choice and simultaneously suggests a great lure of becoming a typical American without having a historical motherland. This means that any ancient tradition is powerless against modernization. Though on the other hand, we should admit that close system cultural trends or cultural unions based on religions. Based on my observation the most strong tool (lever), for saving the historical culture is related to close to family education.

One of the brightest examples of this is the Amish community. This is a large group of people who immigrated to the USA in the early 18th century. The Amish have been able to maintain an 18th century lifestyle in a 21st century world and the establishment of new Amish communities is ongoing in nowadays. These people trace heritage back hundreds of years, and yet, despite all the time that has passed. They created their own world based on separation themselves from the rest of American society. The Amish are very devout in their faith. Belief in God and their separation from the rest of society actually helps them to strengthen their community with very strong sense of community spirit. The Amish culture continues its existence because America's Amish communities don't have electricity and there are living without technological improvements. Their top priorities: Their families, their farms, and the God. Happiness for them has a different definition. This seems to be a question: what kind of life style is mostly beneficial for human being in general; Is there any specific formula what kind of personality traits should we (parents!) try to raise into our kids (future generations!) to help them avoid confusion from living independent life; How to teach youth to associated themselves with positive psychological and social outcomes; How to avoid be involved into negative personal experiences and social consequences. The number one forbid for the Amish people are does not join world culture. Inaccessible separation is a strong point for existence of Amish today. They maintain this kind of life style, but not all culture or nation is as stronger in their beliefs. Go back to Georgian nation. It is obvious that as it in republic of Georgia, also in Georgian communities living abroad a nation has more and more disappointments between of generations or between a people itself with different understanding of nowadays problems.

Cohabitation of intercultural values means the creation of joint world culture, where each diverse trend should keep its individualism and universality despite of existence within the united society. This formulation of the issue is not a subject of complicated

perception, but is absolutely harmless, though when it comes to practical implementation, the difficulties we all are facing become seriously oppressive. Is there an opportunity for the formation of an intercultural, conflict free human focused society at the basis of traditions, national diversity and various perceptions of “right living”? How we can elaborate on such a joint vision in the perspective of mutual respect of differences and through the prism of a more accomplished, peaceful society oriented on human values, where each of us have more opportunities for a happy life?

The children are in a tough position developing in a globalized society using technological novelties continuously. Family has not enough time and power to keep a child in a close environment, which would help parents to raise a child with knowledge related to traditions, which can be transformed into confident beliefs. Only knowledge which evolves into a belief tends to survive. Otherwise, it has a chance to be under question and be changed. Coming from such consequences we can predict that every nation has a tendency to change, and it is matter of time.

Family Education (Yearly education) has gained more importance in comparison with the past. The 21st century proposes still more unanswered questions, and that’s precisely why it is so important for a given society to refresh itself through young people who are well informed on the histories of different nations. "Imagination is more important than knowledge," says Einstein. Knowledge makes the ability of imagination more vivid and sensible. This is a primary reason why education is an inseparable part of life. An individual, who is well informed and has the practice of information analysis and reasonable thinking, will be able to accept the modern challenges and participate actively in life and in the competitive environment dubbed as multicultural. In terms of teaching our children the right attitudes and values, first of all we should have the proper answer of the question asking, “What is *right*? Is there time for reassessing the system of values? It is a fact, that the universe still considers this issue in diverse ways.

American born Georgian children are rising not in a separate environment like Amish community for example. They are Americans with Georgian background, and Georgian immigrants families values the culture and traditions, which are American national traditions and living style as much as Georgian traditions. On the other hand, Georgians have a strong living in America still keep their Georgian traditions in their future generations somehow. The question stands like that: Both American and Georgian cultural specifics have some great and not us much helpful for life specifics in it. For most Georgian immigrants families the most important is to save the Georgian roots which at first means to have the religion(practicing , Georgian language, cultural features we always been proud of. The problem is to find a balance between them. There must be the better traditions for Americans which helps most of them to be a strong motivated people for example it must be great to learn for every Georgian how Americans are choose their future education. On the other hand, there are better Georgian traditions, which played survivor role in Georgian nations character and still have a vital importance for it. The best example is friendship and sense of community spirit between friends, which starts built from yearly childhood. The main purpose of this study is to help parents of “new Georgians” to understand importance of finding balance between right and useful educations. To help youth integrate easily and save their Georgian roots also based on their internal will and love of traditions. Based on Georgian traditions, to know more about your own ancestors helps every person to

better understand itself and life also. The history convince them how much it is possible from yearly age the human qualities which going to be helpful for them.

One of the questions of interest to the Georgian community at large living at Republic of Georgia and also immigrated and living at the USA is thr measure of degree of satisfaction with practicing Georgian traditions. As this study show there are considerable change in practicing time worn traditions and habits when Georgian people are living Republic of Georgia ans they are living in a different invironment like United States America. Thee hundred Georgians (160 females, 140 males) completed a packet of questionnaires regarding of importance of keeping Georgian tradicions, specifically in reference to teaching a young generations of their ancestors living priorities. Participants were recruited from Georgians living at republic of Georgia and Georgian immigrants living at the USA (Pennsilvania). The age group of participants were vary devided in a two groups: age group from 17 to 35 age group from 35 to 65. For this specific study, formed a questionnaire was formed to investigate the hypothesis. The questionnaire was used to measure participants' purpose, satisfaction, importance of keeping Georgian traditions.

Figure 1 displays the hypothesized results.

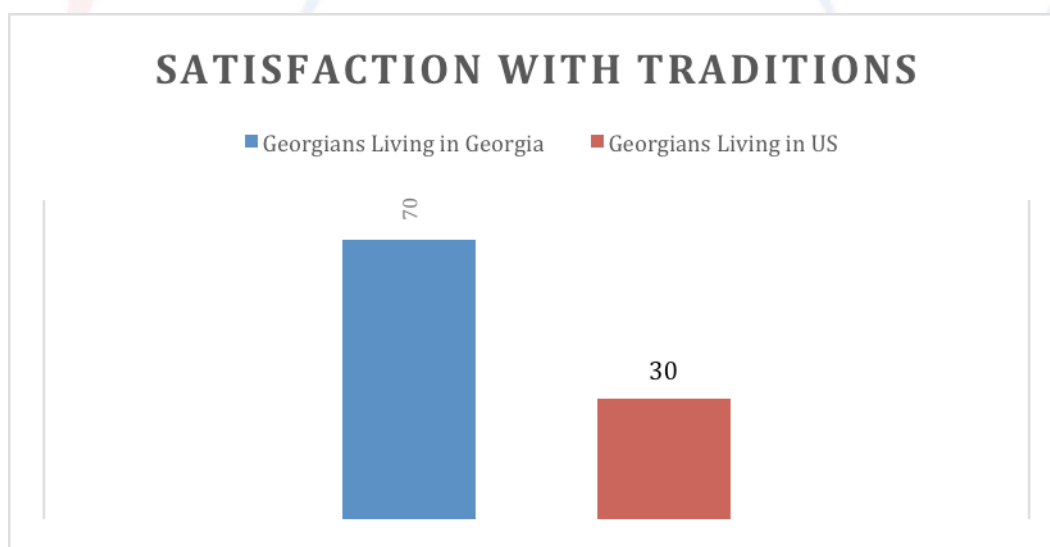
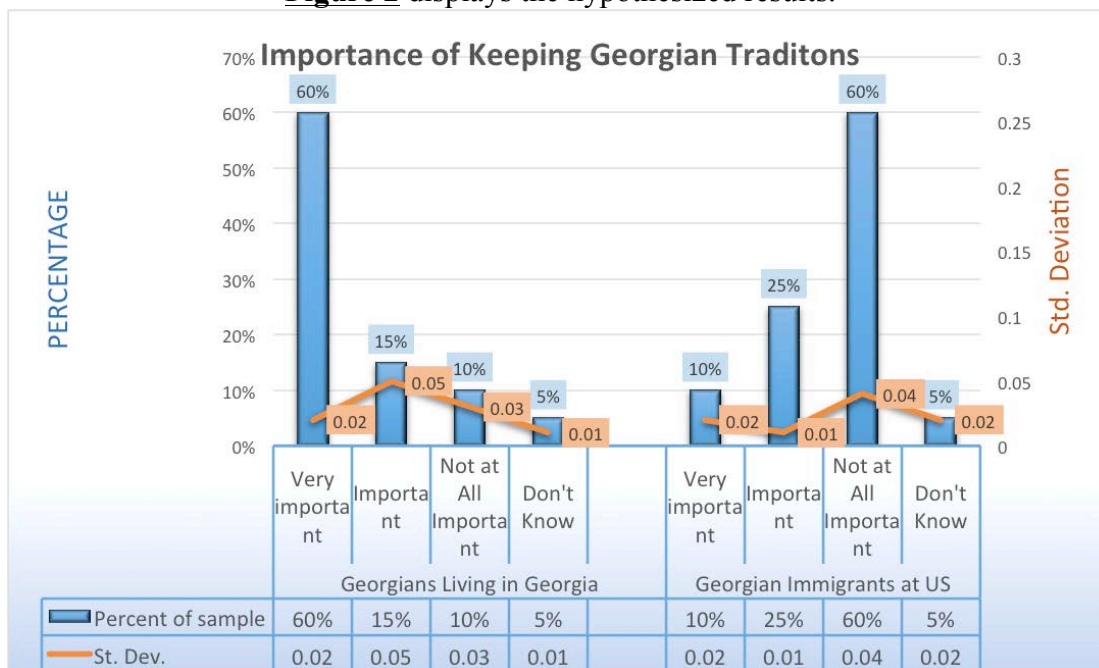


Figure 2 displays the hypothesized results.



The attraction of modernization among the youth becomes a reason for many problems. Actually, the intercultural formation is a painless process itself; it goes consciously and sensibly. Before one ignores a traditional lifestyle and chooses a new one, it is necessary to know the sense and ramifications of the new option. In the best case, one finds the golden mean, however this needs to elaborate the forms of cultural studies: Diverse cultures tend to merge with each other if these cultures exist side by side. Isolation is the strongest guarantee for keeping a culture specific. Thus the skills, habits and respect of traditions gained in the family from the early age provide a positive result. If a child assumes and believes that the family traditions are the only source for happiness, in such case he/she will rarely avoid this way to happiness. However, again we should take into consideration and deem as a determinant the fact that the learning of traditions in not to be conducted in an intercultural environment. Surrounded by different cultures, the influence of tradition on adolescents, in particular, is less effective, and further, the mentality of a young person starts the process of comparisons from the early age. If we teach love, conviction and traditional family attitudes in a certain culture to a young person, this will become his own and unique sense, and therefore there is more chance that such person will be more predisposed for defending the traditions. Simply said, this person will choose the form of life he comprehends and knows.

There is no precise definition of happiness, though a huge majority of people identifies it with freedom. The feeling of freedom for human beings comes with knowledge, self-esteem, and the right of choice. Knowledge can be based on different grounds. Let's glance back at the theme of traditions. There is a paradox: if a human is taught that traditions are equal to dogma, which limits the freedom of life, of course he or she will disregard such tradition. But on the other hand, when a person is taught traditions as strong tool and advantageous path to a happier life, he or she will feel comfortable finding a balance between preserving a strong national culture while making allowances to break comfortably with tradition to accommodate technology

and globalization. This is a formula experienced by the centuries, and humans choose traditions as a tool for the better life. If the basis for self-knowledge is accumulated in education, we should learn *living*. We should find the golden mean and show this way of education to the next generations.

This comparison was very illuminating for this research. It underlined once again that the differing roles played by persons of specific cultural differences and how vastly different people can be from each other. This study was made based on comparison Georgian and American environments and discussed how the factor of cultural difference is very important. A nation can keep cultural differences only if the same people share their values and their collective experiences. Otherwise, a nation has an influence and cultural differences tend to change.

The logo for the International Association for African and Oriental Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, semi-transparent circular arcs. The outer arc is a light red color, and the inner arc is a light blue color, matching the text. The arcs are positioned such that they appear to frame the text, with the red arc on the left and the blue arc on the right, creating a sense of depth and movement.

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***A Research over the Effects Of Customer Satisfaction and Customer Loyalty
Applications on Business Performance in Accommodation Enterprises***

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Abstract

The observation and pursuit of customer satisfaction level provide valuable data for tourism business executives. They are very important in terms of customer satisfaction, protection of the hotel competitiveness, commercial bring-in and sustainability. Because the best advertising always come from the satisfied customers via word of mouth communication. Besides, the preferability ratio of well promoted hotels are increasing.

It is more possible that unsatisfied clients may negatively affect their social circle comparing to satisfied clients. This idea verifies the importance of customer satisfaction at hotel business. The possibility of adverse publicity to be made by the clients, either unsatisfied by the service and check-out with negative impressions, may cause problems in the promotion of hotel. This situation will affect the occupancy rate which will bring financial problems in parallel.

The loyalty and satisfaction of the clients will be made possible as long as the market research feedbacks - determining the demographical, socio-economical and socio-cultural characteristics of the customers creating the target audience of the hotel business - are being reflected over the goods and services presented to customers. At the same time, the goods and services presented will be able to be perceived as high quality.

In this study, the affect of customer satisfaction and loyalty applications over the business performance is being researched. In this context, the main purpose of the research is to determine the level of applications being made for customer satisfaction and loyalty at accommodation business in Turkey and their affects over the business performance.

Keywords: Accommodation enterprises, Customer satisfaction, Customer loyalty, Customer value, Customer relations.

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1. Introduction

Accommodation business has realised that they can find an opportunity to differentiate and get ahead of their rivals with customer relations management in the tourism sector where competition is getting harder and profit margins are decreasing. However the process is not as easy it seems. Because in many establishments, regular data collections systems about the clients has not been set up. Most of the companies do not know who they market their product and they do not have a business tradition to start and sustain a client based business management process. An additional marketing and spending would require in order to create a good business reputation or to recover a bad reputation.

2. Customer Satisfaction

The most basic component of the marketing approach is customer satisfaction. Because the main factor affecting the future of business is the customer. Ensuring the customer satisfaction is one of the major challenges that a business facing. The financial resources needed to achieve the basic business objectives can be provided by making customers dependant to the product / service through customer satisfaction (Çakıcı, 1998: 9). There is an obvious customer dissatisfaction at business models which thinks that gaining more customers is the right approach and making their strategy over this idea.

The dissatisfaction comes out at client's side due to bad service /product and it appears as continous advertisements and low profit margins at manufacturer's side. Besides this, it is also possible to make serious profits by developing strategies over customer satisfaction, opening customer relations departments and giving the necessary importance to clients.

The benefit at customer's side comes out as satisfying product/service whilst it is more profit at manufacturer's side. The basic principle of customer satisfaction is quality presentation of the product/service and affective customer relations. Briefly, customer satisfaction consists of customer relations and customer service as a combination. For this reason, a revision process should be followed in the advantage of customers for better service and decisions should be made to even if it causes deficit in the business (Karpal, 1998: 23) .

As only the satisfied clients would be in a tendency to easily accept an offer; many businesses are aiming to satisfy their clients at highest level possible. Satisfied customers do not change their position easily when they hear a new offer. They do not approach to a satisfying brand rationally but emotionally. And this would bring out customer loyalty (Kotler, 2001: 36) .

A highly satisfied client may show following attitudes (Kotler, 2001: 48):

- Make the shopping for a longtime
- Purchase more as long as the business develops new and existing products.
- Make compliments about the business and its' products.
- Would not be interested with rival brands and price wouldn't be a priority anymore
- Would present ideas to the business about product and service

- Serving to existing clients would cost less than new clients.

Listening and understanding the clients, evaluating their feedbacks, developing new policies over their complaints and suggestions, getting in to product and service designs matching their demands and expectations, giving more importance to sales and after-sales services are some of the main principles of customer satisfaction and sustainability (Öçer ve Bayuk, 2001: 27).

3. Customer Loyalty

Loyalty is consumer's intense tendency to purchase a product or service in the future which was already known and suggested. Although environmental conditions and marketing efforts potentially affects the customer, it is actually the loyalty to one or more brands which ends as purchasing (Altıntaş, 2000: 29).

Mackay says; "Satisfaction is the simplest way of loyalty". Satisfied customers would make their shoppings from anywhere possible. However loyal customers would fight for you and push others to do business with their own suggestions. Satisfied customers are indifferent but loyal customer will be your lawyers (Duboff ve Spaeth, 2001: 179).

When customers are satisfied and trusts to a company, the respectability increases. Respectability of a company means client's decisions in the benefit of the company when buying products and services and become loyal customers.

The recent researches have shown the an average customer satisfaction would not be enough for a company for continous customer loyalty and higher profit margins (Kaplan ve Norton, 1999: 90).

Companies who give importance to their clietns more than ever makes high profit margins. The clients of such companies are grouped in two categories as constant and new clients. Customers who were satisfied in the past become loyal to the company in time. For example, if a hotel client can take a good service more than he expected at a reasonable price, he may choose the same hotel again or suggest this hotel to his friends. We call this client constant client. Customer who make their decisions over suggestion or advertsiments are called new clients. It is also another way of making profit when a satisfied brings along a new client.

There is a reality accepted by many marketing people. Gaining a new client to customer list costs 5 to 15 times more than keeping the existing client at hand. In this context, companies who are aware about the affect of customer satisfaction over profitiability have started to develop new strategies for existing clients besides gaining new ones (Gel, 2002: 17).

Loyal customers are the ones who are taken into records. Their decisions over companies products should be used as feedbacks for new strategies (Kovancı, 2001: 95).

It is harder to satisfy today's client profile. According to Jeffrey Gitomer, making satisfied customers is not a challenge but loyal customers (Kotler, 2001: 46).

4. Customer Satisfaction and Customer Loyalty in Accommodation Enterprises

Destination managers need to focus on the provision of high quality tourist experiences as "the consequences of customer dissatisfaction can be sudden and harsh".

These events are the last and most significant messengers of a slowly growing problems. Observation of customer satisfaction level would provide valuable data for the tourism management directors. Then it would help to take precautions in advance before a crisis occurs (Maddox, 1989 :2). Customer satisfaction should be the first and most important of the hotel staff. It suggested that the employment should be done carefully, personnel training programs should be prepared and delegation of authority should be made in order to provide a customer satisfaction (Lewis, 1986: 28).

The best tool to provide customer satisfaction at hotel business is the service and quality of itself. However some researchers suggest that expectations should be detected before a service experience.

Getty and Thompson discussed that expectations should be clear before a service provided; otherwise there would be a risk of confusion over the perception of the real service. In addition, some other researchers claim that measuring the expectations would be skeptical before a service experience. For example, a client may change his expectations during a service and use them as a standard in comparison. For this reason, unpredictable events just before a service given would contribute to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a consumer (Yuksel and Rimmington, 1998:62).

The strategies providing customer satisfaction in a hotel business can be analysed under three categories : 1) Classification 2) Research 3) Meeting customer expectations.

Market classification is one of the main ways to reach success for many hotel firms. For this reason, hotel managers should concentrate on supplying service which will satisfy needs of specific customer groups. The main reason of the survey to be made is to determine the factors which affect customer satisfaction beforehand. The aim of this survey should be about determining service types with which the customers are satisfied or dissatisfied considering their expectations, potential of the hotel and qualifications of the staff (Barsky ve Labagh, 1992: 32).

Hotels are places where multiple needs of customers from accommodation, food & beverage to social status and prestige are fulfilled. Therefore, customer satisfaction in the hotels is connected to chain of service from the moment of reservation and first meeting to departure by paying the bill. Even after the departure there may be things which affect customer satisfaction.

In the hotel management, it is not enough to know only the factors that provide customer pleasure. Besides the points about which customers are pleased, decisions about customer satisfaction is also based upon finding the points they complain (Cadotte ve Turgeon, 1998: 51).

In general quality assessments of customers about tourism sector, both functional and technical criteria are influential. For example; the amount of food and its quality, size

of the facility, aesthetic scheme and cleanliness forms the technical quality (product quality); on the other hand presentation of food by staff who are respectful and willing to serve forms functional quality(service quality).

In service industry, customer satisfaction depends highly on the staff who are in a direct relationship with customer. Workers' being aware of the importance of their service quality and their improvement on new quality consciousness are also dependent on business culture that emphasizes quality as the fundamental principle.

5. Research Methods

The goal of the research is to learn the level of practice for customer satisfaction and for creating loyal customer network and their effects on business performance. Survey will be made in 4-5 star hotels and 1st class holiday villages in Kemer and Side regions of Antalya, Turkey. In this context, 113 facilities including 4-5 star hotels and 1st class holiday villages will be in the research. The survey, which will be used as research tool, consists of an explanatory cover letter and five pages. In cover letter there is some information about the survey and explanation for those who will fill the form.

Survey questions are based on literature scanning which was made to prepare first part of hypothetical background of the study. With this detailed research a sample questionnaire was developed. Afterwards, expert academicians on marketing were asked to analyse this sample questionnaire. By looking at the suggestions of these academicians, some questions were changed and some other questions were added and the questionnaire was completed. There are 28 questions in the questionnaire.

The first part of the questionnaire is made up of questions aiming to determine features of surveyed hotel managers and hotels. In other parts there are questions prepared for identifying application of customer relations management in facilities and its effects on business performance. Questionnaire consists of multiple choice questions and Likert type items. For example ,“Do you know the concept of customer relations ? Do you have database including information about customers? Did you make a distinction between profitable and loyal customers and the others?” are some of multiple choice questions. Variables at Likert type questions are rated as “1=It does not matter”, “5=very important”, “1=absolutely no”, “5=absolutely yes”, “1=I totally disagree”, “5=I totally agree”, “1=very bad”, “5=very good”, “1=It dropped off”, “5=It increased so much”. In the analysis of usable data of questionnaires “SPSS for Windows 10.0 version (Statistical Package for Social Sciences)” was used. And for tables, Microsoft Word and Microsoft Excel were used. Before starting the analysis of data, frequency distribution of whole data was watched to identify and correct mistakes in data entry. Afterwards the data were analysed. For the choice of statistics ,non-parametric tests ,which require less condition compared to parametric tests, were chosen (e.g., Friedman dual Anova test, Willcoxon test).

6. The Results of Study

The basic findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

In the survey it can be seen that 87.5% of managers in the facilities have college or university degrees and thus 97.5% of them know about concept of customer relations

management. However in the interviews with managers it was concluded that some of them do not know total content of customer relations management.

Table 1. Educational Status of Facility Managers in Surveyed Placed

Educational Status	Number of Facility	Percentage
University	20	50,0
College	15	37,5
High School	5	12,5
Total	40	100,0

In the sales & marketing policies of accommodations, there is a change in favor of customer. It can be concluded that the mission of all managers is to set a long-term relationship with customers. For this reason, in sales & marketing polices they give equal importance to both attracting new customers and keeping existing customers. Facilities giving equal importance to these two is of 85%. As a result, we can say that customer relations management is established in these facilities. In accordance with this purpose, the percentage of having a separate department and staff to attract new customers and keep existing ones is 55%. However, still 45% do not have this kind of organization.

Table 2. Importance Given to Sales & Marketing Policy by Facilities

Purpose	Number of Facility	Percentage
Equal importance to both ideas	34	85,0
Attracting new customers	5	12,5
Keeping existing customers	1	2,5
Total	40	100,0

In the 85% of the facilities there are personal database of customers. During the face-to-face interviews it was pointed out that most of the information in the database is quite limited. 62% of the facilities individualize their goods & services by looking at these data. The percentage of facilities which find profitable and loyal customers by following information of customers from the customer database is 55%. 42% of them said that they could do it partly. According to percentages, it can be seen that they do not use database efficiently. Among the privileges of loyal customers, providing the room they want to stay takes the first place. Besides, interesting activities such as traditional dinners, birthday parties are presented to loyal customers.

Table 3. The Condition of Privileges That are Provided to Profitable and Loyal Customers

Privileges	Avg	Sd
The room he wants is given	4,77	0,53
Private service is provided	4,65	0,74
Discount on room charges and extras	4,53	0,85

Priority in reservation and entry	4,32	0,92
By looking at the former info , customer's room is privately prepared.(His favorite drinks in the minibar, private pillow etc.)	3,90	1,01
Various presents are put to his room (Fruit basket, drinks, flowers, souvenirs with hotel logo etc.)	3,88	1,11
Free Transfer	3,85	0,83
After a certain amount of stay (e.g. 1 week), free stay for a short time	2,30	1,29

Notes: (i) $n=40$; in the ratings 1=It does not matter and 5=very important; (iii) according to Friedman dual Anova test ($\chi^2=144,072$; $p<0,000$) the results statistically make sense.

In facilities having qualified staff and their relationship with customers is the most important thing for customers to become loyal ones.

Table 4. The Condition of Factors Why Customers Become Loyal Customers in the Facilities.

Factors	Avg	Sd
Qualified staff and customer relations	4,85	0,53
Privileges provided for regular customers	4,62	0,59
Rich activities	4,58	0,55
Advantage of price	4,40	0,81
Modern technical hardware	4,27	0,68
Qualities of place	4,22	0,86

Notes:(i) $n=40$; (ii) in the ratings 1=It does not matter ve 5= very important; (iii)According to Friedman dual Anova test ($\chi^2=30,751$; $p<0,000$) the results statistically make sense .

55% of facilities train their employees about customer relations. In the face-to-face interviews it was stated that this education includes mainly workshops for improving language levels and their behaviour towards customers. 45% of facilities said that the budget for these workshops are not enough and therefore the education is only an in-service training about technical aspect of the business. With these workshops, the importance given to staff increased. Passing opinions and complaints to management is 50% flexible and 45% partly flexible. These ratios are promising about forming company culture, based on customer relations. 85% of facilities reward their staff because of this. Even if awards are generally material, for developing their self-confidence, workers are given power to solve problems. It was seen that giving award and power to workers is relatively lower in 4 star hotels. Among the qualities expected from workers, importance of customer relations is becoming higher. Most of the hotel managers stated in the interviews that besides being educated, they also decide workers who are customer focused, tied to company values, with team spirit, entrepreneur, reliable, with good communication skills.

Table 5. Qualities of the Staff that Facilities Look for Today and Three Years Later

Qualifications	Today		Three years later		Wilcoxon Test	
	Avg	SD	Avg	SD	z	p
Customer focused	4,85	0,43	4,95	0,22	-2,000	<,05
Flexibility- adaptability	4,40	0,74	4,85	0,36	-3,286	<,05
Commitment to institutional values	4,27	0,88	4,70	0,46	-3,090	<,05
Success focused	4,70	0,56	4,95	0,22	-2,673	<,05
Taking initiative and responsibility	4,58	0,59	4,87	0,33	-3,207	<,05
Analytical Thinking	4,22	0,83	4,75	0,44	-3,460	<,05
Being Proactive	4,32	0,76	4,80	0,41	-3,819	<,001
Being Creative	4,12	0,88	4,85	0,43	-4,058	<,001
Taking risks	4,07	0,92	4,75	0,63	-4,399	<,001
Supporting the development of others	4,30	0,82	4,82	0,55	-4,001	<,001
Team work	4,82	0,45	4,95	0,32	-2,236	<,05
Communication	4,63	0,49	4,97	0,16	-3,742	<,001
Entrepreneurship	4,50	0,68	4,95	0,22	-3,626	<,001
Consistency and reliability	4,93	0,27	5,00	0,00	-1,732	<,10

In hotels, customer complaints are very important to provide customer satisfaction. Hotel managers said that most of the complaints are coming to reception department. They said they also look at the questionnaires in the rooms but foreign customers generally complain to their guides.

Most of the hotels involved in research said that they made some investment about customer satisfaction. By this way, they can keep their existing customers and by gaining others they increase market share. Facilities which do not invest on this issue stated that they do not need this kind of investment and their service is already well enough.

Table 6. Reasons Why Facilities Invest to Customer Satisfaction

	Avg	Sd.
Their wish to increase income and interest	4,89	0,40
Gain/Maintain competitive advantage	4,83	0,38
Gaining new customers/Increasing market share	4,83	0,38
Keeping existing customers	4,78	0,48
Make customer services better	4,56	0,50
Lowering the cost	4,19	0,82
To keep on or because customers want it	3,53	1,32

Notes: $n=36$; in the rating 1=It does not matter ve 5= very important; (iii) according to Friedman dual Anova ($\chi^2=75,974$; $p<0,001$)

Facilities which make investment on customer satisfaction stated that there was rise both in sales and market share and ratio of customer satisfaction and keeping existing

customers. They said that the biggest problem between customers and facilities is customers' concern about prices. Especially in the last years, because the income level of tourists coming to Turkey is lower, problem of price became more important. In the interviews they all agreed upon this fact. Managers emphasized that because of political and economic changes in Turkey and in the world they had to make some changes in pricing policies.

It was concluded that the hotels which join this survey are better than their rivals about the factors of customer service quality, customer-focused service and rareness of complaints. It shows that their approach is customer-based. Hotels say that in the last three years, because of these activities there is increase in customer satisfaction and therefore in the interest rate and market share.

The better hotels know their customers the better service they can provide. Hotels with Customer Relations Management philosophy know much about their customers. They know their customer base well and they are lucky to have this kind of knowledge. However it is quite hard to say it for the others. They use traditional marketing style with little knowledge. In fact they can provide a huge advantage in the aspect of competition by using new lower-cost delivery channels and appropriate database.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

Accommodations should transfer customer relations to electronic environment. By means of information technologies, especially by internet, they can pass information to potential customers all over the world and learn about their needs and choices.

Hotels should develop a system based on learning things from customers. Components of this system are; developing the interaction with customers and learning about needs, developing new goods and service with this information, forming strategy which is focused on customer.

Managers should spend time thinking about customer relations as well as quality, performance and financing. They should know that charge of bad attitude will be paid by the facility and training should be given to staff about this issue.

Keeping already existing customers prevents waste of time and lowers the cost. For this reason trust of customers should not be abused. A customer-centred organization keeps loyal customers. For this, strong customer relations are required.

Adoption of company culture in global norms strengthens customer relation activities. For this reason hotels should improve human resources and adopt management style in which entrepreneurship and creativity are encouraged. This management style should also consider customer satisfaction.

As a conclusion, it has been determined that hotels with good customer relations have much better performance criteria than those who do not have good relations. Accordingly it is justifiable that hotels should concentrate on customer relations activities to deal with their increasing rivals.

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Antecedents of Interpersonal Conflict: A Study from Turkey

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Abstract

Interpersonal conflict in the workplace has been shown to be one of the most frequently reported job stressors (Keenan & Newton, 1985) It can affect a host of individual and organizational processes and outcomes in work places (Barki and Hardwick, 2004). Thus investigation of the antecedence of interpersonal conflict is an important topic. There are two main conflict antecedent categories: (1) Individual characteristics such as; personality, perceptions, expectations, attitudes, values, demographics, education, etc. and (2) Contextual factors such as; interpersonal factors, communication, structure, power imbalance etc (Wall and Callister, 1995). However studies suggested that individual characteristics have received limited support as contributors to conflict (Baron, 1989; Derr, 1978; Wall and Callister, 1995) and they appear to be subordinate to contextual factors. This study is aim to examine the impact of sector, quantitative workload and job satisfaction (contextual factors) and some demographics (individual characteristics) on interpersonal conflict.

Keywords: Interpersonal conflict, Individual differences, Organizational factors, Turkey

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Interpersonal Conflict in Workplaces

Conflict is generally viewed as a process that "begins when one party perceives that the other has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern" (Thomas, 1976, p. 891). Conflicts are often categorized either as factual or interpersonal and can be separated into four sub-categories: intrapersonal (within one and the same individual), interpersonal (in relationships with others), within a (work) group, and between (work) groups (Rahim, 1985).

Interpersonal conflict literature has longstanding history within other disciplines such as sociology, communication, psychology, and more recently organizational management. It is a dynamic process that occurs between individuals and/or groups who are in interdependent relationships, and is more likely to occur when a variety of background situational and personal conditions exist (Hartwick & Barki, 2002). Interpersonal conflicts at work are generally associated with three components; (1) disagreement, (2) interference and (3) negative emotion (Barki and Hartwick, 2004, Wall & Callister, 1995). These three themes can be viewed as reflecting cognitive, behavioural and affective manifestations of interpersonal conflict. First, disagreement exists when parties think that a divergence of values, needs, interests, opinions, goals, or objectives exists. Second, when a number of different behaviours such as debate, argumentation, competition, aggression, hostility, and destruction interfere with or oppose another party's attainment of its own interests, objectives or goals, behaviours have been associated with interpersonal conflict. Finally, some negative emotions such as; fear, jealousy, anger, anxiety, and frustration have been associated with interpersonal conflict (Hartwick & Barki, 2002).

Workplace conflict is common and widespread thus it has been shown to be one of the most frequently reported job stressors (Keenan & Newton, 1985). Interpersonal conflicts may occur about organizational task (Task Conflict), or about some other issue that is not related to an organizational task (Jehn, 1995). However all types of interpersonal conflict can affect a host of individual and organizational processes and outcomes in work places. Interpersonal conflicts may have negative consequences for the organization in terms of higher employee turnover/attrition, loss of time in negotiations/counseling, lack of organizational commitment and lack of trust. To manage the conflict in workplaces it is important to know the antecedents of interpersonal conflict. The antecedence of workplace conflicts has tended to be individual factors; there are also results that point to organizational structure and other conditions (interpersonal issues) within the organization that may generate conflict. A reasonable assumption is that both individual and contextual factors can explain the emergence of conflicts at the workplace (Oxenstierna et al., 2011). These two main factors are explained below as antecedents of interpersonal conflict in workplaces.

Individual & Contextual Factors and Interpersonal Conflict

Individuals differ in terms of attitudes, opinion, beliefs, culture, emotional stability, maturity, education, gender, language etc. Hence their responses to particular stimuli at workplace also vary. As a result, people across all levels in the offices or shop floor tend to be incompatible or hostile when they view a particular matter to undermine their position or negate their worldview or value system (Jha&Jha, 2010). Individual characteristics that have been identified as antecedents to interpersonal conflict

include personality, emotions (stress, anger, and distrust), social background, values, goals and some demographic characteristics like ethnicity, and even gender. However there is limited support for relationship between individual differences and interpersonal conflicts (Wall & Callister, 1995). Studies were indicating very limited support for personality and emotions however there is support exists for values and goals (Moeller et al., 2012). Some authors have found support for relationship with demographics and interpersonal conflict. Offerman & Beil (1992) have found that female leaders are less likely being in competition and defeating others than male leaders. Similarly Todd-Mancillas&Rossi, (1985) found that female managers are more likely to use communication strategies to resolve disputes with employees. On the other hand male managers are more likely to use power and authority to resolve disputes.

It is indicated that if we are aiming to predict behavior and to uncover the nature of interpersonal conflict in workplaces we should consider contextual factors as well as individual differences (Knapp et al., 1988). There are many contextual factors that may affect interpersonal conflict both between workmates and between workers and their superiors. Conflicts may emergence from some organizational factors such as; bureaucracy and departmentalization, dysfunctional leader-member exchange, perceived organizational injustice harassment, over workload, role ambiguity (De Raeve et al.,2008; Spector & Jex (1998) or some interpersonal factors like relationship characteristics of superior-subordinate (lack of leadership, psychologically distant, poor communication) (Wall&Callister,1995; Tepper et al.,1998; Dawes & Massey, 2005).

In this study it is aim to examine the impact of sector, quantitative workload and job satisfaction (contextual factors) and some demographics (individual characteristics) on interpersonal conflict.

In our research we included gender, income and age variables to find out the individual predictor of interpersonal conflict. We also supposed that sector is one of the important contextual factors of interpersonal conflict because each sector has different characteristics that can shape the organization's structure and also interaction of employees. Workload also appears to have a strong relationship with interpersonal conflict. Because, overloaded individuals often experience feelings of impatience and being rushed, anger and anxiety (Spector and Fox 2005), which affects the quality of their interactions with coworkers. When employees face a demanding workload, they allocate more effort to the task at hand and, thus, have fewer opportunities to engage in altruistic behaviors toward other employees (Jex & Thomas 2003). Previous researches showed that conflict is positively related to the number of hours worked (e.g., Spector, Dwyer, & Jex 1988). Appelberg et al., (1991) indicated that organizational factors included monotonous, fast paced work and white collar jobs contributed to the emergence of workplace conflicts. Thus we supposed that low job satisfaction may also cause interpersonal conflicts.

Materials/Methods

A total of 519 employees voluntarily participated in our study from different tree sectors: Textile, Automotive and Machine. Data were dependent on self-reporting and privacy, and anonymity measures were taken into account. The three different instruments were used: (1) interpersonal conflict (IC), (2) quantitative workload (QW) and (3) job satisfaction (JS). IC was measured by four-item scale (α .92) developed by Spector and Jex (1998). QW was measured by a five-item scale (α .92) designed to assess the amount or quantity of work in a job by Spector and Jex (1998). JS was measured by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist 's 20 item Minnesota scale (α .93) which was translated in Turkish by Baycan in 1985. As well as these variables, sector and demographic variables (age and gender, income) effect on IC were also examined. Data analyses were performed by SPSS, One-way ANOVA, hierarchical regression analysis, correlation analysis and descriptive statistics were used.

Findings/Results

The mean age of the participants was 30.22 ± 6.72 . % 48 of the participants were from textile sector; % 22 of participants were from automotive sector and % 30 of participants were from machine sector.

One-way ANOVA and Tukey's test indicated that interpersonal conflict in textile, automotive and machine sector all differed significantly $F(12,63; p<0.001)$. Results showed that interpersonal conflict in machine sector is higher than textile and automotive.

An examination of the correlations among variables showed that interpersonal conflict is mostly correlated to quantative work load ($r= .548; p<.001$) and there is no significant correlation between job satisfaction and interpersonal conflict. The regression analyses were conducted by entering the demographic variables (gender, age, monthly income) as controls in the first step, followed by the predictor, quantative work load and job satisfaction in the second step. In the first step of the regression model $F (9,879, p<<0.001)$, gender and income exhibited significant relationships with interpersonal conflict, however age didn't exhibit significant relationships with interpersonal conflict. In the second step of the regression model $F (53,178 p<0.001)$, gender, income and quantative work load exhibited significant relationships with interpersonal conflict, however job satisfaction and age didn't exhibit significant relationships.

The result of this study showed that quantative workload and sector are important contextual factor that affect interpersonal conflict. Employees working in heavy sectors with heavy workloads are more likely to conflict with each other. However results showed that job satisfaction does not predict interpersonal conflict in Turkish context. Regarding individual characteristics, interpersonal conflict is higher among male employees rather than females. This result also supported recent studies that indicated that females are less likely to conflict (Todd-Mancillas & Rossi, 1985; Offerman & Beil, 1992). Employees who have higher income are more likely to conflict. Age is not a significant predictor of interpersonal conflict.

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***The Ullalim Festival of Kalinga, Northern Philippines
as a Peace-Building Strategy for a Multiethnic Community***

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Abstract

The Kalinga is an indigenous community in northern Luzon, Philippines which, although often depicted as a homogeneous society, is actually composed of 47 *ili* (communities). Its cultural diversity has also meant sporadic conflicts, often sensationalized in news reports as “tribal wars.”

The institutionalization of the annual *Ullalim Festival* in the Province of Kalinga has brought Kalinga culture to the stage of the eco-tourism industry being aggressively marketed globally by the Philippine government. The festival is a three-day agro-industrial and cultural fair that celebrates the founding of the province. It is held in the capital city of Tabuk, one of the places which the Kalingas marked out as a *matagoan* (zone of life) – i.e. an area where tribal conflicts cannot spill over. The concept of the *matagoan* issues from the *bodong* (local peace pact system) and its *pagta* (code or law) that govern all Kalinga subtribes.

This paper presents the festival as a peacebuilding strategy by looking into how this event (a) portrays multiple narratives that counter the single story of the “primitive” Kalinga spun by colonial historiography and media reportage, (b) balances intra-*ili* and pan-Kalinga consciousness, (c) creates channels of creativity through socio-economic activities, and (d) reinforces the *bodóng*. It also presents some tensions among the Kalingas that can undermine the current peace and development institutions and initiatives in the province.

Keywords: Ethnolinguistic group, Tribe, Kalinga, Ullalim Festival, *Bodóng*

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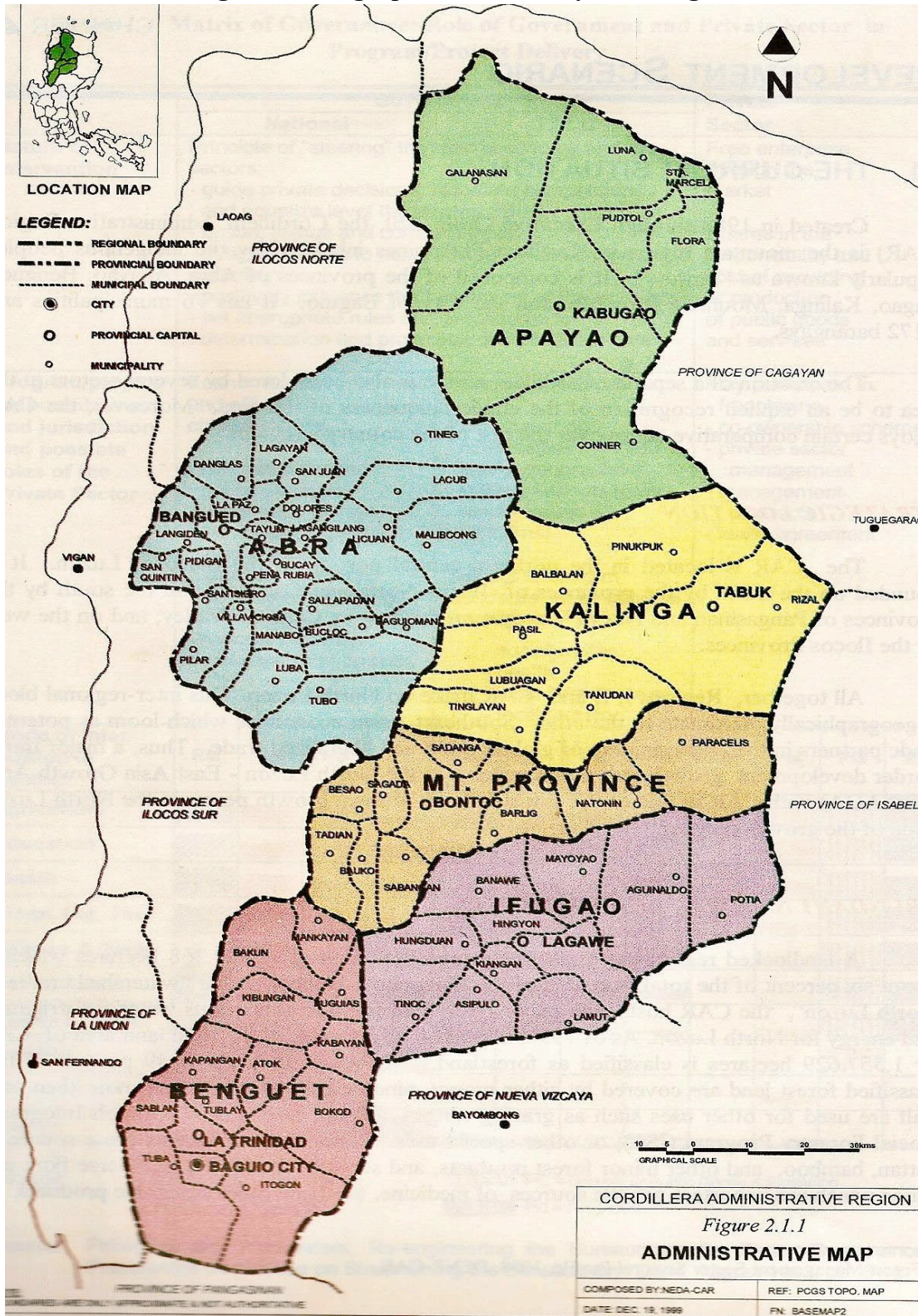
Introduction

Kalinga is one of the Philippines' estimated 70 to 140 indigenous ethnic groups (Carino 2012, pp. 3-5). It is among the major ethnolinguistic groups collectively known as "*Igorots*" (lit., "from the mountains") located mainly in the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) in the northern part of the country. Geopolitically, its territory is in the Province of Kalinga; culturally, it covers portions of two neighboring provinces (see Fig.1). Often depicted in popular and academic studies as a homogeneous group (i.e., one tribal community), it is actually comprised of distinct 47 *ili* (communities, village clusters or ethnolinguistic groups) which the locals themselves call as "tribes" or "subtribes."¹ Each subtribe has its own distinct language or dialect, but the *Ethnologue* (Lewis, Simons, and Fennig, 2013) lists only seven Kalinga languages.

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¹ The colonial baggage often attached by academics to "tribe" is generally not an issue among Kalingas. The latest Philippine census puts the total population of the province at 201, 619 (NSO, 2013). About 65.8% of the population identify themselves as Kalinga, while the rest belong to various other ethnic groups like Ilokano (18%), Bago (2.4%), Bontok (2.9%), Applai (2.2%), Kankanaey (2%), and Tagalog (1.1%) (NSO, 2011).

Figure 1. The geopolitical territory of Kalinga.



The cultural territory of Kalinga extends to at least two municipalities (Daguioan and Malibcong) in the Province of Abra to the west and a portion of a municipality (Natonin) in the Mountain Province to the south.

The Kalingas' reputation as a fierce, head-taking warrior-tribe during the Spanish and American colonial period is mentioned in standard references written by foreign writers (e.g. Willcox, 1912, pp. 223-224; Worcester, 1913, pp. 1213-1215). The so-called "pacification campaign" of the U.S. military government, the missiological forays of Catholic and Protestant churches, the establishment of educational institutions, and the strengthening of the *bodong* (the time-honored peace pact system of the Kalingas) contributed to the end of *káyaw* (raids on or armed conflicts with other tribes usually coupled with the taking of heads as battle trophies) (Jenista 1987, 260; Fry 2006, 46; Coben 2009, 81). The last known case of head-taking is supposed to have occurred in the 1970s (Howard 2000, 58). A few tribal conflicts continued sporadically up to the present, leading to the media's branding of the province as "a/the land of tribal wars" (see Fig. 2).

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PHILIPPINES

Kalinga, a land of tribal wars and fragile peace

by Sonny Evangelista

The Church has the hard task of changing the culture of war and vengeance of some Filipino tribes.



Manila (AsiaNews) – Helped by the police Father Luis Katutubo (not his real name) recently led a raid against a bar used as a cover for a prostitution ring. The bust was successful and netted the bar's owner, a member of the Tulgao tribe, who was arrested. Father Luis had previously led another raid against a notorious thief, a member of his own Tinglayan tribe. Both tribes live in Kalinga, a province located on the island of Luzon, north-east of the city of Baguio.

In doing what he did Father Luis stepped out of line and violated tribal rules. What could happen to him? To answer one must first understand the local culture.

Unlike crimes committed in Manila or other regions of the Philippines, which are normally dealt with by the judiciary and the courts, tribal culture in Kalinga is still strong and often leads to feuds and cycles of violence.

Despite the local Church's commitment against violence, intertribal warfare is commonplace. In Kalinga culture, a victim's family must find peace and solace in vengeance. So deeply ingrained is the practice that it has been nigh impossible to eradicate. Death and murder fuel such a desire for vengeance that tribesmen

Figure 2. Media (Mis)Representation of Kalinga.

The headline itself is misleading because it give the impression that "tribal wars" are common among the Kalingas when in fact, as the article itself reveals, only a few members of a few tribes are involved in attempted or consummated vengeance killings. Image available at <http://www.asianews.it/news-en/Kalinga,-a-land-of-tribal-wars-and-fragile-peace-1336.html>, accessed 05 March 2014.

Often left out in the construction of the popular image of Kalinga are the various peacebuilding activities implemented by the *papángat* (elders) within the matrix of the *bodóng*. This study presents one of those activities, the "Ullálim Festival." The following discussion shall be organized as follows: (a) Traditions that provide context

to the festival – a socio-political institution (*bodóng*) and a verbal art (*ullálim*); (b) Brief description of the festival; (c) Significance of the festival to peace-building; and (d) Challenges to peace-building efforts in Kalinga.

In line with the theme of this conference, this paper seeks to highlight a marginal, indigenous narrative and bring it to this center of academic discourse and join the discussion on how communities can, amidst differences, “harness the synergy that emerges from the interactive dialectic generated by these differences.”

Cultural Context of the Ullalim Festival

The Bodóng

The *Bodong*² is the indigenous conflict management system of the Kalingas. Like the concept of the “state,” it has four basic elements: *búgis* (tribal territory), *págta* (law), *binodngán* (people covered by the bodong), and sovereignty or recognition. The fourth element is evident in the inter-tribal pacts voluntarily entered into by each *ili*. It is also expressed in the principle of *kulligóng* (“to encircle”), which means that the authority of the bodong extends to the *binodngán* and his or her property located outside the *ili*. This is similar to the idea that a foreign country’s embassy in the Philippines is considered an extension of that country’s sovereign territory. Under this principle, certain places where Kalingas reside like the cities of Tabuk and Baguio have been declared as *matagóan* (peace zone or zone of life). This means that no conflict among the Kalinga subtribes should extend to these areas. In the ‘80s and ‘90s eventually spilled over these cities and other localities outside Kalinga, prompting students to return home and temporarily stop their studies. Fortunately, due to the persistent efforts of many Kalinga leaders, the problem was eventually kept in check.

With some Kalingas using the *bodóng* to blackmail and bully *binodngán* and non-*binodngán*, there have been calls to abolish it. Despite the abuses of committed in the name of the bodong, however, this indigenous peace pact system continues to be relevant to the Kalinga. It is because of the bodong that the Kalingas continue to own the largest ancestral domain among the Igorots of Northern Luzon.³ It has also been proven as an effective tool for conflict resolution, when implemented properly. In 2009, Tabuk City bagged the “Galing Pook Award” for its innovative and successful peace and order program through its *Matagoan Bodong Consultative Council* (MBCC). Created in 2003 as the *Matagoan Bodong Council* (MBC), the MBCC is composed of the city mayor as head and dozens of male and female elders and leaders coming from the nine subtribes of Tabuk and representatives of the seven municipalities. Binodngan and non-binodngan immigrant communities in Tabuk also have one representative each in the council. The MBCC has been successful in

² Kalinga *papángat* I spoke to suggest at least three terms for the origin of *bodóng*: *podon* (holding of hands), *bobod* (to bind, a binding material), and *beddeng* (boundary). The word thus carries the idea of people meeting together or of making people’s minds meet to forge a peace pact, especially in relation to boundaries.

³ This is an assertion articulated by authorities on Kalinga customary laws through Tabuk City Administrator Lawrence Bayongan in an interview with the author on 18 December 2013 in Dagupan, Tabuk City, Kalinga.

resolving many cases involving Kalinga and even non-Kalinga residents in Tabuk through the *bodóng* system.⁴

The *págta chi/di/ji bodóng* are the laws governing the *bodóng* that have been deliberated upon by the leaders or representatives of two conflicting tribes or of two communities with no prior conflict but wish to enter into a *bodóng*; they become operational once they are proclaimed publicly. The *págta* used to be committed to memory by the *bodóng* holders and passed on orally. Today, all peace pacts are recorded in writing. The 1998 *Bodóng* Congress in Tabuk adopted a new or “proto-*págta*” which became the primary reference for specific peace pacts entered into by each Kalinga subtribe. Generally, the *págta* includes a preamble and about 15 articles. These articles include matters involving the *búgis*, principles and policies of the *bodóng*, *nangdon si bodóng* (peace pact holders), the *binodngán* and their rights, specific crimes and penalties, crimes against womanhood, and crimes against property. Several important changes have been introduced into the new *págta*. One such change is the prohibition of automatic retaliation for offenses or crimes committed against a member of a Kalinga subtribe. In the old *págta*, the *bodóng* holder and his relatives were expected to immediately avenge the death or injury suffered by a member of their *ili* (KBCI, 1999).

The *Ullálim*

The *ullálim* is arguably the best known representative of Kalinga oral tradition. Lambrecht and Billiet (1970, p. 1975) provide the earliest – and to date are still the most exhaustive – scholarly studies on this chant. The two scholar-priests define the *ullálim* as songs of the Kalinga about

the feats of their fictitious culture heroes, thereby proclaiming the bravery of their people and their innate pride of belonging to that ethnic stock whose valor overcomes danger and fear, whose ambushes display cleverness, and whose headhunts powerfully function as the fulfillment of duty toward kin and clan. (1970, 1)
They classify the *ullálim* as a ballad, it being sung by bards; an epic, as it is a tale of a fabled hero’s adventures; and a romance, for it also tells a story of love (1-2).⁵

The Ullalim Festival and Peace-building

The “Ullalim Festival” is among the more than 600 festivals held all over the country each year.⁶ It is a three to five-day agro-industrial fair and cultural gathering in the capital town of Kalinga that celebrates the founding anniversary of the province. It boasts of a wide array of agricultural produce and handicraft, technical competitions,

⁴ Tuso (2011, p. 260) lists 12 attributes shared by indigenous conflict resolution systems across the globe, all of which characterize the *bodóng*. I shall make a full treatment of this in a forthcoming paper.

⁵ The *ullálim* tradition, however, includes a non-epic form called the *sogsógna* which has the same melody as the epic form. It is an extemporaneous, improvisatory chant sung in festive occasions to deliver a message.

⁶ I counted 622, with the highest numbers in February (60), March (81), May (60), December (76). See complete list and descriptions at <http://www.dotpcvc.gov.ph/VPY-calendar/vpy-janmarch.html>, <http://www.dotpcvc.gov.ph/VPY-calendar/vpy-apriljune.html>, <http://www.dotpcvc.gov.ph/VPY-calendar/vpy-julysept.html>, <http://www.dotpcvc.gov.ph/VPY-calendar/vpy-octdec.html>.

indigenous games, ecotourism activities, and artistic performances. Trumpeted by its promoters as a “Festival of Festivals,” it brings together all the municipal fiestas of the province.⁷ It was launched in June 1995 and eventually grew into a huge local tourist attraction with increasingly varied programs and activities displaying Kalinga's "rich cultural heritage and bountiful resources in pursuit [of] peace and development" (Geraldine Dumallig. "Kalinga sets *Ullálim* fest from February 14 to 16," *Baguio Midland Courier*, 01 February 2009, p. 8).

The festival's twin goals of "peace and development" betray a long-standing concern about the image of the Kalinga historically encapsulated in different forms -- the general branding of the Igorots as *los salvajes* by the Spaniards, and the portrayal of then Kalinga sub-province Lieutenant Governor Walter "Sapao" Hale as one who was "just as much of a wild man as any Kalinga" (cited in Finin 2005, 45). This picture of the savage (i.e., morally or culturally deficient and economically backward) Kalinga persisted even after the American occupation, slowly becoming less pervasive and pronounced recently.

On the other hand, Kalingas have turned their Otherness into a tool of counter-essentialism. As Stallsmith (2011, p. 41) observes:

In some ways the Kalinga have used this exoticism and otherness to their own advantage. National media outlets portray an essentialised Kalinga place that exists between the ‘postcultural top’ and the ‘pre-cultural bottom’ – i.e., somewhere between the colonised lowlanders and the ‘uncivilised’ Negrito groups (Rosaldo 1988). In presentations for tourists, television programs, and ‘cultural interest’ stories for national media outlets, Kalinga is showcased as a place where the preservation of cultural rituals and materials are the only necessary component for a well-functioning, indigenous society (Cabreza 2005; Caluza 2006; Salvador 2006). The cultures of the Cordillera often function as an Other within mainstream Philippines societies, contributing both tangible and intangible cultural materials to a collective national identity. These appropriations, combined with a tendency to assume that current Kalinga practices are ancient, have fuelled movements to preserve and strengthen the bodong system. Even lowlanders may seek to strengthen their own links to the land by vicariously appropriating the timeless antiquity of the Kalinga.

So in this sense, the Festival maintains the *ullálim* tradition as a throwback to Kalinga's “primitive” state while refashioning it into a chief representation of the collective creative prowess and unique identity of the “modern” Kalinga. In so doing, it maintains a degree of exoticism while downplaying what is adjudged to be the *ullálim*'s original cultural context marked by violence. Nevertheless, scenes of Kalingas performing in full native attire and armed with indigenous weapons somehow reinforce the stereotyping of their ethnicity.

Countering the Single Story

The current provincial governor of Kalinga Jocel Baac underscored this continuing stereotype in his interfacing with local media during the 2011 *Ullálim*

⁷*Manhatchatong* (Balbalan), *Lága* (Lubuagan), *Salíp* (Pasil), *Pasíngan* (Pinukpuk), *Matagóan* (Tabuk), *Podón* (Tanudan), *Únoy* (Tinglayan), and *Pinikpikan* (Rizal).

Festival. One news item on the interview (Ma. Elena Catajan, "Kalinga sans war image pushed," *Sun.Star Baguio*, 16 February 2011, p. 1) reports:

Baac, during the Ullalim festival, said he wants to scrap the image of the province as a land of tribal wars as it scares away tourists and investors.

Baac said even Kalinga students in Baguio have been reported to have a difficult time finding boarding homes because homeowners are frightened of the province's supposed notorious image....

"The province is perceived by outsiders as a dangerous place to travel and visit by personal impressions and by the media," he said.

The governor lamented news items often exaggerate tribal wars, adding there is no such happening going on today....

Baac, however, admitted before any change in image can take place, change should also start from the Kalingans. "We should talk about this among ourselves first."

This news excerpt reveals the internal and external forces that shape ethnic classification and identification. Ethnic classification, if imbibed by its object, can be a self-fulfilling prophecy of identification. The natives' real and perceived (mis)conduct or peculiarity conspires, as it were, with media narrative and tourist gaze to create a reified ethnic identity. Illustrative of this process of image construction is the following introductory narration to Lars Krutak's Philippine segment of his popular television documentary on *Discovery Channel*, "Tattoo Hunter":

The Kalingas live in the rugged Cordillera mountain. They are a fierce warrior tribe known for taking human heads. Kalinga means "outlaw" and for hundreds of years they were known to brutally slay their enemies. For every head taken a Kalinga warrior received a tattoo...

But today headhunting is a lot less common so the Kalinga tattoo tradition is in danger of going extinct... This is a great opportunity for a tattoo anthropologist like me but it's also dangerous....

...Even today, they are wary of outsiders....

The documentary's virtual portrayal of a Kalinga fraught with conflicts finds resonance with the perceptions of many non-Kalingas and among a few Kalingas themselves who tend to generalize isolated cases of personal vendetta and clan feud and to conflate the dozens of subtribes into a homogeneous ethnic group.

Another foreign author (Howard, 2000, p. 70) writes:

The Kalinga are notorious for being the most violent and unpredictable of the mountain people, and although my guide was otherwise capable, I still had to pay tribute to virtually every adult male I met along the trail. The Kalinga are the fiercest warriors within all of the mountain provinces – guerilla warfare was widespread in the region for decades—and their demands are usually backed up by a small arsenal of spears, machetes, and guns.

The use of the present tense especially in the first sentence sustains the impression that Kalingas have never really left behind their violent past.

Issuing from all these quotes is a combination of truth and untruth, a common issue in the representation of the ethnic. As Michael Ryan (2010, p. 14) explains: Ethnicity is also one of the languages with which we think about the world. And like so much of the information that circulates in the media and in everyday discourse (rumor, gossip, small talk, etc.), ethnic information is a mix of truth and inaccurate or incomplete representation. Indeed, the danger culture poses for the issue of ethnicity is that cultural representations exist on a spectrum from the objective and factual on the one end to the fictive and conjectural on the other. With cultural representation, we make fictions, but we use the same tools to make truths about the world, and the two often blend and mix in ways that can be harmful.

This squares with Chimamanda Adichie's TED talk titled, "The Danger of a Single story" (2009), in which she speaks of the human tendency to laminate the image of groups within one historico-cultural timeframe:

The single story creates stereotypes, and the problem with stereotypes is not that they are untrue, but that they are incomplete. They make one story become the only story... [I]t is impossible to engage properly with a place or a person without engaging with all of the stories of that place and that person.

What she says on the construction of the imagined picture of Nigeria or Africa holds true to the Kalinga. As already laid out above, some popular notions about the Kalinga are spun from a single narrative – the story of the primitive and homogenous Kalinga.

Adichie also points out that a single story may titillate the gazer's passion for the exotic but it brings down violence upon the gazed. The solution to this problem, she adds, is to bring out multiple stories:

The consequence of the single story is this: It robs people of dignity. It makes our recognition of our equal humanity difficult. It emphasizes how we are different rather than how we are similar... Stories matter. Many stories matter. Stories have been used to dispossess and to malign, but stories can also be used to empower and to humanize. Stories can break the dignity of a people, but stories can also repair that broken dignity.

This is where the *Ullálim* Festival comes in – it brings out multiple narratives by bringing into one place all the smaller fests in the province. Cultural presentations of each municipality narrate and dramatize various facets of local history, economic activities, oral traditions and other cultural practices. The essentialized notion of the "typical" Kalinga physique (tall, lean, high nose, etc.) is debunked by the different physical features of performers and viewers. The picture of a culturally monolithic Kalinga is challenged by the various sights and sounds of ethnic attires, gong beats, dances, and languages or dialects. A nativist (i.e., indigenous culture as pristine, free from outside influences) view of indigenous culture is challenged by the hybrid sounds of local musical performances and innovations made on material culture (e.g.

dress and ornaments). Each export quality food or non-food item churned out by the increasing number of local industries is an account of technological development and local-global exchange. In all these, Kalinga's multiple voices are sounded off – not in the arena of violence and backwardness but in the agora of peace and modernity.⁸

Pan-ethnicity and Ili-centeredness

Tied to the festival's slogan, "Kalinga Shines," are the annual themes which commonly touch on unity, peace, and development, the repetitive emphasis obviously meant to bring about a habit of positive consciousness. For instance, the 19th *Ullalim* Festival held on 12-16 February 2014 ran on the theme, "Cultural Integrity – Towards Peace and Progress." It was highlighted by the *Awong Chi Gangsa* ("the call of gongs") – the simultaneous beating of 1,300 gongs. More than 2,000 men and women in full native attire danced along a two-kilometer highway stretch to the province's athletic oval where they formed the words "KALINGA SHINES" (see Fig. 3). Most of the men next congregated in the middle of the field to serve as a huge "human gong" – a solid round formation with the gongs on their heads – while eight long cloths of various colors bearing the names of the province's seven municipalities and one city were stretched outward like the rays of the sun. Each mayor stood at the end of the cloth representing his constituents. A small torch was then lighted and passed on from the congressman to the governor and the vice governor who, in turn, ran towards the center of the field and passed it to one of the mayors until it got around and finally to the center where it was used to light a giant torch.



Figure 3. Over two thousand male gong players and female dancers form the slogan of the 2014 *Ullalim* Festival. Photo credits: Kenneth Aquino Atiwag, used with permission.

Judging from the reactions of Kalingas on the ground and on social media, this unprecedented dramatization of the Kalingas' aspirations of unity, peace and development generally created a profound sense of solidarity – even if it was just momentary. For the organizers of the event, it at least affirmed that what was thought to be impossible could be made possible when this "nation" of dozens of tribes get their acts together.

The strengthening of this notion of a pan-Kalinga ethnicity, however, is balanced by *ili*-centeredness; the subtribes get their chance to showcase their distinctive cultural traits, thus maintaining intra-cultural pride.

⁸ "Modernity", in this sense, refers to what the common folk regard as cultural conditions or developments which were not part of or improve on traditional indigenous life. These include the use of cutting-edge personal gadgets, new technology for livelihood projects, the production and commercialization of hybrid music and clothing, holding of beauty pageants, etc.

Channels of Creativity

The *Ullálim* Festival has served as a marketplace not only of ideas but also of a cornucopia of products from local industries. Kalinga's 311,970 hectares land area is rich in agro-forest resources. Furniture and woodworks continue to be the dominant industry, but food processing, metalcraft or ironworks, and loom weaving are also getting more widespread (PPDO, 2011, p. 42). The acknowledged "Rice Granary of the Cordilleras," its agricultural land covering 178,371 has. has produced an average of 152,857 metric tons of rice from 2008-2010 (PPDO, 2011, p. 35; NSO, 2013). A booming industry in Kalinga is coffee production. The 3,000 has. reserved for coffee plantations promises to produce over two million metric tons yearly. Along with fruit and rice wines and the *únoy* variety of Kalinga rice, these coffee products are slowly finding their way to national and even international markets (PPDO 2009, 43). These are among the processed and fresh products – many of which come from local cooperatives⁹ – that feed the economic activities of the festival.¹⁰ Thus, by creating opportunities for Kalingas to engage in cooperative livelihood projects, as well as to express themselves in creative performances and handicraft, the festival reinforces the declaration of its venue, Tabuk City, as a *matagóan* – a neutral ground where one can freely live and earn his keep without fear for his safety.

Reinforcement of the Bodong

The *bodóng's* network of intertribal alliances facilitates the conduct of a pan-Kalinga event such as the *Ullálim* Festival. The festival, in turn, reinforces the importance of the *bodóng* in at least two ways.

As already noted above, it actualizes the concept of *matagóan*. The root of the term is *tágu* (man or human) which, in Kalinga cosmology, means

[being the] "normal and visible inhabitants of the Earth, i.e., ...not *álan* ('spirits'), who roam around on the Earth...[nor] supernatural beings or deities who live either *ud Ngáto* ('in the Skyworld'), like *Kabunyán*, the Supreme Being, *ud Dolá* ('in the Underworld'), *ud Dáya* ('in the [theological] Upstream Region, or *ud Lágud* ('in the [theological] Downstream Region'). (Lambrech and Billiet, 1970, p. 10)

From the foregoing, it can be said that *matagóan* does not only cover peaceful co-existence with fellow human beings but also right relations with the spirit world. It is thus not surprising that in the festival, speeches and narratives during performances are replete with references to *Kabunyán*, and that traditional rituals that invoke the spirits are highlighted.

⁹ As of 2008, there are 62 active cooperatives in the province. 22 of these are considered "millionaire cooperatives." *Tabuk Multi Purpose Cooperative* (TAMPCO) tops the list with assets worth over PhP 300-M (PPDO, 2009, pp. 92-94).

¹⁰ The *Ullálim* Festival's trade fair has shown a steady increase in revenues as reflected respectively in the sales from 2008 to 2011 -- PhP 1.385M, 1.65M, 2.19M, 2.280M. Data culled from reports of Philippine Information Agency (PIA)-Kalinga in an email received from Peter Balocnit dated 02 February 2012.

One of the terms used in the *bodóng* to refer to the renewal of peace ties is *dornát/dolnát* (“to make warm”). This is a ceremony in which a *bodóng* holder invites his *kasupáng* (counterpart) for a feast in his own home or *ili* to strengthen their bond (and that of the communities they represent). The terms of the *págta* are also reviewed and/or revised in this occasion. By extension, the festival may be seen virtually as a grand *dornát* where all the representatives of the *binodngán* tribes are gathered in one place to celebrate their being bonded together by the *bodóng*.

Challenges to Peace-building Efforts in Kalinga

There are at least two major factors that are potentially damaging to the achievement of the festival’s goals. One is the complicity of some Kalingas in the mangling of their own image. Illustrative of this is the almost ubiquitous “Kalinguns” stickers or car decals (see Fig. 2) which are as amusing to viewers as they are damaging to the Kalingas’ reputation. For while it is true that many Kalingas take pride in their being a warriors of sorts and assume personal qualities of bravery, strength, and resilience, embedding a symbol of modern warfare in one’s ethnic identity perpetuates the essentialized image of the violent Kalinga. It is also tied to the so-called “*Kawitan* mentality” among some Kalingas. Kalingas are sometimes divided into the *Kawitan* (roosters– i.e., the belligerent ones who readily avenge a perceived or an actual wrong done on them or their kins), and the *Úpa* (hens – i.e., those who choose a peaceful resolution to tensions or conflicts). The former are often accused of bullying the latter by making unreasonable demands coupled with the threat of the *bodóng*’s severance (which marks the start of hostilities). This problem keeps elders and/or *bodóng* holders always on the look out for signs of vengefulness among a few misguided *binodngán*. Had it not been for the proactive efforts of the members of the *Kalinga Bodong Council* (KBC) the MBCC and the various government agencies and civil society groups in the province, the *Kawitan* mentality would have made an event like the *Ullálim* Festival impossible.



Figure 4. The Violent Kalinga. Stickers and car decals similar to this have become fashionable among some Kalingas. (Image courtesy of Io Jularbal)

Another threat to peace-building is religious fundamentalism.¹¹ There are at least 45 Christian denominations and a growing congregation of Muslims in Kalinga (NSO,

¹¹ I use fundamentalism in a narrow sense: a mindset which involves a literal, inflexible interpretation of holy scriptures and an exclusivist soteriology (i.e., salvation belongs only those who belong to their

2010).¹² While the Catholic, Anglican, Lutheran and a few other ecumenical churches have been active in the socio-political concerns of the province through the *Kalinga Apayao Religious Sector Association* (KARSA), an increasing number of fundamentalists continue to distance themselves from such secular affairs and aggressively promote their particular brand of theology and in the process threaten, if not dissolve social bonds. It is ironic that while unity was celebrated during this year's *Ullálim* Festival, several fundamentalist pastors and their members engaged in heated debates over theological issues and over mutual proselyting activities that "pirated" some of their members. It is also a common observation among elders that most Kalingas being converted to fundamentalist groups show lack of interest in indigenous rituals due, for instance, to dietary restrictions like vegetarianism and the banning of eating *dinardaráan* (bloody meat stew).¹³

Conclusion

The Kalingas are known as "Peacocks of the North" for being "the most gaily dressed people of northern Luzon" (Worcester, 1913, p. 1223), and the *Ullálim* Festival is a stage where they strut their full colors. Kalinga's grand gala serves as a site of events that feed the performative production of historical chapters in the proverbial book of the Kalinga. The years will tell whether this will add colors to or cause the shedding of their feathers.

But more than just being a spectacle for tourists and a hub of commodification, the festival has become a strategy for instilling unity among diverse ethnolinguistic groups and reinforcing indigenous institutions of peace. Established within the framework of the Kalinga version of a Indigenous Conflict Process Resolution (ICPR) mechanism, it showcases indigenous concepts and practices that can magnify our appreciation of human creativity in this theater of peace.

groups and who faithfully subscribe to their creed). See Ruthven (2007, pp.1-23) for an extensive discussion of the history and definition of the term.

¹² Catholics are most numerous with 134,963 members or 67.1% of the total population. Next to them are Protestants (National Council of Churches in the Philippine) with 19,615 members (9.7%) and Evangelicals (Philippine Council of Evangelical Churches) with 14,588 members (7.3%). Only 27 individuals (.01%) identified themselves as belonging to "Tribal Religions." 146 individuals (.1%) belong to Islam. KARSA, an alliance of Catholic and Protestant church leaders, wields a great influence on Kalinga politics, especially in matters involving peace and order. (NSO, 2010)

¹³See Little (2007) for a fine collection of accounts regarding the positive role religion in peacemaking.

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Nurses' Job Satisfaction: A Case from Bursa State Hospital

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Abstract

This research was carried out to reveal job satisfaction levels of the nurses working at Bursa State Hospital and to reveal if their job satisfaction levels differ depending on the defining characteristics of job satisfaction. For this purpose, this research was carried out on 138 nurses volunteering to participate in the study in March 2013 from Bursa State Hospital. The data obtained in this study were submitted for SPSS 21.0 statistical analysis. Percentages and frequencies were used in defining the characteristics of the nurses participating in the study, and means and standard deviation statistics were applied to define the participants' job satisfaction. T-test, one-way ANOVA and Tukey tests were conducted to examine the difference in job satisfaction levels depending on the participants' defining characteristics, and correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationships between the dimensions determining their job satisfaction levels. According to the data obtained in this study, it was found that the highest job satisfaction rate out of ten different dimensions was found to be "promotion opportunities" and "reliability" for the participant nurses. The satisfaction values obtained from these two dimensions were found to be, in turn, 3,4 and 3,7 in the questionnaire in which the full satisfaction value is zero. The lowest satisfaction figures in the related job dimensions are, in turn, "working environment and conditions", "the job itself". "Promotion" and "wage" dimensions were found to be at average level. The research also found out that the relationship between job satisfaction levels of the participants and the variables such as gender, marital status, working background, the length of their work at their current workplace and being a parent. The difference between the mean scores taken from some dimensions of the work and the mean scores taken from the variables such as "age", "educational background", "choosing their job willingly" and "doing their job willingly" was found to be statistically significant. With this regard, the relationship between "promotion", "educational background" and "the job itself", and between "choosing the job willingly" and "the job itself", "promotion", "way of administering type", "relations with colleagues" and "general job satisfaction", the relationship between "doing the job willingly" and "the job itself" and "relations with colleagues" was found to be statistically significantly (0.5)

Keywords: Job satisfaction, Nurse

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Introduction

Whereas the rapid growth in social changes which have accelerated since 1990s, started to influence and transform the health sector as in most other sectors, it has also had various effects on health services and those working in health service sector. The science of health and health Technologies which have been improving very fast, in one side, contribute to patients' recovery and on the other side, increases and diversifies the burden on the shoulders' of health workers.

Some of the difficulties experienced by the health staff are closely related to physical, chemical, biological and agronomical risks. In addition to that, health services are often related to delivering health services to those under severe stress. The fact that the health workers are always together with the people suffering from health problems in the units where they work, significantly contributes to higher stress rates compared to those working in other work places. In a sector whose main focus is on people with some sort of health problems, psychosocial stress, inadequacy and desperation which are unavoidable parts of this sector reach up to a level which cannot be tolerated and which affect workers' job satisfaction levels.

The problems that nurses experience are not only limited to how they do their job and the characteristics of patients. The fact that nursing is mostly favoured by women extends the severity of the stress problem, and the problems related to being a mother and woman are also added to the problems encountered in workplaces. The working conditions at home and workplace lead to deterioration in the quality and quantity of health services, which negatively affect the practice of nursing profession (Boey, 1998).

It is a reality that workplaces affect individuals, and individuals also affect workplaces. The success of an institution can be as much as that of the workers. Therefore, nurses who constitute 60% of all health staff at hospitals, play significant roles in hospitals' efficiency and productivity (Polat, 2008). It is very important for nurses to have satisfaction from their profession and to be happy and productive if we expect to increase the quality of the given services. With this regard, for the staff to be physically and mentally healthy, workplaces need to be preserved from harmful physiological and social effects. That has become one of the most basic goals of contemporary science. (Arcak and Kasımoğlu, 2006).

The job satisfaction levels of nurses result in many consequences regarding not only the nurses themselves, the institutions where they work, patients and patients' relatives and the future of health sector (Karahan, 2009). As reported by Durmus and Güney (2007) from Duxbury, Armstrong, Drew and Henly, job satisfaction is defined as the level of meeting the staff's physical, mental and social needs regarding their expectations (Durmuş and Günay, 2007). Job satisfaction is a consequence of staff's attitudes developed towards their jobs; in other words, it is an emotional reaction against their work lives. (Avşaroğlu, Deniz and Kahraman, 2005). Therefore, job satisfaction is influenced by individual and organizational factors.

Studies carried out in Turkey (Akgöz and et. al, 2005; Yıldız and Kanan, 2005) suggest that job satisfaction levels of nurses are affected by some factors such as age, marital status, way of expressing their anger, their willingness to choose their

profession, length of work in their job, meeting their needs, workplace conditions, relations with their colleagues and administration, working conditions, role conflict and working under contract or as permanent staff. Workplace and working conditions come the second after wage in job satisfaction. It is very important for staff to work under appropriate working conditions (heating, illumination, humidity, newness of the building and etc.) and to have adequate technical equipment's considering the emergencies resulted from the performed job as these are all necessary to deliver the service effectively and efficiently. The importance of these factors does not significantly change from person to person (Türk, 2007: 78). As nursing is a profession which requires working for 24 hours, it is a necessity to plan night shifts and to structure commuting hospital in a safe way (Uyer, 1993: 207). International Labour organization defines stress factors depending on workplaces of nurses, such as conflicts with administration, role conflict and role ambiguity, too much work load, emotional stress resulted from patients' problems, the problems rooting from physical conditions of their workplaces. (Pektekin, 1998).

Within the context mentioned above, it can be said that the factors affecting nurses' job satisfaction levels and the conditions affecting their job satisfaction are known well. However, the degrees of these factors differ from institution to institution. Therefore, it is very important for every hospital to own accurate knowledge about their staff's job satisfaction levels.

The purpose of the study is to reveal the general job satisfaction levels of the nurses working at Bursa State Hospital and to reveal if their job satisfaction levels differ depending on their defining characteristics.

As this study aims to reveal the factors affecting the job satisfaction levels of the nurses working at Bursa State Hospital, it could play a guiding role in increasing the efficiencies of hospital administrations. Besides, it will also contribute to the studies already carried out in the field.

This study is limited to the nurses working in the units of emergency, intensive care, operating room and clinic at Bursa State Hospital in March 2013.

Method

This is a descriptive study. The scope of the study consists of 382 nurses, 181 from the clinics of Bursa State Hospital, 96 nurses from intense care units, 58 nurses from operating rooms and 47 nurses from emergency rooms. Considering the busy schedule of the hospital, offering service for 24 hours, turn of work practice and the exceeding number of items in the assessment tool, the researcher needed to pay a personal visit to the relevant units and conduct interviews with those available and requested them to fill in the assessment tool. In this way, interviews were conducted with 138 nurses.

Two different types of data collection tools were used in the study. The first questionnaire used in the study was prepared by the researcher and made up of 10 items. 5 of the items in the questionnaire are about demographical characteristics of the participants (age, gender, marital status, education, being a parent or not). The other 5 items are about the job characteristics of the participants and their attitudes

towards their jobs (the units where they work, length of service at work, seniority, choosing and doing the job willingly)

The second data collection tool is “nursing job satisfaction questionnaire”. This questionnaire was developed by Aksayan (1992). This questionnaire is a Likert-type scale with four choices all of which aim at revealing different dimensions of their jobs and the levels of their general job satisfaction. There are 66 items in total. Table 1 presents the job dimension which could possible affect nurses’ job satisfaction levels, the number of items related to the dimensions, reliability coefficients of the dimensions and reliability coefficients of general job satisfaction.

Table 1. Reliability coefficients of Job satisfaction questionnaire for nurses with regards to various dimensions of the job and general job satisfaction

Dimensions Of Job	Number Of Items	Reliability Coefficient
The job itself	15	0,73
wage	3	0,60
Job reliability	3	0,56
Professional development	3	0,63
Promotion	2	0,64
Working environment and conditions	13	0,75
Type of administration	9	0,80
Relations with administrators	10	0,85
Relations with colleagues	8	0,85
General Job satisfaction	66	0,92

The scores which participants could take depending on the items and their responses to these items to define their level of “willingness” are as follows; always (4), mostly (3), sometimes (2), never (1). The items that aim at revealing the level of realizing their desires are; certainly (4), mostly (3), a little (2), none (1). The difference between the willingness and perception scores is the score for job satisfaction and it ranges between 0 and 3. Whereas the score of 0 means full satisfaction, 3 means complete dissatisfaction. Therefore, the increase of the score up to 0 means that satisfaction level increases the increase up to 3 means it has decreased.

General Job satisfaction score is obtained from the total of the scores taken from every dimension in the questionnaire. However, as the number of the items in each dimension is different, the following formula is used for the purpose of standardization in the calculation of general job satisfaction score.

$$\text{Standard score of the dimension} = \frac{\text{Raw score taken from the dimension}}{\text{The highest score of the dimension}} \times k$$

According to this formula, the score taken from each dimension is divided by the highest score of the dimension, and then multiplied by $k=10$ and the score obtained is the standard score. The total of these scores gives general job satisfaction score which can change between “0” and “90”. The method followed in the evaluation of satisfaction level is as follows: as the scores from every job dimension reaches to 0

from 5, the satisfaction level increases; and as it increases up to 10, it decreases accordingly. Similarly, as general job satisfaction level scores come to 0 from 45, it increases, and when it comes to 90, it decreases.

The data obtained in the study was submitted for statistical analysis on SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), Windows 21, 0 programme. In the evaluation of the data obtained in the study, defining statistical techniques (frequency, percentage, mean deviation and standard deviation) were used.

T-test was used in the comparison of quantitative data. One-way ANOVA test was used in inter-group comparison of the parameters when there are more than two groups. Tukey Post Hoc test was used in the identification of the group causing the difference. The obtained data was evaluated at 5% significance level.

Findings and Discussion

In this part, the findings obtained from the analysis of the data gathered from the participant nurses through questionnaire, are presented to come up with a solution to the research question. Based on the findings, further explanations and discussions are made.

Socio-demographic characteristics of Nurses

Under this heading, the findings related to demographic data gathered through the questionnaire developed by the researcher, are presented.

Table 2 *Socio-demographic characteristics of nurses.*

Characteristics	Groups	Frequency(n)	Percentage (%)
Age	20-24	29	21,0
	25-29	29	21,0
	30-34	30	21,7
	35-39	26	18,8
	40-44	11	8,0
	45 and above	13	9,4
Gender	Female	126	91,3
	Male	12	8,7
Marital status	Married	82	59,4
	Single	56	40,6
Educational background	Vocational school of health	28	20,3
	Associate degree	47	34,1
	Bachelor's degree	63	45,7
Place of duty	Clinic	64	46,4
	Intense care unit	42	30,4
	Operating room	15	10,9
	Emergency	17	12,3

	room		
Length of employment as a nurse	5 years and below	53	38,4
	6-10	19	13,8
	11-15	25	18,1
	16 years and above	41	29,7
Length of duty at current workplace	5 years and above	84	60,9
	6-10	25	18,1
	11-15	16	11,6
	16 years and above	13	9,4
Being a parent or not	Yes	71	51,4
	No	67	48,6
Choosing the profession willingly	Yes	87	63,0
	No	51	37,0
Doing the profession willingly	Yes	95	68,8
	No	43	31,2

When nurses are considered with regards to age, it was found out that 73,7% of them are under the age of 34, and 26.8% of them are between the ages of 35-44. The percentage of those who are 45 and above is 9.4%.

91.3% of the participants are female and 3 out of 4 are married and 63% of them have kids. The majority of the participant (79,8%) own an associate degree or a bachelor's degree. The percentage of those who are graduates of Vocational High School of Health is 20%.

When participants are considered with regards to their place of duty, it is seen that majority of the participants (46.4%) work at clinics. Then intense care unit comes (30.4%), followed by emergency room (12.3%) and operating room (10.3%).

More than half of the participants were found to have less than a 10-year length of work experience (52.2%). Almost 2/3 of the participants (60.9%) were found to have a length of work experience between 1-5 years. The percentage of those having more than 16 years of length of work experience is 10%.

When nurses were considered depending on if they have chosen their job willingly, 87 of them (63.0%) suggested yes, 51 of them (37.0%) said No. 2/3 of the nurses suggested that they have been doing their jobs willingly, and 1/3 of them suggested that they did not. 95 of them said Yes (68.8%) and 43 of them said No (31.2%)

Job satisfaction levels of Nurses

Table 3. Satisfaction scores of the nurses related to different dimensions of their jobs.

Job satisfaction dimensions	N	means	SS
The job itself	138	16.3	7.9
Wage	138	5.7	2.6

Job reliability	138	3.7	2.3
Professional development opportunities	138	3.4	2.2
Promotion	138	4.0	1.9
Working atmosphere and conditions	138	23.5	8.7
Administration types	138	13.5	6.4
Relations with administrators	138	15.2	7.8
Relations with colleagues	138	10.5	5.8
General job satisfaction	138	46.1	17.1

Table 3 presents the mean scores of the participants with regards to 10 dimensions in the questionnaire. The job dimensions from which nurses have the highest job satisfaction levels are, in turn, “reliability”, which means to have a reliable job, “Professional development opportunities”. The job dimensions for which nurses have the lowest job satisfaction levels are “working conditions at workplaces”, “the job itself” and “relations with administration”. General job satisfaction was found to be at average level.

Significance of the difference between the mean scores of job satisfaction and socio-demographic characteristics

Under this heading, the significance of the relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and job dimensions is pointed out.

Table 4. The relationship between the mean scores of “promotion” dimension of the job and “age”

Job satisfaction dimensions	Age	N	means	Sd	F	P
Promotion	20-24 ages	29	3.8	1.9	2,345	0,045
	25-29 ages	29	3.6	1.9		
	30-34 ages	30	3.7	2.1		
	35-39 ages	26	5.0	1.4		
	40-44 ages	11	4.4	1.7		
	45 age and above	13	3.6	1.6		

* $p < 0.05$

The relationship between the means of job satisfaction scores obtained from different dimensions of the job and age was investigated to reveal if it is statistically significant. As presented in Table 4, the difference between the age and the “promotion” dimension of the job was found to be statistically significant. ($F=2,345$; $p=0,045 < 0.05$). To find out the source of this difference, complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out. The “promotion” score of the nurses whose ages are between 35-39, was found to be $(5,000 \pm 1,356)$, for those who are aged between 25-29, the promotion scores were found to be higher than $3,586 \pm 1,881$.

Table 5. The relationship between the mean scores of the dimensions of “the job itself” and “educational background”

Job satisfaction dimensions	Educational Background	N	mean	Sd	F	p
The job itself	Vocational school of health	28	15.1	6.0	3,296	0,040*
	Associaate degree	47	14.5	8.0		
	Bachelor’s degree	63	18.1	8.2		

* p<0.05

According to the Table 5, the difference between the means of “educational background” and “the job itself” dimensions of the participants was found to be statistically significant (F=3,296; p=0,040<0.05). To define the sources of the differences, complementary post-hoc analysis was used. The scores of the nurses for “the job itself” who have an associaate degree were found to be (18,127 ± 8,212), the scores of the nurses who have an associaate degree were found to have higher scores than the scores of “the job itself” (14,532 ± 7,983).

Table 6. The relationship between the mean scores of “choosing the profession willingly” and “job satisfaction level”

Job satisfaction dimensions	group	N	mean	Sd	T	p
The job itself	Yes	87	14.3	6.4	-4,172	0,000*
	no	51	19.7	8.9		
	no	51	4.8	2.2		
Promotion	yes	87	3.7	1.8	-2,290	0,024*
	no	51	4.5	1.9		
Administration type.	yes	87	12.7	6.0	-2,071	0,040*
	No	51	14,941	6,250		
Relations with administration	yes	87	14,092	7,220	-2,239	0,027
	no	51	17,137	8,490		
Relations with colleagues	yes	87	9,736	5,421	-2,096	0,038*
	no	51	11,863	6,287		
General job satisfaction	yes	87	43,209	15,964	-2,628	0,010*
	No	51	50,985	18,095		

* p<0.05

When Table 6 is examined, the difference between the mean scores of “choosing the job willingly” and “the job itself”, “promotion”, “administration type”, “relations with administration”, “relations with colleagues and “general job satisfaction” was found to be statistically significant (p<0,05).

Table 7. The relationship between the mean scores of “doing the job willingly” and “general job satisfaction level”

Job satisfaction dimensions	Group	N	mean	Sd	t	p
The job itself	Yes	95	14.8	6.7	-3,506	0,003*
	No	43	19.7	9.2		
	No	43	24.7	10.4		
	no	43	16.9	9.0		
Relations with colleagues	yes	95	9.5	5.2	-3,144	0,006*
	no	43	12.8	6.6		
	No	43	49.2	20.6		

* $p < 0,05$

According to Table 7, the difference between the mean scores of “the job itself” and group mean scores was found to be statistically significant when participants are considered with regards to the variable of “doing the job willingly” ($t = -3.506$; $p = 0.003 < 0,05$).

Similarly to that, the difference between the mean scores of “relations with colleagues” and the group mean scores of “doing the job willingly” was found to be statistically significant ($t = -3.144$; $p = 0.006 < 0,05$).

Results, Discussion and Suggestions

Under this heading, the findings of the study are summed up in brief, and then these findings are compared to the relevant literature and discussed in detail. Then, some suggestions are made to help hospital administrators to increase the staff’s job satisfaction levels.

Results

This study which was carried out to reveal the job satisfaction levels of the nurses working at Bursa State Hospital and to find out if their job satisfaction levels differ depending on the nurses’ defining characteristics, was conducted on 138 nurses in total. 63,7% of the nurses are aged between 20-34 years. 91,3% of them are female, more than half of them are married and parents. With regards to educational background, 4/5 of them (79,8%) have either associate degree or bachelor’s degree.

The participants with the highest seniority are those with 1-5 years of length of work (38,6%). In the second rank, those with 6 years and above length of work come. 60,9% of the participants have been working at their current work places for 1-5 years. The rate of those who have been working at the same work place for 16 years and above is 9,4%.

63% of the participants suggest that they have chosen their job willingly and 68,8% of them suggest that they do their job willingly. It is very significant here to see that 1/3 of the participants have not chosen their job willingly and do not do their job enthusiastically. The job satisfaction levels of the participants with regards to the dimensions of “the job itself”, “reliability”, “relations with colleagues” were found to

be above the average. Their job satisfaction levels with regards to professional development opportunities”, administration types, relations with administration and general job satisfaction levels were found to at average level. Their job satisfaction levels with regards to wage, promotion, working atmosphere and conditions were found to be low.

Another finding of this study is that the nurses aged between 35 and 39 had lower level of job satisfaction with regards to promotion compared to the nurses at other ages. The highest satisfaction opportunities were taken as 3,4 and 3,7 in the questionnaire in which full satisfaction score is taken as 0. The lowest satisfaction levels among the related job dimensions are, in turn, “working atmosphere and conditions” and “the job itself”. The satisfaction levels for “promotion” and “wage” were found to be at average level. The relationship between the participants’ job satisfaction levels and the variables, such as gender, marital status, length of work, the length of work at the current institution and being a parent was found not to be statistically significant.

The difference between the means of the scores of the participants taken from the variables, such as “age”, “educational background” and “choosing the job willingly” and “doing the job willingly” and the means of the scores taken from some dimensions of their jobs was found to be statistically significant. With this regard, the relationship between age and promotion, between educational background and “the job itself”, between choosing the job willingly and “the job itself” and “general job satisfaction”, between choosing the job willingly” and “the job itself” and “relations with colleagues” were found to be statistically significant at .05 level.

The job satisfaction levels of the participants with regards to age, marital status, length of working, length of working at current institution and being parents were found not to be statistically significant. The job satisfaction levels of the nurses with bachelor’s degree with regards to the dimension of “the job itself” were found to be significantly lower than those with lower educational background.

The job satisfaction levels of the nurses with regards to the dimensions of “choosing the job willingly”, “the job itself”, “promotion”, “administration types”, “relations with administrators and colleagues” and their general job satisfaction levels were found to be higher than those who have not chosen their job willingly.

The job satisfaction levels of the participants who do their job willingly with regards to the dimensions of “relations with colleagues” were found to be higher than those who do not do their job willingly.

Another finding in the study is that there is a positively significant relationship among all the dimensions determining the job satisfaction levels of the participants. In other words, any increase in any dimension related to the job satisfaction levels of nurses is found to have also affected all other dimensions.

Discussion

Two job dimensions for which the nurses working at Bursa State Hospital are found to be “Professional development opportunities” and “reliability”. The most basic requirement for a profession to offer professional development opportunities is to use

the job related skills and knowledge in real work settings and in a continuous way. With this regard, nursing profession is a field of employment with higher Professional development opportunities by its nature as it requires continuous effort and feedback. Accordingly, high level of job satisfaction with regards to the relevant job dimension is an expected result. In a similar way, owning a permanent job in a society where job opportunities are very limited helps people feel secure. On the other hand, it is very natural to have the lowest scores for job satisfaction levels with regards to the dimensions of “the job itself” and “work atmosphere and conditions” because majority of the people working in nursing sector are female.

The risks that they encounter in their workplaces, psycho-social stress, desperation as well as the role that they have to play as mothers and wives are all considered to have decreased satisfaction levels. As a matter of fact, the score for “general job satisfaction” is just above the average. This finding supports those findings found in the research by Aksayan (1990) and Engin (1999). Different studies carried out in the literature with the use of different questionnaires suggest that general job satisfaction levels of nurses are at average level (Yeşilyurt, 2009, Kurumahmut, 2010, Mrayyan, 2005). Therefore, it can be suggested that nursing profession offers low job satisfaction.

One of the job dimensions which offer the lowest job satisfaction was found to be the wages paid. The studies carried out in the literature (Engin, 1999, Robert, 1997) reveal that wage is a significant factor affecting job satisfaction levels. The nurses with average level of job satisfaction complain about wages paid to them.

In this study, the nurses at different ages were found to have similar level of job satisfaction except promotion factor. However, the nurses aged between 35 and 39 were found to be lower with regards to promotion dimension than that of the nurses from different ages. The studies carried out on nurses’ job satisfactions have come up with similar findings. The findings of the study carried out by Engin (1999) on some intense care nurses are similar to those of the study we carried out. He found out that job satisfactions of the nurses aged between 19 and 28 were found to be lower than the nurses aged 39 and above. Another study carried out by Oflaslı and Erdem (2004) on some nurses and midwives suggests that there has been a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction, and as people age, job satisfaction levels increase. The study carried out by Aydın and Kutlu (2001) on some nurses found out that the nurses aged 35 and above were found to be higher than those of the nurses aged between 19 and 24.

This study revealed that job satisfaction levels of nurses do not change depending on their gender. In other words, both male and female nurses have similar job satisfaction levels. The findings of the study carried out by Çam and et. al (2005) are very similar to those of our studies. It is also another finding of the study carried out by Çam and et.al. (2005) that gender has no effect on job satisfaction. Considering these points, it is possible to suggest that job satisfaction has no relationship with gender.

The single and married nurses participating in this study were found to have similar job satisfaction levels. These findings support the findings of similar studies carried out in the literature. The studies carried out by Aksayan, Engin (1999), Karamahmut (2010) and Durmuş and Günay (2007) suggest that job satisfactions of nurses do not

differ depending on their marital status. Therefore, it can be suggested that job satisfactions of nurses are independent from their marital status.

The job satisfaction levels of nurses do not change depending on their educational background and other dimensions except the dimension of “the job itself”. Whereas job satisfaction levels of the nurses with different educational backgrounds are very similar in the dimension of “the job itself”, the nurses with a bachelor’s degree were found to have lower job satisfaction level. There are some research whose findings support or do not support those of our studies. For example, the studies carried out by Doğanmerih and Arslan (2012) and Kahraman and et. al. (2011) suggest that the nurses with bachelor’s degree had lower job satisfaction levels. However, the studies carried out by Kurumahmut (2010) and Soyer (2008) suggest that job satisfaction levels of nurses do not change depending on their educational background.

Job satisfaction levels of nurses do not change depending on their length of working. Durmus and Günay (2007) suggest that there is no relationship between nurses’ length of working and their job satisfaction levels. However, Aksaray (1990) and Engin (1990) suggest that nurses have more job satisfaction in their first years.

The findings obtained from the interviews conducted with nurses suggest that being a parent or not has no significant effect on their job satisfactions. There are also some other studies suggesting that being a parent has no effect on job satisfaction (Soyer, 2008, Durmuş and Günay 2007, Beyazsaçlı and Bulut Serin, 2010). That reveals that job satisfaction is independent from being a parent.

It is another finding of the study that nurses’ doing their job willingly has many significant differences from the dimensions of “the job itself”, promotion, type of administration, relations with administrators, relations with colleagues and general job satisfaction levels. Job satisfaction levels of the nurses who have chosen their jobs willingly were found to have higher satisfaction levels with regards to these dimensions. These findings are similar to those of the studies carried out by Kahraman and et. al (2007), Doğan Merih and Arslan (2012).

The job satisfaction levels taken from the dimension of “doing the job willingly” do not change depending on any other dimensions except the dimension of “relations with colleagues”. Job satisfaction levels of the nurses who do their job willingly are found to be higher in their relationships with their colleagues than those who do not. The study carried out by Durmuş and Günay (2007) suggests that the job satisfaction scores of the nurses who love their jobs were found to be higher than those who do not. It is a very normal to expect the nurse who do their job willingly to have higher levels of job satisfaction

The relationship among the factors determining job satisfactions of the nurses was investigated through correlation analysis. The analysis suggests that there is a statistically significant relationship among all the factors determining job satisfaction levels. In other words, the nurses whose job satisfaction levels either increases or decreases in any dimension were found to experience similar increase or decrease in other job dimensions as well. The studies carried out in the literature suggest that there have been positively significant relationships among the factors affecting nurses’ job satisfaction (Piyal and et. al, 2000, Durmuş and Günay, 2007). Considering all

these issues, it can be suggested that nurses' job satisfaction levels emerge in an integrated way to one another, that positivity or negativity in one dimension also affects other dimensions.

Suggestions.

Under the light of the findings of this study, the following suggestions can be offered:

Job satisfaction is an important factor in nurses' achievements. Hospital administrators should give more importance to practices aiming to increase job satisfaction levels of nurses.

Considering that nurses have the least job satisfaction from wage dimension, satisfying wage policy can be adopted depending on working hours.

The reasons for the nurses aged between 35 and 39 to have low job satisfaction and what precaution need to be taken to increase, can be worked on by qualitatively investigating the relationship between the nurses' ages and their job satisfaction levels.

It may be very beneficial for the nurses who are unwilling to do their job to prepare motivational programmes, and it is also another way to hold in-service training programmes to increase their job satisfaction levels and help them love their jobs.

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***Social integration through employment – Desintegration into employment?
Dynamics of activation and precarity in school-to-work transitions in Germany***

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Abstract

Following paper is an outline of my ongoing qualitative dissertation research study which has the formal education-related experiences of young women with a fragmentary formal education or employment course whilst at school-to-work transitions

in the focus. The young women are addressees of Social Work and beneficiaries of youth welfare and employment services in Berlin, Germany.

According to the research perspective school-to-work transition is identified as a risk barrier of social exclusion. With the reconstruction of the subjective perspective of the young women the present contribution seeks to discover how young women evaluate welfare institutional interventions in their school-to-work transition phase. The contribution's objective is on the one hand to capture the specification of, response strategies and coping patterns with social inequality experienced by young women in education and occupational biography during school-to-work transitions. In a broader sense the paper seeks to point out how institutional interventions contribute to the social participation of the young addressee of Social Work and welfare services.

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The contribution has the following outline:

- 1 Research perspective: school-to-work transition as a risk barrier of social exclusion
- 2 Welfare system framework
- 3 Objectives
- 4 Research design
- 5 Case samples
- 6 Key results

1 Research perspective: school-to-work transition as a risk barrier of social exclusion

The latest changes of the European and German labour markets such as the de-industrialisation and the swift to provision of services and to knowledge-based societies in the globalization process go along with short-term contracts, precarious and part-time employment or numerous other insecurities in the flexible labour market. Today's employment policies are characterized in many countries with a low level of social insurance.

Young people's transitions from school „to work and adult life have become much more protracted, complex and de-standardized, resulting in a greater vulnerability to marginalization and exclusion" (Bendit 2008: 31). Transition became a longer period than before, without a clear beginning and end but full of trajectories, breaks, direction changes trajectories and risks for unemployment.

The synchrony of tendencies of precarity on the labour market (e.g. WSI-Mitteilungen 8/2011; Völker 2013) and the duration of gainful employment as prior social integration mode in terms of social recognition and status (Kronauer 2008: 148) represent a progressively increasing risk of marginalization especially for those who temporarily or constantly are excluded from an integration through gainful occupation.

According to the research perspective of the Ph.D. thesis study of the author the school-to-work transition is identified as a risk barrier of social exclusion, due to the simultaneity

of multiple requirements towards young people in this phase, such as psychophysical development tasks during adolescence, formal learning processes which are essential for the qualification for employment inclusion and the process of accomplishing occupancy itself. On the other hand determinants of social participation such as gender, socio-economic and cultural background and formal education success play a core role on the social positioning of young adults.

The durable gendered inequalities in the process of gaining access to vocational training and occupancy (cf. p.e. WALTER/WALTHER 2007: 71ff.) account for the study focus on the social group of young women in the employment-related transition phase.

2 The welfare system as framework of institutional interventions

Although from the late 1980s in Germany several discourses debated the “end of work” or even “end of professionalism”, the importance of being employed has been emerged and received a central meaning in Germany, similarly to other highly developed capitalistic countries referring to status symbol and social position (Kronauer 2008, S. 148). Indeed, in Germany the reasons seem to be closely interconnected to the welfare system where several fundamental changes have been taken place in 2005. Via the consolidation of the support program for workless persons and of the social benefit payments in the Social Security Code II (SGB II) or commonly known as “Hartz IV”, the new paradigm “demand and support” became established (Bonß 2006: 53).

This “activating labour market policy” (Promberger 2009) has been the most exhaustive readjustment within the welfare system between the subjects and the German state in the past decades, resulting in an activation policy via a certain mix of incentives and sanctions with the aim of an integration of young adults under 25 years into the labour market even via precarious or rather low-quality jobs in a rapid manner (cf. Zahradnik et al 2012: 157f.). According to the motto of the activation policy “any job is better than no job” (Bonß 2006: 53) professionals of Social Work as experts of welfare institutions have been becoming increasingly powerful in managing of the integration of young adults into the labour market.

As the German government realized which destructive social consequences were caused by so called Hartz IV-draft law in 2005, whilst there were some new changes implemented, as it was ratified in 2007, and came into force from 2012, e.g. the cancellation of 1-Euro-jobs or some other arrangements. Nevertheless, the activating paradigm is still ongoing and the re-adjustment of the interdependencies between the subjects and the stakeholders of the welfare state did not come to an end yet (cf. Hirsland/Ramos Lobato 2012: 279f.). The main consequence of the activation policy is the prevalence of the imperative of the Adult-Worker-Modell (Lewis 2004) where labour market inclusion is emphasized to be a primary individual task to accomplish. This discourse is blinding out the structure of the society and the socio-economical framework which the policy is embedded to. Due to the lack of the structural view failure of employment on the other hand is being emphasized as an individual malfunction.

Although in Germany youth unemployment is the lowest in European comparison, a high number of young adults enter into the so called vocational transition system each year (in 2013 this was an estimated 300.000 persons; cf. Rollmann 2013), even with school-leaving certificate in possession for many of them.

3 Objectives

Through the reconstruction of the subjective perspective on the transition phase the present research main objective is to capture the specification of, response strategies to and coping patterns with social inequality experienced by young women in education and occupational biography during school-to-work transitions. The paper also has the aim of contribution to the debate on the contradictory roles and

expectations of Social Work as a discipline and a profession towards its addressee during school-to-work transitions.

4 Research design

The research design of the study is a methodological triangulation between Grounded Theory Methodology (GTM), biographical approach and orientation on the living environment (Lebensweltbezug). In 2010-12, during two phases of a mini-longitudinal investigation autobiographic-narrative interviews were held with seven young women between 17 and 25 years who were addressee of Social Work and at the same time or temporarily, clients¹ of welfare services. Two of these women are native Germans, five of the women have a so-called migrant background whereelse they were born, raised and integrated to the formal education system in Berlin, the capital of Germany. The total sample included thirteen persons, out of which three with native German background, and ten of them were known to have migrant background.

The research design included the following knowledge-constitutive questions: How do young women with a fragmentary formal education process or employment history consider, accept and evaluate the support measures and services of the youth welfare service and the employment agency? How do the institutional interventions contribute to their social participation? What kind of acting capacities of young women during school-to-work transition can be found?

5 Case samples

In the following sections short introduction of two of the reconstructive case samples are outlined.² Whilst in the first case sample, titled Case Sample Eva, the institutional interventions in the transition phase took only for one year long, whilst in the second case titled Case Sample Nina a long-term transition phase of six years with multiple and complex institutional interventions is demonstrated.

5.1 Case Sample Eva³

Short biographic summary

Eva Alejeva was born in Berlin in 1992. Her parents emigrated from the former Soviet Union to Berlin in the 1980s. According to Eva's narrative her parents divorced in her age of 2 years. After 20 years time her mother served as a professional elderly carer and she was forced to retire due to health issues. From 2002, the 3-person-family with Eva's brother became a long-term beneficiary of the welfare system due to the long-term unemployment of the single mother.

¹ Some critical review of the denomination „client” in the context of the social welfare system see in German p.e. Galuske 2008.

² All the names of the case samples are anonymized data due to research ethical reasons. It is not possible to introduce here all the biographical data gained during the interviews with the young women. This short case samples only focus on the formal education and

³ The first interview with Eva was taken in September 2010, the second one in August 2012.

Eva's mother tongue is Russian, she was learning German as a second language from the first grade of elementary school. Eva narrated herself as a bullying victim from the second grade of primary school until the 7th grade of the junior high school⁴. During the rollback of the 7th grade Eva could not stand her excluded social role any more: after several weeks in the new class in September 2006 she dropped out and left school without obtaining leaving certificate. Together with her best friend she became a member of a drug clique for more than three years, without carrying forward her formal education process. She lost connection with most of the persons she was closely attached to, although her mother and two cousins tried to accompany her from a certain distance which seemed to be acceptable for her. They all faced phases with almost no communication or even with fierce debates. During the clique membership Eva seemed not to be willing to solve adolescent conflicts in a constructive way. Neither she was willing to accept approaches from persons outside of her clique nor to solve psycho-social conflicts in the family and in her social group.

At her age of 16 years, after all, gainful employment became Eva's prior action-orientation. Especially in the comparison with her cousins – the elder one was preparing for her school leaving certificate in order to be able to study in the near future, whilst at and the younger one was starting her vocational training –, Eva expressed to having no orientation or sources at all to set up a future perspective: „I thought I have nothing, I do nothing, I am lazy, I am dull, my cousins are coming further [...], you are getting out of it [out of the drug clique, J.W.], or you will be sunk overall.” (I) Eva seemed to be aware of the chances those her cousins access via formal education and she also sought to find a way out of the clique that in her narrative was only leading to a long-term unemployment status. Eva was considering how to get a chance to access to formal educational qualification again to be able to get access to gainful employment with the goal of independent living.

According to the advice of her younger cousin directly after her clique membership Eva was proceeding her formal education in the 9th grade of a college of secondary education equivalent to sixth form college (in German “Oberstufenzentrum”⁵) with the goal of taking her school leaving certificate examination to be able to access a vocational training in advance. Although due to periods of absence Eva was not allowed to take her exam. According to her narrative Eva traced back the absence times to symptoms of her former drug addiction and in numerous not cleared conflicts in the family.

⁴ The German „Realschule” is a secondary school type which offers Middle School Leaving Certificate to its successful graduates after ten years, „Mittlerer Schulabschluss”, which is higher ranked as the school leaving certificate of the secondary modern school, „Hauptschule”, and lower as that of grammar school, „Gymnasium”. The junior high school offers an extended general education interlinking theory and practice. Its graduates may enter a vocational training or if having good marks they are allowed to switch to secondary school to attain school-leaving examination qualifying for university admission. For further information on the formal education system in Berlin see: <http://www.berlin.de/sen/bildung/bildungswege/index.html#> (23.06.2014; in German).

⁵ The secondary school type “Oberstufenzentrum” (equivalent to sixth form college) is not offering a general leaving school certificate which the grammar school does but a “Fachabitur” which is vocational-related and can be chosen in three sectors such as the administrative, the social and the technical sector. The leaving exam will not qualify the graduates for university study (immediately) but to study at a polytechnic college within the chosen sector. For further information to vocational education in Germany see: Finlay, Ian (ed.): Changing vocational education and training : an international comparative perspective. London [u.a.] : Routledge, 1998.

Institutional interventions in the transition phase

Due to the advice of her mother she starts a consultancy with Ms Meyer at a youth psychosocial information center in her quarter. After a clearing addiction therapy Ms Meyer conciliate Eva into a transition system measure with the goal of making up her school leaving certificate. After four months Eva drops out due to her disinterest in the skilled manual workmanship dominance of the measure. Although she is neither interested in the hotel and restaurant industry, due to the recommendation of her younger cousin Olga again, Eva joins a school equivalent to sixth form college in that sector and in 2010 she is receiving her Certificate of Advanced Secondary Education.

Although in former years she had the goal to join a grammar school and study, after this fragile period of high biographical impact Eva is not considering higher formal educational goals any more. According to the recommendation of Ms Meyer in August 2010 Eva began her three-year school-based vocational training as a social assistant with the goal of advanced training with the professional aim to become a clinical nurse for elderly people. Due to biographic experiences – care period of the grandmother and a school work experience in a residential home for elderly people – Eva seemed to be highly motivated to gain employment in the elderly care sector. According to the recommendation of a friend in November 2010 she switched to the vocational training as a professional elderly care person, to be able to be employed directly afterwards in a timely manner, and earning apprentice's pay during the vocational training which was for Eva an important base of materially independent means of existence.

Evaluation of institutional interventions

In the evaluation of institutional interventions Eva pointed Ms Meyer as the most helpful person in the context of institutional interventions and even she became a central figure the biographic narrative of Eva, who estimated the possibility of clearing consultations with a professional person of trust about concerns she was unable to talk about with anybody else – the drug clique membership and her psycho-social needs and family conflicts – as a beneficiary and conducive to the accomplishment during the school-to-work transition. With the words of Eva „Cause before I did not have anybody to talk to, I stuck it all into myself, this makes you indeed bust “ (II) she pointed out that her new established social relationships on the base of confidence and appreciation were essentially stabilized by the support of Ms Meyer. The figure of the social worker appeared in a crucial role as a personal supporter, not only for Eva's transition phase but her whole biography since Eva emphasized the significant importance of the support of Ms Meyer which helped her to cause the big turn during the transition and go on with the formal educational qualification towards gainful employment. At the official end of the consultancy which lasts approx. six months long, Eva and her consultant reached the agreement of the possibility for Eva to return to Ms Meyer “any time if something happens”: Eva took leave with the certain knowledge and reachable access to a reliable professional help in a long-term perspective. This planning security Eva pointed out as a helpful and supporting certainty.

Conclusion: Activation as a welfare state measure leading to precarity?

In the Case Sample Eva school appeared to be a place of selectivity and of negation of appreciation. On the basis of Eva's subjective perspective no stable and supportive relationships can be detected to teachers or any other professionals during the transition phase which would have prevented her bullying and the drop-out of school-experience. The mother of Eva appeared to be a constantly supportive and interested person in Eva, who proved to be powerless in the view of adolescent conflict dynamics to prevent Eva's drop out.

The professional consultancy referring to formal educational or occupational decisions turned out to be always constructive and exactly fitting, however as concluding remarks Eva interpreted her institution-based relationship to Ms Meyer as a central source of appreciation and confidence during her transition in her retrospection which helped her essentially to establish a new phase of acting agency and self-confidence for the school-to-work transition. Eva narrated the re-orientation with the aid of an institution-based relationship as a key moment/turning point for the transition phase.

The goals of the activation policy occurred a precarious social positioning which is supported by the fragile socio-economic situation of Eva since without having a solid financial base in the family, gainful employment in a timely manner became an essential way out of the dearth of prospects of everyday life. Eva was aspiring for an employment in the female-dominated health care sector without the long-term perspectives on further qualifications or a stable income situation. The institutional interventions kept her formal educational process going whilst at leaving no opportunity to develop an alternative of a qualifying educational or vocational path leading to higher qualifying occupational chances with a perspective to a better income situation and advanced training possibilities.

5.2 Case Sample Nina⁶**Short biographic summary**

Nina was born in 1986 in Berlin as the second daughter of a family with German background. Due to her divorce in 1995 and moving to a smaller apartment with her children Nina's mother was forced to give up her job as a nanny. The family became a beneficiary community of household members in need. Nina lived with her father until she turned 15 years old, a varnisher and lacquerer whose employment was continuous until 2012. After the completion of grade 9 at a junior high school (in German "Realschule") Nina was not accepted to enroll at grade 10. Instead of repeating grade 9 at another school of the same type – due to shortage of place she was advised to leave her former school. Nina was rather willing to move to grade 10 at a modern secondary school ("Hauptschule") since she had former personal contacts to pupils, and where from she received her Certificate of Advanced Secondary Education. After an unsuccessful application period of four years time Nina spent a two-year-long motherhood period at home as a partially single mother. As a young and unemployed person, Nina has been almost continuously a beneficiary of the welfare system for six years long (2004 to 2010) with a few breaks whilst at her

⁶ The first interview with Nina was taken in October 2010, the second one took place in August 2012.

fragmentary formal vocational educational or short-term employment periods. During this period Nina began various vocational trainings and several measurements of the transition system and breaks them all up, pointing the main reason out in lacking child care facilities. Since her child was getting sick in the first years of the kindergarten regularly, Nina was away from her courses too many times. With the aim of a stable partnership in the back, in August 2010 Nina begins a vocational training as a professional house keeper. In 2012 her professional aim is to become a housekeeper in a leading position. In order to achieve the above she planned to take part in a two-year-long further training program concomitantly some years of working experience. The following year, after a short period as a single mother, Nina was about to get married.

Action-orientation onto gainful employment

Until the age of 20 years Nina had no professional preference and was applying for different vocational training places e.g. as a hairdresser or retail tradeswoman with the main goal of avoiding the sanctions with financial penalties of the Jobcenter.⁷ Nina described her application process as rather less structured, e.g. she opened the telephone book and applied to all companies from A to Z in the vicinity. Besides she was looking for a job, following no long-term goals or having no certain preference. Her leisure activities with her peers seemed to be holding a higher priority in her view in the comparison with the efforts for gainful employment.

Nina was justifying her turnaround in the transition phase with her responsibility as a mother. The two years-long child-care period as a single mother during most of the time in a precarious financial situation strengthened Nina's desire for a regular employment.

Despite Nina stressed out mainly her responsibility for the formal education chances of her child, to whom she wished better formal education and employment opportunities and financial possibilities than she having had. By saying „now it's enough, now you must go on“, Nina marked her double efforts, to leave behind the phase of carefree and easygoing pastime of youth but also her precarious life conditions. Motivated through her responsibility as a mother Nina acknowledged the necessity of independent counteracting to be able to establish requested material wealth: “I do not want to turn around every cents two times if I need to buy something” (I), she says. Also she was motivated to move to a different apartment in an another quarter, to be able to send her child to a “good school” since in her view better educational chances go along directly with better chances of employment and a long-term satisfaction during working life. Accordingly Nina's educational aspirations were rooted on the one hand in material targets of everyday life such as covering expenses for holiday trips and consumer goods and, on the other hand in the possibility of desired social participation of her child such as participation in school activities or having a solid educational background among children from families from a secure socio-economic background.

⁷ For the implementaion of the new Social Security Code II which entered into force from 1.1.2005 (SGB II;) the aid for unemployed II or „Hartz IV” in each of the twelve districts of Berlin a JobCenter was established. For further information about the JobCenters in Berlin (in German) see: <http://www.berlin.de/JobCenter; 27.06.2014>.

Due to the recommendation of her peer Nina started her vocational training at a training school which offered a strong infrastructure for young parents. As she said, this was her “last chance”: at the age of 24 years she has not too much choice or alternative for a state-covered vocational training which is supported until the age of 25 years.

Nina attributed herself capable for the occupancy as a professional house keeper due to her acquired competencies as a child of divorced parents, caring person for her small half-brother and single mother. She was justifying in her own biographical experiences the supportive and caring role which she would like to extend in her professional life. Although she seemed to be motivated for the professional carrier, the opportunity to earn money in this field is very limited according to her viewpoint. In her third year of vocational training Nina was already planning to take a qualifying exam for a leading position after some years of working experiences. The precarious salary is Nina’s core concern, and this motivates her to opt for a two-year-long further training program.

Evaluation of institutional interventions

Nina described herself as she relieved from not having a fully structured everyday life with bureaucratic efforts, regular appointments and control mechanisms as a client of the Jobcenter during her motherhood. In her evaluation about the communication with the responsible institution for her case, Nina was pointing out her dissatisfaction due to e.g. the careless manner of the management with her documents and official copies. Nina expressed her disappointment about the repeated requests of the Jobcenter as she described that she already handed out the documents to institutional employees several times before. In her lay of compliant Nina was criticizing that the institution is not supporting or promoting her but elements of demands predominate. Nina was missing the subject-orientation of the measurements and cannot see the goal of several transition system measurements and courses. In her view the employers of Jobcenter were not helping her to get into employment and she did not experience positive impact of her formal educational background.

Nina was pointing out in her main critic her disappointment about getting no suitable and requested employment opportunities in such a long period of time from the Jobcenter. She was missing the individual character of the job offers which she as a beneficiary presumes as self-evident, such as she described a so-called 1-Euro-Job, in which her task was to collect rubbish using grapping pliers in a forest. She said: „They [professionals of the Jobcenter, J.W.] offered me only jobs, which I could not have done with a child, such as to work at night or in the evening, and such things. [...] When I explained them the situation I regularly received such replies as “oh, yes, we were not thinking on that.” (I)

In Nina’s perspective the offers of the Jobcenter were permanently mismatching and she felt that she was not taken seriously. Also she seemed to have the impression that her social role as a mother was not considered by the institution. Her protests seemed to have made a few impacts on the situation, as her personal matters not taken seriously. She described the employment proposals and offers as arbitrary. All in all Nina judged her transition position in 2012 positively mainly as a result of self- and peer-contained efforts and information. In her retrospective Nina formed a

sharp critic about the support of the Jobcenter by saying “it haven’t had any impact” onto her formal educational chances in the transition phase.

Conclusion: Activation through institutional interventions as a path into precarious life course?

It is remarkable how Nina stresses out the formal education success of her child as her prior responsibility and goal of child care. Regular employment seems to be in Nina’s view primarily as the possibility to achieve such goal. Nina’s case sample is showing exemplary that the German formal educational system is unable respond the special needs of single parents and is offering them only limited chances to arrange motherhood and formal education process simultaneously.⁸

The case of Nina also stresses out that transition system courses or measurements lead only „into mere waiting loops and precarious positions” instead of compensating „shortcomings of educational and socialization processes“ (Stauber/Pohl/Walther 2007: 26). Whilst at her long-term interdependence with the Jobcenter Nina hasn’t received any supportive or proposing offers whereas consultancies would have led her to a more chanceful transition position. She summarized the total amount of institutional support in the transition phase as useless with regard to a desired vocational training or integration into employment as the way out of precarity. Her financial and social participation chances are getting significantly better only through her new partnership in 2010. The partner of Nina, with a stable regular employment seems to become the male main breadwinner of the 3-person-pathwork-family. The future employment of Nina after her vocational training in the so-called female sector can only offer complementary earnings to her partner’s.

6 Key results of the case samples

Despite lack of further details to highlight the findings apart from as demonstrated above, the following key results were obtained:

- 1) The consensus-like orientation on gainful employment with the goal of independent living is the primary result of cross findings. The results show that no formal school certificate holding by the young women is a guarantor for being successful in entering the labor market. Nevertheless, precarious employment on the labor market raises concern hence, an adequate financial base as an objective for a desired social participation by the perspective of young women is of difficulty to obtain.
- 2) Attributable to lack of accredited certificates and subject-orientated impact provided by the transition system courses, the amount of time in the system is usually judged to be lost.
- 3) Young women tend to take rather the so-called women's jobs they go along with precarious employment and more flexible working conditions. On the one hand this can be interpreted as the result of educational orientation in their own environment, on the other hand vocational orientation is provided by experts of

⁸ In 2010 in Germany there were 8,1 million families with underage children, of which 19 percent where single parents. In Berlin the percentage of single parents is the highest in the Federal Republic of Germany (32 %) (c. f. BMFSFJ 2012: 6).

welfare state institutions they appear to be highly influential on the social positioning of their clients.

- 4) The young women express high expectations on their institution-based relationships particularly with regard to a continuity of a long-term personal support, psychosocial advice and a successful integration into the labour market. The quality of the institution-based relationship seems to affect the success of institutional interventions. Although only some of the women express positive and conducive experiences in the context of their institutional relationships.



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(All translations from German into English were accomplished by the author)



Social Movements in the Digital Age, Their Reflection in the Middle East and the Effect of Social Media

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Abstract

“It all started in Tunisia” and those social movements spread through Middle East. The fire that sparkled in the East also effected the social movements in the West. The most important similarity in those events was the use of social media. In those networked, global social movements social media played an important role and they were used by the protesters effectively. Trust to the media, governments and politicians whether they are the members of the opposition parties was vanished throughout Europe, United States and Middle East. Some of those movements were started because of the tyranny of the state, the brutality of the police forces and corruption of the governments. As “mass-self communication” medium, internet gives its users an opportunity to spread their thoughts and opinions about everything. The users also can spread news which could not be found in the mainstream media. They can also indicate corruption in politics, police brutality, and the oppression of the state or governments by spreading those materials. Of course internet technology is not the main cause for those social movements, but it became a catalyst for those events. That’s because, in many of the Middle Eastern countries, authorities have tried to ban the “dangerous” sites in order to prevent spreading of the news about corruption. In this research, I will try to examine how individuals share their fears and hopes via social media, first form a virtual community with common ideas, hopes and fears and then became a real community with flesh and blood protesting on city squares.

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The Role of Social Media in the Arab Spring

For the organization of social movements, the role of the communication devices and media is very important. In 1979 Iran Revolution, audio cassettes which were used to spread the voice and the ideas of Khomeini have had a great importance. Thousands of audio cassettes were distributed to Iranians and listened at their homes. They also used at mosques and public spaces. Also in 1989, in China, fax machines were used at the organization of social movements. In Poland, video cassettes played an important role. Today internet became an important mass medium for the organization of social movements.

As “mass-self communication” medium, internet gives its users an opportunity to spread their thoughts and opinions about everything. As a citizen journalism activity, they can share videos, photographs and texts via social networks, blogs and sites such as YouTube. They can also indicate corruption in politics, police brutality, and oppression of the state or governments by spreading those materials. For instance in Tunisia, the documents about corruption of the Ben Ali regime was revealed by Wikileaks, and the protests started with the self-immolation of a street vendor Muhammad Bouazizi. A number of young people killed themselves before him but Bouazizi’s self-immolation was important and lit the fire of the social movements in Tunisia because it was recorded and broadcasted on YouTube. The impact of the social media technologies has critical importance in organization, communication and mobilization of the masses. According to Nahed Eltantawy and Julie B. Wiest (2011) “social media technologies have been used especially in organizing and implementing collective activities, promoting a sense of community and collective identity among marginalized group members, establishing connections with other social movements, and publicizing causes to gain support from the global community”. In many countries, governments have also seen those effects of social media and shut down many sites in order to prevent the communication between the individuals.

December 17, 2010 became the starting point of the revolts which is known as the Arab Spring. The other Arab countries followed the Tunisian example and it created hope for change that will come from peaceful protests. “The connection between free communication on Facebook, YouTube and Twitter and the occupation of urban space created a hybrid public space of freedom that became a major feature of the Tunisian rebellion, foreshadowing the movements to come in other countries.” says Manuel Castells and indicates the role of social media in Arab revolts (Castells, 2012). As I have mentioned before, especially the young generation was frustrated with unemployment, wanted to get rid of from the corrupt political system and they were missing the social and political equality and freedom in their countries. Social media became a catalyst for spreading their opinions about those subjects. Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and the blogs were easy to use for the young generation and provide a freedom area which governments could not control easily.

With the birth of the first republic in Tunisia in 1956, President Habib Bourgiba gained control over the press and over broadcasting. Under the leadership of the President, media became a propaganda tool of the government. When Ben Ali came to power the relationship between media and government got even worse. The state TV promoted the image of the president as a successful and progressive leader. (<http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/2011/01/2011116142317498666.html>)

Social media users took over the role of the journalist in those countries where mainstream media and newspapers could not inform the citizens about the protests and the corruption of the governments. The protesters filmed themselves, and also the police brutality, broadcasted those images via internet and with the words of Castells, this created the “networks of outrage and hope”. The more protesters joined the protests; fear vanished and turned into hope and courage. The effort of the young social media users in Arab countries also gets the attention of the international media and the audience started to follow the news about their countries via international satellite channels such as Al Jazeera which gives more reliable information about the events. The protesters were using not only Arabic but also English and French on their posts that they share on Twitter and Facebook walls in order to attract the attention of the international media and public. But the reliability of those channels and information gathered from the social media must be questioned.

Samir Amin states that the young generation who was using social media effectively (approximately one million protesters) took the leadership of the protests in Egypt. Radical leftist groups and the democrat middle class and after them the Muslim Brotherhood joined those young people and created a huge mass of 15 million protesters. Most of the young bloggers were coming from wealthy classes and they were mostly affected from the American culture. Although they were under the effect of this culture, they were also known as the opponents of the Mubarak regime which was supported by America. According to Samir Amin, CIA was trying to manipulate the Egyptian revolution such as they manipulated the Eastern Europe’s “colorful revolutions” by using the young bloggers (Amin, 2011). One way or another the revolution was started in Egypt and in the Middle East. Therefore Obama and Hillary Clinton realized that they should abandon and sacrifice the Mubarak regime, which was seen as the loyal ally of Israel and US, but also they should control the revolution in order to keep on controlling Egypt and Middle East. Those bloggers whether they were aware of that conspiracy of CIA or not, always have the potential to be used by those manipulators. As I have mentioned before, while those kinds of manipulations were actively done by various powers, we could not be sure about the reliability of the information that was spread through the social media.

While Tunisia’s Ben Ali and Egypt’s Mubarak regimes became more and more authoritarian, some pockets of opposition began to emerge. In Egypt, the independent labor movement organized more than 1900 labor actions of various sizes from 2004 to 2008 that protested the economic and working conditions of the workers. Although opposition parties and media were silenced by the Mubarak regime, Muslim Brotherhood was still an important opposition in Egypt. Along with those actions, the young generation with internet connection started to be active in Egyptian politics. “The 25 January Revolution (*Thawrat 25 Yanayir*) which in 18 days dethroned the last Pharaoh, arose from the depth of oppression, injustice, poverty, unemployment, sexism, mockery of democracy, and police brutality” (Castells, 2012) says Manuel Castells. There was a general unrest in the country primarily because of the economic conditions which led to the workers’ struggles and naturally to the bloody repression of the regime in response. Those struggles gave birth to the 6 April Youth Movement in Egypt in 2008. They created a Facebook group attracting 70.000 followers in the eve of the uprisings.

Luis Fernando Baron defines the five phases of April 6th Youth Movement. According to Baron (2012) in the first phase of the movement (January-June 2008) Facebook and text messages via mobile phones served as tools to spread messages of solidarity. They were also used to encourage individual expression of ideas and to create spaces for political debate, especially among young people. Facebook and mobile phone users were privileged but protesters not having those opportunities also used other media such as leaflets, banners and word of mouth.

In the second phase (July 2008-July 2009), April 6th Facebook Group became a political movement and this “Facebook activism” evaluated as a “dangerous organization” by the regime. Security forces imprisoned and tortured Israa Abdel Fattah and Ahmed Maher because of their key role in the movement. Social media was used to report the events and for social mobilization. Facebook also played an important role in organizing the protests and became a key reference platform for April 6th Youth Movement. In the third phase (August 2010 – May 2010), the protests and social discontent with the regime began to grow. As Abdoun (2008) states, Facebook was started out as a forum to catch up with friends and sharing photos, but after 2008 it was transformed into a political arena. “The users of Facebook have turned the popular entertainment website into a platform for political activism”. Social media became a tool for threatening the oppressive regimes.

In the fourth phase (June 2010-December 2010), feelings of frustration and fear among the protesters started to transform to anger and hope. Police brutality in general and a specific event, assassination of Khaled Said by the police forces, triggered those feelings and accelerated the movement. After this event a Facebook group, “We are all Khaled Said”, was created by Wael Ghonim and Abdulrahman Mansour and ten thousands of Egyptians joined to this group. That group and the others called for supporters on Facebook to demonstrate in front of the Ministry of Interior to protest against the police brutality. They chose January 25 for protests because it was National Police Day (Castells, 2012). According to Baron, Facebook was very important in building a common narrative about police brutality, but it also became a venue of convergence for multiple political-opposition organizations. Twitter had a significant role in the dissemination of news and organization details of protests (Baron, 2012).

The fifth and the last phase is the occupation of the Tahrir (Liberation) Square in Cairo. Tahrir became the visible public space of the revolution. The space of resistance was moved from internet to the square and streets. Individuals, who started a different kind of resistance from their homes, became masses with common interests in Tahrir. The protesters were ready for a revolution because they have already seen the police brutality from Youtube and Facebook and the protesters were provided with materials which made them angry.

One of the founders of the 6 April Youth Movement, Asmaa Mahfooz’s vlog had an refreshing effect on protests. This Vlog came to be known throughout Middle East as “The Vlog that Helped Spark the Revolution”. In her Vlog she tried to wake up the people of Egypt with those words:

“Four Egyptians set themselves on fire... People, have some shame! I, a girl, posted that I will go down to Tahrir Square to

stand alone and I'll hold the banner... I am making this video to give you a simple message: we are going to Tahrir on January 25th... If you stay home, you deserve all that's being done to you, and you will be guilty before your nation and your people. Go down to the street, send SMS's, post it on the Net, make people aware." (Castells, 2012).

With the effect of this Vlog which was directed to the dignity of the Egyptian society, spark the revolution. The bravery of a 26 year-old girl became a symbol of honor and struggle in Egypt. Someone uploaded the video to YouTube and this Vlog spread through the social networks very fast. Fan internet networks of soccer teams al-Ahly and Zamalek Sporting were also important because they had a long history of battling the police. We can also see this leading effect of soccer clubs in Turkish case, Gezi Park Protests.

Before Arab Spring we have seen the "Twitter Revolutions" in Iran and Moldova. Although Iran has strict rules about social media, in Presidential Elections even Ahmedinejad and his rivals used Facebook and blogs. Bloggers became advisers to candidates. According to Hamid Tehrani, in Iran they have "governmental NGO's" and in the future they will probably have "state-run citizen media" (Sreberny & Khiabany, 2011). However, we can see some Facebook pages such as "I bet I can find one million people who dislike Ahmedinejad". After the 2009 elections, Facebook and Twitter was used for protests. Many Iranians on Facebook changed their profile picture to a green square that included the text "where is my vote?" and Facebook turned green. Iranians who got angry with the election results used the chat option of Facebook and also used Twitter effectively in order to communicate with each other about the subject. Ari Berman indicates Twitter's role in citizen journalism act with those words: "Forget CNN or any of the major American news networks. If you want to get the latest on the opposition protests in Iran, you should be reading blogs, watching YouTube or following Twitter updates from Tehran, minute-by-minute". Although Facebook and Twitter were closed down by the authorities, the "real" action remained on Iranian streets and rooftops (Sreberny & Khiabany, 2011).

Also in Egypt where benefits of internet technology were used by protesters, state's response to the internet facilitated revolution was naturally the Great Disconnection. As I have mentioned before, although Mubarak regime tried everything to prevent the connection between individuals, revolution was never incommunicable because its communication platforms were multimodal. Al Jazeera and satellite connection kept the movement informed. By using networks such as HotSpot Shield, Egyptians could access proxies. Protesters found many ways to communicate with each other via internet.

According to the 2011 Arab Social Media Report, 94% of Tunisians and 88% of Egyptians get their news from social media tools. In Egypt alone, there were 6,586,280 active Facebook users in 2011. The largest percentage of Egyptian Facebook users are between the ages of 18 and 24 years old (41%). On Twitter, the most popular hashtags in the Arab region between January and March 2011 were #egypt (1.4 million mentions), #jan25 (1.2 million mentions), and #libya (990.000 mentions). There are an estimated 131,204 Twitter users in Egypt between 1 January and 30 March 2011 (Storck, 2011). By evaluating those results we can easily

understand that the citizens of Arab countries relied to social media tools, where oppressor governments are in power and where mainstream media is under control of those governments.

Conclusion

Social media was actively used in the social movements in Egypt, Tunisia and Turkey. In Occupy Wall Street events the role of social media was also important. We can see that trust to the mainstream media is vanished especially among the young generation. A new kind of journalism, citizen journalism or social media journalism has emerged. Although the main problem is the absence of gatekeeping process in this kind of journalism, the young citizens rely to that news more than the news gathered from the mainstream media since they know the governments and the media moguls censored the information flow.

Another point to indicate is the mobilizing role of the social media. By sharing common fears, difficulties and interests via social media, individuals started to change their minds and fear, outrage and despair vanished and turned to hope. At this point desperate people started to believe for change since they became aware that they are not alone. Feeling of isolation disappears while they were communicating with each other and virtual communities on social networks became “real masses” on streets and squares. Those movements were also spontaneous and leaderless. The main actor of those movements was the young generation who can use the internet technology effectively.

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Theory of Counterplexity

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Abstract

In this paper I introduce a new concept that I call Counterplexity. I define Counterplexity as the state of the social systems in which

- 1) The marginal returns is lower than in the previous degree of complexity;
- 2) No increase of complexity can determine an increase of the payoffs without a Counterplex decrease;
- 3) Although the best strategy for the society would be a decrease of complexity, the dominant strategy for the ruling players is keeping the degree of complexity beyond the Counterplex maximum.

The society under counterplexity is a society in which

- The improvement of the local space is smaller than the peripheral degradation,
- The increase of velocity is lower than the increase of the space to cover,
- The technics allows to save less time than the time necessary to process the degree of complexity,
- The increase of knowledge increases less than the knowledge necessary to manage the degree of complexity.

Therefore we can say that Counterplexity is the study of the social systems in which the whole is less than the sum of its parts.

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Introduction

There are many definitions of the term “complexity” and different meanings in any discipline in which it is studied. The term derives from the Latin expressions “cum” and “plectere” and means “surrounding, encompassing, encircling, embracing, and comprehending several elements.” (Alhadeff & Jones, 2008, p. 67).

In this work social complexity is given by the size, the quantity of energy necessary to the process of the system, the quantity of information that processes require, the size of space and time in which activities occur, the size of the causal chains, the number and distinctiveness of its parts, the number of activities and events that occur into it.

Against the silent ideology based on the idea that the more complex the better, Galilei (1632) already highlighted:

“[...] the impossibility of increasing the size of structures to vast dimensions either in art or in nature: likewise the impossibility of building ships, palaces, or temples of enormous size in such a way that their oars, yards, beams, iron-boards, and, in short, all their other parts will hold together; nor can nature produce trees of extraordinary size because the branches would break down under their own weight; so also it would be impossible to build up the bony structures of men, horses, or other animals so as to hold together and perform their normal functions if these animals were to be increased enormously in height; for this increase in height can be accomplished only by employing a material which is harder and stronger than usual, or by enlarging the size of the bones, thus changing their shape until the form and appearance of the animals suggest a monstrosity.” (p.130)

Also in biology, although common sense suggests that the big fish eats the small one, as clearly explained by S.J. Gould (1996), “...one common mode of Darwinian success (local adaptation) does entail an apparent preference for substantial decreases in complexity - namely, the lifestyle of parasites.” (p. 200) so that it is not surprising that 99.8 % of human history has been dominated by small, autonomous, self-sufficient communities. (Carneiro, 1978, p. 219)

The instruction that we have to draw is that nature seems to move from a low level of complexity quite reluctantly and complexity results an anomaly in history of organized systems.

Nevertheless, in macroeconomics, which is the science on which is based our idea of society, surprisingly, there is no concept of optimal scale. “The default rule is “grow forever.” (Daly – Farley, 2004, p. 17)

The idea of complexity often underlines the aspect of the emergence, for which, with the increase of complexity new properties emerge, absent in the single elements of the system and in the previous degree of complexity, so that, as known since Aristotle “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts”. (*Metaphysics*, Book H 1045a 8–10)

Edgar Morin (2008) had already noted that if it is true that the whole is more than the sum of its parts “however, the whole is also less than the sum of its parts since the

organization of the whole imposes constraints and inhibitions upon the parts that constitute it and which no longer possess their total freedom.” (p. 89)

In H₂O, for example, the water molecule has certain properties that hydrogen and oxygen separated do not have, and at the same time, they have some qualities absent in the water molecule. According to the same principle, in human societies, “the possibilities of liberties (delinquent or criminal in the extreme) inherent to each individual, will be inhibited by the organization of the police, the laws, and the social order.” (2005, p.12)

In line with these considerations and in the framework that followed the works of Georgescu-Roegen (1971, 1976), the application of the second law of thermodynamics to social contexts (Rifkin, 1980, 1989), the application of the law of declining marginal returns to *The collapse of complex societies* by Tainter (1988), the concept of efficiency and the game theory, I define Counterplexity as the study of the systems in which:

1. The whole is less than the sum of its parts.
2. Due to the configuration of the strategies of the ruling players in the struggle for the payoffs there is a tendency to increase the level of complexity of the system.
3. The increase is subject to decreasing marginal returns.
4. The system reaches a point in which the payoffs are lower than in the previous degree of complexity.
5. Beyond counterplex optimum the system can increase its complexity just through counterplex decreases.
6. The system fails to go back to the previous degree of complexity because the dominant strategy of the ruling players is located beyond the counterplex optimum.

In counterplexity, the payoffs of a system are lower than in the previous degree of complexity.

I assume that increasing complexity entails a general increase of payoffs. Such increase is subject to declining marginal returns. When the system reaches the point at the intersection of B2 and C2 (fig. 1), starting from which at any level of complexity the payoffs are lower than in the previous degree of complexity, it falls in counterplexity.

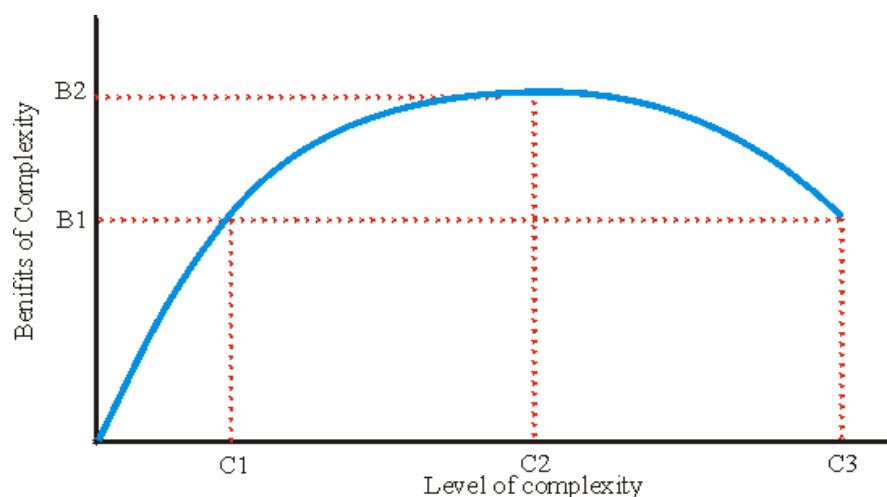


Fig. 1 The marginal productivity of increasing complexity. (Tainter, 1988, p. 119)

At first the cost-benefit curve of “investments in agricultural and other resource production, in hierarchy, in information processing, in education and specialized training, in defence and so forth, increases favourably, for the easiest, most general, most accessible, and least expensive solutions are attempted first. As these solutions are exhausted, however, continued stresses require further investments in complexity. The least costly solutions having been used, evolution now proceeds in a more expensive direction.” (Tainter 1988, p. 120)

According to the law of diminishing returns “we will get less and less extra output when we add additional doses of an input while holding other inputs fixed. In other words, the marginal product of each unit of input will decline as the amount of that input increases holding all other inputs constant.” (Samuelson & Nordhaus, 2001, p. 110)

According to Tainter (1988) “[...] more complex societies are costly to maintain than simpler ones, requiring greater support levels per capita [...so that] after a certain point, increased investments in complexity failed to yield proportionately increasing returns.” (pp. 91-3)

When a society reaches the point in which the payoffs are lower than in the previous degree of complexity the system falls in counterplexity.

Beyond the counterplex optimum the system cannot increase its complexity without a counterplex decrease.

Following the traditional definition of Pareto optimum (1906, p. 261), and the modern definition of efficiency, I define counterplex optimum as the status in which, given an allocation of complexity that yields a consequent level of payoffs, an increase of complexity is impossible without a counterplex decrease.

To find the counterplex decrease we have to look at the ratio between a single performance and the systemic cost of the new degree of complexity that allows it.

We can see how the increase of complexity of space, time, velocity, breeds a counterplex decrease.

Counterplex space.

We find counterplex space looking at the ratio between the entire space of the system and the space necessary to maintain its degree of complexity. According to this criterion, in counterplexity, the increase of complexity of the physical space breeds a decrease of counterplex space. The counterplex decrease of space can take the following shapes:

Decrease of counterplex space in the future.

After a period of geographical expansion, for example, the collapse of the empires, as described by Tainter (1988) in the case of the Roman Empire, (p.129) must be considered as the cost of the expansion.

Decrease of counterplex time.

The management of the increase of the space requires more time than the time that new or more complex space allows to gain. Beyond counterplex optimum of space, an increase of complexity can decrease time available, especially through more work.

Decrease of counterplex velocity.

When the payoffs of the complexity start to diminish, there is a normal attempt to increase velocity in order to diminish space as obstacle. Capitalism, for instance, needs to increase velocity in order to reduce the obstacle of space. Space as obstacle is faced through more velocity, which is more space in the same amount of time. We can consider the increase of transportation of the last centuries as aimed at this goal. Another way in which capitalism addresses the necessity to increase velocity is increasing the speed of the turnover of capital.

Counterplex time.

We find counterplex time looking at the ratio between the entire stock of time available for the players and the time necessary to process the degree of complexity of the system. If physical time is given by $T=D/S$, we calculate counterplex time as $CT=CD/CS$ (Counterplex time equals counterplex distance divided by counterplex velocity). Given this criterion, in counterplexity, an increase of complexity of time yields a decrease of counterplex time. Therefore the time available to the elements of a system, net of the time necessary to the management of the degree of complexity of the system, decreases. A corollary is that considering the increase of complexity as a solving problem strategy, in counterplexity, the time that players invest in time is higher than time that the system allows them to save.

The increase of complexity/payoffs of time breeds the following counterplex decreases:

Decrease of counterplex time in the future.

If in counterplexity we increase the complexity of the time/payoffs we can have a decrease of counterplex time in the future. In fact since the increase of complexity requires energy, often non-renewable, in the future there will be no energy for less complex activities.

Decrease of counterplex velocity.

In counterplexity, in order to increase the payoffs of time we need to increase the velocity, but since physical velocity increases less than the physical space to cover, and allows to save less time than the time necessary to process the level of complexity that allows it (cf. 2.3), the counterplex velocity of the system decreases.

Increase of work.

Beyond the counterplex optimum, in order to have the same payoffs in the same amount of time it is necessary, net of new technology, to increase work. In the case of capitalism, for instance, the increase of productivity/time is one of the crucial elements. According to Giddens (1981), the struggle over the length of the work day is “the most direct expression of class conflict in the capitalist economy.” (p. 120)

Counterplex velocity.

We understand velocity in two main ways. 1) as the space covered in a given time. 2) as the number of things that is possible to do in a given time (time density).

Starting from these two meanings we can add the following criteria to determine the counterplex velocity:

According to the first meaning, as physical velocity is given by the space covered in a given time, we consider counterplex velocity as the ratio between counterplex time and counterplex space ($C.V=C.T./C.S$).

According to the second meaning, counterplex velocity is given by the ratio between time density and the time that the system needs in order to perform the increase of complexity. According to the first meaning, we find counterplex velocity looking at the ratio between the physical velocity and the velocity necessary to maintain the degree of complexity of the system. For example, if in the first state one can go at 100 Km/h and he has to cover, in order to live and work, at 10 Km/h, in the second, he can go at 120 Km/h, but the increase of complexity that allows him to gain 20 Km/h constrains him to cover 50 Km/h. In this case it is clear that velocity increases but counterplex velocity decreases.

Beyond counterplex optimum, an increase of velocity is possible only by a counterplex decrease. This decrease can take the following shapes:

Decrease of counterplex space.

For the definition that we gave of counterplex space, the results of an increase of velocity may be 1) an increase of space to cover; 2) a decrease of the payoffs of space. As regards 1) we can say that in counterplexity, the increase of space to cover in order to maintain the degree of complexity of the system, increases more than the velocity that the new level of complexity allows to perform, so that the increase of velocity breeds a decrease of counterplex velocity. We call this *counterplex slowness*.

Talking about suburbanization and cost of sprawl, it was noted that "While the population of a city like Chicago has stayed almost static, the metropolitan area has grown 55%, meaning that the city must provide services for a developed area that has grown by half. Not only do the developers pay less of the cost for land and facilities, but, by the simplest geometry, spanning ever greater distances means spending more money on more infrastructure - longer wires and pipes for water and sewage, drainage, and electricity - and more leapfrog development that shreds an acre for every built one." (Holtz Kay, 1997, pp. 131-2)

As regards 2) an increase of velocity beyond complex optimum determines a worsening of space.

The automobile development, for example, is often considered as a factor of destruction of space. Among others, Kunstler (1993) speaks about how "the automobile, with its promise of freedom and adventure, had commenced to transform American space in a new and horrible way, to which no one was prepared." (p. 67)

This is consistent with studies about the dynamics of urbanization and cars in the USA that shows how the increase of the car industry forced the middle class to make homes outside of town, with a consequent degradation of urban life. (p. 90)

Decrease of counterplex time.

There are two main ways in which the increase of complexity of velocity has consequences on time.

A system can even keep the level of velocity beyond counterplex optimum providing resources of the future are used. In the case of the car, for instance, it has been said that one generation gains and pollutes, leaving the next paying the debt." (Holtz Kay, 1997, p. 127) Kunstler (1993) considers an economy based on unlimited automobile use and unrestrained land development like "Reagan's voodoo economics" a strategy to keep the game going at the expense of the future. (p. 111).

In counterplexity, an increase of velocity needs more work than the work that velocity allows to save. Even with the use of technology, conceived as a way to optimize work and resources, taking into account energy, time, space, knowledge and timework necessary to this increase, the increase of velocity requires more time than the time that technology allows to gain, so that, again, an increase of velocity breeds a decrease of counterplex velocity.

Counterplexity is an equilibrium¹ towards tend the systems in which the dominant² strategy of the ruling players is located beyond the counterplex optimum.

In counterplexity, the system has payoffs lower than in the previous degree of complexity and it is beyond the complex optimum, nevertheless, it keeps its degree of complexity beyond counterplex optimum. To understand the reasons of such inefficiency we need to adopt a theory of power and introduce the concept of counterplex equilibrium.

In order to understand the reasons of the increase of the complexity, Tainter examines different possibilities: managerial, internal conflict, external conflict, synthetic and in the end he reduces them to the conflict and the integration theories. (1988, pp.32-3) maintaining his own reservations over both of them. Nevertheless he asserts that “complex societies are problem-solving organizations, in which more parts, different kinds of part, more social differentiation, more inequality, and more kinds of centralization and control emerge as circumstances require”. (pp.37-8)

In part III of *Le bluff technologique*, Ellul (1988) considers absurd the increase of complexity of the technology which breeds a decrease of well-being, because he does not take enough into account the dynamics of power so that the society results like a unique subject that promotes technology as a mean to improve the payoffs.

Lafargue (1880) quotes Antiparos, the Greek poet in Cicero’s time, who sang of the invention of the water mill, seeing it as the opportunity for the millers to stop working so hard as it was no longer necessary. However, he was disappointed in the result that was so far from the one he expected, because if it is true that a worker can do five stitches a minute, while a loom can do thirty thousand in the same time, instead of resting for the equivalent of two thousand nine hundred and ninety-five stitches, the worker tries to work as much as before and even more than before. (p. 20)

These examples lead to paradoxical conclusions as far as they consider the efficiency and collective well-being the true aim of innovation and the correspondent increase of complexity.

In *The Arrival and Conquests of the Water Mill*, Bloch (1935) maintains that the reason for the establishment of water mills does not lie in their technological superiority, but in the fact that they allowed the feudal lord to exact taxes that he would not have been able to demand in a milling system based on manual labour (p.156).

For Marglin (1974) the origin and success of the factory were not due to technological superiority, but to the substitution of the capitalist for the worker in the control of the work process and the extent of production: instead of choosing how much to work and

¹ “An outcome is an equilibrium if it is brought about by strategies that agent have good reason to follow.” (Hargraves Heap & Varoufakis 1995, p. 45)

² In Game theory a strategy is dominant “(...) if it is a best strategy (i.e. it maximises a player’s utility pay-off) regardless of the opposition’s choice of strategy”. (Hargraves Heap & Varoufakis, 1995, p. 44)

produce according to a personal assessment of the relative relationship between free time and the acquisition of goods, the worker has to choose whether to work or not, an alternative that is not very appealing (p. 62).

In this article, within the framework of game theory, I assume that the main reason of the increase of the complexity of a system is the advantage of the ruling players in the struggle for payoffs.

I define ruling players as those who can modify the rules of the game and ruled players those who, in order to increase, maintain or contain the decrease, have to accept the new rules of the game. They are of course fluid concepts and different players can be ruling or ruled in different contexts and at different levels.

As demonstrated by Drescher and Flood “a non-zero sum game could have an equilibrium outcome which is unique but fails to be Pareto optimal” (cf. Straffin, 1993, p. 73). Similarly, in counterplexity we have an equilibrium which fails to be complex optimal. Consistent with the conceptual frame of game theory, I define counterplex equilibrium as the condition of a game in which, although marginal returns are lower than in the previous degree of complexity and the system is beyond the complex optimum, no ruling player has anything to gain by adopting a strategy of decreasing complexity unilaterally.

The counterplex equilibrium is as much stable as far as the strategy of increasing complexity is dominant for both ruling and ruled players. In the case of space, for instance, Harvey (1985) displays how the ruling class modified “the mobilization of effective demand through the total restructuring of space so as to make the consumption of the products of the auto, oil, rubber, and construction industries a necessity rather than a luxury.” (p. 207)

According to Diamond (2005), kings and nobles in societies like Maya, focused on short-term concerns like “enriching themselves, waging wars, erecting monuments, competing with each other in a short-term perspective and extracting enough food from the peasants to support all those activities” (p. 94) and without a long-term perception of themselves, failed to recognize and solve their apparently obvious problems. According to the theory of counterplexity, it is not a matter of short-long terms strategies, their behaviour was not irrational. Just the result of the dominant individual strategy conducted to the collapse of the system.

Counterplex equilibrium of space.

The system continues to increase its degree of complexity of space although it is beyond complex optimum, because increasing complexity is the dominant strategy.

We can see how in the case of geographical expansion, or the modern urbanization or the intensive use of the space, generals in the past, big companies or contractors in modern times are able to obtain the best payoffs in the struggle for payoffs at the expense of ruling players.

Diamond (2005) shows how the logic of oil and mining companies as well as seafood industry is based on the rational logic of business. (pp. 441-85)

As regards to modern urbanization, according to Harvey (1985), each of the global crises of capitalism was preceded by massive movements of capital into long-term investment in the built environment as a kind of “last-ditch hope for finding productive uses for rapidly over accumulating capital.” (p. 20)

Counterplex equilibrium and time.

In *The Brevitate Vitae*, Seneca wrote about how we lose time who others subtract from us; Marx said that all the economy ultimately reduces itself to an economy of time (Grundrisse, book 1, chapter on money, part 2). To Rifkin the history is dominated by *Time Wars* (1987) among competing temporal visions. Different actors played the war game of the time: “Throughout history claims on people’s time have come from formal and informal authorities - from the state, from the church, from the firm and corporation, and from the family.” (Fuchs Epstein & Kallerberg, 2004, p. 1) We can say that in all social systems there is a constant struggle for the payoffs of time in which ruling players take advantage in increasing the complexity of time at the expense of ruled players. In Le Goff (1980), for instance, we can see how in the early capitalism, the time of the merchants won against that of the Church, and the new time of the clock towers, frequently erected opposite the church bell towers, was the time of a new social order, dominated by the bourgeoisie. (p.46)

In the early capitalism, we pass from a time measured by labor to a time that measures labor (Thompson, 1967, pp. 58-61). A time divisible into constant units was related to the development of the commodity form of social relations. (Postone, 1993, p. 211)

When ruling players succeed in making “increasing complexity of time” a dominant strategy also for ruled players, the system reaches a stable equilibrium. For instance, according to Le Goff (1980) “Curiously”, it was at first the workers themselves who asked that the working day be lengthened. In fact this was a way of increasing wages, what we would today call a demand for overtime.” (p. 45) but, as remarked by Postone (1993), “Very quickly, however, the merchants seized upon the issue of the length of the work day and tried to turn it to their advantage by regulating it more closely.” (p. 210)

Counterplex equilibrium and velocity.

In the struggle for payoffs, often the ruling players find convenient increasing levels of complexity of the velocity. Since high velocity is difficult to produce and requires the capacity to produce a certain degree of complexity, the increase of the level of velocity excludes from control those who are unable to produce it.

Ruling players adopt many means in order to increase the complexity of velocity in spite of the general payoffs.

By 1950, General Motors had converted more than 100 electric streetcar lines to gasoline-powered buses.” A federal grand jury indicted GM for criminal conspiracy in the Los Angeles case in 1949, but the eventual fine of \$ 5000 was about equal to the company's net profit on the sale of five Chevrolets (p. 92).

In the case of velocity, it is clear how the ruling players made a high level of complexity of velocity the dominant strategy also for ruled players. Kunstler (1993) tells us how “The automobile, a private mode of transport, was heavily subsidized with tax dollars early on, while the nation’s street car systems, a public mode of transport, had to operate as private companies, received no public funds, and were saddled with onerous regulations that made their survival economically implausible.” (pp. 86-87) After that, to do without a car was impossible. In 70’, with the suburbanization of USA and in particular the spread of malls, “People without cars were just out of luck.” (p. 119)

4.0 Exit from counterplexity

A system can exit from counterplexity in three ways:

Since everything can be conceived as a particular shape of energy, the discovery of a new source can put the system out of counterplexity. Tainter (1988) gathered evidence from the works of Harner (1970, p. 69), Martin (1969), and Jelinek (1967) about how, conceiving complexity as a response to stress conditions, including resource inequities, “when such inequities are alleviated, the need for ranking and social control may break down, leading to collapse to a lower level of complexity.” (p. 51) The stock of energy can be increased also through new technology, but “technology innovation, [...] is subject to the law of diminishing returns, and this tends to reduce (but not eliminate) its long term potential for resolving economic weakness. (Tainter, p. 124)

If the distribution of payoffs makes increasing complexity no longer a dominant strategy.

Since the increase of complexity is due to the advantage of the ruling players in the struggle for payoffs, if a change of cultural paradigm is able to modify the distribution of the payoffs so that the ruling players find theory dominant strategy in a strategy located beneath the counterplex optimum, the system can escape from counterplexity.

The last option is the collapse of the system, which in non-anthropomorphic terms, considering the system as an organism, is a way of tuning its level of complexity to a new, less complex level.

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“It Is Important to me to Do Well in School”: Validating the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire in an Asian context

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Abstract

The Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (A-SRQ) was developed to determine how students are motivated in academic related activities. This scale was validated in the US and Germany but no similar efforts were carried out in an Asian context. In an attempt to validate this questionnaire and understand how students in a developing Asian country regulate their academic behavior, a study was conducted among 511 secondary school students in the northern region of Malaysia. This study revealed that in general, the factors proposed by the original authors of the A-SRQ – intrinsic motivation, identified regulation (factors for Autonomous Regulation), introjected regulation and external regulation (factors for Controlled Regulation) – applied to the current sample. Though the original four factors applied to our sample, factor analyses on our data revealed four different factors that better explain the behavior of our sample. We propose that these factors are responsibility, approval seeking, intrinsic motivation and chastisement. The new factor, Responsibility, alone explained more variance than Controlled Regulation in a regression model that predicts academic achievement after controlling for memory span and reasoning skills. We therefore conclude that the A-SRQ is a valid tool to measure self-regulation behavior in academic settings among Asian students. However, we propose that factors for explaining their academic regulation behavior should be modified according to cultural characteristics.

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Introduction

Self-regulation refers to planned behavior that directs all efforts, thoughts and feelings to achieve one's goals (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-regulation is not a single trait that an individual may possess or lack, but it is a skill that involves selecting specific processes or behavior such as adopting strategies, self-monitoring and evaluation of progress, time management and attributing causation to results that will lead to achieving specific goals (Zimmerman, 2002). Numerous studies have shown the importance of self-regulation in achieving goals in weight loss programs (Gokee-LaRose, Gorin & Wing, 2009), health promoting behavior (Bandura, 2005; Mann, de Ridder & Fujita, 2013) and academic attainment (Schunk, 1983; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Zimmerman, 2001).

Academic attainment has been established to be a significant predictor of life achievements and success (Sewell & Hauser, 1975; Abbott-Chapman et al., 2014). Students as well as their parents are particularly concerned about academic achievement as they see it as an avenue to economic success and a better life. This is even more so in Asian cultures. Academic success is not only a means to a better life, but it is also an act of filial piety and family honoring on the children's part in most if not all Asian cultures (Hsu, 1971; Hao & Bonstead-Bruns, 1998). Studies by Crystal and colleagues (1994) as well as Peng and Wright (1994) reported higher academic achievement among Asian American students compared to their native counterparts of European and African heritage. Hence, it will be enlightening to see how students in an Asian context differ in their view and efforts in attaining academic success compared to their counterparts in Western societies such as America and Europe. Perhaps there are no differences, and there may be just universal values that apply to all students as they set off to attain their academic goals.

Ryan and Connell (1989) designed a questionnaire to examine various possible reasons that motivate students in their academic behavior. They proposed that these reasons could stem from the self or the environment. According to their view, there are two types of regulatory methods – controlled and autonomous. Controlled regulatory efforts refer to behavior motivated by external rewards, rule compliance, approval seeking and punishment avoidance. Autonomous regulatory behaviors are motivated by values that are deemed personally important and genuine interest towards that particular behavior or goal. The authors further specified controlled regulatory style to external regulation and introjected regulation and autonomous regulatory style to identification regulation and intrinsic motivation.

The questionnaire designed by Ryan and Connell (1989) had four major sections headed by the following questions:

- o Why do I do my homework?
- o Why do I work on my classwork?
- o Why do I try to answer hard questions in class?
- o Why do I try to do well in school?

There are 7-9 items in each section followed by four answer options – strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree. Respondents select the answer that best represents the reason for the behavior described at the beginning of the section.

The current study aims to investigate self-regulatory methods among students in Malaysia using the A-SRQ and determine the validity of the original A-SRQ factors in an Asian population. We also seek to identify differences and/or similarities in self-regulatory methods between Western and Eastern cultures. Finally, we are interested in determining if any of the A-SRQ factors predict academic achievement among students in Malaysia.

Methods

Respondents in the current study were recruited from six secondary schools in northern Malaysia (states of Penang and Kedah). Data collection was done in two phases. In the first phase, self-report questionnaires were administered in classrooms with permission and co-operation from the school management. The questionnaires are the A-SRQ (Ryan & Connell, 1989), the Behavioral Inhibition System and Behavioral Activation System (BIS-BAS) (Carver & White, 1994), and the Malay language (*Bahasa Malaysia*) version of Motivation and Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Ng et al., 2005). For the A-SRQ and BIS-BAS, the original versions in English were modified to include the *Bahasa Malaysia* equivalent for each item; hence, these questionnaires were bi-lingual. Participants also filled out a demographic questionnaire where they reported information such as gender, which stream (liberal arts or science) they are currently in and their results of the national standardized exam “*Penilaian Menengah Rendah*” from the previous year.

At the completion of phase one, students were briefed on the procedures of phase two. Those who were interested in phase two signed up to complete a computerized task of memory recall (Color Span in the Brain Twister by Buschkuehl, Jaeggi, Kobel & Perrig, 2007) and the Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test Second Edition (K-BIT II) (Kaufman & Kaufman, 2004) for reasoning skills. There were 96 students who participated in phase two.

Data collected was analyzed using multiple regression techniques and exploratory factor analysis.

Results

There were 511 students (52% males; 48% females) who participated in the self-report questionnaire phase of the study. These are students in the fourth year of their secondary school education (Form 4) or the tenth year of formal education in Malaysia.

The descriptive statistics of the sample and variables are presented in Table 1. The reliability (Cronbach’s α) of the A-SRQ is 0.92.

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
External Reg.	10.00	36.00	26.74	4.67
Introjected Reg.	9.00	36.00	26.04	5.23
Identified Reg.	9.00	28.00	22.62	3.88
Intrinsic Motivation	7.00	28.00	19.29	4.40
Controlled Reg.	9.50	36.00	26.39	4.67
Autonomous Reg.	8.00	28.00	20.96	3.74

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the four original factors (external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation) of the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire obtained from the current sample. Controlled Regulation is the averaged score of external regulation and introjected regulation. Autonomous Regulation is the averaged of identified regulation and intrinsic motivation.

When the raw scores in Table 1 were converted to percentage, respondents in the current sample had a rating of 73.3% on the controlled regulatory style and 74.8% on the autonomous regulatory style. This suggests that the students in our sample do not favor one style over the other – controlled or autonomous.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to investigate whether our current sample would exhibit four different kinds of regulatory behavior as suggested by Ryan and Connell (1989). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical technique employed to identify underlying relationships among measured variables. In this study, principal axis factoring was used in which the first factor extracted accounts for the most variance in the dataset, the second factor accounts for the second most variance and so forth. This extraction method is descriptive – it merely explains variance in the current sample and therefore, the factors or results should not be generalized beyond that specific sample. The factors extracted from the dataset are then subjected to an oblique rotation instead of an orthogonal rotation for interpretation. Oblique rotation is more advantageous as the factors extracted are allowed to correlate; hence, a simpler and more parsimonious explanation as well as correlation estimates among factors could be obtained from such rotation.

Results from EFA on our current datasets suggest four factors, and we named them Responsibility, Approval Seeking, Intrinsic Motivation and Chastisement. See Table 2 for the list of items that loaded on each of these factors.

Factor 1: Responsibility	Because it's important to me to try to do well in school
	Because that's what I'm supposed to do
	Because it's important to me to try to answer hard questions in class
	Because it's important to me to do my homework
	Because that's what I'm supposed to do
	Because it's important to me to work on my class work
	To find out if I'm right or wrong
	Because I will feel really bad about myself if I don't do well
	Because I want to understand the subject
	Because that's what I'm supposed to do
Factor 2: Approval Seeking	Because I want the teacher to say nice things about me
	Because I want the other students to think I'm smart
	Because I might get a reward if I do well
	Because I want the teacher to think I'm a good student
	So my teachers will think I'm a good student
	Because I want the teacher to think I'm a good student
Factor 3: Intrinsic Motivation	Because I will feel really proud of myself if I do well
	Because it's fun (to work on my class work)
	Because it's fun (to do my homework)
	Because I enjoy doing my homework
	Because I enjoy doing my class work
	Because I enjoy doing my school work well
	Because I want to learn new things
	Because it's fun to answer hard questions
Factor 4: Chastisement	Because I enjoy answering hard questions
	Because I'll get in trouble if I don't (do my homework)
	Because I will get in trouble if I don't do well
	Because I'll feel bad about myself if I don't do it (homework)
	Because I'll be ashamed of myself if it didn't get done (class work)
	So that the teacher won't yell at me

Table 2: The list of items that loaded on the respective factors obtained from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the current sample.

Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations (SD) for each of the new factor obtained from our EFA. Descriptive statistics for five factors were reported instead of the “four new factors” mentioned previously. This is because factor 4 only had two items (*because it's fun to answer hard questions; because I enjoy answering hard questions*). Since these two items and the six items from factor 3 all matched items on the Intrinsic Motivation from the original A-SRQ factors, these two factors were combined together as one factor and also named as Intrinsic Motivation in this current study.

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Responsibility	12	40	32.06	5.54
Approval Seeking	7	28	18.86	4.89
FACTOR3	6	24	17.18	3.99
FACTOR4	2	8	5.53	1.63
Chastisement	5	20	15.32	3.07

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the factors obtained from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the current sample.

Regression analyses were then conducted to determine if any of the original A-SRQ factors or the new factors obtained from the current sample predicted academic achievement among our respondents. There were a total of 96 students who participated in phase two, where they completed the memory span (mean = 7.83; SD = 1.44) and reasoning skills (mean = 38.8; SD = 5.53) tasks. The maximum score possible for the memory span and reasoning skills tasks were 12 and 45 respectively.

Academic achievement was operationalized using respondents' results on the national lower secondary national standardized examination that they sat for the previous year. This self-report measure served as the outcome variable in the regression analyses with the following predictors: memory span, reasoning skills, controlled regulation, autonomous regulation and all five factors obtained from EFA on the current sample. Results from the first regression analysis presented in Table 4 suggested that only memory, controlled regulation, factors 1 (responsibility), 2 (approval seeking) and 5 (chastisement) significantly predicted academic achievement. This model explained about 40% of the total variance in the dataset.

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
(Constant)	-17.529	7.043		.015
Memory	1.332	.530	.260	.014
Reasoning	.221	.141	.167	.123
Controlled Reg	-3.281	1.272	-2.176	.012
Autonomous Reg	-2.493	1.691	-1.421	.144
FACTOR1 (Responsibility)	1.915	.788	1.555	.017
FACTOR2 (Approval Seeking)	1.786	.666	1.202	.009

FACTOR3	1.241	.826	.737	.137
FACTOR4	2.114	1.051	.550	.048
FACTOR5 (Chastisement)	2.095	.751	1.025	.007

Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement (PMR.Score); R-squared = 0.41

Table 4: Regression model with predictors Memory, Reasoning skills, Controlled Regulation, Autonomous Regulation, Factors 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 obtained from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the current dataset.

Knowing that memory and reasoning skills are significantly related to academic achievement (Deary et al., 2007), the next two regression analyses were run controlling for memory ability. Since reasoning skills was not a significant predictor as suggested in Table 4, this variable was not included in subsequent analyses.

Regression outcome presented in Tables 5 and 6 suggested that the factor Responsibility explained 8% more variance than controlled regulation in predicting academic achievement after controlling for memory ability.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	10.824	4.196		.012
	Memory	1.442	.524	.281	.007
2	(Constant)	-6.145	5.791		.292
	Memory	1.790	.494	.349	.000
	Controlled Regulation	.574	.145	.380	.000

R-squared = 0.22

Table 5: Regression model with predictors Memory and Controlled Regulation

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
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		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	11.392	4.231		.008
	Memory	1.357	.528	.262	.012
2	(Constant)	-10.886	5.452		.049
	Memory	1.860	.467	.358	.000
	FACTOR1 (Responsibility)	.607	.110	.497	.000

R-squared = 0.30

Table 6: Regression model with predictors Memory and Factor 1 (Responsibility)

Discussion

The current study explored the validity of the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire, A-SRQ, by Ryan and Connell (1989) in an Asian context. More than 500 students in northern Malaysia completed the A-SRQ and though the original four factors proposed by Ryan and Connell (1989) seem to apply to the current sample, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the dataset suggested four different factors. The first factor was named Responsibility as the items loaded on this factor carried the theme of personal importance and meeting a sense of expectation. Having a sense of responsibility means that one carries an obligation to fulfil a duty or a task expected of one, and this was reflected in the items that loaded on the first factor. Indeed, many Asian American students reported parents' high expectations on them regarding academic matters (Crystal et al., 1994; Peng & Wright, 1994). Thus, the behavior described by factor 1 or Responsibility in our sample mirrored attitudes and perceptions reported by Asian students although these students participated in an American education system.

Items on the second factor revealed desires of students to gain rewards, positive feedback and seek approval in their efforts to achieve academic success; hence, we deem it appropriate to name the second factor Approval Seeking. Items on factors 3 and 4 corresponded to items of Intrinsic Motivation from the original A-SRQ factors, which described behavior motivated by genuine interest and enjoyment of the very behavior itself. Therefore, these two factors were combined and named Intrinsic Motivation.

Items on factor 5 revealed a tinge of fear and anxiety in response to the negative consequences of not achieving academic goals; hence, we labeled this factor Chastisement.

It is interesting to note the differences and similarities of the new factors obtained from EFA on the current sample compared to the original factors proposed by Ryan and Connell (1989). The original factors clearly separated reasons for behavior that come either from within the self or from the environment outside of the self. Items that form the Controlled Regulation style are reasons motivated by external factors such as approval, rewards and punishment as well as following rules or meeting expectations. On the other hand, the Autonomous Regulation style comprised of

reasons motivated by values that are personally important and the desire to have fun or enjoy the activity itself that promote success in academic settings. However, our analyses suggested that such clear delineation of the self and environment does not apply to our sample. The first factor that we recognized as possessing a sense of responsibility contained items that reflected reasons that are personally significant in addition to an obligatory duty to meet expectations or fulfil some sort of duties externally set upon oneself usually by another.

Items that represented genuine interest and enjoyment formed the same factor, and this factor was the only that matched an original factor of the A-SRQ – Intrinsic Motivation. We propose that perhaps such internal impetus that drives behavior purely on the basis for pleasure and gratification is a universal characteristic of human beings. Maybe meeting obligations or fulfilling responsibilities could differ in various degrees according to cultural expectations, but having fun or the natural desire to want to enjoy things in life might just be an innate trait of what it means to be human.

The current study sought to investigate whether the A-SRQ was a valid tool to determine how students in an Asian context, specifically Malaysia, regulated their behavior in academic settings to achieve goals for success. Results from the current study suggested that students in the current sample regulated their behavior based on reasons or values that are deemed personally important to them and driven by a sense of duty or obligation to do well in school, which they perceived as what they were supposed to do as students or adolescents. This reason (the factor Responsibility) was a stronger predictor of academic achievement than a regulatory style driven primarily by external factors (controlled regulation). We humbly suggest that the factors extracted by EFA on the current sample are appropriate to describe students from an Asian background in their efforts to achieve academic success.

Though these factors may be more appropriate, some limitations of the current study should be clarified. The original factors were obtained from a simplex model instead of the factor analytic approach (Ryan & Connell, 1989). The comparison between original factors and the factors obtained from the current study therefore should be interpreted cautiously. In the current study, we refrained from suggesting accuracy or superiority of one set of factors over the other but we interpreted our results guided by the original factors as a source of reference.

We also suggest that the current EFA results be subjected to a series of confirmatory factor analyses to further determine the validity of the A-SRQ and current results. Furthermore, we acknowledge that the regression analyses conducted in the current sample could be improved with a larger sample size.

All in all, we administered the academic self-regulation questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989) designed in a non-Asian setting in an Asian setting, and we proposed that students in this setting regulate their behavior in academic related goals based on a sense of responsibility, a desire to seek approval, intrinsic motivation and a tendency to avoid punishment or chastisement

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Children's Social Behavior and the Utilization of Gadgets

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Abstract

Technological development moves by very quickly. Users gadgets, as one of the media to use technology no longer the sole aimed at adults and teenagers. The children also be part of the user groups gadgets. The decrease in physical activity caused the use of gadgets in children can reduce the chance of a child to be sociable and develop themselves. In fact, at the same time children must meet a task of its development so that they could well developing in next stage of development. Research is intended to know the correlation between the intencity of the use of gadgets against comportment prosocial in children in middle age childhood. This research is quantitative, research the data using a questionnaire with respondents research children aged 7-11 in Jakarta as much as 302 people (164 women ,138 men, 275 was 7 – 11 years, 17 respondent was > 11 years old).. Research result indicates the presence of the relation between the intensity of the use of gadgets and behavior prosocial significant with the value of a correlation coefficient 0.246 and $p < 0.05$.

Keywords: *Gadget, Prosocial, Middle Childhood*

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Introduction

Media technology currently has been part of children in abad-21 (Brooks-Gunn and Donahue, 2008). Not surprisingly, if they raise the proportion of age children for faster fledge. Based on research, visible more than 80% of children age 8 up to 18 years, having radio and CD's or tapes personal (where 92% of them said fond of music kind of medium), 31%, already have a personal computer where half having played video therein, and 49% other having a video game console in their room (Roberts and Foehr, 2008). The development of gadgets will of course continue to take place and will not stop at one point it. It was carrying some impact of humankind in general, children, and teenager in particular.

The advancements of gadget have become an integral part of the children. Jordan (2008) said that 42 % of child using gadgets less than an hour a day, 36 % using 1-2 hours a day, 13 % of 3 to 4 hours a day, and 9 % in duration to other as over the weekend. Any they are shopping, or now they eat. Most of the children, especially in the capital, have become a necessity of its own for the children. Paradigm is considered unimportant becomes an important matter. Referring to Erikson's stages of psychosocial development, in which the middle childhood age a child will enter the stage of *industry versus inferiority* with competence as a value (*virtue*) to be achieved (Papalia, Olds, & Feldman, 2010). Where in that age range, self-concept of a child will grow up to develop the value of "competence" themselves in order to avoid inferiority nature of the environment. In addition, it has to be one aspect of prosocial attitudes that occur in the child.

The use of gadgets by children will reduce their time to be active physically and walks with friend her age. The study was done by Auerbach (Smith, 2012) indicating that traditional values of an in the game of children have been much away. It is clear can be detrimental to children. Lowry (Smith, 2012) responds to this research by submitting on the recommendation of the government where the children should engage in physical activity at least one hour a day. Recommendation is intend to remind people that the researchers had earlier prove activities structured as sports and playing together their peers would provide. A chance for a child to develop friendship, interpersonal skills, training assume responsibility, test risk perception, develop moral, train discipline and give the experience of leadership. Then, is there any correlation between intencity of the use of gadget with prosocial behavior middle childhood of children? This research will discuss it.

Sears (Spica, 2008) argues that behavior prosocial is the act of help that is fully motivate by his own interests without expecting something to self the helper itself. Behavior prosocial is part of everyday life. Psychologist usually using the term of behaviors that strives for someone other than the term the act of who helps another person, showing aid granted on others without expecting interests own. In general, the term is applied to that action which does not provide immediate advantage on the person who performs an action is and maybe even containing certain degree of risk (Baron & Byrne, 2005) being a term of altruism (altruism) sometimes used interchangeably with comportment prosocial (Baron & Byrne, 2005).

Latane and Darley (Baron and Byrne, 2005) found that individuals in sightsee emergency response include five an important step five options that can inflict comporment prosocial, namely:

1. Realizing that there was an emergency

According to the definition, the state of emergency does not occur according to the schedule and there is no way to anticipate it when or in which a problem that was not expected going to happen. Baron and Byrne (2005) declaring that when someone filled by concerns personal, comporment prosocial less likely to happen. Can be concluding that someone who is too busy to take notice of the surrounding environment fail to realize an emergency real that. Help not given due to absence of consciousness that the state of emergency it happened.

2. Interpretation state as an emergency

When the potential help not sure fully what is happening, they tend to hold back and wait for more information. With ambiguous information, whether someone was watching a serious problem or something that is not important, most people tend to accept the interpretation that is soothing and not put pressure, indicating the necessity of not doing something (Baron & Byrne, 2005). Tendency people in a group of foreigners to restraint and does anything is something called as neglect compound (pluralistic ignorance). That is, having no bystander that clearly sees what is happening each relies on another to give hints; as a result, no one gave response. Latane and Darley 1968, (Baron and Byrne) showing dramatic demonstrations of how far people will endure to prevent response improper to things which may or may not an emergency. Nevertheless, wrong apprehension to interpret a situation and made a mistake reduced in certain situations.

3. Assumes that is their responsibility to help.

When the individual gives attention to some external event an interpretation it as one of the emergency, the behavior of prosocial will be perform only if the person is taking responsibility to help. In many circumstances, the responsibility of plainly his position.

4. Know what to do.

A number of emergencies is simple enough so that nearly everyone has the skills needed to help. For example, if someone sees the others slip on slick pavement, someone may very well capable of helping that person to stand again.

5. Decision to help

Aid is not given except someone making a final decision to act (Baron & Byrne, 2005).

A current of globalization are currently more developed along with the technology that is getting are mushrooming in almost all over the world to give various an impact on any of its inhabitants. With all sorts of form and features advanced to simplify

community in doing activities daily. Good to communicated and bits of information to get the latest.

Data Measurement

By distributing a questionnaire from Horrigan (2000) consisting of 20 items on scale intensity of gadget that consists of frequency and duration. Moreover, 48 items for a statement of prosocial behavior scale standardized question. All items totaled 66 statements using a Likert scale-7 has a gradation from very positive to very negative. Consistency can be known to determine the reliability of the items obtained from the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.913 to scale the intensity of gadget and 0,662 for the scale of prosocial behavior which stated that both scales are reliable scale.

Method

Subject of this research is children 7-12 years old, who where primary school student in Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia. This is quantitative research which is used simple linear regression as the research method and processed by SPSS 21th version. Retrieval data technique used was an accidental sampling.

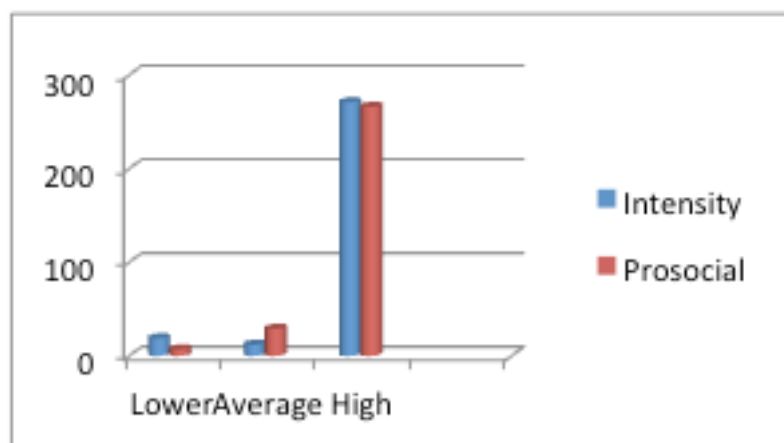
Before conducting statistical tests first researchers to see the profile of children as respondents. Researchers include identification sheets each duplicate questionnaire respondents consisting of:

Tabel 1

Jenis Kelamin	Usia	Jumlah	Persentase
Laki-laki	7 – 11 tahun	120	39,8%
	>11 tahun	18	5,9%
Perempuan	7 – 11 tahun	155	51,4%
	>11 tahun	9	2,9%
Total		302	100%

Based on respondent data above, it can be seen that 164 respondents or 54.3% of girls in number are girls, and the remaining 138 or 45.7% were male number. Moderate when viewed from the age, the respondents are between the age range 7-11 years using many gadgets, seen from the total percentage of 39.8% for male respondents and 51.4% for female respondents. Overall average of the sampled respondents were female with ages 7-11 years.

To determine the level of intensity of use of the respondents, the researcher uses intervals to each respondent. Here is a table categorizing the intensity of the use of gadgets



Based on the above categories, it is known that amounted to 89.7% of respondents have gadget with the intensity of the use of high category and 88.1% of respondents had a high prosocial behavior.

Result

On a scale of intensity of use of gadgets, there is a mean ($M = 114.76$) with a standard deviation of 15.851. As for the prosocial behavior scale had a mean ($M = 168$) with a standard deviation of 8,118.

Based on the results of the t test, there were significant differences in mean values between the intensity of the use of gadgets men and women with a significant level of $0.000 > 0.05$. Visible differences in the mean value of women is higher than men, which is 119.23, so it can be concluded intensity of use of the gadget is higher in girls than boys.

Based on the results of t-test between prosocial behavior boys and girls, there are no significant differences between prosocial behavior boys and girls. Seen from the mean values do not differ much and the significant level of $0.081 > 0.05$ level. It concluded there was no significant difference between their child's prosocial behavior of boys and girls.

Meanwhile, based on the results of t-test between age and child prosocial behavior generates significant value 0428, so it can be mean that children aged 7-11 years or > 11 years had the same tendency prosocial behavior.

Based on the results of Pearson product moment correlation can be seen that there is a correlation between the intensity of the use of gadgets with child prosocial behavior. With correlation value 0.246 and $p < 0.05$ was explained that there is a strong significance between the two variables. It can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between the intensity of the use of gadgets with prosocial behavior of children aged middle childhood. So, the hypothesis of the existence of a significant positive relationship between the intensity of the use of gadgets with child prosocial behavior accepted.

Discussion/Conclusion

Based on the hypothesis test results it can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between the intensity of the use of gadgets that appear prosocial behavior in children aged middle childhood. So the hypothesis of the existence of a significant positive relationship between the intensity of the use of gadgets with child prosocial behavior accepted. Based on the results of these figures it can be said that the higher the intensity of children's use of gadgets, the higher the prosocial behavior that appears. This supports the research conducted Jordan (2008) in which he said that one of the factors of a child using the gadget is motivated by the need for interaction. The interaction defined as the relationship between children and their social environment. Goessl (2009) also confirms that there is a positive impact on children's use of gadgets, which of them is to train children to live independently and to train children to think more critically about their environment.

Being basic on the t test can be see that the intensity of the use of the gadget is higher in girls than boys. It supports research conducted by Horrigan (2000) of Internet users' men and women, where women tend to have a high intensity, it by 53%. Fallows (2005) in his study said that women have a higher level in terms of intensity of use of gadgets, where women are using the application found on the gadget (internet) on tiny things, for instance just share news in social media, email, etc. While, more men communicate online if it has a special importance.

Eagly and Crowley (Santrock, 2011) revealed in a situation when people feel competent in situations involving danger, men are more likely to help than women. MacGeorge (Santrock, 2011) also said, one study noted that men are more likely to help when there is a context maksulin. It concluded that between men, women have a same tendency prosocial behavior, and the difference is influence by situational factors.

On the development of middle childhood has four emotional development and personality characteristics that affect their prosocial behavior, namely self-understanding, understanding emotions, moral development, and gender. Sarwono (1997) also explains that there are factors inside and outside us that influence the behavior of prososialnya, namely: the influence of the situation (bystander, help if others help, the pressure of time, as well as capabilities) and the influence of the self (feelings, nature factor, and religion). In addition, Sarwono (1997) also explained the theory of social norms of behavior that help people because required by the norms of society.

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***Education, income, gender, and capacity in sustainable urban development:
The case of Surabaya, Indonesia***

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Abstract

To promote gender equality and empower women is the goal number 3 in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Gender equality in having access to education in Indonesia has been improved but the related challenges such as opportunities of women to participate in labor force continues to persist in the developing region. This study aims at exploring the challenges and aspiration of urban women in a community of in a government funded-housing in urban Surabaya, Indonesia. To understand their particular characteristics, comparison to the men data and rural women data from a rural community in the Philippines is also provided. Participatory workshop style was used for the data collection. Correspondence Analysis and Multiple Correspondence Analysis method was applied to socioeconomic attributes such as education level, income level, household size and number of children to see the correlation of the sample attributes to their prioritized challenges. Result showed that, the urban women sample shows more concern in water quality and food safety, better education completion rate, less number of children and stronger desire to contribute financially to the family than their rural counterpart. However, both the rural and urban woman in the case studies put importance in children education and entrepreneurship that is believed to be a way to earn financially without leaving the house.

Keywords: Urban, Women, Surabaya, Sustainable Development, Participatory Workshop

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1. Introduction

With more people living in the urban area, the need to develop the region sustainably is getting more important than ever before. According to World Bank data, in 2012, the percentage of world population who lives in the urban area already exceed those who live in the rural area. In the high-income countries, 80% of people are already living in the urban area (The World Bank, 2014). In the less developed region, the growth of population is in a much faster rate that by the mid of this century, the world urban population will likely be the same size as the world's total population was in 2002 (United Nations, 2011).

In cities, women have more opportunity to participate in the labor force. The literacy rate of women is also better in cities than in the rural villages (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011). In Indonesia, the percentage of women who are illiterate in the urban area is less than half of those in the rural area (Statistics Bureau Indonesia, 2013). Women in cities also have better indicators of general health and wellbeing (Cohen, 2006). Women, as the one who spend more time with their newborn babies have a very important role in early childhood development. Early childhood is found to be the most crucial period in investment in human capital because it has the highest rate of economic return (Heckman, Cunha, Lochner, & Masterov, 2006) (Doyle, Harmon, Heckman, & Tremblay, 2009).

Despite of the positive progresses in gender equality programs in access to education, the challenges arise responding to the changes still require a lot of work. For example, the number of boys and girls enrolled in primary education institution has reach an equal level in Indonesia (Statistics Bureau Indonesia, 2013), but the number of women who have become schools headmasters are significantly low. This is more apparent in the higher education level. As an instance, the percentage of primary school headmasters who are women is 35%. The number drastically decreases to 16% in junior high school and to 12% in the high school level in Indonesia. Similarly, among entrepreneurs and employees in Indonesia, only 35% of them are women. At the same time, women dominate with 73% in sectors of unpaid labors such as being labors in the family (Statistics Bureau Indonesia, 2013). This shows that the gender specific challenges and aspiration might have not been addressed close enough.

To understand what are the specific challenges and aspirations of the urban women, the present paper presents a close look to a women community in an urban setting of Surabaya City, Indonesia. Surabaya is the second largest city in Indonesia and the largest city with a woman mayor in Indonesia. The population of Surabaya is 2.8 million and the density is 8,300/km² (Surabaya City Statistics Bureau, 2013). The targeted community was examined by employing the participatory workshop method to see what kind of challenges they have been facing and what kind of aspiration they have for the post 2015 period.

Through intensive group discussions and applying the Correspondence Analysis (CA) and Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) on the collected data, this study found that participants put high importance in child education, food safety, opportunity to entrepreneurship and sanitation in their neighborhood.

2. Methodology

2.1. Data collection method

The targeted community is located in a government funded housing for people evicted from slums in riverbanks and Surabaya city area. The evicted people were rural – urban migrants from Madura Island, an island connected by a bridge to Surabaya. This particular community is selected because they have history of urbanization, located in densely populated neighborhood, and considered to be in the lower economic level. The women who joined the workshop for this study are the first and second generation of the evicted people. Sixteen women were involved in the workshop. They were intentionally separated from the 16 men participants who joined through the same activities on different days. This separation was done to ensure that the voices of the women could be captured separately in a condition where they are not constrained in expressing their opinion in the presence of the men from the community.

Participatory workshop method was used in 2 consecutive days to collect the data. In the first day, participants were asked to vote the most important topics in their life, and then analyze the diversity of the topics they voted, followed by discussions about the cycle of water, waste and energy from the cradle to grave/cradle by making a map of the community, and then they were asked to address the existing challenges in their urban life. On the second day, participants discussed together with the facilitators about what kind of future goals they aspire for. Afterwards, participants wrote down their ideas on the capacities required to reach those goals and listed down the possible barriers that could prevent them from achieving their aspirations. Figure 1 displays the steps of participatory workshop activities. Each of the activity was conducted by using physical tools such as large papers, color-coding markers and coded seals. This approach was used to minimize error that could be resulted from literacy or education level diversity. Participatory workshop is a practical method to get the actual voices from real stakeholders enabling evidence-based researches (Mindell, Sheridan, Joffee, Samson-Barry, & Atkinson, 2004). The advantages of Participatory workshop include enabling people to do their own appraisal and analysis (Chambers, 2002). The participatory workshop tool used in this study was modified from the UNICEF publication (Gawler, 2005).

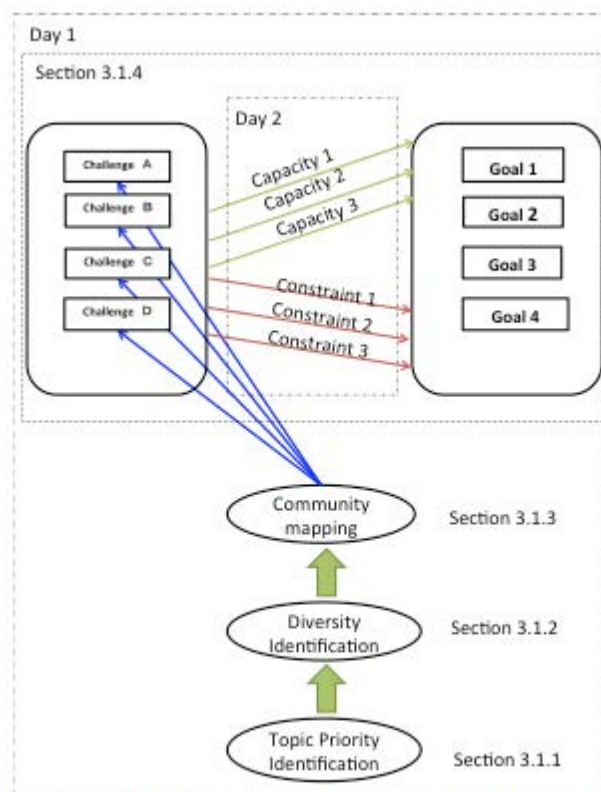


Figure 1 Scheme of Participatory Workshop

2.2 Data Analysis Method

The process of summarizing output from individual comments and group discussion was done together with the participants and 5 female facilitators from the University of Surabaya. To complement this, MCA methodology was applied to the collected quantitative data.

2.2.3 Correspondence Analysis and Multiple Correspondence Analysis Method

To understand the characteristics of the participants and the kind of challenges faced by the particular characteristics, CA and MCA was conducted. MCA is part of a family of descriptive methods such as Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and also the extension of Correspondence Analysis (CA). It is used to detect and reveal the main structure or pattern of complex data sets. MCA is able to map both variables and individuals and show the patterns geometrically by locating each variable of analysis as a point in a low-dimensional space (Savage, 2007) (Greenacre & Blasius, 1994) (Nenadic & Greenacre, 2005).

The MCA computation in this study was conducted by using the R programming and plotted with ggplot2 package. The analysis in this study looked into the correlations between participants' attributes such as the number of child they have, education and job with their topic priorities with their answers during the participatory workshop.

In attempt to increase the quality of interaction with and among participants, the number of participants had to be compensated. With the limited number of

participants, the output of the MCA analysis only best reflects the situation of this particular community. However, this approach at the same time provides a valuable local insight and might better reflect the regional situation. “One-size-fits-all” failure has been the very point that MDGs has been criticized (Sumner, 2009) (Shepherd, 2008).

3. Results and Discussion

The women who participated in the workshop are selected based on their age (between 30 to 50 years old) because the output of this study is intended to contribute to goal setting of the post 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (Kanie, 2014). Although they are living in the same community, the level of education attainment is quite diverse. Nevertheless, majority of them is a housewife. A small number of women work at home by opening a small shop selling daily needs, such as shampoo, soap, cigarettes, and toothpaste or home made tofu. Two outliers are: a woman who is working as parking attendant because her husband has passed away and one lady who managed to completed a college education, so that she is able to earn a job in a private company. Figure 2 and 3 shows the level of income and education that the overall participants have (including men). There seems to be a tendency that those who have higher education level are able to earn more significant amount of income. This finding is encouraging because it reflect the general consensus that although there would be uncertainties of investing in education, it is still a profitable practice (Mohapatra & Luckert, 2012) (Kingdon & Theopold, 2008)

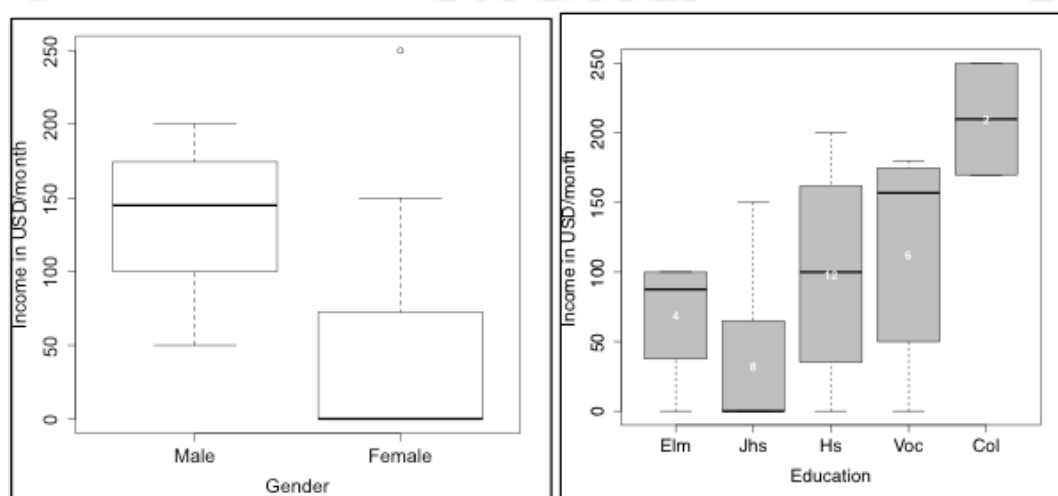


Figure 2 Gender and income gap **Figure 3** Years of education and income (both genders)

By applying CA to the number of children a woman in the Surabaya sample has and the level of education she has attained, there seems to be no direct correlation that could be described. However, the number of children is significantly lower than the number of children from the rural sample. According to the observation made during the workshop, larger families live in one household. This might enable women to receive extra hand in child bearing, so that female feels more comfortable having more children. This study do not deny that there could be another explanation to this, including the exposure of family planning programs, accessibility of food and

nutrition, fertility, religious values, or cultural influences. When the male data of Surabaya workshop participants are plotted (Figure 5), one can see that number of children is more clearly correlated with the level of education. (e.g. the higher the level of education is, the lower the number of children he has). Note that figure 4 and 5 are asymmetric graphs, with point shading correspond to the absolute contribution.

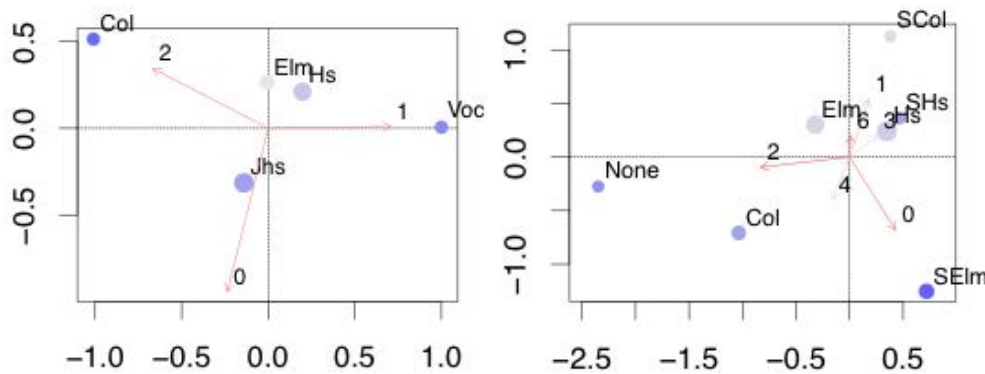


Figure 4 Correspondence Analysis result of urban female (left) and rural female (right) education and number of children

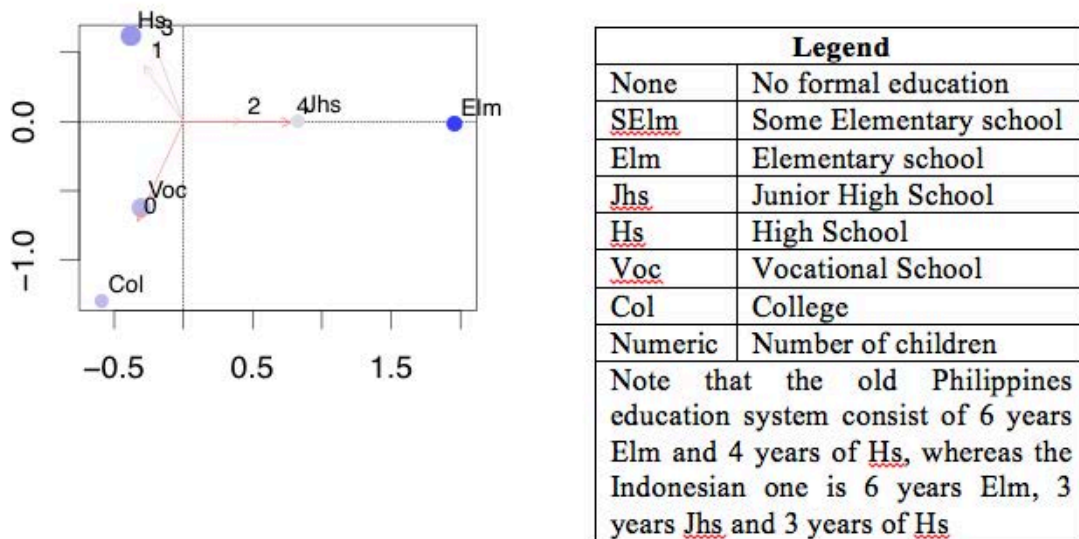


Figure 5 Correspondence Analysis result of urban male education and number of children

3.1 Participatory workshop outcome

3.1.1 Priority identification

The 16 female participants were grouped into 4. And then individually, they were asked to vote with a numbered color seal by sticking it on to a prepared poster paper about the top three of their most prioritized topics (figure 6). There were five topics presented: water, energy, waste management, employment, and food. A blank space

for additional topic was provided in case there is anyone who would like to vote something outside the predetermined selections. The weighted output from this priority identification session is shown by figure 7. Three points is given to the first priority, two points for the second priority, and one point for the third voted priority. The most voted topic is water, followed by employment and food. Participants argued that human could not survive without water, and in order to pay for utilities, one needs employment. Lastly, food is also required for human survival. This finding is similar in the male participants voting result as well as the women participants of the rural sample in the Philippines. It is likely to be the answers from many communities in the developing regions and across gender.

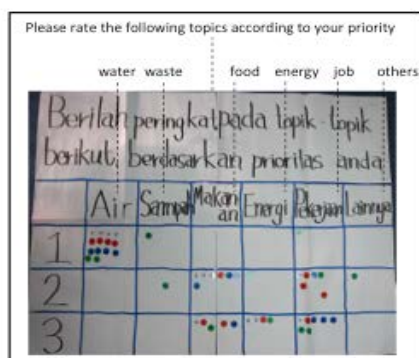


Figure 5 Priority voting poster

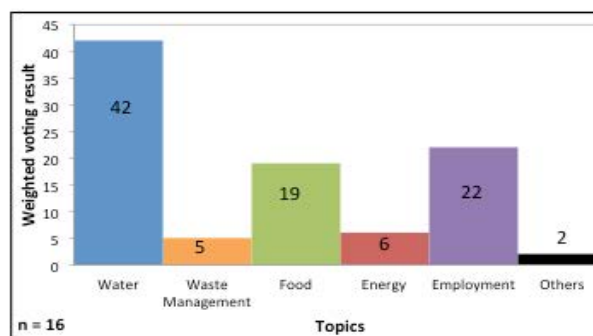


Figure 7 Weighted results of priority voting

3.1.2 Diversity Identification

Because water, employment and food were selected as the most prioritized topics in the previous session, participants were asked to elaborate the diversity within these three topics. The results showed that water is mainly for drinking, cooking, shower, toilet and washing. Job includes their own job, the husband's job, their children's job in the future, and their children's job right now. It is interesting to see that they put their job as equally important with their husband's job although many are housewives. It seems that they understood that although there is no direct financial incentive from being a housewives, but it significantly contributes to the functioning of the family as a whole. This finding is similar to that of a community in Nicaragua, where women acknowledge their housework as contribution to the family, whereas men only identify payable work as contribution (Bradshaw, 2013). According to Bradshaw, financial income would lead to power in decision-making such as deciding the number of children a family would like to have. As shown by figure 4 and 5, this study is also in good agreement with Bradshaw's argument. In food diversity, there are rice, vegetable, fruits, fish, milk, tofu and tempeh. The food categories might have been influenced by a from a government campaign back in the 1950 about the "Healthy Four Perfect Five" that has become popularly used in nutrition education and nationally known. The Ministry of Health had introduced the new nutrition guidelines in 1995 responding to the persisting under nutrition and emergence of over nutrition (Soekirman, 2011).

3.1.3 System Mapping

In system mapping activities, participants worked in group to draw on a large piece of paper about their living place, where and how water, waste and energy are coming from, how they use it on the daily activities and how and where they went to in the environment. Figure 11 shows an example of the drawing. Each of the group had to present to explain their drawing. The aim of this activity is to get everyone familiarized with the system and to enable sharing of knowledge and information about their surrounding area and how they work.

Water in the community is supplied twice daily by the water utility company to the community and stored in the communal water storage. The water is pumped electrically to the smaller container located at the top of each building. There are six building in the community, and each has 4 floors. Water is then distributed by gravity through pipes to households. After usage, wastewater comes out to the gutters and wastewater treatment ponds where water lilies and other waste treating water plants are nurtured and fish is kept. For septic tanks, the treatment company handles it separately.

The government electricity provider supplies electricity to the community. Energy for cooking used to be kerosene, but after the national conversion program, all households converted into using the Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) that is subsidized by the government. Foods are purchased from the nearby traditional market, cooked at home, and waste is disposed in the temporary disposal site until the scavengers collect it to be brought to the final disposal site.



Figure 11 Drawing result of a female group

3.1.4 Identification of challenges, goals, necessary capacities, and constraints

The last sets of activities were conducted in two separate days. This is to give participants time to think overnight about their identified challenges and goals and come up with the necessary capacities and constraints on the next day. Ideas were written individually on small pieces of papers, read out loud, discussed in groups, summarized by the groups and then written by a facilitators. When there are points where consensus by the participants could not be achieved, voting was conducted as the last means of summarizing. Figure 12 shows the photo of the analysis poster and Table 1 presents the summary of this session's outcome.

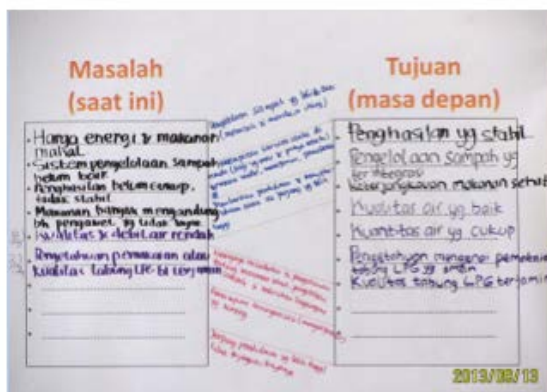


Figure 12 challenges, goals, necessary capacities, and constraints discussion result

Table 1 Summary of challenges, goals, necessary capacities, and constraints as identified by the participants.

Female			
<i>Current challenges</i>	<i>Future goals</i>	<i>Necessary capacities</i>	<i>Constraints</i>
Low water quality and quantity	Better water quality	Opportunity and capacity for entrepreneurship	Low awareness and skills on healthy food, waste management, and overall neighborhood cleanliness maintenance
Unstable income	Stable income		
Unaffordable healthy food	Better affordability of healthy food	Capacity to afford for children’s higher education	Unaffordable higher education
Poor waste management	Better waste management	Capacity to manage waste (separation and recycling)	Lack of organizational skills to hold common activities

The challenges identified by participants were including low water quality, unstable income, unaffordable healthy food, and poor waste management. Discussions on water quality reveals that water sometimes found yellowish with odor. This might be caused by unclean storage tank or the source itself. Surabaya as a city has two sources of water: from the uphill Malang region and the Surabaya river. The community of this case study receives water from the Surabaya River. Water quality in Surabaya has been decreasing over the year. In year 2008, laboratory test showed that about 97.5% of water taken from 249-sample area meets the minimum standard of water quality, but in 2009, it fell down to only 58.2% (Surabaya City Environmental Department, 2011). Majority of the participants are housewives, the few women who earn financially are working in the informal sector such as having small shops and being car-parking attendance. The unstable income makes their live vulnerable because when there is unexpected spending such as if someone in the family fall sick and require cost for medicine or hospital, they face a difficult situation. Despite of the

unstable income, majority of women in the observed community are not seeking for employment. There was a heated argument about this topic during the workshop. One woman mentioned that she is not allowed to work by the husband despite of the husband's vulnerable working condition and a higher number of children mainly due to his ideology. This is again, consistent with the finding by Bradshaw (2013). The government provides subsidy for the poor for access to education and healthcare in forms of programs such as social protection cards and unconditional cash transfer (TNP2K). The food that the participants found affordable often contains preservatives, unsafe coloring and packaging. Mothers were especially worried about what their children consume. Waste in the community was not segregated; plastic and metal wastes were disposed together. Some of the community members are scavengers and they earn from separating and selling the waste for recycling. Improper waste disposal and collection, together with blocked sewage gutters invites flies and mosquito. This might negatively influence health and sanitation in the community.

The improvements in the sectors of identified challenges are the goal of the participants. To be able to reach these goals, they feel that learning the required skills and knowledge would play an important role. Entrepreneurship related skills and opportunities is one capacity that participants feel most necessary. Participants believe, by having access to capital, financial management skills and skills related to production and services for a small-scale entrepreneurship would help them support the family finance in a more sustainable way. Participants also believe that by providing education to their children will one day improve the family economy. One possible way in achieving such skills and opportunities is by joining or creating a community center learning called PKBM (Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Masyarakat) that usually provides women empowerment programs and supports in capital for small-scale business. To initiate such learning center, one would need approval from the lowest government administrative unit, the neighborhood association (RT), community group (RW), technical implementation unit of regional department (UPTD), and finally the ministry of culture and education (Y. Wahid, personal communication, May 12, 2014).

Constraints in acquiring the necessary capacities and achieving goals are including the unaffordability of education despite of the government subsidy on education for the poor. They argue that subsidy is only available for the first 9 years of education and does not cover the necessary expenditures other than the tuition fee for schooling such as school uniforms and books. Constraints that have been preventing community activities on cleaning their environment or conducting more sustainable practice of waste disposal are including the lack of harmony among residents.

3. 2 Results of Multiple Correspondence Analyses

Many of the derived results from the participatory workshop conducted are qualitative and categorical data. In attempt to quantify these data, the Geometric Data Analysis (GDA) was carried out in this study. By doing so, one would understand better about the characteristics of the participants and their daily life practices. MCA is one form of GDA methods and its main objective is to display geometrically the rows and columns of the data table, where the rows represent individuals and columns the categories of the variables – in a low dimensional space, so that proximity in the

space indicates similarity of categories and of individuals (Roux & Rouanet, 2010). The step-by-step conduction of MCA in this study consists of the preparation of data table, clouds inspection, and interpretation, as guided in Multiple Correspondence Analysis: Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences (Roux & Rouanet, 2010).

3.2.1 Preparation of the data table for MCA

In this step, active individuals and active variables are selected. Table 2 listed the sample cross-table of participant's social condition and Table 3 defines the ranges of categories. Points are clustered into subgroup for easier result interpretation (Hong & Abe, 2012).

Table 2 Sample cross-table of participant's social condition

Participant (n = 16)	Income level	Educati on	Number of household members	Occupatio n	Electricity consumptio n	Water consumptio n
1	Low (2)	Middle (1)	Middle (1)	Low (1)	Low (1)	Low (1)
2	Middle (2)	Low (2)	Low (2)	Middle (2)	Middle (1)	Middle (1)
3..16	High (2)	High (2)	High (3)	High (3)	High (2)	High (2)

*Values in the bracket indicate the rank of number of occurrence

Table 3 Participatory workshop's attributes with categorical frequencies

Attributes	Obs	Categories and Frequencies		
		Low	Middle	High
Monthly income	16	11 (USD 50)	3 (USD 50 - 100)	2 (>USD 100)
Education	16	2 (Elementary)	12 (Jhs - Hs)	2 (Voc / Col)
Household members	16	4 (<4)	9 (4)	3 (>4)
Occupation	16	11 (Housewife)	4 (Ent)	1 (Private Comp)
Electricity consumption/month	16	6 (< USD 6)	6 (USD 6 - 9)	3 (> USD 9)
Water consumption/month	16	6 (< USD 3)	6 (USD 3 - 4)	4 (> USD 4)

*Used currency conversion rate is 10,000 IDR = 1 USD

3.2.2 Clouds inspection

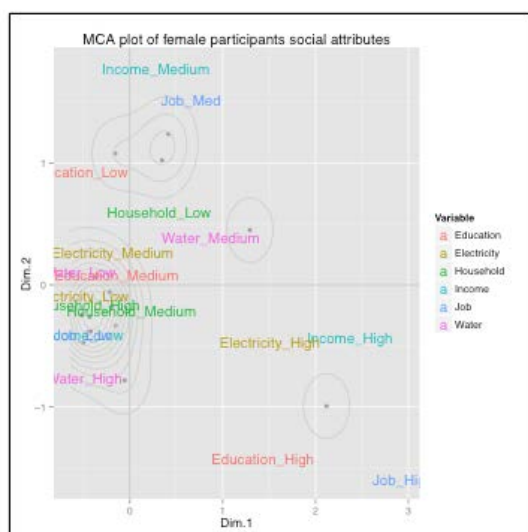


Figure 13 MCA plot of Surabaya participatory workshop participant's attributes

“Clouds” is the term used in MCA for “clusters”. There are three main clouds found in the MCA result shown in Figure 13. The most crowded cloud consists of the low and medium levels of income, education, number of household members, and electricity consumption. The second most crowded cloud consists of the medium income level and low education level. The least crowded cloud consists of high income, high education, high electricity consumption, and high job.

3.2.3 Interpretation

Interpretations from the three identified clouds are as follow: 1) Higher income is only more likely to be gained by those who had higher education levels (college and vocational school). There is no significant difference of income between those who had low and medium education level (elementary, junior high, and high school). 2) Water consumption is not closely related to income, education, or job, but 3) electricity consumption is higher in individuals with higher education, job and income.

4. Conclusions

Mobilized by the third goal of MDG, countries have improved gender equality in school attendance and participation. However, women remain as minority in the work places. This might be an indicator that actual challenges and aspiration of women, especially in the urban area, have not been properly addressed. Because “one does not fit all” (Graham & Kanji, 2014), this study presented the case study of urban women community in government housing in Surabaya, Indonesia to explore the challenges faced by the urban women and their aspirations. The combination of participatory workshop, CA and MCA has enabled this study to assess participants' specific characteristics and compare them to the male counterparts and the women of the rural counterparts. It was found that women in the observed Surabaya community put high importance in child education and ability to earn. But they would prefer to contribute

financially through entrepreneurship so that they do not leave home and violate the ideologies or neglect the housework.

MCA results shows that high earning is only achievable by those who acquired high education levels. Although electricity is consumed more in the case where women could give significant financial contribution, water is consumed equally in all levels of economy in the observed community. This might imply that a new mechanism or shift in ideology would be what it takes to improve women participation in the urban paid labor force. Due to its intensity, the number of participants has been limited. Future works should include larger sample from multiple communities to find out what kind of new mechanism is required and what kind of aspects would mobilize the shift in ideology.

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Kung Fu Canton: Culture of Martial Arts in Guangdong, China

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Abstract

Kung Fu is a word borrowed from the Chinese word gongfu, which translates as accomplished or cultivated skill. Wushu would be a more accurate word to have borrowed, but it's still just an umbrella term for a whole myraid of Chinese martial art, ranging from drunken boxing to the Fujian white crane. Perhaps the most famous style in Guangdong is Wing Chun, which was taken by the now legendary Ip Man to HongKong, from where it spread out across the world via Hongkong Kung fu flicks. Religion beliefs , traditional moral, legend of Kung Fu hero, even Lingnan architectural style and Hongkong Kung Fu film, multiple elements contribute to the unique culture of Guangdong martial art.

Keywords: Kung Fu, Culture of Martial Art, Guangdong

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Introduction

Guangdong Province is located in the south of China, north of Nanling Mountains, northeast of the Wuyi Mountains, faces to the South China Sea with coastline of 4114 km. It was an important trade route along the ancient maritime Silk Road of China. In early Tang Dynasty, Emperor Longshuo (A.D.662), Guangzhou port was the first establishment to manage sea trade, in a role that is the same as Customs today. In the Qing Dynasty Emperor Kangxi, Guangdong, Fujian, Zhejiang, Jiangsu were called four large customs, to A.D.1757, the Qing Dynasty emperor Qianlong closed other three customs, leaving only Guangdong customs. Guangzhou has thus become the only port of entry where foreigners could freely access the city. "Canton" original meaning was capital in English. At the time Guangzhou was the capital of Guangdong and Guangxi regions, therefore was later named "Canton" by foreigners. In modern era, Canton gradually refers to China Guangdong region.

Kung fu is a Chinese term referring to any study, learning or practice that requires patience, energy, and time to complete, often used in the West to refer to Chinese martial arts, also known as Wu shu.[1]The word Wu is translated as "martial" in English, however in terms of etymology, this word has a slightly different meaning. In Chinese, "Wu" is made of two parts, the first meaning "stop" and the second meaning "invaders lance". This implies that "Wu" is a defensive use of combat. The term "wushu" meaning "martial arts" goes back as far as the Liang Dynasty (502-557). Those Chinese martial arts that originated Guangdong region also are called "southern fist".

Martial art sects

Guangdong original styles

During early Qing Dynasty, traditional Cantonese family styles had formed, including Hong, Liu, Cai, Li and Mo. Along with the development of southern sects, more contemporary Kung Fu variants like Choi Lei Fut, Hung Ga and Wing Chun were getting popular. Southern sects features vigorous, athletic movements with very stable, low stances, extensive hand techniques and a vocal articulation called fasheng ("release shout"). they specially emphasis on fast stance transition to generate power and speed in the arms.

Indigenized styles

During Qin Dynasty to the Southern Song Dynasty, there were four period of large-scale migration from northern China into southern China of war and civil unrest. About after Tang Dynasty, these northern migrator were collectively called Hakka which means "guest families". Northern style martial arts were also brought into Guangdong region by Hakka people. During the adaption to southern environment, these hakka kung fu formed their indigenized styles like Zhujia quan, Zhongjia quan, Nanzhi quan, etc.

North traditional styles

The Guangdong and Guangxi Guoshu Academy were established by the National Government in 1929. Five masters of north kung fu, including Gu ruzhang, Li xianwu, Wan laisheng, Wang shaozhou, Fu zhensong, were hired to be the martial art coaches. They brought classic north kung fu like Shaolin fist, wudang Chuan, Taichi chuan, Hsing-i Chuan, Eagle Claw Fist, etc.

Cantonese kong fu legends

Fong Sai-yunk

Fong Sai-yunk was born in Zhaoqing. It was said that he was living in early Qing Dynasty, and was a young Shaolin hero. When he was a teenager, he already excelled in martial art. In legend, whenever he saw anything unfair, he would draw out his sword to help.

Wong Feihung

Wong Feihung (1847–1924) was born in Foshan. He was considered a folk hero and moral kung fu master, and in the meantime, he was also a famous doctor. He sorted Hong fist comprehensively, and rejected old Nanquan's disadvantages such as the repetition of the movement, and developed the expression of power and speed in Hong fist.

Leung Jan

Leung Jan (1826-1901) lived in Foshan. He was a master, and meanwhile a Chinese traditional medicine doctor. Because of numerous victories in fighting challenges he was considered by many as a true master. He was also an experienced teacher that concluded three practicing modes of Wing Chun Kung which contained hand action, leg action and foot action. It greatly developed the Kung fu teaching system, and accelerated the transmission of Wing Chun Kung.

The art extension

Cantonese Opera

Cantonese opera is one of the mainstream in Chinese opera. It is the important content in the culture of Guangdong region, and also closely connected with the culture of Kung fu. Comparing with northern opera, southern opera features martial art. Many famous Cantonese opera artists were also good at Kung Fu. Zhang wu who was known as the grandmaster of Cantonese Opera, adopted the martial actions with Wing Chun Kung in Cantonese Opera performance. Since then, kungfu action became a necessary element in Cantonese Opera.

Lion dance and Dragon dance

Lion dance and Dragon dance are forms of traditional performance which mixed dance art and kung fu skill. These dances are usually performed during the traditional festivals, special celebrations and ceremonies. Until now, Guangdong region still well

preserve the tradition. In general, the dance performers come from local kung fu school. Kung fu masters teach their students not only kung fu skill but also dragon and lion dance. The most adopted lion dance style is called Foshan (most famous Kung fu city in Guangdong) style,

Kung fu movie

Because of the Canton culture origin and open art environment, Hong Kong's Kung Fu movie achieved great success. "Wong feihung" series was the most successful movie in early Hong Kong movie history. From 1949 to 1960's, there were almost 100 films portrayed the folk hero Wong feihung. Nowadays, the Chinese Kung Fu have spawned the genre of prevalent martial arts film. The films of Bruce Lee contributed to the popularity of Chinese martial arts around the world in the 1970s. Other experts in Chinese Kung Fu, such as Jackie Chan and Jet Li responded later the public demand for such films actors. In the West, kung fu performances have become popular in the action scenes, and appear in many films that are generally not considered martial arts films. These films include, for example Matrix or Kill Bill trilogy.

Architecture heritage

During the development history of Kung Fu in Guangdong, Martial club was the important platform for each Kung Fu sects to transmit their martial art. Most of the martial architectures was built in Qing Dynasty. Today A large number of Martial club building survived war and rioting.

Choi Lei Fut Guan was built in Qing Dynasty (A.D. 1848) by Chen Xiang who was the grandmaster of Choi Lei Fut Quan, located at Xinhui. With wide spread of Choi Lei Fut Quan, its martial clubs were opened around Guangdong and Guangxi regions. Hong Sheng Guan maybe the most famous among these club. This classic Guangdong temple style building was built in 1851 in Foshan. It inherited the layout structure of ancient buildings, with complete front, centre and back areas. Along the central axis, the whole building revealed symmetrical aesthetic feature.

Related Traditional Chinese medicine

Health care

The primary functional entities used by traditional Chinese medicine are Qi, Xue, the five Zang organs, the six Fu organs, and the meridians which extend through the organ systems. [2] Chinese Kung Fu was traced to the same origin of traditional Chinese. Jing, Qi and Shen are the key words of Kung Fu action. It includes figure training, spirit training and breath training during the practicing of Kung Fu routines. Figure training is aiming to strengthen muscles and the metabolic function of body organs; Spirit training could help practitioner concentrating mind and release pressure; Breath training is good at developing the function of respiratory system. In modern Guangdong, Canton Kung Fu presented by Wing Chun Kung already become a popular viable option to improve health level.

Die-da therapy

Die-da or bone-setting is one of therapy treatment of traditional Chinese medicine, and it was usually practiced by martial artists before. Reviewing the history, with the exception to be a Kung Fu coach, martial artists would also consider to be bodyguard. It decided they should understand medicine knowledge in case of injury. Therefore most of clinics run by martial artist were primarily trauma and orthopaedic surgery. "Bao Zhi Lin" clinic was the most famous among them. Since "Bao Zhi Lin" opened by Kung Fu master Wong feiHung in 1869, until now it is the symbol of superb medical skills among Cantonese society.

Summation

This study shows that Chinese Kung Fu plays an integral part into shaping cultural, artistic and medicinal landscape in southern China. Indeed cultural events such as opera and lion dance draw their inspiration from Kung Fu. Kung Fu movement and terms are also transposed to Chinese traditional medicine because of the deep understanding of human body and medians it requires.

Because Kung Fu draws from social and historical sources, it never stops evolving while still remaining deeply anchored in Chinese cultural heritage. We can conclude that Kung Fu is a sustainable martial art and in many aspects a valuable and healthy way of life.

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Employee Satisfaction from Indoor Work Environments in Doha, Qatar

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Abstract

Several studies have been conducted by environmental psychologists on worker satisfaction from office spaces with the attempt to relate it to human productivity and profit. Most of such studies have been conducted in the western context, those in the cultural context of the Gulf Region being very limited. This research reports on office worker satisfaction from the indoor environment in selected office buildings set in the socio-cultural-religious context of Qatar and the Gulf region. The study used self-administered questionnaires as the predominant method for the research. Personal interviews were also conducted with willing participants.

Results revealed that around half of the respondents were satisfied with the indoor environment of their offices. Presence of a window and access to daylighting are seen to contribute highly towards satisfaction. Most dissatisfaction expressed was less on account of actual physical conditions and related more to the poor ability of users to control the environmental conditions like temperature, lighting, ventilation and humidity. It is important that building designers provide some means of control over indoor environmental parameters to occupants of workspaces to improve perceived satisfaction and increase worker productivity.

Keywords: workplace, satisfaction, office workers, indoor environments, window, temperature, ventilation, daylighting, Qatar

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Sustainable architecture is about making environment friendly buildings which can promote the physical and psychological health of its occupants. Office workers constitute around half of the active workforce in advanced economies and their output contributes critically to the economy. The nature of work, required skills, changing technology, entry of women into the workforce as well as advancements in architecture and construction technology have all changed office space planning and environment.

The response of office workers to these changes in terms of satisfaction from their work environment has been the topic of a host of studies by environmental psychologists particularly in the western world. These studies have researched into the varying space configurations of office spaces, design and indoor environment parameters and the corresponding worker satisfaction while attempting to link them to worker productivity and resultant corporate profit. However, the method and objectives of the study have varied with the discipline of the researcher, and the socio-cultural-economic-political setting of the study. The differences in these characteristics have resulted in totally different results which are therefore difficult to generalise. Further, while western studies have limited applicability in the context of the Gulf, regional studies in the Arabic cultural context are severely limited. This research seeks to shed light on these aspects as well as to contribute to the database of limited studies in the region.

1.2 Study Area: Doha, Qatar

Qatar with a population of 2.17 million in May 2014 is one of the smallest countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) (“: QSA Labor force,” n.d.). It has the world’s fifth largest population growth rate of 3.58 percent and ranks second with a net migration rate of 27.35 migrants per 1000 population in 2014 (“CIA - The World Factbook,” n.d.). Qatar has the third largest gas reserves in the world amounting to 13 percent and was the richest country in the world with a GDP per capita at purchasing power parity (PPP) of US\$102.2k in 2012. In 2010 it was the world’s fastest growing economy with a real GDP growth rate of 19.4 percent (“The Fastest Growing Economy In The World: The Qatari Economy - Business Insider,” n.d.). This growth has been driven by the hydrocarbon and services sectors which is being utilised by the government to build a diversified and sustainable economy (Joannes Mongardini, 2014).

In late 2010 Qatar won the competition to host the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup in 2022. This set the stage for a construction boom in its accommodation, catering and tourism sectors with the country having pledged to build seven new ‘minicities’, nine new stadiums and 84,000 hotel rooms and \$ 10 billion airport to handle 24 million passengers annually (“Qatar in 2011 -- Britannica Online Encyclopedia,” n.d.). A significant number of these buildings will be in around the capital Doha. The event has created an estimated 120,000 jobs in 2013 attracting a large number of expatriate workers to Qatar. As a result of the

population growth and investments, the growth in the non –hydrocarbon sector accelerated from 8.6 percent in 2010 to 11.4 percent in 2013. See Figure 1.

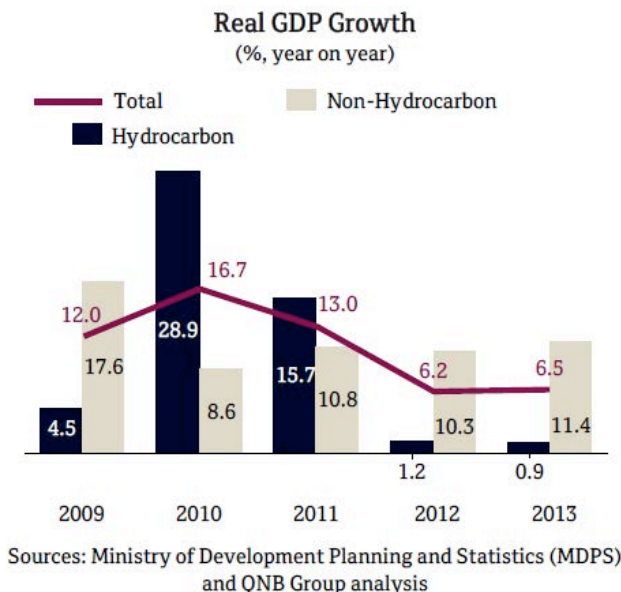


Figure 1 Real GDP Growth

The largest contributor to the non-hydrocarbon GDP growth in the year 2013-14 was the growing service sector particularly government services, financial services, hotels and restaurants, trade, transport and construction (Joannes Mongardini, 2014). See Figure 2.

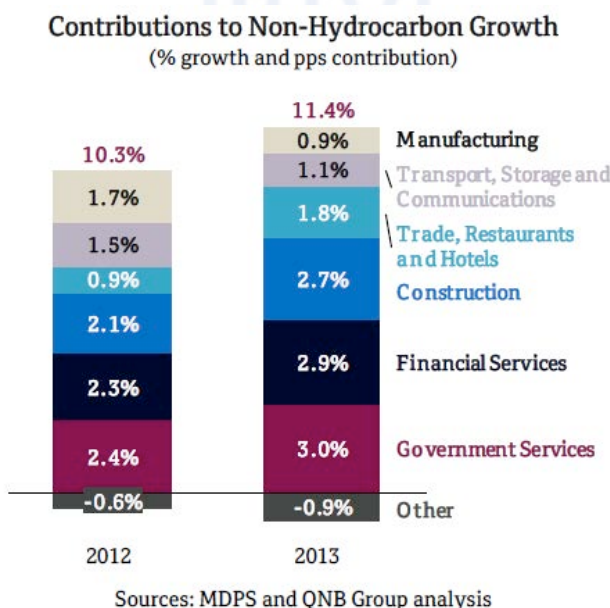


Figure 2 Contributions to Non-Hydrocarbon Growth

The predominant building type required for the functioning of various service sector activities apart from housing is the office building. Office building design has implications not only on energy consumption during construction and operation stages, but also due to the long lasting physical and psychological impact it can have on its worker occupants.

Office worker satisfaction derived from indoor environments is a combination of actual physical environmental conditions as well as the perception of comfort as felt by the occupants. Cities in the hot, harsh climates of the GCC spend a large amount of energy to provide comfortable indoor living conditions to building occupants. Almost all habitable rooms are air-conditioned. Most buildings have a significant amount of glazing though the intense sunshine and dusty winds of the desert climate often lead to them being unopened or covered with blinds. Hence most office spaces rely on artificial lighting for their functioning. But how far do these contribute to occupant satisfaction in workplaces?

This paper seeks to answer this question through a research into employees satisfaction from the indoor environment of their workplaces in office building typologies in Doha in Qatar. The paper details out the levels of satisfaction from the selected indoor parameters, analyses the reasons for the same and provides recommendations to increase satisfaction levels.

2 Literature Review

Office workspaces are commonly classified into private separate offices, open offices, shared offices and cubicle or partitioned office spaces. Private offices are enclosed workspaces for one person indicative of a position of power and suitable for works which are confidential and require concentration. Shared offices are enclosed workspaces for used of two to three people and suitable for semi-concentrated or collaborative small group work. Open work spaces may take the form of a hall which holds more than 10 people and are suitable for tasks which require frequent communication and little concentration. Partitioned or cubicle offices are of two kinds depending on degree of enclosure they provide: seating height partitions and standing height partitions.

Over the past couple of decades flexible workspaces or semi-walled cubicles are being increasingly favoured by corporate companies in contrast to fixed separate private offices with the goal of obtaining economies. On the other hand, many studies have found that these do not provide the benefits of either separate or open workspaces and in fact negatively affect worker satisfaction and productivity (Lai, 2004). Worker satisfaction has been found to be influenced by several workspace design parameters such as spatial design and supporting tasks (Block & Stokes, 1989; Brennan, Chugh, & Kline, 2002; Maher & von Hippel, 2005), heights of partitions (Maher & von Hippel, 2005) and accessibility (Sundstorm, Burt, & Kamp, 1980); environmental parameters such as increased noise (Leather, Beale, & Sullivan, 2003), temperature (Lai, 2004; Mendell, M., 1993), ventilation and natural light (Meerwarth, II, & Briody, 2008), penetration of sunlight (Leather, Pyrgass, Beale, & Lawrence, 1998), access to windows (Nagy, 2000; O'Neill, 1991; Vischer, n.d.; Yildirim, Akalin-Baskaya, & Celebi, 2007), size of windows (Biner, Butler, Lovegrove, & Burns, 1993), substitutes for windows (Biner et al., 1993), and visual privacy (Daroff, Rappoport, & Cushman, R.F, 1992); and personal characteristics such as gender and age (Yildirim et al., 2007), and previous experience (Brennan et al., 2002).

Providing workers with control over their work environment such as daylight and temperature setting, as well as the training of how to exert control also appears to be paramount to optimizing performance and health outcomes (Robertson, Huang,

O'Neill, & Schleifer, 2008). Productivity is associated with temperature settings and inability to personalise temperatures result in poor satisfaction and productivity. While workers adapt their dress code to deal with too hot/too cold issues, user ability to adjust or customize their workspace environment for their personal comfort has been found to be quite important and essential for job satisfaction and productivity (Lai, 2004; Mendell, M., 1993). Other environmental features that contribute heavily to employee comfort levels include ventilation, climate control and good lighting, including natural light (Meerwarth et al., 2008). Studies indicate that the provision of day lighting was associated with higher ratings of comfort and satisfaction (Hua et al., 2011). This desire for natural light rather than artificial light is one of the reasons why windows are very attractive to building occupants. Results of research studies also indicate that propinquity to a window can even buffer or compensate for the negative aspects of open-plan offices (Yildirim et al., 2007). Studies indicate that proximity to window with enough day light and an outside view, decreases feelings of discomfort and thus leads to an improved office impression and job satisfaction. However, being close to a window with poor quality lighting could result in occupant discomfort due to thermal and glare problems (Aries, Myriam B.C, 2010). Research indicates that while many building occupants appreciate the automatic daylight-linked systems, they show a preference to exercise control over the systems and being able to override. Occupants were even found to cover up automatic day lighting sensors to avoid the sudden and frequent change in lighting-conditions that resulted due to automatic controls (Hua, Oswald, & Yang, 2011). Apparently, employees whose workspaces contained both a window and a 1.40m high partition were most satisfied with their space, presumably because they were happy to have enough daylight and outside views while also having partitions giving them a higher level of visual and acoustical privacy (Yildirim et al., 2007).

Since office workers spend a lot of time inside office buildings, sometimes more than what they spent at home, it is essential that proper care be taken while designing workspaces to further worker health and wellbeing, and to increase work productivity and corporate profits. This paper investigates the employee satisfaction from the indoor environment of office buildings in the hot dry desert climatic context of Qatar.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This research covers four kinds of office spaces in Doha city namely separate private offices, shared offices, and flexible offices: open offices, and partitioned offices. By separate office is meant a room with separating full height walls and occupied by a single occupant. Shared offices are offices with full height walls but in which are occupied by more than one occupant with no partitions in between. Flexible offices are those offices in which density and organization of work spaces can be easily altered. They are of two kinds: open offices and partitioned offices. Open offices are classified as large halls in which a large number of occupants perform without being separated by partitions. Partitioned offices being studied are of two types: those with partition heights of 1 to 1.2 m (seating height privacy) and those with partition heights of 1.8 to 2.1 m (standing height privacy).

3.2 Method and Procedure

Survey research method has been used in this research. A preliminary survey questionnaire was prepared and a pilot survey was conducted within selected office spaces in Qatar university. The questionnaire was modified in the light of the response to the survey and a more stratified detailed questionnaire was prepared for the research. The questionnaire focussed on identifying satisfaction from four physical indoor environmental parameters: Temperature, Humidity, Ventilation and Daylighting from two aspects. Firstly, the respondents had to record their satisfaction from these four physical parameters as it occurred in their workspaces and secondly their ability to control these parameters to improve satisfaction and wellbeing. The responses were recorded on a five point Likert scale ranging from highly satisfied, satisfied, neutral, unsatisfied to highly unsatisfied.

The survey was administered by six undergraduate students of the Department of Architecture and Urban Planning at Qatar university. Surveys were conducted using a combination of self-administered questionnaires and interviews with each respondent for deeper comprehension of the satisfaction parameters. Stratified random sampling was used to identify the respondents for the survey. Surveys were conducted over three months at different times at the convenience of the students.

3.2.1 Building Study Sample

Two office buildings identified as A and B in the downtown of Doha were selected for the study. Office building A hosted a private sector company, was 16 floors in height and had been occupied for 15 years. The office under study was located on its first floor. Office building B chosen for the study hosted a government organization, was 27 floors in height and had been occupied for 10 years. The workspaces studied were located on several floors ranging from three to 24 floors to enable obtaining the necessary samples.

Both office buildings contained all three kinds of office types: separate private offices, shared offices, and flexible offices. Equal samples of separate, shared and flexible workspace occupants were chosen from each office. The flexible office space category was further split into three categories: open plan offices, seating height partition office and standing height partition workspaces. See Figure 3.

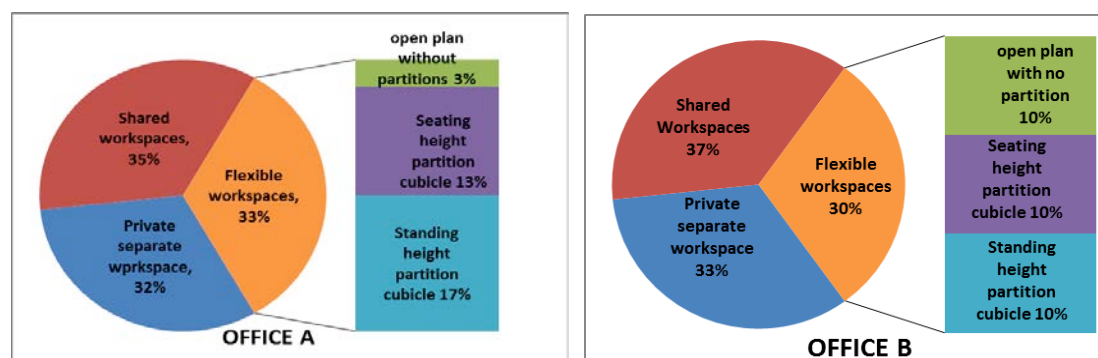


Figure 3 Workspace sample size distribution

The choice of office space types to be surveyed was based on the representative sample of these kinds of offices as it occurred in both office buildings. Shared offices in Office A contained from one to six occupants whereas in Office building B they contained one to nine occupants. There was only one office worker occupying an open space office in Office building A. Though the open office type in Office A was low it has been included in the study with the view of obtaining a response to aid qualitative understanding of satisfaction rather than quantitative analysis.

3.2.2 Respondents Sample

Within the office buildings, respondents were chosen based on stratified sampling. Care was exercised to select occupants occupying different positions within the space, facing different sides of the building: inner areas and facing exterior walls, with and without windows. The sample of respondents thus selected was spread over different nationalities as seen in Figure 4.

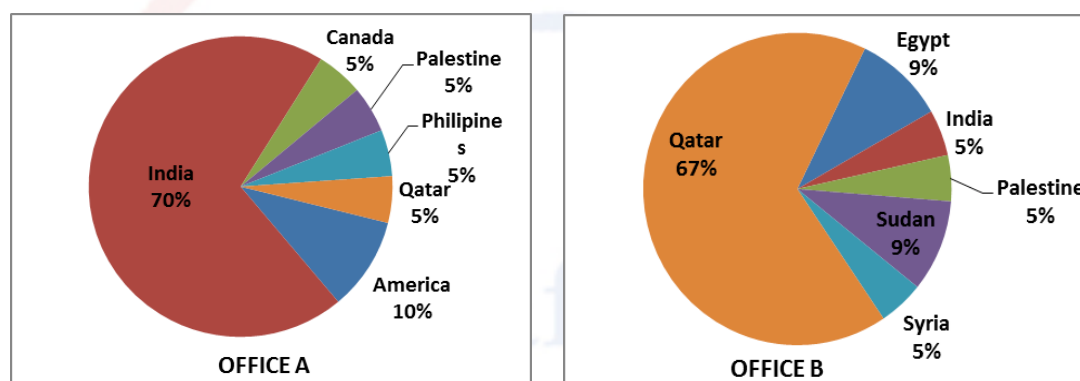


Figure 4 Respondent sample according to nationality

94 percent of the workforce in Qatar consist of expatriate workers (“.: QSA Labor force,” n.d.).The sample for the Office A housing the private sector office reflects a proportionate sampling of the labour force distribution in Qatar. It may be noted that this is not true of Office building B housing the government office. This is because most positions in government offices are occupied by nationals.

Figure 5 shows the respondents according to gender. Females constitute 11 percent of the expatriate service sector workforce and 40 percent of the national workforce. Further 57 percent of Qatari professionals are women which may explain the variation between the larger number of female employees in government offices(Office B) when compared to the private(Office A) and (“.: QSA Labor force,” n.d.). The respondent sample in this study has larger proportion of females than in the population.

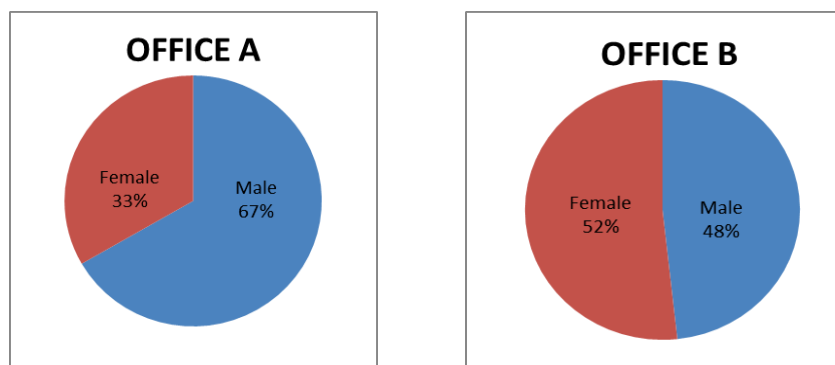


Figure 5 Respondent sample according to Gender

Figure 6 shows the respondent breakup according to religious affiliation. The country has a Muslim population of 77.5 percent (“CIA - The World Factbook,” n.d.). The proportion is well reflected in Office B housing the government organisation. Office A hosting the private organisation with greater expatriate population reveals a wider range of religious affiliations.

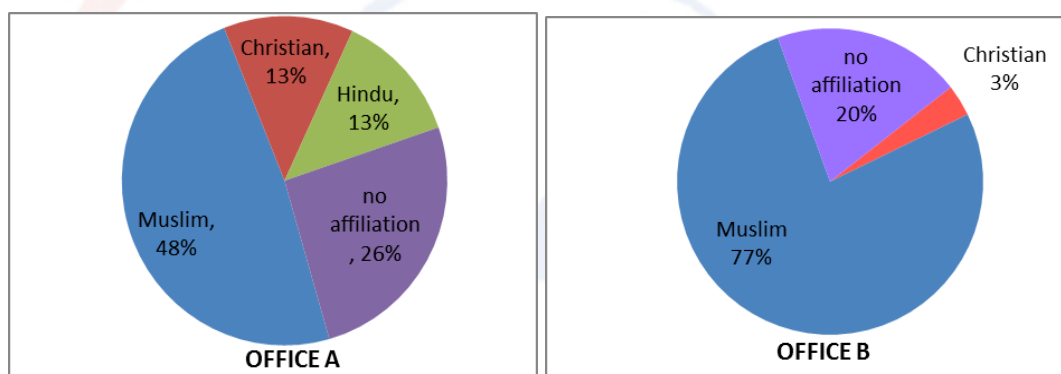


Figure 6 Respondent breakup according to religious affiliation

4 Results

4.1 Response To Workspace Environment: Office A (Private sector office)

It was found that around half of the workers in Office A were happy with the environment of their workspaces while a fifth of the workers were not happy with the indoor environment of their workspaces. See Figure 7.

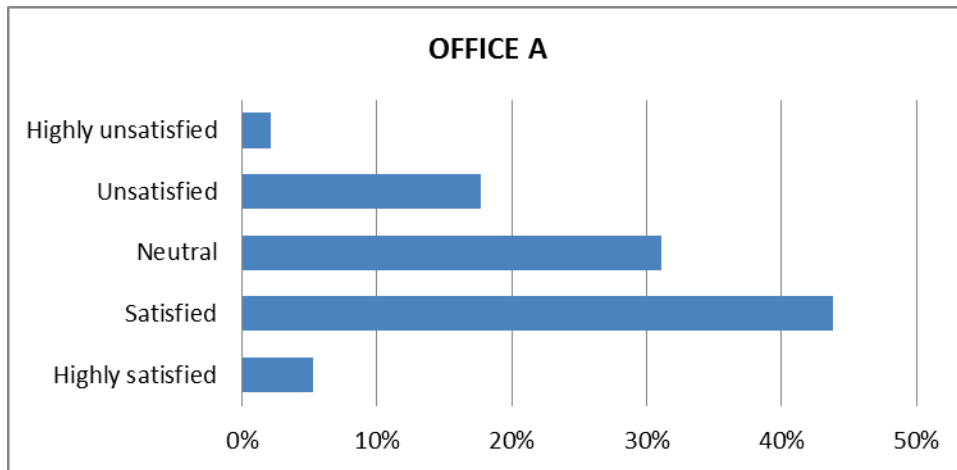


Figure 7 Response to workspace environment

Figure 8 shows the distribution of satisfaction over the various environmental parameters. The highest satisfaction of around 60 percent was recorded on two parameters: room temperature and lighting. The highest dissatisfaction of around 35% was recorded on the parameters: control on ventilation, control on lighting and control on room temperature. It may be noted that nearly 45percent of respondents were satisfied with the access to day lighting, and control on blinds while 20 percent were dissatisfied on the same parameters.

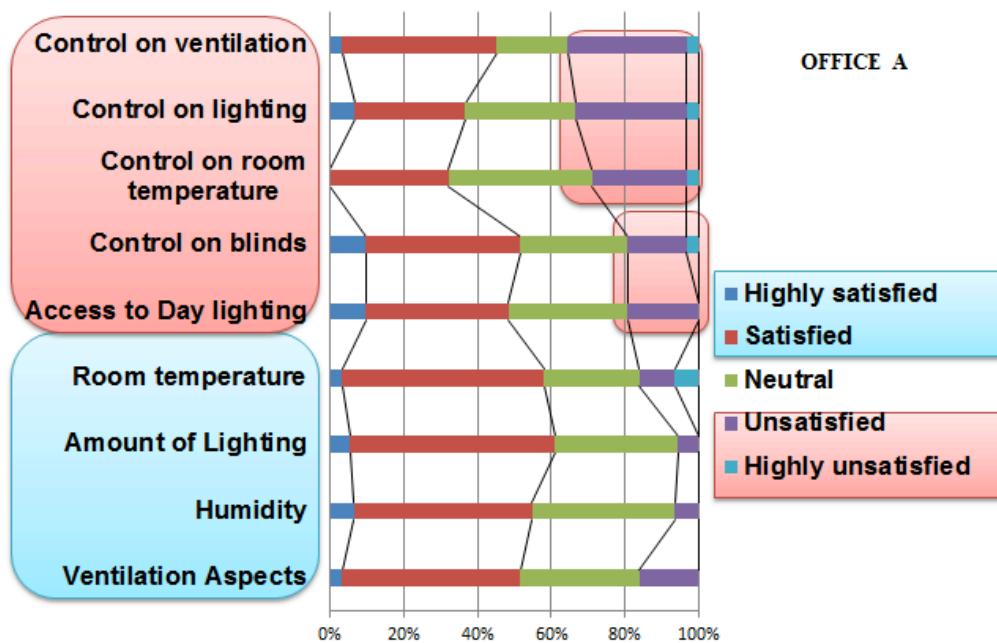


Figure 8 Satisfaction according to environmental parameters

4.2 Response To Workspace Environment: Office B (Governmental organisation)

It was found that around 60% of the occupants in Office B were happy with the environment with nearly a quarter highly satisfied. Only 10% were unsatisfied. See Figure 9.

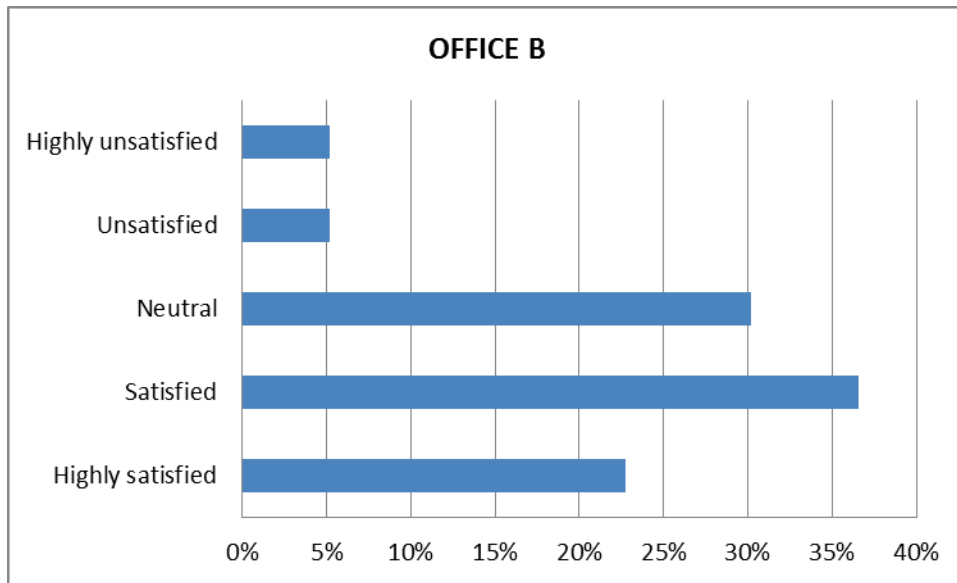


Figure 9 Response to workspace environment

Figure 10 shows the distribution of satisfaction over the various environmental parameters. The highest satisfaction of around 80 percent was recorded on two parameters: access to daylighting and control on blinds. The highest dissatisfaction of around 17% was recorded on the parameters: Ventilation, control on ventilation, control on room temperature.

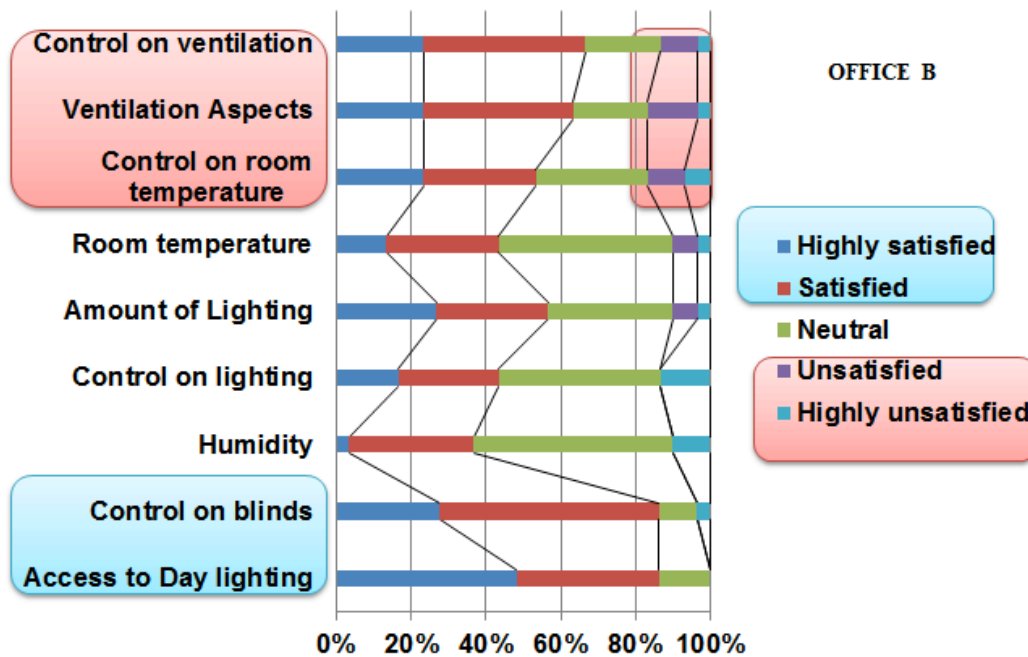


Figure 10 Satisfaction according to environmental parameters

5 Discussion

It is found that workers of Office B are highly satisfied with the workspace environment compared to Office A. The parameters which respondents are most dissatisfied with in both office buildings are ventilation followed by room temperature. Both office buildings are centrally air-conditioned. But dissatisfaction from

ventilation is due to the fact that both towers have large glazed facades with non-operable windows. Dissatisfaction is higher in Office A as it has many respondents who occupy the large open workspace and cubicle workspace area in the central core surrounded by circulation space on the perimeter of which are distributed separate and shared offices. Hence the movement of air is very restricted and the occupants have no way to control ventilation. Further, occupants have no control on the room temperature in both office buildings. Room temperatures are perceived to be too cold or too hot varying with the season and individual preferences. Occupants of both buildings were happy with the artificial lighting but unhappy with the fact that they had no control on it. This was particularly so in Office A with open workspace and cubicle workspace in the large central space. Occupants were not able to control the lighting in this common space as per their personal preferences. It was observed that in both office buildings the dissatisfaction is less on account of the environmental parameter itself but more on the perceived frustration in not being able to control the parameter. The major difference between the satisfaction parameters of Office A and Office B was on access to day lighting and control on blinds. In office A, the larger population of respondents were located in the open and cubicle workspaces in the centre which were surrounded by separate and shared workspaces with glazed walls and inoperable windows. So these occupants had no access to a window and daylighting. On the other hand those with separate and shared workspaces on the building periphery were highly satisfied as they had access to day lighting and control on blinds. In Office B on the other hand, the workspaces were distributed around a core with each workspace having an external glazed wall with blinds. Hence respondents were extremely satisfied with daylighting and control on blinds.

6 Summary and Conclusions

The study covered four kinds of workspace types namely private separate offices, shared offices, open plan offices and cubicle offices with varying partition heights in two multi-storeyed office buildings designated as Office building A and Office building B in Doha. The sample contained respondents from various nationalities, genders and religious affiliations. Office B hosts a government organisation and has three quarters of the respondents as nationals with more than half the workers being women, while office A hosts a private sector office.

It is observed from the study that environmental parameters involving lighting, ventilation, humidity and temperature can positively or negatively affect worker performance and productivity. Workers derive a great sense of satisfaction from having a window in their workspaces and obtaining day lighting as against artificial light. Office workers experience significant dissatisfaction when they cannot control light, temperature, ventilation and blinds in their workspaces even while being satisfied by the environmental parameter itself. Dissatisfaction on all the parameters is higher among those placed in open office and partitioned offices in central spaces as compared to those in separate and shared offices.

The study highlights the role of the indoor work environment in providing worker satisfaction and resultant productivity. It is important that adequate care be taken for the provision of windows and daylighting in all workspaces while designing of Office buildings. Employees satisfaction from office buildings can be greatly increased if

office workers are provided means to exercise control on the four environment parameters in their workspaces: lighting, ventilation, humidity and temperature.

7 Acknowledgement

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The logo for the International Association for Business and Economics (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters "iafor" in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a light blue arc on the bottom and a light red arc on the top, creating a partial ring effect around the text.

Abstention, Democracy and Decentralization: A Case of Direct Election in North Sumatera Province 2013, Indonesia

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0727

Abstract

Indonesians have an acronym for voters who refuse to take part in the elections. They are known as "golput" and these are people who either does not vote or abstentions. This study aims to explain the dynamics of abstention of direct election in North Sumatera. The direct election to vote the governor of North Sumatera was held in 2013. The results of direct election have shown that the voters participation very low approximately 36.62%. This condition also explained that the number of golput or abstentions very high approximately 63.38%. This condition will threaten sustainable democracy. The high number of abstentions is very affected the failures of sustainability democracy in Indonesia. Therefore, research on abstention are needed for improvement of sustainable democracy in Indonesia. We find that several reason why golput exist in direct election in Indonesia, especially in direct election of North Sumatera. It is caused democracy defined as an election only, distrust of government and the problematic concept of citizenship. Therefore, it is needed a good strategy to realize the sustainability of democracy in Indonesia. The abstention has a negative impact on the sustainability of democracy and decentralization in Indonesia, especially in North Sumatera.

Keywords: Abstention, Democracy, Decentralization, Direct Election and North Sumatera Province

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1. Introduction

Decentralization in Indonesia is not a new issue, even decentralization has been around since the independence of Indonesia. But in practice, decentralization does not go well, especially during the New Order Regime under President Suharto. New Order led by Suharto has produced an authoritarian regime (Nisbet, 1986). Suharto's regime did not solve the problem transparently and did not accommodate many demands and claims that arose in areas such as Aceh, Riau, Irian Jaya and East Timor (Jatmika, 2001). Suharto's regime, called New Order, established a pervasive and efficient security apparatus, with broad powers of arrest and imprisonment (Burnell & Vicky, 2005). Under the regime of New Order, Indonesia was described as bureaucratic state where the state was presented as the embodiment of the collectively of its public. Many analyses explain the hegemonic and central position of the New Order had concentrated power into the hands of only view elite circles. Suharto's authoritarian regime was creating demonstrations and people protests to bring down the New Order regime. The fall of the Suharto's regime led to a new regime called reformation era. New style decentralization that was born in the era of reform, concerned of the improvement of the Indonesian political system. One of the expected changing is a centralized system of government to decentralized system. The spirit of decentralization is expected more democratic and provide equitable development to bring the state closer to the society, and to provide better public services (Tuner, David, 1997).

Decentralization has many definitions. The definition of decentralization in general refers to the Rondinelli and the World Bank. Rondinelli stated that decentralization as the transfer or delegation of legal and authority from the central governmental to local government (Rondinelli, 1999). In the same word, Crook argued that decentralization was usually referred to the transfer of powers from central government to lower levels in a political-administrative and territorial hierarchy (Crook, 1998). I argue that transfer of the authority giving the opportunity to the local people to participate in democracy. Therefore the local people can determine directly the governor or mayor. It was also explained by John Mary Kauzya that decentralization was a policy of high priority and used as an instrument of people empowerment, a platform for sustainable democratization (Kauzya, 2001). It means decentralization is a good policy or an instrument for sustainable democracy. Actualizing a sustainable democracy is not easy, especially in a multi-ethnic society. Based on this background, there are two questions that will be explained in this paper; first, based on constructivist explanation, why the abstention rate in North Sumatera is high and the second, How did it impact the quality and sustainability of democracy and decentralization.

Methodology

The methodology designed in this research is qualitative approach by examining reports, documents, in-depth interview, journal, books and media analysis.

The Concept of Sustainability Democracy

Democracy is considered as an ideal government, which is the best to apply in the countries of the world, and expected to answer the problems of the society and uphold the sovereignty of society. Dahl explained that Democracy is the best form of

government. Public officials should be chosen by majority vote. Every citizen should have an equal chance to influence government policy. The minority should be free to criticize majority decisions (Dhal, 1972). Studies academics about democratisation acquaint two great ideas category, namely concepts of minimalist and maximalist (Muladi, 2004). Minimalist democracy more explain democracy as procedural such general classifier. While maximalists democracy more concentrate on the substance of democracy, not only to see election as main indicator, but also to respect the civil rights and to respect pluralism, is the most fundamental thing in democratic life. It is also delivered by Larry Dimond defines democracy as a system of government that maintain three conditions: (a) meaningful and extensive competition among individuals and groups for all elective positions; (b) highly inclusive level of political participation in the selection of leaders and policies, so that no major group is excluded; and (c) a level of civil and political liberties sufficient to ensure political competition and participation, including freedom of expression and the freedom to form and join organisations (Samarasinghe, 1994).

This condition explains that democracy will sustain if all individuals or groups of individuals are treated equal by the state. Equal if the state provides space for active participation in matters of social, cultural, political and economic. Rousseau argued that political participation was an important aspect in the order of democracy. Political participation was an activity undertaken to engage citizens in the decision-making process in order to influence government (Pateman, 1970). Political participation affects government policies (Budihardjo, 1998). This actions include to give voting in elections, to attend the general meeting, to be a member of a party or interest group, to make contact with government officials or members of parliament, and so on. Political participation is an important instrument of sustainability democracy. To realize political participation in society becomes difficult in societies divided along deep social cleavages such as ethnicity because the community has been divided in a few ethnicities (Reilly, 2005). Emilie explained missing from ethnicity debates are arguments stressing the importance of political participation of ethnic from a democratic perspective (Emilie, 2005). The same argument also explained by Kanchan Chandra. Chandra argued that democracy requires fluid ethnic majorities and minorities in order to function (Chandra, 2006). In other words, Chandra want to affirm that democracy takes the role of the ethnic majority and minorities to participate in the realization of democracy. While according to Merkel that heterogeneity potentially destabilizes mature democracies (Merkel, 2012).

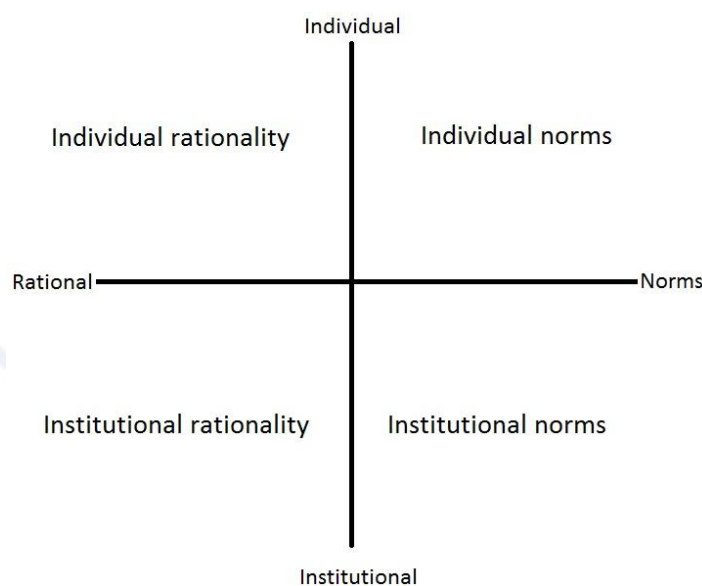
The Concept of Constructivism

In this paper, I will use the constructivism approach to explain the abstention in North Sumatra. Why constructivism? There are two reason, first, I argue that abstention is not given. Abstention born as defined and redefined, constructed for political and social interests. Second, constructivist view this reality of the world as something that was based on evidence (the fact) that materially could be arrested or not by the five senses, but that fact does not lead / not determine how we (humans) see the social reality. Wendt argued that social reality according to constructivist is the result of social construction. In other words, human beings are individually constructed through social reality.

Actually constructivism appears to provide a view that social reality can not be seen as naturally exist by itself (given) and independent of interaction (rationalist) and vice versa can not also be seen as something that is nil or nothing and merely seen as a reflection of human ideas. Wendt argued that structures of human association are determined primarily by shared ideas rather than material forces and identities and interests of purposive actors are constructed by these shared ideas rather than given by nature (Bozdaglioglu, 2007). In this paper I will use the framework of Camilla Tyllstrom to explain about abstention in North Sumatera. Actually, Camilla describes the voting behavior but I will use this framework to explain about abstentions in North Sumatra. I argue that the Camilla's framework not only explain about voter behavior but also the abstention.

Based on the constructivism approach, ideas are important for politics and voting or abstention and understanding how voters view the act of voting or abstention. To investigate how voters perceive and make meaning of the concept of voting and turnout, Camilla has developed a theoretical according to individual rationality, individual norms, institutional rationality or institutional norms when they talk about voting and voter turnout. The graph below is influenced by rational choice, norms, social identity and new institutionalism. The divisions are according to the four theories with "individual" representing social identity, "rational" representing rational choice, "norms" – representing (obviously) the theories about norms and institutional representing new institutionalism (Tyllstrom, 2012)

Figure 1. The Divisions Of Voting



Source : Camilla's Framework

Camilla explained that the individual rationality section represents self and/or group interest in form of beneficial outcomes of voting, for example that one vote's for a candidate that promises benefits to one's group or oneself. The institutional rationality section deals with outcomes as well, but in terms of national institutions, that an individual think of the vote in a system-aspect, how the vote affect the system, how turnout might indicate something about the voting system, how the outcome of the election might affect the country and such.

Individual norm section, where social identity-factors such as group belonging and group norms play the biggest role in the understanding of the vote. Groups could be one’s family, if everyone in the family votes it might be embarrassing not to do it or it could be the people one feels that one belongs to in terms of work, social groups etc. The institutional norm section is where the vote is understood in the national institutional context and those norms, that for example the state diffuses norms that voting is good.

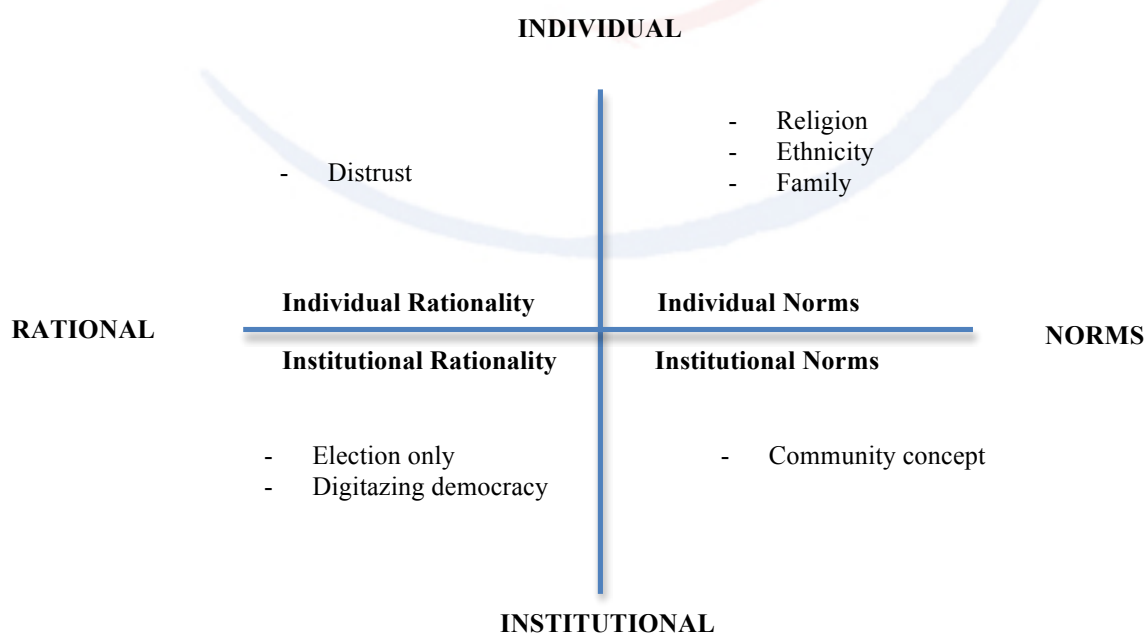
Direct Election In North Sumatera Province

The development progres on the discourse of direct election keep developed from since 1945 until today. This is proven by the release of various laws such as Law No. 1 of 1945, Law No. 22 of 1948, Presidential Decree No. 6 of 1959, Law No. 18 of 1965, Law No. 5 of 1994, Law No. 22 of 1999, and Law No. 32 of 2004 (Prihatmoko, 2005). Due to the issuance of Law No. 20 of 1999, which was renewed into Law No. 32 of 2004 about the local autonomy that the Indonesian people may participate directly in determining the local leader. In June 2005, Indonesia did direct elections. This is the form of the establishment and enforcement of democracy in Indonesia. Direct election in North Sumatera followed by 5 governor candidates in 2013: 1. Gus Irawan Pasaribu - Soekirman, 2. Effendi Simbolon – Jumiran Abdi, 3. Chairuman Harahap - Fadly Nur Zal, 4. Amri Tambunan-RE Nainggolan, 5. Gatot Pudjo Nugroho - Tengku Erry. Generally, candidates came from a different ethnic.

Why Abstention Was Very High In Direct Election of North Sumatera

The author will use the Camilla’s framework to explain the dynamics of abstention in North Sumatra. This framework will explain the abstention in North Sumatera based on constructivism approach.

Figure. 2. Abstention Framework Based On Constructivism Approach



Individual Rational : Distrust and Political Gangster

Based on individual rationality reason, that person's abstentions because there is beneficial outcome by choosing one of the candidates. In the other words, people do not believe the candidates. Generally, respondents felt pessimistic or sceptical, even do not believe at all at the government to bring change for the better, the government considered to have no influence, especially good effect on pone's life, because the government's failure to carry out his duties, and political promises have not been fulfilled by the government to the public, as well as the "track record" was very disappointing the government. So it can increase the rationality disappointment in seeing the political reality, as well as political awareness for the society that can increase the distrust of the government in bringing change for the better. This figure is quite high and worrying, because it could threaten the government legitimation anytime. So it can be concluded that the distrust of government affects people not to give their right to vote.

Another reason people do not believe the government is the political gangster. Political gangster known by Indonesia as preman. Hadiz explained that Post authoritarian regime increasing the political gangster in Indonesia, especially in North Sumatera. Political violence or political gangster is not new issue in North Sumatera. In 1950's, New Order regime nurtured youth gangster organization- Pemuda Pancasila (PP). Military first decided to mobilize youths and local toughs to confront pro-communist party (PKI). Other important New Order regime youth organization included FKPPI, the communications forum of the children of retired military forces. Notwithstanding the status of Pemuda Pancasila in North Sumatera is the association of functional group youths (Ikatan Pemuda Karya). It is widely believed to dominate the illegal gambling industry in North Sumatera (Hadiz, 2010)

Currently, Pemuda Pancasila, FKPPI and IPK become a political instrument to support one candidate mayor or governor in the election. Meanwhile, the candidate also needs the support of the youth organization to mobilize society to support the candidate. Post-Suharto regime, the collaboration between the candidate and the youth group is new style of work. They have thus been forced to seek new strategies of survival, including providing political parties with a well-oiled apparatus of violence especially when necessary during election periods.

Individual Norms : The Power Of Ethnicity, Religion And Family

Individual norm section, where social identity-factors such as ethnicity, religion and family play the biggest role in the understanding of the abstention. The use of ethnic identity in the political struggle is still a lot going on in almost all parts of Indonesia, including North Sumatera. According to the BPS (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency) in 2013 that the population of North Sumatera are 13 million people made up of diverse ethnic.

Table 1. The Percentage Of Ethnic Groups In Medan

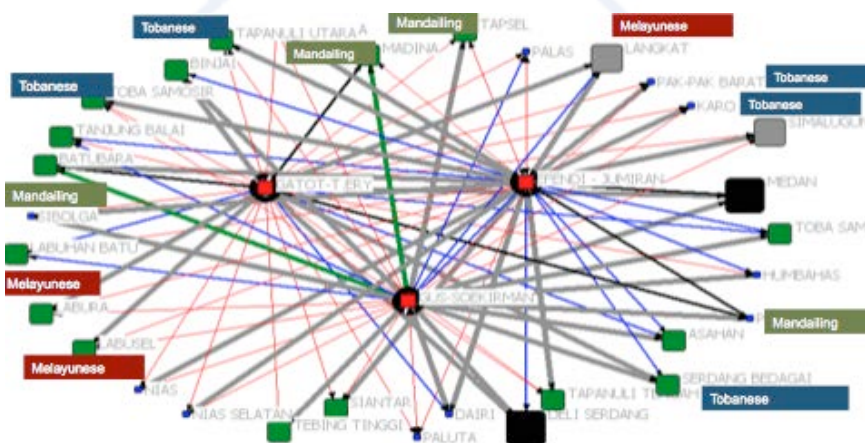
Number	Ethnic	Percentage
1	Javanese	33,04 %
2	North Tapanuli/Batak Tobanese	22,03 %

3	Mandailingnese	9,05 %
4	Nias	7,01 %
5	Melayunese	6,00 %
6	Batak Karonese	5,05 %
7	Batak Angkolanese	4,01 %
8	Chinese	2,07 %
9	Others	2,06 %

Source: BPS 2012

Ethnic be used as a means of campaigning, and attracting of society, especially those from the certain ethnic. The influence of this ethnicity can be seen from community that comes from a particular ethnicity, such as Batak Toba, Batak Mandailing, and Chinese. This can affect other ethnic groups to be more primordial, and created a political culture in which one candidate selected one of which is based on ethnicity. Ethnic majority support in each district / city on the candidates can be seen in the following figure

Figure 3. Ethnic Support Based On The Ethnicity In Each District/Municipality



Source: survey 2013

In the direct elections of North Sumatera 2013, the ethnic factor plays an important role. Voters tend to vote for candidates from the same ethnicity. In other words, the issue of "native" is very effective to attract the attention of society (interview with Evi Novida, a Head of Election Commission of North Sumatera Province).

Figure 3 explained that ethnic similarity factor influencing people to choose a candidate for governor. However, at the same time those abstentions are also influenced by ethnicity. Sihalohe explained that there are several reason the abstention influenced by ethnicity, first, there are some different political view and attitude and constitute ethnic idea orientation ethnic to take choice governor candidate. Second, weakening support of ethnicity because pragmatic reason (Sihalohe, 2006). Pragmatic reason based on the argument of constructivism is flexible and changeable. In other words, ethnicity is very dynamic (Yang, 2000). This dynamic ethnic condition ultimately affects the ethnic political behaviour or abstention on the direct election in North Sumatera. Ethnic pragmatism can be proved based on giving a title or clan seems to be a commonplace and easy to do. Gatot Pudjo Nugroho, who came from the ethnic of Javanese, was awarded as "Marga Lubis" (a clan in

Mandailingnese) by head of Mandailingnese community. Gus Irawan Pasaribu whose identity as Mandailingnese awarded as "Marga Bangun" (a clan in Karonese) from Karo society and much more. It is a fact that is always found on the eve of direct elections. This condition explained the public that ethnicity was very open to receive even to give such awards to others. But on the other hand, this condition led to the negative effects namely ethnic internal conflict between them. When governor candidate earned a title clan from certain ethnic, it apparently led to protest and abstention from the same ethnicity conducted by the other public figures. This internal ethnic conflict was often prolonged conflict.

Institutional Rational : Its All About Election and Digitizing Democracy

After the fall of the Soeharto regime, it happened a very drastic expansion of the area, so the latest data from the Ministry of Home Affairs of Indonesia show that Indonesia consists of 34 Provinces (North Borneo is the latest province), 542 regencies/cities. Thus, the total is as much as 537 direct elections (in Jakarta, it is governor's race only), 2 national elections (legislative and presidential). This data does not include village elections at the village level, amounting to 76.655 villages. Post-New Order, this nation is more preoccupied to prioritize democratization process in terms of politics. This is reflected in many local and national elections in Indonesia. But unfortunately, this State is stuck in a procedural democracy. In fact, democracy is not just about elections. Moreover, democracy after the 1998 reform did not provide for the public welfare. When the highest number of vote measures democracy in election, ethnicity becomes a commodity for the political elite to gain the voice or the support of the multi-ethnic society. That multi-ethnic society could be analogous to "Pandan Leaves (Screw pine Leaves)" which is used for cooking. When cooking has become fragrant, the leaf is discarded. It means that when the political elite has gained the public position, then ethnicity is not considered anymore. The same thing described by Cornelis Lay. Lay explained that currently the concept of governance, the people are not something given but rather a political process (Lay, 2005). People have elections to determine the people's representative; actually the concept of representation is not a representation of the people but the other part of people. These conditions clearly impacted the great distance between the people and the people's representatives. This condition makes people become apathetic towards the political elite and democracy. Public apathy can be seen from the following survey.

Table 2. Is It Necessary To Follow The Election?

Respondents Response	Percentage
Yes	18 %
No	82 %

Source : Survey of Political Department, University of North Sumatera, 2013

Table 2 describe that the majority of respondents 82 % say that it is not necessary to follow the elections. Respondents who said no more need for the elections; they are alienated and marginalized in the political process so as to withdraw or avoid getting involved in the electoral process. Because there was a presumption that any mayoral candidate will not be able to bring change for the better that can be beneficial to the people. This is further influenced by the mistrust of the government as well as the

history of "track record" of the candidates for mayoral which are only considered bring "fresh air", but when they have the power, the candidates are just fighting for personal interests and their group, so that it can be said that politics do not have any meaning for them. Once, democracy is only understood as an election, and then it will lead to a change the meaning of democracy. I argue that the substance of democracy changes into a democracy digitizing as if democracy was just about the numbers. This condition has continued to grow rapidly when the media also supported. Democracy is only about elections and majority vote. In the other words, democracy is about numbers.

Institutional Norms : The Problematic Concept Of Citizenship

Besides the issue of public mistrust of the government, there are still important things that greatly affect the high abstentions, the problematic concept of citizenship. Citizens as supporters of a country are the basis for the country. In other words, citizens are one of the essential elements for a country, in addition to other elements. The people as part of a population, which remains the country, can interpret citizens themselves. Marshal explained that citizenship is the full membership of the community. He argued that citizenship as status bestows upon individuals equal rights and duties, liberties and constraints, power and responsibilities (Held, 2000). Citizenship will be turned into a modern nation when the national consciousness. In other words, it appears that the concept of nation inspired by equal members of the community. Meanwhile Giddens describes citizenship understood as an area of contestation or conflict. Each community will certainly struggle for rights. Giddens argued that state sovereignty helped foster the identity of subjects as political subjects as citizens. Nationalism is the solution to bring cultural sensibility of sovereignty. And the role of the State is required to maintain the relationship between communities. Then the state has an obligation to treat all as equal for community.

Lets have a look at the citizenship in Indonesia. Actually, Indonesia has a citizenship law is law No. 12 of 2006 on Citizenship of the Republic of Indonesia as a substitute for the previous Law No. 62 of 1958 and 1976. Law No.12 of 2006 was created because of the experience of discrimination against certain groups that discriminate between native citizens and foreigners (not original) primordial basis (race, ethnicity). Original concept of the Indonesian people as stated in the Law No. 12 of 2006 and chapter 2 explanations is "that became an Indonesian citizen since birth and never acquired another citizenship on his own." The question now is whether Law No. 12 of 2006 has succeeded in establishing the concept of citizenship that affect the creation of nation building. In fact there are still many cases of discrimination against certain ethnic or inter-ethnic conflict. This also describes the conditions of the Nation Building in Indonesia is not yet finished.

Based on interview with Hanif, researcher in Local Politics and Regional Autonomy, UGM explained that maybe Indonesia does not have citizenship concept. Indonesia only has the community concept in the state. It can be easily seen in real life when people of Indonesia easy to close access to major roads for weddings or other events. This condition is often encountered because of the approach taken is the community. Therefore, closing the road is not unusual because of the way it is his community.

Decentralization And Corrupt Elite

The next question is how the impact of decentralization in the city of Medan. Explained at the beginning that decentralization is the transfer of authority from central government to local government. Transfer of the authority intended that local government can provide better services to the local community. In other words, make people closer with decentralization of public service. But the fact that poverty is increasing in the city of Medan. Central Statistics Agency (BPS), as of January 1, 2011, the number of poor people in the city of Medan increased to 9.92% from 6.40% in 2010. Ironically is the guardian of Medan and North Sumatra Governor Province always experience the same case, namely corruption. Corruption cases had experienced Medan since 2005 at which time it was first held direct elections. The impact of corruption is from 2005 to 2010 there have been five times Mayor of Medan changes. History repeated when elected mayor in 2010 exposed cases of corruption. It is explained that the low level of community participation not only hinders the sustainability of democracy but also impact the implementation of decentralization. Community participation should result transformative leadership but in fact the low people participation create a corrupt leader.

What Can Be Done?

Create Harmony among Democracy Activities, The State Capability and Citizenship.

I argue when democracy is more focused on the issue of elections, then the sustainability of democracy is very hard to be realized. A very large budget to implement the state elections led to only focus on the election. The result is the first, election spending State funds do not have a significant impact on improving people's welfare. Secondly, the fact that election in Indonesia always ends up with a conflict between supporters or ethnic conflict. This suggests that state institutions were not able to perform well without violent elections. In other words that there should be efforts to improve or increase state institutions in implementing democratic activities. The forms of democracy such as elections and free speech must be protected or covered by an excellent capability of state institutions. State institutions must always be present in a very pluralistic society. Democracy activities protected by the State should be implemented with a clear concept about citizenship.

Appreciation To The Multi-Ethnic Community To Be Patriotism By The Government

Ghia Nodia explained that the illiberal flesh of ethnicity cannot be wholly denied, but it can be tamed if dealt with reasonably. Ethnic pride in common ancestors, a glorious history, great traditions, a shared language, a noble culture and so on; can be sublimated into patriotic esteem for the institutions and achievements created by a democratic not just ethnic "we" (Diamond, 1994). This patriotism will be a bridge between ethnicity and country. During this time, the State is less able to build the spirit of patriotism. When the spirit of patriotism can be realized, then all the multi-ethnic community actions will speak about the goodness of the State. The problem now is the State is often not present when a multi-ethnic society in conflict. State presence is needed in the midst of people who are very vulnerable to conflict. The presence of the State should not only be a problem solver for a while but the State

must also give appreciation to the community to build a spirit of patriotism. The spirit of patriotism is performed to establish the concept of citizenship and nationalism. State building and the concept of citizenship to all ethnic nationalism was without a majority or minority ethnic importance. When this concept is not present emerging racism, chauvinism or even fascism.

Conclusion

Based on the discussion of ethnicity and sustainable democracy, there were several things that could be concluded, first abstention is not given. Abstention born as defined and redefined, constructed for political and social interests. Second, there are four abstention framework based on constructivism approach that it's a individual rationality, individual norms, institutional rationality and institutional norms. These four basic arguments are greatly affecting the abstention in direct election. Third, abstention affect the low people participation and hinder sustainability democracy and decentralization, such as corruption and poverty. Fourth, there are several solutions to create sustainability democracy, for example create aligned citizenship or nationalism with democracy activities and the state capability. Beside that the state must establish and gives appreciation to the multi-ethnic community to be patriotism for the country.

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Funding the Crowd: Processes of Internationalisation at a Japanese University

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0728**Abstract**

These research notes will discuss the organisational context of restructuring processes in internationalisation at a Japanese university. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has put forth a series of funding projects designed “to nurture internationally competent individuals by creating an academic environment where international and Japanese students can learn from one another and build lasting international bonds that will propel them into the international scene” (MEXT, 2012). The most recent phase of funding projects to promote internationalisation began in April 2014 with the Super Global University project. This newest funding program seeks to narrow the focus at a select few top institutions for the government’s internationalisation goals at the tertiary level. As reiterated in the recently released National University Reform Plan, MEXT focuses on internationalisation of the university in Japan at multiple levels, including the following: Japanese students studying overseas; Foreign students studying in Japan; Increasing full-time foreign faculty; Reforming the wage system; Placing at least 10 Japanese universities in the world rankings of top 100 universities within 10 years; Strengthening governance; and strengthening the assessment system. The author argues that two key processes are at the root of the restructuring of Japanese universities 1) accountability in the form of applying the practices of international quality assurance standards to tertiary education, 2) organizational management systems with the efficacy to implement the large-scale change processes internationalisation requires. To explore these processes, the presentation considers first-hand practical applications of organizational operations at a large national university in Japan.

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I. Introduction

University reform and global human resources development are a policy focus of the Abe government. On the one hand there is a concern for sustaining Japan's economic competitiveness by establishing Japanese universities as competitive centers of research and innovation capable of producing global-skills-ready graduates, while on the other hand there is a desire to assert Japan's presence in the world education market. From the perspective of international politics, the importance of education as a soft-power influence is well understood. Akihiko Kawaguchi, as vice-president of the National Institution for Academic degrees and University Evaluation, noted that "[n]o country can win hearts and minds with superior economic or military power alone anymore" (p. 77). With these considerations in mind, the Japanese government Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has set a defining goal of achieving world rankings in the top 100 for ten Japanese universities over the next ten years. Toward this end a new funding project – Super Global University Project – has been launched in 2014 to provide additional educational funding support up to ¥5 billion to ten selected elite private and national universities. The demands on the university to cater to divergent "customers" are greatly at odds. The university is called upon to prepare students for the domestic workforce, accommodate government aspirations for internationalization, become centers for innovation and research excellence, be a positive force in the local community while restructuring organizational operations to accommodate harmonization with elite international networks. Two key processes are at the root of the restructuring of Japanese universities 1) accountability in the form of applying the practices of international quality assurance standards to tertiary education, 2) organizational management systems with the efficacy to implement the large-scale change processes internationalisation requires. The incongruity of these processes with the existing operational structure result in a system that incentivizes procuring funds and spending them.

II. Super Global University Project

The Super Global University project provides incentive funding to help achieve the goals of the 2012 National University Reform Plan, albeit at only a few selected elite institutions. In the National University Reform Plan, MEXT focused broadly on internationalisation of the university in Japan at multiple levels, including the following: Japanese students studying overseas; Foreign students studying in Japan; Increasing full-time foreign faculty; Reforming the wage system; Placing at least 10 Japanese universities in the world rankings of top 100 universities within 10 years; Strengthening governance; and strengthening the assessment system. These Reform Plan targets form the founding rationale for the Super Global University Project.

The project offers two tiers of support, Type A and Type B with different scope for the targets.

Type A

Project aims:

- to be classified in the top 100 world ranking within 10 years

Funding:

- ¥500 million per year for up to 10 years

Type B

Project aims:

- to help gain traction supporting globalization in society

Funding:

- ¥300 million per year for institutions with >1000 students
- ¥200 million per year for institutions with <1000 students

The Type A funding will be awarded to ten universities, while Type B will go to twenty different tertiary education institutions.

More specifically, Super Global University target plans include reforms in four main categories with various sub-points, as noted below:

- 1) Globalization
 - a) Diversity (Faculty, Staff, Gender, Student)
 - b) International Exchange
 - c) Study abroad support system
 - d) Language skills (foreign language instruction, English-language degrees)
 - e) International standards (GPA system, AOL, harmonization)
 - f) Level of internationalization
- 2) Governance reform
 - a) Personnel
 - b) Governance
- 3) Education reform
 - a) Quality control
 - b) Entrance exam reform
 - c) Academic flexibility
- 4) Others
 - a) Disclosure of education outcomes (graduation rate, dropout rate, employment rate, etc.)

Although the Super Global University document itself purveys relatively directed targets, these are still generally in an outline form.

III. Quality assurance – output vs. outcome

Nonetheless, a difference in performance measurement implemented in Japanese national university corporations and in U.S. and British governmental institutions needs to be pointed out; as stated above, objectives are, in practice, set by the national university corporations themselves, and although MEXT presents several objectives concerning education and research that should be part of the midterm objectives (Table 3-1), no details are given. Thus it would be appropriate to say that MEXT only provides an outline (Kawaguchi, p. 58-59).

Performance measurement is defined as setting indices to indicate outcomes and measuring them regularly. According to this definition, objectives need to be explained using such outcome indices. In reality, however, many national university corporations use qualitative descriptions rather than numerical

targets to explain their midterm objectives. As well, many objectives contain outputs, implementation processes, or inputs rather than outcomes (Kawaguchi, p. 59).

At the Quality Assurance International Conference held in Brussels, Belgium 14 December 2011, Dr. Akihiko Kawaguchi, then vice-president of the National Institution for Academic Degrees and University Evaluation (NIAD-UE) gave a presentation entitled “Globalizing Quality Assurance of Higher Education in Japan”. He discussed the standards for the evaluation and accreditation of universities with a view to making a comparison of the old and new standards. In the shift from the First cycle FY2005-2011 NIAD-UE reforms to the Second cycle FY2012-2018, three new points in particular were highlighted by Kawaguchi:

6. Learning outcomes
8. Internal quality assurance system of teaching and learning
10. Public information on teaching and learning

The Super Global University targets follow from the National University Reform and likewise are in line with these long-term plans articulated by the national accrediting agency, NIAD-UE. This makes clear the intention to pursue tertiary education practices focused on learning outcomes, assurance of learning and quality assurance systems at least in part as a means to achieve harmonization with elite international networks.

IV. Type of university in contention

Previous funding projects have contributed to reinforcing the elite tertiary institutions in Japan. MEXT funded projects such as Research University 11, Global 30, and the Project for the Promotion of Global Human Resource Development have singled out a select few dozen or so elite universities among the 800+ tertiary institutions in operation in Japan.

V. Funding process

Essentially what this means is the government allocates funding resources for internationalization projects, and the money is dispersed through various grants and award mechanisms, with the net result that lots of people get extra money with which they travel, buy computers, change the name of things to “global something something”, and one way or another the money goes back into the economy. To what extent institutional reform occurs as a result is highly questionable as the form of accountability in place continues to be outputs, implementation processes and inputs rather than outcome based. In practice these amount to a box-checking exercise. At all institutional levels from individual researchers, to groups, to large-scale departmental programs, the system incentivizes procuring funds and spending them. It’s not that nothing happens, but nothing is required to happen.

VI. Conclusion

These two key processes are at the root of the restructuring of Japanese universities 1) accountability in the form of applying the practices of international quality assurance standards to tertiary education, 2) organizational management systems with the efficacy to implement the large-scale change processes internationalisation requires.

A fundamental incongruence is that the function of the university as an institution in Japanese society only partially corresponds to the elite international networks in tertiary education. The core operational systems at root of the functioning of the organization are output oriented. Again, it is not that nothing happens, but systematically nothing of any great consequence is required to happen. The requirements amount to a box-checking function. A meeting took place. Yes. The students attended 15 classes for the course. Yes. A new building Global Something was opened. Yes. The operational arms of Japanese society have spread out grand funding projects with the nominal task of enticing a few elite universities to implement accountability practices and new organizational management systems. These projects are driven primarily top-down to satisfy the government's political and economic aspirations. To date, essentially what this means is the government allocates funding resources for internationalization projects, and the money is dispersed through various grants and award mechanisms, with the net the result that lots of people in the education sector get extra money with which they travel, buy computers, change the name of buildings and operations to "global something something", and the money goes back into the economy. At present, the processes of internationalization at a Japanese university might best be summarized as funding the crowd.

On a final note, the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (the operations wing to the executive MEXT) renders into English the Japanese katakana script sounds of 'Super Global University' (スーパーグローバル大学) as "Top Global University". In the Japanese, 'super global' is in katakana (スーパーグローバル) and 'university' is in kanji characters (大学). The point here is the katakana, one of three Japanese scripts. It is primarily used for expressing non-Japanese words into Japanese syllabary. Though beyond the scope of this paper, that foreign words adopted into the language may be used for naming a project focused on internationalization yet when translated back into English are perhaps better expressed with different terms is a point worth commenting on here in passing. This case of adopted language is not unique; however, it is suggestive of broader challenges of internationalization. Not least of these may be in terms of the impact of language use on identity, and the potentially dangerous currency of power implicit in the adoption and use of popular terms and ideologies.

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Constructing an Interactive Voice Response Mechanism for Long-Term Care Service

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Abstract

The population aged over 65 is rapidly growing worldwide. It has increased the demand for long-term care. The ultimate goal of health care for elders in long-term care institutes is not only to extend life but to raise their quality of life. However, the World Health Organization Quality of Life-BREF was designed as a self-administered questionnaire. It cannot be applied to elders who are unable to read. Applying information and communication technology, human can use natural speech communicate and interactive with machines. Thus, this study develops an interactive voice response mechanism to measure the quality of life based on the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire of a novel mechanism. It displays the questionnaire in the form of voice and uses voice recognition to collect answers from the elders. The user-friendly interface requires neither visual attention to read questionnaire nor the use of hands to write answers. Through natural voice and easy access interface, this mechanism can assist elders to complete the questionnaire independently. The major advantages of self-administration assessment over face-to-face interview are the reduced number of reviewer, time, and the result of the questionnaire better reflects the truth of respondents' feeling or thought. In the beginning phase of the experiment, 15 elderly were recruited as respondents. The result shows that this mechanism is reliable and valid in assessing quality of life of long-term institutes' elderly. This mechanism can also perform statistical analysis which is shown in visual graphs to give advice on making clinical decisions to improve the quality of medical care.

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1. Introduction

Due to the continuous progress of the medical technology and medical equipment coupled with the improvement of living standards, the average life expectancy continues to extend and the number of the population aged over 60 is in a more rapid increase compared to the population of young adults in many countries (World Health Organization, 2012). According to the statistics of the World Health Organization (WHO), the number of people aged over 60 would grow exponentially from 11% in the world to 22% during 2000 and 2050 (World Health Organization, 2012). Specific to this change of social structure, the WHO also actively promotes the policies enable the elderly to live as independently as possible and takes the active and healthy aging as the goal. Health is not limited to the focus on the changes in mortality, the amount of morbidity or the presence and absence of disease or physical pain. The WHO defines health as a person having a complete physical, mental and social well-being.

Many assessment tools have been developed in succession in the health measuring methods, such as the Mini-Mental State Examination Scale (MMSE), SF-36 Form (Short Form-36) and Activities of Daily Living Scale (ADLs). However, these tools are all made for the measurement specific to the special symptoms or degree of disability without making the complete conceptual design in the overall quality of life (Fitzpatrick et al., 1992; Tourangeau, Rasinski, Jobe, Smith, & Pratt, 1997). Therefore, this paper uses the WHO quality of life scale as the assessment tool to find out the old people's satisfaction on the overall quality of life.

The WHOQOL-100 questionnaire (World Health Organization Quality of Life -100) is a general health-related quality of life measurement and assessment questionnaire designed by the WHO in combination with scholars in different countries and regions of the world. Since the WHOQOL-100 has 100 questionnaire questions, therefore, after taking into account the time and the applicability of the test, this paper adopts the simplified version (WHOQOL-BREF) re-developed by experts and verified to have good reliability and validity as the questionnaire. The WHOQOL-BREF contains four domains: the physical health domain, psychological domain, social relationships domain and environmental domain. The WHOQOL questionnaire mainly adopts the self-administered method to carry out the test. It can only be administered by the tester through the face-to-face interview in the event that the person involved could not self-administer it due to some special factors. In the past, some literatures have carried out some experiments specific to the testing methods. According to the results, the results produced by the self-administered, face-to-face interview, telephone interview and other test methods have some deviation due to the stimulation given by the tester and the environment control (Jäckle, Roberts, & Lynn, 2010; Lindhjem & Navrud, 2011; Marta-Pedroso, Freitas, & Domingos, 2007). In addition, the literatures point out that the electronic method of answering questions has a higher probability than the traditional paper method for the questionnaire questions specific to personal privacy (Tourangeau, Rasinski, Jobe, Smith, & Pratt, 1997; Tourangeau & Smith, 1996).

The previous literatures point out that in the use of information technology products, it is more difficult for the elderly than the young people (Hossain, 2014; Teixeira et al., 2012), with their low willingness to use mainly due to the complexity of the user interface. To this end, we adopt the speech answering model to provide the elderly

with the most convenient method to fulfill the questionnaire test by answering the questions directly in the oral manner through the questionnaire broadcasted by the system. For the elderly population with the reading or writing inconvenience, the speech method can increase the answering willingness and further understand the self-recognized feeling towards the quality of life of the elderly. It can prevent the questionnaire question from being skipped or missed to fill to reduce the questions missed to answer through the computer's automatic speech system program design.

To enable the elderly to self-assess the quality of life periodically to understand the individual subjective feeling towards life, the speech system is adopted to help gather the feedback questionnaires completed by the elderly in all stages in order to further analyze and track the status of the quality of life of the elderly.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the establishment of the speech interactive system; Section 3 discusses the research results; and Section 4 offers the conclusions and suggestions.

2. Method

The interactive speech response system proposed in this study is built on the basic target of achieving a human-computer interactive interface, including the speech technology application, database design and development as well as suggestions on the decision support analysis. The detailed description is provided as follows:

2.1 Interactive voice response mechanism process

Figure 1 shows the system implementation process. After the system enters into the home page, it would first carry out the initial setting, including: the elderly identification code, the language selection of Mandarin or Taiwanese as well as whether displaying the questionnaire content or substituting the people with virtual characters in the testing process. In this process, the medical care personnel can assist the input by the speech method. After the setting is completed, it enters into the system test where it first introduces the system test method and process by speech explaining the test method in details to the elderly and then enters into the test questions officially. There are 28 questions in total. In the course of answering each question, if the subject selects the question displaying screen, then only one question would appear on the screen each time to maintain the simplicity of screen; and after the system broadcasts the question in audio form, the elderly can make the appropriate response according to the question they heard. The system would not limit the elderly to answer the questions with the Arabic numerals of 1-5 or the choices from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied" in the five-point Likert scale. The system would properly store the values based on the audio information it reads. After the elderly provide the answer, the system would broadcast the answer content for confirm again. In the event that a mistake is recognized, the elderly would be requested to answer the question once again. Because of the reconfirmation of each question by the elderly, it would not display all answers after all questions are covered to simplify the operating and enable the elderly to complete the questionnaire easily. The system would be automatically shut down when the answering is completed.

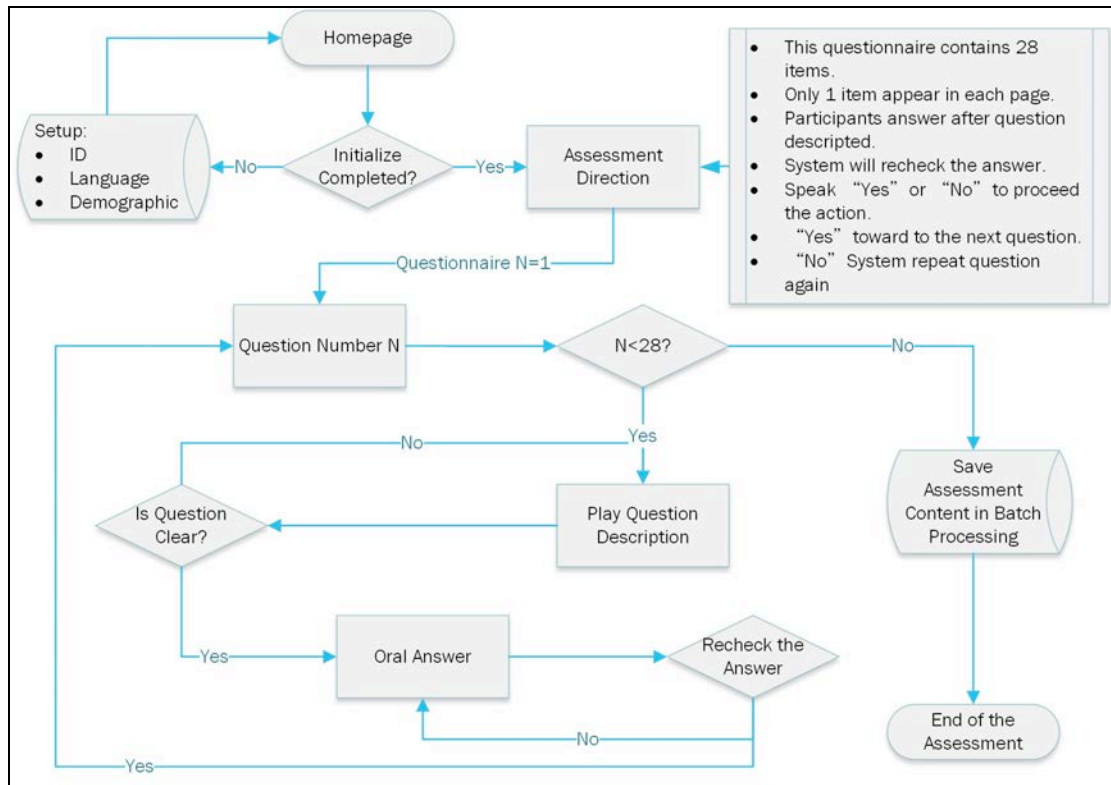


Fig 1 System implementation process

2.2 System architecture

The system architecture in this study is divided into four modules: graphical user interface module, speech technology module, statistical module and decision analysis module, as shown in Figure 2.

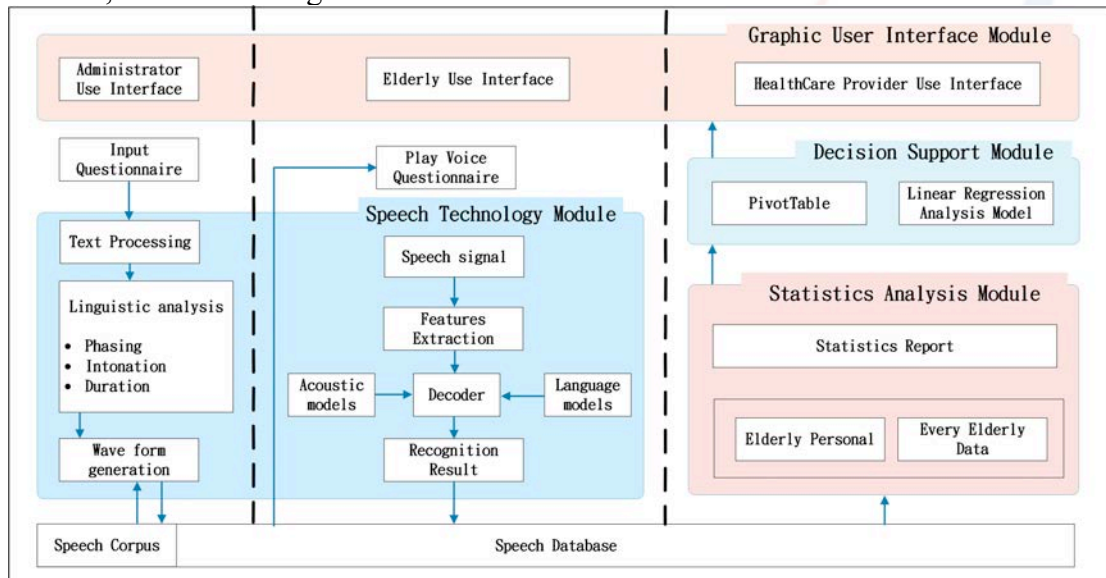


Figure 2 System architecture

2.2.1 Speech technology module

The speech technology module is divided into three parts: the first part is to perform the word processing to the questionnaire content in the form of text file after importing the text information through the text-to-speech technology (TTS), segmenting the sentences in the text content and converting them into the colloquial languages and implementing the numerical value normalization; and then conducting the marker analysis on the word segmentation, tone and part of speech, and the synthesize and export the waveforms after the phonology is generated to the users for the questionnaire test; the second part is to process the audio answers to the questionnaire by the elderly with the Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) technology, importing the audio information through a microphone to recognize and immediately convert the information into the numerical pattern to be stored in the database, and the last part is the speech control part to allow the users to control the questionnaire through speaking to operate the “OK” to proceed to the next question testing or the “Cancel” to allow the system to re-broadcast the question so that the elderly can correct the answer content.

2.2.2 Graphic user interface module

The system mainly consists of the elderly and health care personnel viewing screens. On the screen used by the elderly presents the system page, namely, when answering the questionnaire on a mobile device. An old person answers the question by way of speaking “one”, “two”, “three”, “four” or “five”, then the system would make automatic recognition and re-read the user’s answer for confirmation again; and then the person would follow the system instruction to proceed to the next question or re-answer the satisfaction question. The system would display only one question on each page to avoid the complication of screen caused by too many contents. As shown in Figure 3, the question is presented to the maximum visual range to maintain the consistency of screen and the viewing quality.



Figure 3 voice response mechanism display

In the health care personnel viewing screen, the feedback data of the completed audio questionnaire test will be processed, converted and presented to the medical care personnel in the form of useful chart information. The information presented mainly includes the statistical charts of the summed value and average value of the simple numeric data and the further decision support suggestion charts. In the classification of data, the comparison would be made between the trend chart of the continuity of the individual old persons before and during the measurement and the numerical feedback by the overall elderly to find out whether the life quality performance of an old person living in a group is normal or different from that of the other elderly; in addition, the medical care personnel are consulted to further understand these special elderly needing care to provide the proper medical treatment and services.

2.2.3 Statistics and analyze module

The score range of each question in the WHOQOL is from 1 point to 5 points. The scoring of each domain is to add up, average and multiply by four the scores of the questions in the same domain, which obtains the domain score. So, the univariate and multivariate regression analysis are carried out on the obtained scores of the four domains through the Generalized Linear Model (GLM) by setting the obtained scores of the four domains as the dependent variables and the basic demographic data as the independent variables.

The periodic test and design is incorporated into the system where in every two weeks, the questionnaire would be automatically pushed to the mobile carriers for periodic tests. Through the periodic answering by the elderly, the system is able to collect the variation trends of the life quality of the elderly in different periods and the questionnaire feedback information in various stages to increase the authenticity and accuracy of the judgment on the satisfaction of the elderly. The numerical values of the answers by the elderly are converted to be presented in the forms of the bar chart, radar chart and box plot through the numerical information stored in the database and the statistical analysis software SPSS20 to analyze the score trend charts of the four domains of the elderly in various periods. Also, the data of all old people having been tested by the questionnaire would be collected and sorted at the meanwhile to develop the overall distribution chart so as to improve the quality of viewing by physicians. We have also incorporated the decision support analysis technology to provide appropriate suggestions for the physicians in making the diagnosis.

2.3 System environment

The system environment can be divided into three parts, including the front-end data collection, mediation analysis software and final data trend analysis chart provided to be viewed by the medical care personnel. As shown in Figure 4, the system conducts the quality of life questionnaire measurement specific to the elderly in the long-term care institutions. The medical care personnel in the institutions can assist the elderly to fulfill the initial registration and setting of personal data. Then the elderly would answer the questionnaire by the oral method and the interaction with the system. After the entire questionnaire answers are completed, the system would send them to the rear end for data analysis and processing and finally present the assessment score distribution trend chart for the use and reference by the medical care personnel.

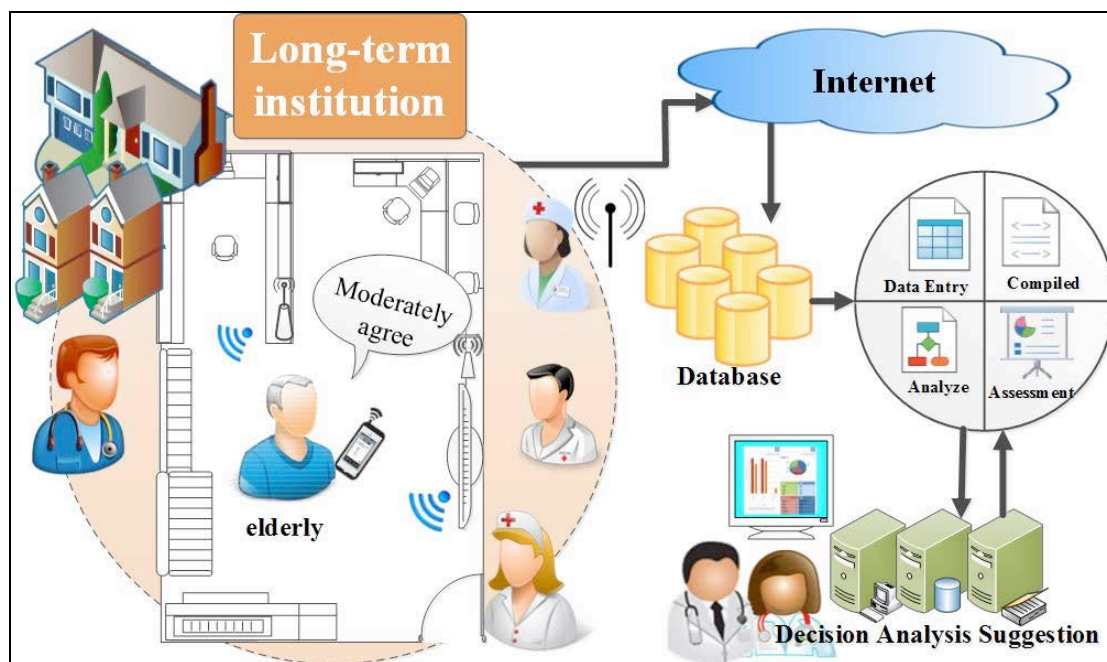


Fig 4 Interactive voice response mechanism system environment

2.4 Development tool

This system is compiled by the Java programming language in the Android development environment. The database is managed by the MySQL software. The interactive audio questionnaire system is downloaded through the wireless network in the institutions. After logging in the account with the personal identification code under the assistance by the medical care personnel, the questionnaire test can be started. At the end of the measurement of each time, namely, time when the user touches the upload command, the cell phone would transmit the assessment and measurement results via the 802.11g wireless technology to the database in one time for analysis and generate the assessment results. These series of data entry, compilation, analysis and final assessment would be summarized in the statistical analysis module. 3.1

3. Data analysis

Table 1 presents the average values for each domain of the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire. Internal consistency scores for items within each domain were satisfactory, with Cronbach’s α scores ranging between 0.67~0.85.

Table 1 Reliability of the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire internal consistency.

Table 1 Internal consistency of the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire

WHOQOL-BREF Domain	Number of items	Mean score \pm SD	Cronbach’s α
Physical Health	7	14.3061 \pm 1.96	.674
Psychological	6	13.1905 \pm 2.50	.690
Environment	7	13.5397 \pm 2.44	.675

Social Relationship

4

13.6071 \pm 2.27

.751

3.1 Medical user interface

When elderly finished the WHOQOL-BREF questionnaire, the data transmission over a wireless network, sent to the back-end database for analysis, and shown in visual graphs for health care.

Figure 6 shows box plots of the data relative physical health and gender. The length of the box represents the interquartile range. The middle bar represents the median. Outer edges of the box represent the 25th and the 75th percentiles.

In order to find lower score in four domain, a radar chart are used in this study to display the comparison between the latest three assessment result of an elderly and the average value, as shown at figure 7 which is capable to provide clinical care recommendation for medical staff.

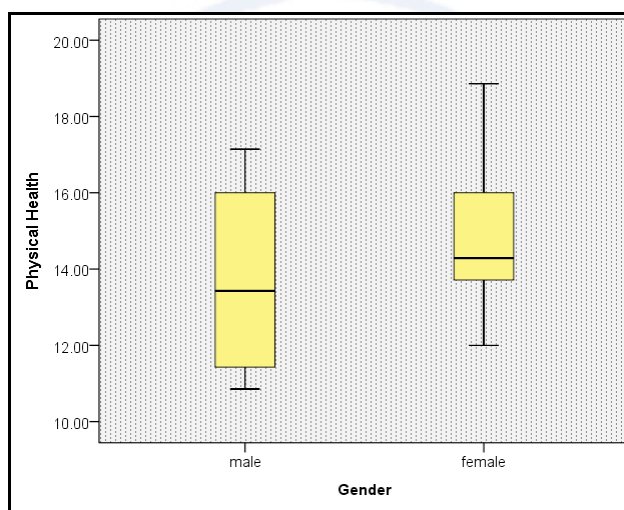


Figure 6 Box plots displaying distribution of physical health in male and female

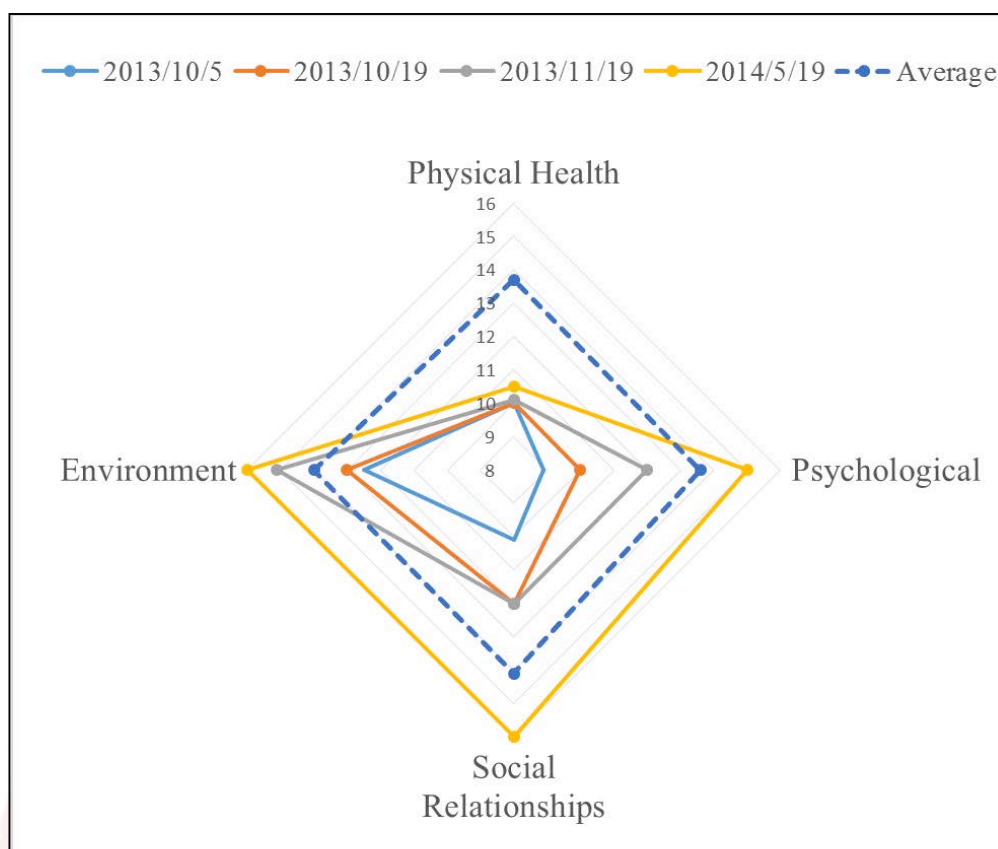


Fig7 Radar chart comparing four scores on four domains

4. Conclusion

In this study, a set of audio questionnaire system in combination with the speech technology is constructed and provided to the elderly in the long-term institutions as the speech answering system of the quality of life satisfaction survey, making the questionnaire testing method easier and thus increasing the willingness of the subjects to be involved in the questionnaire survey. The surveys are performed in a periodic and continuous manner on the elderly to analyze the score trends in different periods. In the tester analysis part, the operating process of the traditional questionnaire is simplified. The answers completed by the subjects would be transmitted through the wireless network to the database for analysis, increasing the efficiency of questionnaire survey. In the medical care personnel viewing part, the data support is presented in the clear and concise charts, improving the medical service quality of the long-term care institutions.

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Self-Regulated Learning Correlated to Psychological Well-Being among Postgraduate Students

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Abstract

Taking graduate courses is a dream of every person to be able to continue to develop capabilities in the field of education. Choosing a graduate program is not an easy thing to do each individual, the need for self-regulated learning strategies to achieve learning objectives. Most people are who take graduate course are the people who are already working, married and have other activities outside. This affects their psychological well-being.

This study aims to determine whether there is correlation between self - regulated learning and psychological well - being in graduate student in Jakarta. The sampling method used is the sampling area and sample number as many as 302 people. This research uses two scales measuring instruments, namely the scale of self - regulated learning developed by Woltres (2003) and the scale of psychological well - being developed by Ryff (2003). Reliability value of self - regulated learning by 0776 made up of 50 items, while psychological well-being of 0791 consisted of 42 items.

Based on the analysis it was found that there is a relationship between self-regulated learning with psychological well - being on postgraduate student. It can be seen from the value of $\alpha < 0,05$ was $\alpha = 0.000$ which.

Keywords: Self-Regulated Learning, Postgraduate, Psychological Well-Being

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Introduction

Currently an era filled with competition in various aspects and areas of life, one for developing countries, including Indonesia. Responsibility in matters of natural resources is one of them charged to education, hence expected to create humans who are able to think critically, have extensive knowledge, and expected to be high intellectual human figure so that it becomes a quality of human resources. A currently available job in Indonesia is not proportional to the amount of labor available. This makes the competition for jobs becomes very tight (Handianto & Johan, 2006). Based on the results of the Central Bureau of Statistics there were 237.5 million population of Indonesia (2010) with the working population reached 114.0 million people (2013), while the Unemployment Rate (TPT) in Indonesia reached 5.92 per cent (2013). This makes working in Indonesia's competitiveness is getting tight.

The opportunity to get a job would be much easier if a job seeker has a high educational background. Education is one of the important processes that must be obtained in each individual life, which consists of all the learning experiences that take place in environment and all life and all life situations that affect the growth of the individual. Therefore, one must labor through education in a college or university. High-quality education with very satisfactory results expected by all students. Especially for graduate programs, many companies want graduates to obtain high quality human resources well. Investment in human resources (HR) or human investment, through education is a long process. To support educational success, it needs careful planning, in order to achieve educational outcomes that have been determined

In Indonesia, most people who take graduate courses are people who are already working, married and have other business. Postgraduate students own age range of 20 years and above. And some postgraduate students who choose to focus on completing their studies and careers first, these often done by women. In Indonesia, many people, especially parents worry that their children look up to the age of 29 years have not been married that urged her to seek a life partner. In addition, it is difficult to divide time between work, family, and their graduate studies, other pressures from within their internal affecting psychological well-being.

According to Ryff (1989), psychological well-being is the realization and achievement of the full potential of individuals in which individuals can receive all the advantages and disadvantages of himself, independent, able to foster positive relationships with others, can be mastered in a sense their environment can modify the environment to fit the desire, have a purpose in life, and continue to develop his personality. This makes the individual must be able to divide their time between work, family and their postgraduate studies.

Taking graduate courses is a dream of every individual to continue to develop skills in the field of education. Choosing a graduate program is not an easy thing to do each individual, there needs to be a strategy self - Regulated Learning in achieving the learning objectives. Self - regulated learning is a process of self-regulation and metacognition strategies involving, motivational, and behavioral in optimizing the learning process (Zimmerman, 1990).

In metacognition, students plan, organize, organizing, controlling, and evaluating purposes. Students are responsible for success and failure, have an intrinsic interest in the face of which refers to a motivational task. As well as behavioral, students seeking help and input, creating an optimal learning environment, and provide instruction and reinforcement against him (Aronson, 2002).

In addition to required to be able to manage learning by using strategies of self-regulated learning, graduate students must be able to realize the potential that exists within them.

Theory

Psychology Well-Being

In the opinion of Ryff (in Widyati Ama & Utami, 2012) psychological well-being is a term used to describe the psychological health of individuals by fulfilling the criteria of positive psychological functioning (positive psychological functioning).

According to Keyes, Shmotkin and Ryff (in Anggraeni T. & Cahyanti IY, 2012) Psychological well-being and life satisfaction not only affects the balance between positive and negative affective, but also involving the perception of engagement with the challenges during life.

Ryff research results (in Dwipayamai, 2013) which states that the aspects that make up the psychological well-being, among others: Self-acceptance, Positive relations with others, Autonomy, Environmental mastery, Purpose in life, and personal growth.

According to Ryff and Keyes (in Yudianto F., 2011) there are several factors that affect the psychological well - being, namely demographic factors, such as Age, Education Level, Gender, and Socioeconomic Status.

Self-Regulated Learning

Purwanto (in Siddeeq ADN & Mujidin, 2012) self - regulated learning is literally composed of two components, namely the self - which means regulated and managed self-learning means learning. Self - regulated learning as a whole can be interpreted as a self-management in a managed learning or learning. Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons (1990) stated that self - regulated learning is the concept of how a student becomes a regulator for their own learning.

In the opinion of Eggen (2004) in Daulay (2012) also adds that students who learn to self-regulation will think and act to achieve the academic learning goals, identifying objectives, implement, and maintain the strategies used to achieve these goals, and activate, modify, and maintain the way of learning in the environment.

According to Schunk and Zimmerman (Ropp, 1998) states that self-regulated learning includes three aspects, further Wolters et al (2003, in Ishtifa, 2011) describes in detail the implementation of the strategy aspect of self - regulated learning as follows:

1. Cognitive
Strategies to control or regulate cognition includes various cognitive and metacognitive activity that requires individuals involved to adapt and change cognition. in the cognitive aspects of the strategy are as follows: rehearsal, elaboration, organization, and metacognition regulation.
2. Motivation
Strategies for regulating motivation involves purposeful activity in initiating, regulating or add willingness to initiate, prepare for the next task, or completing certain activities or to the purpose. Regulation of motivation is all thought, action or behavior which students seek to influence the selection, business and academic task persistence. Regulation of motivation include Self – consequence, environment structuring, Mastery self – talk, Performance or extrinsic self – talk, Relative ability self – talk, interest enhancement strategies, and Personal interest.
3. Behavior
The strategy is an attempt to regulate the behavior of individuals to control their own behavior appears. Regulation includes regulation of business behavior (effort regulation), time and the environment (time / study environment) is a set time and place students with learning schedule to facilitate the learning process, and search assistance (help - seeking) is trying to get help from peers, teachers, and adults.

Postgraduate

According KBBI (2014) relates to the level of graduate education or postgraduate knowledge. The graduate program is an education program aimed at educating scientists is able to increase the scale of its role in the development of science and development.

Based on Indonesian Law No.. 2/1989 on National Education System translated into PP. 60/1999, the graduate program is one of the university institution which organizes academic education programs, in the form of education programs master and doctoral education programs.

Method

The populations in this study were postgraduate students in Jakarta. Subject of this study were 302 respondents. The sampling method used in this research is the technique probability technique the sampling area.

This study uses two scales measuring instruments, namely the scale of self - regulated learning developed by Woltres (2003) and the scale of psychological well - being developed by Ryff

Results

The results showed that there is a relationship between self - regulated learning and psychological well - being at graduate students, with a Cronbach alpha value on self-regulated learning of 0.776 and psychological well - being 0.791

Based on the categorization of self - regulated learning postgraduate students showed that 88.7% were in the low category, 8.9% were in the moderate category, and 2.3% were in the high category. As for the categorization of psychology well - being showed that 95.4% were in the low category, 4.3% were in the moderate category, and 0.3% were in the high category.

As for the t-test, based on the variables gender psychological well - being and self - regulated learning there is no difference. Then based education that is currently being pursued (S2 or S3) to the variable psychological well - being, while there were no differences for the variables of self - regulated learning with no significant difference of 0.919 ($p > 0.05$). And based on the status of married or unmarried showed that there is a difference in status between the married unmarried between the two variables, namely self - regulated learning by a significant 0.08 ($p > 0.05$) and psychology well - being with 0.666 significant ($p > 0.05$). In addition, based on the overall results of the correlation calculations show that there is a relationship between psychological well - being with self - regulated learning at the graduate student closely.

Based on the categorization of self - regulated learning is the low category (88.7%), which means that the need for improvement in making learning strategies such as elaboration, repetition, concentration while studying, etc.. And the results of categorization psychology well - being located in a low categorization (95%), which means that the factors of age, economic, gender and level of education affect graduate students.

Suggestion

1. For Students

Students who are taking graduate education must improve ourselves in making learning strategies to achieve learning objectives and improve themselves in fostering a positive relationship with the existing environment.

2. For Further Research

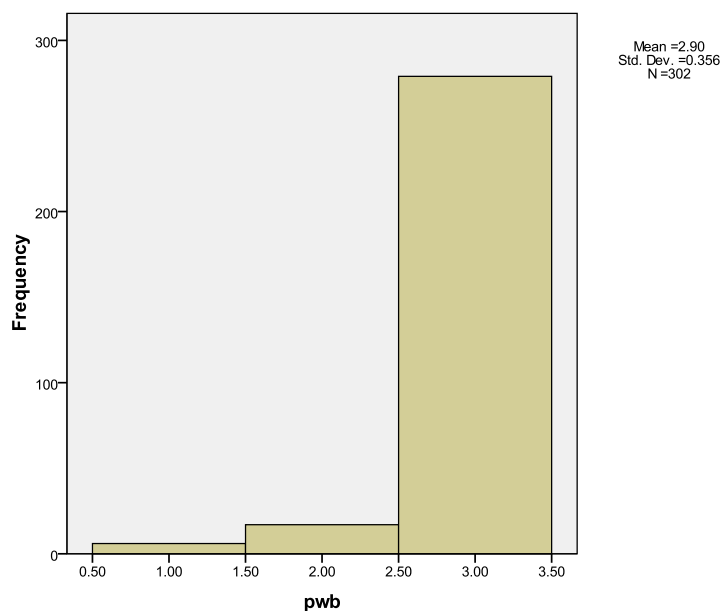
For further research is recommended to examine the variables of psychological well - being with other variables, as well as self - regulated learning with other variables. Researchers can then examine repopulating these variables with different sample or research subjects are specified (S2 or S3) so that the research will be more varied.

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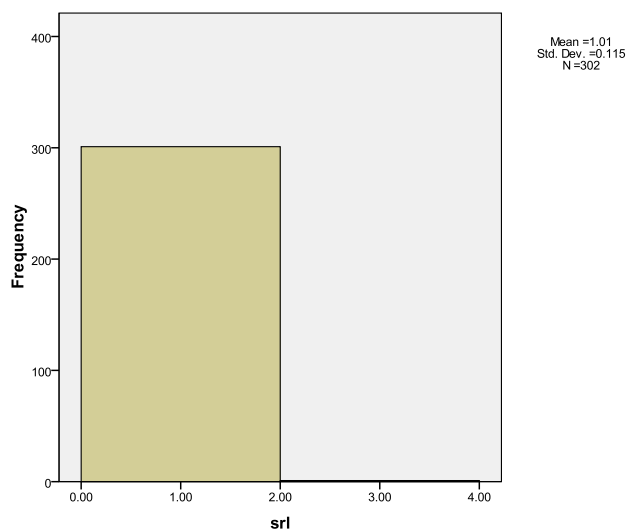
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Frequency psychological well – being



Frequency self – regulated learning



Correlations

		pwb	srl
pwb	Pearson Correlation	1	.200**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	302	302
srl	Pearson Correlation	.200**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	302	302

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

Note. Pwb = psychological well – being. Srl = self – regulated learning
significance level of 0.000 < 0.05


 The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping circular arcs: a light blue one in the foreground and a light red one behind it, creating a stylized circular frame around the text.

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Self-Regulation of Indonesian Red Cross Volunteer Correlated to Big 5 Personality

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Abstract

According to data BNPB since early 2014 until February 16, 2014, there were 282 disasters and cause 197 people were killed, 64 injured, 1.6 million displaced and tens of thousands of homes damaged by the disaster swept (detikNews : 2014). Along with the many disasters that it takes people who have a high sense of humanity to work directly in the disaster. People who devote themselves in humanitarian activities usually called volunteers because they always give all the energy and time without receiving payment or strings attached.

This study aims to measure how much the correlation between the Big 5 Personality with Self Regulation in volunteers in relation to humanitarian tasks where they have to go directly to localized disaster conditions are very concern. The subjects were volunteers who served in the Indonesian Red Cross. The method used is the Spearman's rho Correlation for examining the correlation between personality with self regulation of the volunteers. The result for this research are the self-regulation of Indonesia Red Cross Volunteer correlated with the big 5 personality with number of correlation are 0.131 and sig. (2 tailed) 0.023 (<0.005).

Keywords: Big 5 Personality, Self-Regulation, Volunteers



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Introduction

Indonesia was a country that was extremely vulnerable to a disaster. It was caused by tectonic plates that extends in Indonesia country often experience seismic activities that cause Indonesia as an area that is vulnerable to earthquakes, flood, landslides and tsunami as well as various kinds of other disasters. According to the data presented by the head of the national disaster mitigation Agency (BNPB) since 2002 until early 2014 noted there has been a natural disaster, both 1.093 disaster Hydrometeorology and Hydrometeorology with victim dies 190.375 soul not including residents who lost either due to tsunami, landslides or flooding (Antara Sumbar, 2014). But for Nangroe Aceh Darusalam areas affected by tsunami 10 years ago there are 229.826 missing persons and 186.983 were killed and nearly 50 % of buildings in this region were destroyed because the impact of the earthquake are followed by the tsunami of where altitudes to reach 9 meters.

Meanwhile, the number of natural disasters that occurred in Indonesia and the number of casualties so Indonesia Red Cross in reducing the risk of catastrophic impacts have been carrying out a Program of integrated community-based risk reduction (PERTAMA) since 2002. PERTAMA is a community-based program that encourages empowerment of community capacity to self in alerting reduce the risk and impact of disasters that occur in the environment. In addition to that relating to disaster relief, the Red Cross Indonesia activities provide emergency disaster that set up tents for refugees, set up public kitchens provide disaster to help in terms of food, primarily logistics, do the evacuation of victims of both died or injuries cuts and other residents around the disaster site. And then the Indonesia Red Cross in performing its activities, including in terms of disaster risk reduction and mitigation is all done by volunteers. A volunteer is a person who is sincere, selfless and volunteer to help others who are experiencing a disaster especially when Community Center became a victim of natural disasters. Volunteerism is an activity that is routinely done in the response to natural disasters where the volunteers have to plunge directly into the site of the disaster that his condition is very *memperhatikan*. However the activities of volunteers who do provide disaster gave an impact on themselves.

The impact that arises between them becomes difficult to sleep, constantly imprinted with the condition and the condition of victims of the disaster site that makes the volunteers experienced an anxiety disorder, The incidence of excessive fear in themselves against events of natural disasters that can befall them. Then there are some other effects that occur on them as there are some volunteers while returning from the scene of the disaster to be a young, and looks anxiously under certain conditions. There are also volunteers who became more religious and more grateful for what he had after returning from the disaster site.

To cope with the impact of his humanitarian activities arising out of disasters provide each volunteer is expected to have an impact on Self Regulation that appears in him not disturb and their personalities. Self Regulation is important is owned by someone including by every volunteer to helping him cope with the impact on themselves in the exercise of his activity to help combat and disaster risk reduction due to Self Regulation a person can control the State of the environment and emotional impulses that lead can interfere with the development of a person so that individuals who want

to develop will attempt to provide him everything possible in accomplishing the stages of development themselves (Alfiana, 2013).

However, Self Regulation, owned by volunteers depends on their personality because according to Allport's personality is defined as a dynamic organization in the individual who is the psikopisikal system and this determines uniquely the individual adjustment to the environment (Barrick & Ryan, 2003; in Mastuti, 2005). Then Fiest & Fiest (1998) defines personality as a relative settled pattern, trait, or characteristic in the disposition of individuals that give some measure of consistent about behavior (Mastuti, 2005). To illustrate the dimensions of this personality Golberg has researched systematically using the factor analysis results are similar to structures found by Norman in 1963. According to Golberg (1990; Larsen & Buss, 2008) consists of big 5: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, openness to intellect. In the meantime, the factor in big 5 according to Costa & McRae (1985; 1990; 1992; Pervin & John, 2001; in Mastuti, 2005) include: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness.

1. Theory

1.1 Big 5 Personality

Based on the results of research conducted 20 years ago, the classification of personality traits are strongly influenced by the attention and encouragement made by researchers into five factor personality models that are commonly referred to as the five factor model, the big five, and the high five. Dimensions in the big five are among others: Surgency, Agreeableness, Extraversion or Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Openness-Intellect. Lewis r. Goldberg concluded a systematic research that makes the big 5 is simpler with dimensions as follows (Larsen & Buss, 2008) :

Surgency or Extraversion : talkative, extraverted, assertive, forward, outspoken, versus shy, quite, introverted, bashful, inhibited. Agreeableness : sympathetic, kind, warm, understanding, sincere, versus unsympathetic, unkind, harsh, cruel. Conscientiousness : organized, neat, orderly, practical, prompt, meticulous, versus disorganized, disorderly, careless, sloppy, impractical. Emotional stability : calm, relaxed, stable, versus moody, anxious, insecure. Intellect or imagination : creative, imaginative, intellectual, versus uncreative, unimaginative, unintellectual.

1.2 Self Regulation

Self Regulation is one of the components driving the human personality (Boeree, Alfiana; in 2010, 2013). The term self regulation at first appear by Albert Bandura's social learning theory, which is defined as a person's ability to mengotrol its own behaviour (Boeree, Alfiana; in 2010, 2013). Self regulation is the internal motivation, which resulted in the onset of a person to determine the purpose of% u2013 purpose in her life, plan a strategy that will be used, as well as evaluate and modify behaviour to be performed (Pervin & Cervone, 2010; in Alfiana, 2013).

Self Regulation refers to a person's capacity to ignore or change their response. This is the process by which a person seeks to limit the immediate response and not it wants and then control it became a new response and in accordance with his wishes. Regulation means change, especially change to bring the behavior of specific standards such as on some of the ideas and goals in a person. The same as behavior change following a rule, conform to ideals or goals pursues a purpose is a very useful form of self regulation (Polivy, 1998; in Baumeister & Vohs, 2007).

Then according to the Zimmerman & Schunk (2008; in Kitsantas, Winsler, & Huie, 2008) from persektif social cognitive Self Regulation involves: 1. establish a specific goal. 2. make use of strategies such as elaborating, organizing work, and rehearsing. 3. display a level of high self progress as well as internal motivation. 4. conduct self monitoring and self reflecting on performance results.

Self regulation is the ability of a person to develop, implement, and maintain behaviors to arrive at the desired destination. There are 7 process in self regulation : Receiving relevant information, Evaluating the information and comparing it to norms, Triggering change, Searching for options, Formulating a plan, Implementing the plan, Assessing the plan's effectiveness (which recycles to steps 1 and 2).

2. Method

2.1 Subject

Subjects in the study were volunteers who joined in the Indonesia Red Cross organizations totaling 302 persons by using purposive sampling technique it contains a non probability sampling techniques.

2.2 Questionnaire

A. IPIP Big-Five Factor Markers

This research uses a measurement tool in the adaptation of the IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers graffiti that made by Golberg (2001; in Gow et al). IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers graffiti has 50 items consisting of 10 items for each aspect. Aspect in IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers graffiti among others: Extraversion, Agreeableness (E) (A), (C) Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability (ES), and Intellect (I) (Gow et al, 2005).

B. Self Regulation

Measuring instrument used to measure the self regulation of Self Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ). There are 7 stages in self regulation among others Evaluating (evaluating the information and compare it to the norm), Triggering (encouraging change), Searching (search options), Formulating (formulating the plan), Implementing (implementing the plan), Assessing (evektivitas rate plan).

2.3 Procedure

Data retrieval in this research was conducted by means of questionnaires spread IPIP Big-Five Factor Markers graffiti with number of items 50 and Self Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) which totaled 63 items to the Indonesia Red Cross volunteer in Tangerang City. While in the process of data analysis, this study uses data analysis Spearman rho.

3. Results

The subject of this research totaled 302 volunteers who are members of the Organization of the Indonesia Red Cross in Tangerang branch. The Data in this study were obtained by giving questionnaires to the subjects of 113 items with 50 items from Big 5 Personality and 63 items of Self Regulation.

Table 4.1 Subject

Subject	Frequency	Percent (%)
Men	179	59.3
Women	123	40.7
Total	302	100.0

Table 4.2 Range of Age

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
14 – 22	117	38.7
23 – 27	115	38.1
28 – 35	70	23.2
Total	302	100.0

Based on the table above of the subject there are 179 men with percentage with 59,3% and 123 women with percentage 40,7%. Then volunteers aged between 14-22 years there were 117 people, volunteers aged between 23-27 years there are 115, and volunteers who are aged 28-35 years there were 70 people.

3.1 Validity of IPIP Big-Five Factor Markers

Validity of the test results measuring instrument IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers shows from 50 items there are 35 items is valid and the 15 items fall. Then for each aspect of the big 5 personality Gets the number of items is valid on extraversion personality type there are 5 item valid and 5 item is fall. On agreeableness personality types there are 8 item is valid and 2 items fall. On conscientiousness personality types there are 5 items valid and 5 items fall. On the personality types of emotional stability there are 10 items is valid and there

are no items that fall. On intellect or imagination personality types are valid items 7 and 3 items fall.

3.2 Validity of Self Regulation Questionnaire

Validity of the measuring instrument Self Regulation Questionnaire there are 63 items there are 60 valid items and 3 items fall.

3.3 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability test results for IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers shows the value of Cronbach alpha is 0.621 it is mean that the IPIP Big 5 Factor Markers is Reliable. Then Reliability test results for Self Regulation Questionnaire, indicating the value of Cronbach alpha was 0.905 which means measuring this a Self Regulation Questionnaire is reliable.

3.4 Personality of Volunteer

Based on the results of research conducted revealed that the volunteer on Indonesia Red Cross Tangerang branch has a personality Extraversion as many as 50 people with a percentage of 16.6%. The personality of the Agreeableness as much as 77 people with percentage of 25.5%. As many as 70 people Conscientiousness personality with a percentage of 23.3%. The personality Emotional Stability as much as 51 people with percentage of 16.9%. The personality of the Intellect or Imagination with the percentage 54 of 17.9%.

Then based on the results of the count per type a personality extraversion earned there are 144 people with percentage 47.7% in the low category, 89 people with 29.5% in the medium category, and 69 people with percentage 22.8% in the high category. In agreeableness are 68 people with a percentage of 22.5% in the low category, 120 people with a percentage of 39.7% pad category medium, and 114 people with percentage of 37.7% in the high category. There are 54 of conscientiousness for the percentage of 17.9% in the low category, 89 people with percentage of 29.5% in the medium category, and 159 people with percentage 52.6% on high kategori. For emotional stability there are 78 people with the percentage of 25.8% in the low category, 116 people with percentage of 38.4% in the medium category, and 108 people with percentage of 35.8% in the high category. For intellect or imagination there are 113 people with the percentage of 37.4% in the low category, 114 people with percentage of 37.7% in the medium category, and 75 people with percentage of 24.8% in the high category.

Thus it can be concluded that the type a personality extraversion is low with the percentage 47.7% is included in the low category. The type a personality Agreeableness is the percentage of 39.7% are included in the category of medium. Conscientiousness is the personality type with high percentage of 52.6% is included in the high category. Personality type emotional stability is moderate with a percentage of 38.4% is included in the category of medium. Personality type intellect or imagination is moderate with a percentage of 37.7% are included in the category of medium.

3.5 Self Regulation of Volunteer

To find out the level of self regulation within the volunteer researchers divide the 3 categories, namely high, medium, and low. After doing the calculation there are 120 volunteers with a percentage of 39.7% in the low category, 86 people volunteer with percentage of 28.5% in kaategori medium, and 96 people volunteer with percentage 31.8% in the high category. Based on these results it can be concluded that the level of self regulation in the volunteer on Indonesia Red Cross Tangerang branch is low because the percentage of 39.7% contains the low category.

3.6 Correlation between Big Personality with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.3
Correlation Big 5 Personality and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,131*	0,023

Table 4.3 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.131* and Sig value. (2-tailed) 0.023. It means that there is a correlation between big 5 personality with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) < 0,005 and pointed out that the first Hypothesis is accepted.

3.7 Correlation between Extraversion with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.4
Correlation Extraversion and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,023	0,688

Table 4.4 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.023 and Sig value. (2-tailed) 0.688. It means that there is not a correlation between extraversion with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) > 0,005 and pointed out that the second Hypothesis is not accepted.

3.8 Correlation between Agreeableness with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.5
Correlation Agreeableness and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,015	0,688

Table 4.5 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.015 and Sig. value. (2-tailed) 0.688. It means that there is not a correlation between agreeableness with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) > 0,005 and pointed out that the third Hypothesis is not accepted.

3.9 Correlation between Conscientiousness with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.6
Correlation Conscientiousness and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,152**	0,008

Table 4.6 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.152** and Sig. (2-tailed) 0.008. It means that there is a correlation between conscientiousness with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) < 0,005 and pointed out that the fourth Hypothesis is accepted.

3.10 Correlation between Emotional Stability with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.7
Correlation Emotional Stability and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,087	0,133

Table 4.7 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.087 and Sig. (2-tailed) 0.133. It means that there is not a correlation between emotional stability with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) > 0,005 and pointed out that the fifth Hypothesis is not accepted.

3.11 Correlation between Intellect or Imagination with Self Regulation

TABLE 4.8
Correlation Intellect or Imagination and Self Regulation

	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Spearman's rho	0,137*	0,017

Table 4.8 indicates that the value of the correlation coefficient is 0.137 and Sig. (2-tailed) 0.017. It means that there is a correlation between emotional stability with self regulation because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) $< 0,005$ and pointed out that the sixth Hypothesis is accepted.

Discussion

Based on the hypothesis test results and analysis on result obtained that value Sig. (2-tailed) for the correlation between extraversion personality type and self regulation is 0.688 ($> 0,005$) which means there is no significant correlation between extraversion and self regulation. Factors that can affect it is the score of extraversion type personality on volunteers is low because there are 144 people with percentage 47.7% the extraversion personality types are on the low score and according to the theory advanced by low scores on extraversion Golberg means the volunteers is a reticent person, task-oriented, and quiet. Another factor that makes the type a personality extraversion and self regulation has no correlation is the score low on self regulation within the meaning of volunteers the volunteers are less capable of receiving relevant information around them, have no ability to make plans as well as the attempt to resolve the problems that exist in him also in the achievement of the objectives it wants.

Then for the value of Sig. (2-tailed) between self regulation and agreeableness is 0.793 ($> 0,005$) which means there is no correlated between them. It can be influenced by personality type agreeableness volunteers who are at moderate category meaning that volunteers have a sense of wanting to help, especially in relation to performing disaster relief natural, good-hearted lebut, and towards others. It is not in correlated with a score of self regulation, owned by volunteers who are included into the category low so in some instances the personality type agreeableness can be a cynical, unsympathetic on others, and irritability. It can be caused by several factors such as the condition and provide disaster situations that may affect the moodnya, then the pressure that he received when having to survivors of natural disasters, where they have a big responsibility not only to itself but also to the people who ditolongnya and this gives rise to anxiety within her the volunteer.

Furthermore, the value of Sig. (2-tailed) for the correlation between conscientiousness and self regulation is 0.008 ($< 0,005$) which means there is a correlation between them. Factors that can affect this personality type score on conscientiousness is the volunteers are on a high category as there are 159 people with percentage 52.6% which means that volunteers are individuals who organised, disciplined, hard-working, and conscientious. It can help them in doing their job provide disaster that

does require high precision and discipline, they also have to work extra hard in helping pengekluasian disaster victims, they also have to work on a regular basis to victims of natural disasters that can be saved and they can also save themselves. Nevertheless, score low on self regulation within the volunteer has no relation with the result of the relationship between personality types conscientiousness with self regulation.

Next, the value of Sig. (2-tailed) on the correlation between emotional stability and self regulation are 0.133 ($> 0,005$) which means there is no correlation between them. Factors that may affect such matters is the score is in the personality types of emotional stability inside of volunteers is 116 people with percentage of 38.4% the volunteers include people who are calm, relaxed, and stable. Thus within the volunteer if counting results in terms of their emotions are stable and this personality type can control his emotions when they provide natural disasters and perform the tasks of his humanity. Although volunteers have a stable emotions that are not related to cell regulation volunteers who are on a low score means that even though it has stable emotions they still have difficulty in making plans and setting goals to specific titles, as well as having difficulty in resolving the their problems.

Then the value of Sig. (2-tailed) for the correlation between personality types intellect or imagination with self regulation is 0.017 ($<0,005$) which means there is a correlated between them. This can be affected by a score that is owned by intellect or imagination that there are 114 people with the percentage of 37.7% then the volunteers include individuals who are creative, imaginative, and has a fairly high intellectual. This can help them in doing the tasks of his humanity provide disasters and in accordance with the observations made by researchers at the time of disaster simulation exercise sessions undertaken by the volunteers that they must make sacrifices to raise a litter with two pieces of bamboo and a piece of string, then set up tents, a communal kitchen, also in help victims in order for the evacuation of the victims of natural disasters can be done efficiently and effectively. All it requires high creativity, as well as intellect who can help them in conducting all activities pengekluasian victims efficiently and effectively and to anticipate the growing number of casualties. Although the score on self regulation low so the volunteers have no effect in the relationship between them because maybe they are difficult to solve and rate specific goals in his personal life but due to the existence of a given training regarding its activities provide the disaster then it can help them think creatively and have a fairly high intellect.

Other factors that can affect different results between personality types in the big 5 personality with self regulation is the lack of experience in developing self regulation i.e. volunteers growing surroundings or House who do not teach about the development of self regulation itself, the presence of apathy that appears in a person, mood disorders such as mania or depression in this volunteer is likely to get depressed after seeing conditions and provide disaster situation also saw the condition of the victims of these disasters.

Conclusion

The conclusion in this research are there are correlation between the big 5 personality and self regulation, conscientiousness type personality with self regulation, and

intellect or imagination type personality with self regulation. But for extraversion with self regulation, agreeableness with self regulation, and emotional stability with self regulation it is not correlated. For the score of self regulation of volunteer in Indonesia Red Cross is low.



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The logo for the International Association of Forerunners (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a light blue, lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, semi-transparent arcs: a light blue one in the foreground and a light red one behind it, creating a sense of depth and movement.

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